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BASIC ISSUES IN SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT - I

Unit Structure :

1.0 OBJECTIVES

- Understanding social assessment
- Learning the various methods of social psychological assessment
- Gaining deeper insight into the methodological issues in social psychological assessment

1.1 WHAT IS SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT?

Social psychological assessment is a process used to evaluate and understand an individual's thoughts, feelings, and behaviours within a social context. It involves the application of principles and methods from social psychology to gather information about how people perceive, think about, and interact with others, as well as the influence of social factors on their behaviour.

Section 1.1 will explore the primary goals of social psychological assessment, along with various methods and tools that are used in social psychological assessment.

The primary goals of social psychological assessment include:

- **Understanding individual differences:** Assessments help identify how individuals differ in their social attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors. This information can be valuable in predicting how someone may respond in various social situations.

- **Exploring social influences:** Social psychologists examine how various social factors, such as culture, peer pressure, social norms, and situational context, influence an individual's behavior and decisions.

- **Identifying patterns and trends:** By using standardized measures and assessment tools, social psychologists can identify patterns of behavior or attitudes that are prevalent within specific populations or groups.

- **Predicting behavior:** Social psychological assessments can be used to predict how individuals might behave in certain social situations, providing valuable insights for designing interventions or understanding potential outcomes.

1.1.1 Common methods and tools used in social psychological assessment

- **Surveys and questionnaires:** These are standardized sets of questions designed to measure attitudes, beliefs, and behaviors related to specific social phenomena.

- **Observational studies:** Researchers or assessors directly observe and record people's behavior in natural or controlled social settings to gain insights into their interactions and responses.

- **Experimental designs:** Researchers manipulate certain social variables in controlled settings to examine their effects on participants' behavior and attitudes.

- **Interviews:** Structured or semi-structured interviews can be conducted to gain in-depth insights into an individual's social experiences, attitudes, and beliefs.

- **Psychological tests:** Certain standardized psychological tests, such as the Implicit Association Test (IAT), are used to assess implicit biases and attitudes.

Social psychological assessment is utilized in various fields, including clinical psychology, organizational psychology, educational psychology, and market research, among others. It aids in understanding the complex

interactions between individuals and their social environment, shedding light on the factors that influence human behaviour in social contexts.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:

- What are the goals of social psychological assessment?
- State the various tools used in social psychological assessment

1.2 QUALITATIVE VERSUS QUANTITATIVE DATA IN SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

In this section, we will look at what are qualitative data in social psychological assessment and what are the various methods to collect and analyse qualitative data in social psychological assessment. We will also look at what are quantitative data separately. Following this we will compare both types of data in social psychological assessment. So let us start understanding it step-by-step.

1.2.1 Qualitative data in social psychological assessment

Qualitative data in social psychology refers to information that is collected and analysed in a non-numerical or non-statistical form. Unlike quantitative data, which deals with measurable quantities and statistical analysis, qualitative data focuses on understanding the subjective experiences, attitudes, beliefs, and behaviours of individuals within a social context. This type of data is typically gathered through methods that allow researchers to gain deeper insights into people's thoughts and experiences.

Qualitative data is valuable in social psychology because it provides a rich and in-depth understanding of the complexities of human behaviour and social interactions. It allows researchers to explore the nuances of individuals' perspectives and motivations, providing context and meaning that quantitative data alone may not capture. By combining qualitative and quantitative approaches, social psychologists can gain a comprehensive understanding of social phenomena and human behaviour in various contexts.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:

- What is qualitative data?

Methods for collecting qualitative data in social psychological assessment

1) Interview Method

Researchers conduct one-on-one or group interviews with participants to explore their perspectives, attitudes, and experiences related to specific social phenomena.

The interview method is a widely used technique to collect qualitative data in social psychology. It involves conducting structured or semi-structured

interviews with individuals or groups to gain in-depth insights into their attitudes, beliefs, experiences, and perspectives related to a specific research topic.

Advantages of the interview method in social psychology include the ability to explore complex and nuanced social phenomena, access participants' personal experiences and emotions, and gain a deeper understanding of the social context under investigation. However, this method requires skilled interviewers who can build rapport with participants and maintain a neutral attitude to avoid biases that could influence responses.

2) Focus groups

A small group of participants engage in open discussions facilitated by a researcher, encouraging them to share their thoughts and feelings about a particular topic.

The focus group method is a qualitative data collection technique commonly used in social psychology and other social sciences. It involves bringing together a small group of participants (usually around 6 to 10) who share common characteristics or experiences relevant to the research topic. The participants engage in an open discussion led by a trained moderator, allowing researchers to gather in-depth qualitative data.

The focus group method offers a valuable opportunity to explore social phenomena from a group perspective, allowing for the exchange of ideas and the identification of shared beliefs, attitudes, and experiences. It also enables researchers to uncover shades and contradictions that may not emerge through individual interviews. However, like any qualitative method, the success of focus groups relies on skilled moderation, group dynamics, and appropriate participant selection.

3) Observations

Researchers directly observe and record people's behaviours, interactions, and reactions in natural or controlled social settings.

The observation method is a qualitative data collection technique used in social psychology to study human behaviour and interactions in natural or controlled social settings. In this method, researchers directly observe participants without interfering in their actions to gain insights into their behaviours, attitudes, and social dynamics.

The observation method offers valuable insights into real-life social interactions, allowing researchers to explore behaviours as they naturally occur. It is particularly useful for studying non-verbal communication, group dynamics, and behaviours that may be challenging to capture through interviews or surveys. However, the observation method also has limitations, such as potential observer bias and difficulties in capturing private or covert behaviours. Hence, researchers need to carefully design

their observation studies and interpret the data with an awareness of these limitations.

4) Open-ended questionnaires

Instead of using structured, closed-ended questions, researchers may use open-ended questions that allow participants to provide detailed responses in their own words.

The open-ended questionnaire method is a qualitative data collection technique used in social psychology to gather in-depth insights from participants. Unlike closed-ended questionnaires that offer limited response options, open-ended questionnaires allow participants to respond to questions using their own words and provide more detailed and nuanced answers.

Advantages of the open-ended questionnaire method in social psychology include the ability to gather rich, in-depth data from a relatively large number of participants. It allows researchers to explore a wide range of perspectives and experiences, providing a comprehensive understanding of the research topic. Additionally, the method can be cost-effective and less time-consuming compared to other qualitative data collection techniques like interviews or focus groups.

However, there are also some limitations to consider. Analysing a large volume of open-ended responses can be time-consuming and challenging. The quality of the data may depend on participants' willingness and ability to provide detailed responses. Researchers must carefully design the questions to ensure they are clear and focused to avoid ambiguity in the data collected.

5) Written or visual materials

Qualitative data can also be obtained from analysing written documents, such as diaries, letters, or social media posts, as well as from visual materials like photographs or videos.

The written or visual materials method is a qualitative data collection technique in social psychology that involves analysing written texts, visual materials, or any other form of non-verbal communication to gain insights into individuals' attitudes, beliefs, behaviours, and experiences within a social context. This method allows researchers to examine existing documents or objects to understand the social phenomena under investigation.

The Written or visual materials method is particularly useful when studying historical or cultural contexts, as it allows researchers to access rich data sources from various time periods. It also complements other qualitative methods, such as interviews and focus groups, by providing additional context and depth to the research findings. However, researchers should be mindful of potential biases or limitations in the

available materials and should strive to triangulate findings with data obtained through other methods.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:

- Define interview method and focus groups.
- What are the advantages of open-ended questionnaires?

Methods of analysing qualitative data

Once qualitative data is collected, researchers employ various techniques to analyse and interpret the information. Common qualitative data analysis methods in social psychology include:

1. **Thematic analysis:** Identifying recurring themes or patterns in the data to uncover underlying meanings and concepts.

2. **Grounded theory:** Developing theories or explanations directly from the data, allowing new insights to emerge from the participants' experiences.

3. **Content analysis:** Systematically categorizing and analysing the content of text or visual materials to identify key themes and trends.

4. **Narrative analysis:** Focusing on the stories and narratives shared by participants to understand how they construct their identities and make sense of their experiences.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:

- State the different methods of analyses of qualitative data

1.2.2 Quantitative data in social psychological assessment

Quantitative data in social psychology refers to information that is collected and represented in numerical form, allowing for statistical analysis and quantification of relationships between variables. This type of data involves measurable and objective attributes that can be expressed in terms of quantities or numerical values. Social psychologists use quantitative data to study and understand various social phenomena, test hypotheses, and draw statistical conclusions.

Examples of quantitative data in social psychology include:

- **Surveys with Likert scales:** Surveys often use Likert-type scales to measure participants' attitudes, opinions, and perceptions on a numerical scale (e.g., 1 to 5 or 0 to 10).

- **Numerical ratings:** Participants may provide numerical ratings or scores to indicate their level of agreement, satisfaction, or preference on a specific topic.

- **Count data:** Counting the number of times a particular behavior or event occurs, such as the number of positive interactions between individuals.

- **Quantitative behavioral observations:** Researchers use predefined categories to quantitatively record observed behaviors during social interactions.

- **Experimental data:** In experimental studies, quantitative data may include measurements of reaction times, accuracy, or performance on cognitive tasks related to social phenomena.

- **Demographic data:** Information about participants' age, gender, ethnicity, and other relevant characteristics is often collected in a quantitative format.

- **Statistical data from pre-existing sources:** Social psychologists may use publicly available datasets or data from previous studies for their quantitative analyses.

Quantitative data is typically analysed using statistical methods such as correlation, regression, t-tests, ANOVA (analysis of variance), and more advanced techniques like structural equation modelling. These statistical analyses help social psychologists identify patterns, relationships, and statistical significance in the data, enabling them to make data-driven conclusions and support or reject hypotheses.

Quantitative data is valuable in social psychology as it allows researchers to generalize findings to larger populations, establish cause-and-effect relationships, and provide precise and objective measurements. It complements qualitative data, which provides more in-depth insights into individual experiences and attitudes but may lack generalizability due to its subjective nature. By combining both quantitative and qualitative approaches, social psychologists can gain a comprehensive understanding of the complex social dynamics and behaviours they study.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:

- What are some of the examples of quantitative data in social psychology?

1.2.3 Comparison of qualitative and quantitative data

Here, we will compare the qualitative and quantitative data in terms of various parameters (Table 1.1), that will help us understand the characteristics of both types of data at a glance.

Table 1.1 Qualitative and quantitative data

		Qualitative Data	Quantitative Data
1)	Nature of Data	Qualitative data are non-numerical and consist of textual or narrative information. They provide detailed descriptions of participants' experiences, attitudes, and behaviours.	Quantitative data are numerical and can be measured and analysed using statistical methods. They represent measurable attributes and allow for objective comparisons and quantification.
2)	Data Collection Methods	They are often collected through methods such as interviews, focus groups, open-ended questionnaires, observations, and content analysis of written or visual materials.	They are collected through methods like surveys with closed-ended questions, experiments, behavioural observations with predefined categories, and the analysis of pre-existing numerical datasets.
3)	Sample Size	Typically,they involve smaller sample sizes due to the in-depth nature of data collection and analysis. The emphasis is on understanding the experiences and perspectives of a few individuals or groups.	They often involve larger sample sizes to achieve statistical power and generalizability of findings to larger populations
4)	Analysis Techniques	They involve identifying themes, patterns, and insights through techniques like thematic analysis, grounded theory, content analysis, or narrative analysis.	They employ statistical methods to test hypotheses, calculate correlations, perform inferential analyses (e.g., t-tests, ANOVA), and build predictive models (e.g., regression, structural equation modelling).

5)	Generalizability	They prioritize in-depth exploration and understanding of specific contexts, making it challenging to generalize findings to larger populations.	They aim at generalizability to larger populations by using random sampling and statistical techniques to draw valid inferences.
6)	Research Purpose	They are often exploratory and hypothesis-generating, providing rich insights into complex social phenomena and individual experiences.	They are hypothesis-testing and aim to establish cause-and-effect relationships and make objective comparisons.
7)	Strengths and Limitations	Their strengths include depth of understanding, capturing nuances, and generating new hypotheses. Their limitations include potential subjectivity, small sample sizes, and limited generalizability.	Their strengths include objectivity, statistical power, and generalizability. Their limitations include the potential for oversimplification and lack of in-depth insights.

Social psychology assessment often benefits from utilizing both qualitative and quantitative data, as they complement each other's strengths and weaknesses. Combining both approaches allows for a more comprehensive understanding of the complexities of human behaviour and social interactions.

1.3 METHODOLOGICAL PROBLEMS IN SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT

Social psychological assessment involves the systematic evaluation of individuals' thoughts, emotions, attitudes, and behaviours within a social context. While conducting assessments, researchers and practitioners should be aware of some basic issues to ensure the accuracy, ethicality, and usefulness of their assessments. Here are some key issues in social psychological assessment:

1. **Validity:** The assessment should measure what it intends to measure accurately. Researchers must ensure that the tools and methods used to gather data are valid and appropriate for the specific constructs they aim to assess.

2. **Reliability:** Reliability refers to the consistency and stability of measurement. It is essential to establish that the assessment methods yield consistent results over time and across different conditions.

3. **Bias and Stereotyping:** Social psychological assessment must be conducted with sensitivity to potential biases and stereotypes that may influence the interpretation of data. Researchers should strive for fairness and inclusivity in their assessments.

4. **Ethical Considerations:** Researchers must follow ethical guidelines to protect the rights and well-being of participants. This includes obtaining informed consent, ensuring confidentiality, and minimizing potential harm.

5. **Cultural Sensitivity:** Social psychological assessment should take into account cultural differences to avoid imposing Western norms or values on diverse populations. Cultural sensitivity ensures that assessments are relevant and respectful to various cultural groups.

6. **Ecological Validity:** Researchers should strive to assess behaviours and attitudes in naturalistic settings or contexts that are relevant to the participants' everyday lives. This enhances the ecological validity of the findings.

7. **Sample Representativeness:** The sample used in social psychological assessments should be representative of the target population to generalize findings more accurately.

8. **Social Desirability Bias:** Participants may provide responses that they perceive as socially desirable, leading to biased results. Researchers should use methods to minimize social desirability bias and promote more candid responses.

9. **Construct Validity:** The constructs being measured in social psychological assessments should be well-defined and grounded in theory. This ensures that the assessment accurately captures the intended psychological constructs.

10. **Subjectivity vs. Objectivity:** Social psychological assessments often involve the subjective interpretation of qualitative data. Researchers should strike a balance between subjective understanding and the objective analysis of quantitative data.

11. **Influence of Social Context:** Assessments in social psychology should consider the influence of social context on participants' responses and behaviour. Social context can significantly impact how individuals think, feel, and act.

Addressing these issues in social psychological assessment is essential for producing reliable and valid data that contributes meaningfully to our understanding of human behaviour and social interactions. Researchers and practitioners must remain vigilant and critical in their approach to ensure the highest standards of quality in their assessments.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:

- What are the basic issues of social psychological assessment?

1.3.1 Methodological problems in qualitative data

Qualitative data in social psychology assessment comes with its own set of methodological issues that researchers need to be aware of and address to ensure the validity and reliability of their findings. Some common methodological issues include:

1. **Researcher Bias:** The researcher's own beliefs, attitudes, and preconceptions may influence the data collection, analysis, and interpretation. Objectivity and reflexivity are crucial in addressing this issue.

2. **Sampling Bias:** Qualitative studies often use purposive sampling, which may lead to a biased selection of participants. Researchers should carefully consider the criteria for participant inclusion to ensure diverse and representative perspectives.

3. **Small Sample Size:** Qualitative studies usually involve smaller sample sizes, which may limit the generalizability of findings to larger populations. Researchers should acknowledge the scope of their study and avoid overgeneralizing results.

4. **Subjectivity of Interpretation:** Qualitative data analysis involves interpretation, which can be influenced by the researcher's perspectives. To enhance rigour, multiple researchers can independently analyse the data and compare their findings.

5. **Reliability and Reproducibility:** Ensuring consistency and reproducibility in qualitative research can be challenging due to the interpretative nature of data analysis. Researchers should document their analytical process thoroughly to enhance transparency.

6. **Data Saturation:** Determining when data saturation is achieved (i.e., when new data no longer provides additional insights) can be subjective. Researchers should carefully assess data saturation to determine sample size adequacy.

7. **Ethical Considerations:** Ethical issues in qualitative research include ensuring informed consent, protecting participants' confidentiality and privacy, and handling sensitive or emotionally challenging topics with care.

8. **Generalizability:** The focus of qualitative research is often on depth rather than breadth, which may limit the generalizability of findings to contexts beyond the studied population.

9. **Validity and Credibility:** Ensuring the credibility and trustworthiness of qualitative findings is crucial. Researchers can enhance validity

through triangulation (using multiple data sources or methods) and member checking (seeking participant feedback on findings).

10. **Data Recording and Transcription:** Accurate recording and transcription of qualitative data are essential to avoid misinterpretation of participants' responses. Researchers should carefully manage and transcribe audio or video recordings.

11. **Participant Reactivity:** Participants may modify their behaviour or responses due to their awareness of being observed or studied, leading to biased data.

To address these methodological issues, qualitative researchers should adhere to rigorous research practices, engage in reflexivity, employ transparency in data collection and analysis, and consider using mixed-method approaches to complement and validate qualitative findings. Ultimately, the awareness and careful management of these challenges contribute to the robustness and validity of qualitative data in social psychology assessment.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:

- What are some of the methodological issues of qualitative data?

1.3.2 Methodological problems in quantitative data

Methodological issues in quantitative data in social psychology assessment can have significant implications for the validity and reliability of research findings. Researchers must be mindful of these issues to ensure the accuracy and credibility of their studies. Some common methodological issues in quantitative data collection in social psychology assessment include:

1. **Sampling Bias:** If the sample used in the study is not representative of the target population, the findings may not be applicable or generalizable to the broader population. To mitigate this issue, researchers should use random sampling or carefully consider the characteristics of the sample and the population they intend to study.

2. **Response Bias:** Response bias occurs when participants provide answers that they believe are socially desirable or expected by the researcher, rather than their true opinions or behaviours. To minimize response bias, researchers can use anonymous surveys and assure participants that their responses will remain confidential.

3. **Social Desirability Bias:** This bias occurs when participants provide responses that present themselves in a more favourable light, often due to social norms or perceived expectations. Researchers can address this issue through the use of indirect questioning or the inclusion of items designed to detect socially desirable responses.

4. **Measurement Validity:** Measurement validity refers to the accuracy with which a test or instrument measures the constructs it intends to

assess. If the measures used in the study are not valid, the findings may not accurately reflect the variables of interest. Researchers should use well-established and validated measures or conduct pilot testing to ensure the validity of their instruments.

5. **Reliability:** Reliability refers to the consistency and stability of a measurement. If the measures used in the study are not reliable, the results may not be trustworthy. Researchers can assess reliability through methods such as test-retest reliability or internal consistency measures like Cronbach's alpha.

6. **Confounding Variables:** Confounding variables are extraneous factors that can influence the relationship between the independent and dependent variables. Failure to control for confounding variables can lead to erroneous conclusions. Researchers should use appropriate statistical techniques (e.g., regression analysis) or experimental design to account for potential confounders.

7. **Sampling Size:** An insufficient sample size can lead to low statistical power, making it difficult to detect significant effects even if they exist. Researchers should conduct power analyses to determine the appropriate sample size required to detect meaningful effects.

8. **Experimental Design Issues:** In experimental studies, issues such as selection bias, demand characteristics, and experimenter bias can threaten the internal validity of the research. Careful attention to the experimental design and procedures can help mitigate these issues.

9. **Publication Bias:** Publication bias occurs when studies with statistically significant results are more likely to be published, while studies with non-significant results are often not published. This can lead to an overestimation of effect sizes and a lack of representation of negative or null findings in the literature.

To enhance the quality of quantitative data in social psychology assessment, researchers should adopt rigorous methodologies, transparent reporting, and critical evaluation of potential biases and limitations. Adhering to best practices in data collection, analysis, and reporting helps ensure the reliability and validity of the research findings.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:

What are some of the methodological issues of quantitative data?

1.4 SUMMARY

Assessment in social psychology involves the systematic evaluation of individuals' thoughts, emotions, attitudes, and behaviours within a social context. It aims to understand social phenomena, interactions, and the influence of social factors on human behaviour. Researchers and practitioners use various methods to collect qualitative and quantitative data, including interviews, surveys, experiments, observations, and

questionnaires. These assessments help in understanding the complexities of human social behaviour and inform theories and interventions in the field.

Issues in social psychological assessment include issues regarding validity and reliability; bias and stereotyping; ethical considerations; cultural sensitivity; ecological validity; sample representativeness;social desirability bias; construct validity; subjectivity vs. objectivity; and influence of social context.

Addressing these issues is crucial for producing reliable and valid data, enhancing the credibility of research findings, and promoting ethical practices in social psychological assessment. By carefully navigating these challenges, social psychologists can gain valuable insights into the dynamics of human behaviour within social settings and contribute to the advancement of the field.

1.5 QUESTIONS

1. Explain social psychological assessment
2. Describe the common tools used in social psychological assessment
3. What are the advantages of a survey method?
4. What are focus groups?
5. Discuss in detail the methods of analyses of qualitative data
6. What are the differences between qualitative and quantitative data?
7. Describe the methodological issues of qualitative data

1.6 REFERENCES

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2

BASIC ISSUES IN SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT - II

Unit Structure :

2.0 OBJECTIVES

- To understand the ethics of assessment
- To establish a deeper understanding of ethics in assessment in social psychology
- To gain an understanding of online testing and the challenges in online testing

2.1 ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS IN ASSESSMENT

Definition of Ethics

Ethics in assessment within the context of social psychology refers to the moral principles, guidelines, and standards that researchers and practitioners in the field follow when conducting studies, experiments, surveys, or any other forms of data collection and analysis involving human participants. These ethical considerations are crucial to ensure that the well-being, rights, and dignity of participants are respected and protected throughout the research process.

Key Ethical Principles in Assessment within Social Psychology

1. Informed Consent:

Informed consent is a foundational ethical principle in the field of social psychology, ensuring that individuals who participate in research or assessments are fully aware of the purpose, procedures, potential risks, and benefits of the study before they agree to take part. Informed consent

is a crucial aspect of research ethics, emphasizing respect for participants' autonomy, rights, and well-being. It helps to protect participants from undue influence, compulsion, or harm and establishes a transparent and ethical relationship between researchers and participants.

The ethics of informed consent in assessment in social psychology is a critical safeguard that supports the rights, dignity, and well-being of research participants. It ensures that individuals are fully informed about the study's objectives, procedures, potential risks, and benefits, allowing them to make an autonomous and informed decision about their participation. Adhering to the principles of informed consent enhances the credibility, validity, and ethical integrity of research in social psychology.

The following are the key elements of informed consent:

- **Disclosure of Information:** Researchers must provide participants with clear, comprehensible, and accurate information about the purpose of the assessment, the procedures involved, the expected duration, and any potential risks or discomfort they might experience. This information should be presented in a language and format that participants can understand.

- **Voluntary Participation:** Participants must voluntarily agree to take part in the assessment without any form of pressure, coercion, or manipulation. They should be informed that their decision to participate or withdraw from the assessment will not result in any negative consequences or loss of benefits.

- **Understanding and Comprehension:** Researchers should ensure that participants understand the provided information before agreeing to participate. This might involve using simple language and offering opportunities for participants to ask questions about any aspects they do not comprehend.

- **Capacity to Consent:** Researchers need to ensure that participants have the cognitive capacity to provide informed consent. This is particularly important when dealing with vulnerable populations, such as minors, individuals with cognitive impairments, or those in compromised mental states.

- **Anonymity and Confidentiality:** Researchers must explain how they plan to protect participants' privacy and confidentiality. This might include the use of pseudonyms, secure data storage, and protocols for reporting results in a comprehensive form to prevent the identification of individual participants.

- **Potential Benefits and Risks:** Researchers should provide the details of the potential benefits of the assessment, both to the individual participant and to the advancement of knowledge in social psychology. Disclosing any potential risks, discomfort, or negative emotional

reactions that participants might experience is equally important when talking about potential benefits and risks to them.

- **Right to Withdraw:** Participants should be informed of their right to withdraw from the assessment at any point without penalty or negative consequences. This reaffirms the principle of voluntary participation and individual autonomy.

- **Contact Information:** Researchers should provide their contact information (such as email or phone number) to the participants so that participants can reach out if they have additional questions or concerns after the assessment.

- **Alternative Participation:** If applicable, researchers can offer alternative methods of participation that do not involve exposure to potentially distressing stimuli or situations. This helps to accommodate participants who may have sensitivities or preferences.

- **Implementation:** Informed consent is typically obtained through a written consent form that participants review and sign. In some cases, oral consent might be appropriate, especially in situations where written documentation is not possible (e.g., phone surveys). Researchers should document the informed consent process to demonstrate ethical conduct and compliance with research regulations.

2. Minimization of Harm:

The ethic of minimization of harm in assessment within the field of social psychology is a guiding principle that emphasizes the need to reduce or eliminate potential negative effects and risks associated with research activities, particularly when studying human behaviour, attitudes, and emotions. This ethical principle emphasizes the researcher's responsibility to prioritize the well-being and dignity of study participants while still pursuing valuable scientific insights.

Researchers have a responsibility to minimize any potential physical, psychological, or emotional harm that participants might experience during the study. This involves avoiding practices that could lead to distress or negative consequences.

In more detail, the ethic of minimization of harm encompasses several key components:

- **Risk Assessment:** Researchers need to carefully assess potential risks associated with the study, including psychological, emotional, social, and physical harms. This assessment should consider factors such as the nature of the study, the characteristics of the participants, and the potential for unintended consequences.

- **Benefit-Risk Ratio:** Researchers must weigh the potential benefits of the research against the potential risks to participants. The benefits of

the study should justify any potential discomfort, stress, or harm that participants might experience. If the potential risks outweigh the benefits, the research design might need to be revised or the study reconsidered.

- **Confidentiality and Anonymity:** Protecting participants' confidentiality and anonymity is crucial for minimizing harm. Researchers should ensure that participants' personal information and responses remain confidential and that their identities cannot be linked to their data. This helps prevent potential negative consequences, such as social or professional repercussions.

- **Debriefing:** After the study is complete, researchers should provide participants with a debriefing session. During this session, participants are informed about the true purpose of the study, the rationale for any deception used, and a summary of the findings. This helps participants understand the research process and address any concerns or misconceptions that may have arisen during the study.

- **Voluntary Participation:** Participation in research should always be voluntary. Participants should never be forced, pressured, or manipulated to participate. Researchers should ensure that participants feel free to withdraw from the study at any point without facing negative consequences.

- **Vulnerable Populations:** Special consideration should be given to vulnerable populations, such as children, individuals with cognitive impairments, and individuals from marginalized or disadvantaged backgrounds. Additional precautions may be necessary to safeguard their well-being and rights.

- **Ethical Review:** Institutional Review Boards (IRBs) or Ethics Committees play a crucial role in assessing and approving research protocols. Researchers should submit their proposed studies for ethical review to ensure that potential harms are minimized and ethical guidelines are followed.

By adhering to the ethic of minimization of harm, social psychologists strive to conduct research that contributes to the understanding of human behaviour while upholding the ethical standards necessary to protect participants' well-being and dignity. This approach helps maintain public trust in scientific research and promotes the responsible advancement of knowledge in the field of social psychology.

3. Confidentiality and Anonymity:

Participant information must be kept confidential, and their identities should be protected, unless explicit permission is obtained. Anonymity ensures that no personally identifiable information is linked to the data collected.

Confidentiality and anonymity are two important ethical principles that guide the conduct of assessments in the field of social psychology. These principles are crucial for maintaining the integrity of research and protecting the rights and well-being of research participants. Let us explore the details of each principle:

- **Confidentiality:**

Confidentiality refers to the obligation of researchers to protect the privacy of the information provided by participants in a study. This principle ensures that any personal or sensitive information shared by participants during the research process is kept confidential and not disclosed to unauthorized individuals. Researchers are ethically bound to take measures that prevent the identification of individual participants from their responses or data.

Key aspects of confidentiality in social psychology assessment include:

- **Data Protection:** Researchers must implement secure data storage and transmission procedures to prevent unauthorized access or disclosure of participants' data. This could involve using password-protected databases or encryption methods.

- **Anonymizing Data:** Personal identifiers such as names, contact details, and any other information that could link responses to specific individuals should be removed or replaced with unique codes. This prevents anyone, including the researchers themselves, from identifying individual participants.

- **Limited Access:** Researchers should limit access to the collected data to only those individuals directly involved in the research process. This may involve using access controls and ensuring that only authorized personnel have permission to handle the data.

- **Anonymity:**

Anonymity goes a step further than confidentiality by ensuring that participants' identities are completely unknown and untraceable. In an anonymous research study, even the researchers themselves cannot link specific responses to individual participants.

Key aspects of anonymity in social psychology assessment include:

- **Unlinkable Data:** Anonymity is achieved by never collecting any personal identifiers in the first place. Participants are identified solely by non-identifiable codes or labels. This prevents any possibility of matching responses to specific individuals.

- **Aggregate Reporting:** Findings are often reported in aggregate form, where data from multiple participants are combined to present overall trends and patterns. This further ensures that individual responses cannot be singled out.

- **Securing Communication:** Researchers should ensure that any communication with participants is conducted in a way that maintains their anonymity. For instance, if electronic surveys are used, IP addresses and other digital traces should be carefully managed to prevent identification.

Both confidentiality and anonymity are critical in preventing potential harm to participants and in building trust between researchers and participants. Adhering to these ethical principles demonstrates a commitment to the well-being and rights of those who contribute to the research process. Researchers and institutions are responsible for establishing clear protocols and procedures to uphold these principles throughout the assessment process in social psychology research.

4. Deception:

Deception should be used sparingly and justified only when necessary for the research question. If deception is used, researchers must fully debrief participants afterwards, explaining the true purpose of the study and addressing any concerns or misconceptions.

5. Debriefing:

Debriefing in assessment is a crucial ethical practice within the realm of social psychology. It involves providing participants with comprehensive information and insights after they have participated in a research study or experiment. This practice aims to fulfill ethical obligations, ensure participant well-being, and maintain the integrity of the research process. Debriefing is particularly essential in social psychology, where studies often involve manipulating participants' thoughts, feelings, or behaviours, potentially leading to emotional or psychological effects.

The primary purpose of debriefing is to provide participants with relevant information about the study they have just participated in. This information typically includes the study's objectives, hypotheses, methodologies, and any potential manipulations that were employed.

Debriefing serves the following several critical functions:

- **Informed Consent:** Debriefing ensures that participants are fully informed about the nature of the study and any deceptive elements used during the experiment. This allows participants to make informed decisions about their involvement and provides them with an opportunity to withdraw their data if they feel uncomfortable.

- **Transparency:** Debriefing fosters transparency by clarifying the research process. Participants gain a clear understanding of how their data will be used, which helps build trust between researchers and participants.

- **Ethical Responsibility:** Researchers have an ethical obligation to minimize any potential harm caused during the study. Debriefing

provides a platform to address any discomfort, distress, or negative emotions experienced by participants during the experiment.

- **Educational Opportunity:** Debriefing offers participants the chance to learn more about the research field, the scientific process, and the reasons behind the design of the study. This educational aspect can lead to increased participant satisfaction and a positive attitude toward research.

A comprehensive debriefing session generally includes the following components:

- **Explanation of Purpose:** Researchers explain the objectives of the study, its relevance to the field, and its potential contributions to understanding human behaviour. This context helps participants see the bigger picture and appreciate their role in the research process.

- **Methodology:** Researchers provide the detailsof the methods used, such as experimental manipulations, measures taken, and data collection procedures. This transparency ensures that participants are aware of what emerged during the study.

- **Deception and Manipulation:** If any deception or manipulation was involved, researchers disclose the true nature of the study to participants. This helps mitigate any potential feelings of distrust that may arise due to misleading information.

- **Results:** While not always possible due to research design, providing participants with general results or findings from the study can be informative and fulfilling for them. This transparency contributes to the educational aspect of debriefing.

- **Q&A and Participant Feedback:** Researchers allow participants to ask questions, share their thoughts, and express any concerns they may have. This interactive process reinforces the participant's agency and addresses any misconceptions.

- **Resources:** Researchers offer participants information about relevant sources, literature, or further reading related to the study. This empowers participants to continue learning about the topic on their own.

Timing of Debriefing:

Debriefing ideally occurs immediately after the participant completes their involvement in the study. This prompt debriefing is particularly essential if the study involves emotional or potentially distressing content. However, in some cases, delayed debriefing might be necessary, such as when it could interfere with the study's objectives or when sensitive topics are discussed.

Debriefing in assessment within the realm of social psychology is a multifaceted ethical practice that goes beyond mere disclosure of information. It is a process that aims to uphold participant rights, ensure ethical research conduct, and promote a positive research experience. By providing participants with the necessary information, addressing their concerns, and fostering transparency, researchers can maintain the integrity of their studies while safeguarding the well-being of those who contribute to scientific progress.

6. Fair Treatment:

Participants should be treated fairly and without discrimination. Their involvement in research should not be influenced by factors such as race, gender, age, socioeconomic status, or any other personal characteristic.

7. Beneficence:

The ethics of beneficence within the context of assessment in social psychology refers to the ethical principle that emphasizes the importance of maximizing well-being and positive outcomes for individuals and society as a whole during the process of conducting assessments and research. It is one of the fundamental principles that guide ethical behaviour in research and psychological assessments. The principle of beneficence ensures that researchers and practitioners prioritize the welfare and interests of participants, striving to do good and prevent harm.

Some components include:

- **Maximizing Benefits:** Researchers should actively seek to maximize the benefits that participants and society can gain from their research. This might involve generating new knowledge that could lead to improvements in social understanding, policies, interventions, or other practical applications. Assessments should contribute positively to the advancement of knowledge and societal well-being.

- **Balancing Risks and Benefits:** Researchers need to carefully evaluate the potential risks and benefits of an assessment or research study. If the potential harm outweighs the potential benefits, the study might not be ethically justifiable. This evaluation ensures that participants are not subjected to unnecessary risks.

- **Equitable Distribution of Benefits and Risks:** Researchers should strive to ensure that the potential benefits and risks of participation are distributed fairly across different groups within society. No particular group should disproportionately bear the burden of risks while others receive most of the benefits.

- **Continuous Monitoring:** Throughout the assessment process, researchers should continually monitor participants' well-being and any potential negative effects. If unforeseen harm emerges, researchers have a responsibility to take appropriate actions to mitigate it.

- **Confidentiality and Privacy:** Respecting participants' privacy and confidentiality is an essential aspect of beneficence. Participants' personal information and responses should be kept secure to prevent any harm that might arise from the inadvertent disclosure of sensitive information.

In summary, the ethic of beneficence in assessment within social psychology underscores the responsibility of researchers and assessors to prioritize the well-being of participants, maximize benefits, and minimize potential harm. This principle guides the ethical planning, execution, and evaluation of research and assessments to ensure that they contribute positively to both scientific knowledge and the welfare of individuals and society.

8. Respect for Autonomy:

Participants have the right to make their own decisions regarding participation. Researchers should respect participants' choices, and coercion or undue pressure to participate should be avoided.

The ethic of "Respect for Autonomy" is a fundamental principle in ethical considerations, particularly in the field of social psychology and research involving human subjects. This principle emphasizes the importance of treating individuals as autonomous agents who are capableof making informed decisions about their own participation in research and other activities that may affect them. It is a foundation of ethical practice, especially in areas where individuals' psychological well-being and personal information are involved.

The ethic of "Respect for Autonomy" entails several key elements:

- **Voluntary Participation:** Participation in research should be entirely voluntary, without any form of compulsion or pressure. Individuals should feel free to decline participation without facing negative consequences or judgment.

- **Disclosure of Information:** Researchers must disclose all relevant information that might influence an individual's decision to participate. This includes providing details about data collection methods, potential risks to confidentiality, and any foreseeable consequences of participating.

- **Capacity to Understand:** Researchers should ensure that participants have the cognitive capacity to understand the information presented to them. This is particularly important when working with vulnerable populations, such as minors or individuals with cognitive impairments.

- **Privacy and Confidentiality:** Participants' personal information, responses, and identities should be treated with strict confidentiality. Researchers should outline the measures in place to protect participants' privacy and maintain data security.

- **Right to Withdraw:** Participants have the right to withdraw from a study at any point without facing consequences. Researchers should clearly communicate this right and ensure that participants understand they can exit the study without explanation.

- **Minimization of Harm:** Researchers must take measures to minimize any potential physical, psychological, or emotional harm to participants. If there is a possibility of distress or harm, researchers should address these concerns and provide appropriate support.

- **Deception and Debriefing:** If deception is necessary for the study, researchers should thoroughly debrief participants afterwards, explaining the true purpose of the study and addressing any concerns or misconceptions that might have arisen.

- **Equitable Treatment:** Researchers should ensure that all participants are treated fairly and respectfully, regardless of their background, characteristics, or opinions.

- **Review and Oversight:** Research involving human participants should undergo ethical review by institutional review boards (IRBs) or ethics committees. These bodies evaluate the study's ethical considerations and ensure that the rights and well-being of participants are safeguarded.

Thus, the ethic of "Respect for Autonomy" in assessment within social psychology stresses the significance of treating individuals as independent decision-makers and prioritizes their well-being and rights in any research or assessment effort. Researchers must uphold this principle by seeking informed consent, protecting privacy, minimizing harm, and ensuring participants are treated with dignity and respect throughout the research process.

9. Institutional Review Board (IRB) Approval:

Many research institutions require studies involving human participants to be reviewed and approved by an IRB or an ethics review board. The IRB ensures that the study adheres to ethical principles and guidelines.

10. Transparent Reporting:

The ethic of transparent reporting in assessment within the field of social psychology emphasizes openness, clarity, and accuracy in the reporting of research methodologies, findings, and results. This ethic is rooted in the principles of scientific integrity, reproducibility, and the advancement of knowledge. Transparent reporting ensures that the research process and outcomes are clearly communicated and enables other researchers to critically evaluate, replicate, and build upon the findings. This level of transparency enhances the credibility and reliability of social psychology research, ultimately contributing to the cumulative growth of the field's understanding of human behaviour and social phenomena.

The following are the key components of transparent reporting in assessment in social psychology:

- **Methodological Transparency:** Researchers are expected to provide a detailed description of the research methods used in their studies. This includes information about study design, sampling methods, participant recruitment, measures and instruments employed, and experimental procedures. By offering a comprehensive account of these aspects, researchers allow others to assess the validity and reliability of their methods.

- Data Collection and Analysis: Transparent reporting involves disclosing information about data collection procedures, such as the timing and conditions under which data were collected. It also entails detailing the data analysis process, including any statistical tests or techniques employed. This transparency helps others understand how conclusions were drawn from the data and promotes replicability.

- **Inclusion of Negative or Non-Significant Results:** The ethic of transparent reporting encourages researchers to include not only positive or statistically significant findings but also negative or non-significant results. This practice prevents publication bias and ensures that the full scope of research outcomes is available to the scientific community, preventing others from unknowingly pursuing unfruitful avenues of research.

- **Full Disclosure of Conflicts of Interest:** Researchers must disclose any potential conflicts of interest that could influence the research process or its outcomes. This might include financial relationships, affiliations, or personal beliefs that could impact the objectivity of the research.

- **Open Data and Materials Sharing:** Transparent reporting also extends to sharing the raw data, research materials, and protocols used in the study. This facilitates the reproducibility of findings and allows other researchers to verify the results independently.

- **Clear Presentation of Results:** The reporting of results should be clear and accurate. Researchers should present their findings in a way that is easy to understand, using appropriate tables, figures, and statistical measures. This helps readers assess the significance and implications of the results.

- **Discussion of Limitations:** Openly acknowledging the limitations of the study is a crucial aspect of transparent reporting. This includes addressing potential biases, methodological constraints, and any uncertainties in the interpretation of the results. It helps contextualize the findings and prevents overgeneralization.

The following are the benefits of transparent reporting in assessment in social psychology:

- **Enhanced Reproducibility:** Transparent reporting allows other researchers to replicate studies, confirming the validity and reliability of the findings. This is a foundation of scientific progress.

- **Reduced Researcher Bias:** Transparent reporting promotes objectivity by providing a clear account of the research process, minimizing the potential for researchers to selectively report or interpret results.

- **Improved Collaboration:** Researchers who share their methods, data, and materials contribute to a culture of collaboration and knowledge exchange within the scientific community.

- **Credibility and Trust:** Transparent reporting enhances the credibility of researchers and their work, building trust among peers and the wider public.

- **Methodological Advancement:** By openly discussing research limitations and challenges, the field can identify areas for improvement and develop more robust methodologies over time.

Thus, the ethic of transparent reporting in assessment in social psychology is a foundational principle that upholds the highest standards of scientific rigour and integrity. By adhering to these principles, researchers contribute to the advancement of knowledge and the establishment of a solid empirical foundation for understanding the complexities of human behaviour within social contexts.

Incorporating these ethical considerations into the assessment process in social psychology helps ensure that research is conducted responsibly, with the well-being of participants as a top priority.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:

1. Define ethics in assessment in social psychology.
2. State the various ethical principles of testing in assessment in social psychology.

2.2 OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES IN ONLINE TESTING

2.2.1 Opportunities in Online Testing

Online testing has brought about numerous opportunities for assessing social psychology in a more efficient, flexible, and comprehensive manner. This shift from traditional paper-and-pencil tests to online platforms has revolutionized the field of assessment, offering several

advantages for both researchers and participants. Beloware the opportunities for online testing in detail:

1. Accessibility and Convenience:

Online testing removes geographical barriers, enabling researchers to reach a broader and more diverse pool of participants. This diversity enhances the generalizability of research findings. Participants can take tests from the comfort of their homes, reducing the need for physical presence and accommodating various schedules.

2. Data Collection Efficiency:

Online assessments streamline data collection processes. Researchers can collect data from a larger number of participants in a shorter time frame compared to traditional methods. This increased efficiency is particularly valuable for large-scale studies or projects that require rapid data collection.

3. Reduced Costs:

Online testing eliminates the need for printing materials and distributing surveys, significantly reducing costs related to materials, postage, and personnel. This allows researchers to allocate resources to other aspects of their studies.

4. Automated Scoring and Data Management:

Online assessments often come with automated scoring systems. This not only reduces human error in scoring but also facilitates data analysis by automatically compiling and organizing responses, making statistical analyses more efficient.

5. Real-time Monitoring:

Researchers can monitor participants' progress in real-time during online assessments. This allows for early identification of any issues, such as participants misunderstanding instructions or encountering technical difficulties. Researchers can intervene promptly to ensure data quality.

6. Multimedia Integration:

Online platforms support the integration of multimedia elements such as images, videos, and interactive content. This enables researchers to create more engaging and ecologically valid assessments, simulating real-world social situations more effectively.

7. Customization and Randomization:

Online assessments allow for the randomization of question orders, response options, and stimuli presentation. This minimizes order effects and response biases, leading to more accurate and reliable data.

8. Adaptive Testing:

Adaptive testing involves adjusting the difficulty of questions based on participants' responses. Online platforms can implement adaptive algorithms, tailoring the test to each participant's skill level. This results in more accurate and efficient assessments of individual abilities.

9. Longitudinal Studies:

Online testing facilitates longitudinal research by allowing researchers to administer assessments at multiple time points to the same participants without the logistical challenges of physical meetings. This helps study changes and developments in social psychological phenomena over time.

10. Ethical Considerations:

Online testing can help lessen the issues related to experimenter bias and demand characteristics. Participants may feel more comfortable and less susceptible to social desirability bias when responding privately online, leading to more authentic responses.

11. Data Security and Privacy:

Advances in online security protocols help protect participants' personal information and responses. Secure data encryption and storage reassure participants about the confidentiality of their data, encouraging participation.

12. Data Visualization and Analysis:

Online assessments generate digital data that can be easily imported into statistical analysis software for visualization and further analysis. This enables researchers to explore patterns, trends, and relationships more effectively.

13. International Collaboration:

Online testing allows for collaboration across different geographical locations, making it easier for researchers from different parts of the world to work together on cross-cultural or international studies.

Thus, the opportunities for online testing in social psychology assessment are vast and impactful. From increased accessibility and efficiency to enhanced customization and data security, online platforms have revolutionized how researchers approach data collection and analysis in the field of social psychology. However, it's important to acknowledge that online testing also comes with challenges such as ensuring data quality, dealing with potential technical issues, and addressing the digital divide that might limit access for certain populations.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:

1. Briefly describe the various opportunities in online testing

2.2.2 Challenges in Online Testing

Online testing in the assessment of social psychology presents both advantages and challenges. While it offers convenience and scalability, there are several significant challenges that researchers and educators must consider:

1. Participant Authenticity and Honesty:

Online assessments may lack the face-to-face interaction that encourages participants to be honest and authentic in their responses. Participants might provide socially desirable answers or engage in response distortion, leading to biased results. Additionally, the absence of an experimenter's presence could reduce the sense of accountability for truthful responses.

2. Participant Sampling and Diversity:

Online testing can attract a specific demographic, potentially biasing the sample towards certain age groups, technological backgrounds, or cultural contexts. This can limit the generalizability of findings, as social psychological theories often depend on the diversity of participants for robust conclusions.

3. Controlled Experimental Environment:

In a traditional laboratory setting, researchers can carefully control environmental variables to ensure the validity of their experiments. Online testing poses challenges in controlling factors like noise, distractions, and participants' surroundings, potentially introducing confounding variables that can compromise the internal validity of the study.

4. Technical Challenges:

Online assessments depend heavily on technology and internet connectivity. Technical issues, such as browser compatibility, slow internet connections, or device differences, can affect the reliability and validity of the data collected. Participants who encounter technical difficulties may drop out of the study, leading to incomplete data.

5. Ethical Considerations:

Ensuring participant privacy and informed consent is crucial in online testing. Researchers must navigate issues like obtaining proper consent, protecting participants' personal information, and ensuring secure data transmission and storage. The dynamic nature of the online environment makes it challenging to guarantee the same level of ethical oversight as in traditional laboratory settings.

6. Experimenter Control and Demand Characteristics:

Online testing reduces the experimenter’s control over the participant's environment, making it difficult to prevent demand characteristics—cues that lead participants to infer the purpose of the study and alter their

behaviour accordingly. Participants may engage in behaviours they believe the researchers expect, compromising the study's validity.

7. Social Desirability Bias:

Social desirability bias is the bias where participants provide answers that they believe are socially acceptable and can be intensified in online assessments. The lack of direct interaction with an experimenter might lead participants to assume that their responses are less likely to be scrutinized, potentially increasing the likelihood of biased responses.

8. Data Quality and Reliability:

Online testing raises concerns about data quality and the accuracy of participant responses. Researchers might have limited ability to verify the veracity of participant claims or responses. The absence of experimenter oversight can also reduce the participant's motivation to provide accurate and thoughtful responses.

9. Response Time and Attention Span:

Online participants might not devote the same level of attention and engagement as they would in a controlled laboratory setting. Shortened attention spans and multitasking could lead to incomplete or less thoughtful responses, impacting the quality of data collected.

10. Replication and Validity:

Replicating social psychology experiments is essential for validating findings. Online testing could introduce variability due to differences in online platforms, participant backgrounds, or technological setups, making direct replications more challenging and potentially compromising the overall validity of the field.

To address these challenges, researchers must implement strategies such as careful participant recruitment, clear instructions, robust statistical analyses, and thoughtful consideration of the limitations inherent to online testing. Combining online testing with complementary methods and acknowledging its limitations can help mitigate some of these challenges and enhance the validity of social psychological research conducted in online settings.

CHECK YOUR PROGRESS:

1. Discuss the challenges in online testing

2.3 SUMMARY

The ethical principles of assessment in social psychology encompass guidelines and standards that researchers and practitioners adhere to in order to ensure the responsible and respectful conduct of assessments and studies involving human participants. These principles are designed to

protect participants' well-being, autonomy, and rights while advancing the knowledge in the field.

These ethical principles guide social psychologists in conducting studies that contribute to the understanding of social behaviour while keeping the rights and well-being of participants. Adhering to these principles helps maintain the credibility and integrity of social psychological research. Online testing in social psychology assessment offers benefits such as accessibility, cost-effectiveness, and data collection efficiency. However, challenges related to sampling bias, lack of control, technical issues, and ethical concerns must be carefully considered and addressed to ensure the validity and reliability of the collected data.

2.4 QUESTIONS

1. Define ethics in assessment in social psychology.
2. State the key principles of ethics in assessment in social psychology.
3. Define informed consent.
4. Describe the various key elements of informed consent.
5. What is the minimization of harm? Discuss the key components.
6. Define confidentiality and anonymity.
7. Enumerate the key components of confidentiality and anonymity.
8. Explain the purpose and process of debriefing.
9. What are the functions of debriefing? Explain.
10. What is beneficence?
11. Which is one of the most fundamental principles of ethics in assessment in social psychology?
12. What are the components and benefits of transparent reporting in assessment in social psychology?
13. Discuss the opportunities in online testing.
14. What are the challenges in online testing?

2.5 REFERENCES

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3

ASSESSMENT METHODS USING QUALITATIVE APPROACH - I

Unit structure :

3.0 INTRODUCTION

Qualitative assessment in social psychology involves exploring and understanding human behaviour and experiences through non-numerical data, such as interviews, observations, and textual analysis. It focuses on the depth and richness of information which is often used to uncover underlying meanings, attitudes, and social processes.

3.1 CASE STUDY AS A METHOD OF ASSESSMENT

Case studies are a valuable method of assessment in social psychology. They offer an in-depth exploration of individuals or groups within their real-life context.

Case studies aim at and provide the following:

1. **Detailed Insight:** Case studies provide a rich, detailed insight into the lives, behaviours, and experiences of individuals or groups. Researchers can investigate deeply into specific cases that uncover those shadeswhich may not be apparent through other research methods.

2. **Contextual Understanding:** They allow for a thorough examination of the social and environmental context in which the behaviour or phenomenon of interest occurs. This contextual understanding is crucial for comprehending the factors influencing behaviour.

3. **Complex Phenomena:** Case studies are particularly useful when studying complex or rare phenomena that cannot be easily replicated or studied through quantitative methods. They offer a way to explore unique situations.

4. **Hypothesis Generation:** Case studies can generate hypotheses or theories that can be tested through further research. They often serve as a starting point for broader investigations.

5. **Mixed Methods:** Researchers can use a combination of qualitative and quantitative data within a case study, providing a more comprehensive understanding of the subject.

6. **Real-World Applicability:** Findings from case studies can have direct real-world applicability and inform interventions, policies, or therapeutic approaches. Thus, they connect academic research to practical solutions.

7. **Ethical Considerations:** Conducting case studies requires careful attention to ethical considerations, such as obtaining informed consent, ensuring privacy, and protecting the well-being of participants.

However, there are a few limitations to case studies.Case studies may lack generalizability because they focus on specific cases, which makes it challenging to apply findings to broader populations. Additionally, they can be time-consuming and resource-intensive.

3.1.1 The Process of Case Studies

Certainly, conducting case studies of clients is a valuable method of assessment in social psychology. Case studies involve an in-depth examination of an individual or a small group over an extended period.

The process involves the following steps:

1. **Selection of Participants:** Researchers choose clients or individuals who have experienced a particular psychological or social phenomenon of interest. Selection should be based on the relevance of the case to the research question.

2. **Informed Consent:** Ethical considerations are crucial. Researchers must obtain informed consent from the clients, explaining the purpose, procedures, and potential risks of the case study.

3. **Data Collection:** Various data sources are used for data collection, including interviews, observations, documents (e.g., medical records or diaries), and sometimes psychological assessments. Researchers may employ multiple methods to gather comprehensive information.

4. **Longitudinal Approach:** Case studies often span an extended period, allowing researchers to observe changes and developments in the client's life or behaviour over time. This longitudinal approach provides valuable insights.

5. **Data Analysis:** Researchers employ qualitative analysis techniques, such as thematic analysis or content analysis, to identify patterns, themes, and significant information within the collected data.

6. **Triangulation:** To enhance the validity of the findings, researchers may use triangulation, which involves comparing data from different sources or using multiple researchers to analyze and interpret the data.

7. **Contextualization:** The case is examined within its broader social and psychological context. Researchers consider factors like the client's background, culture, and environment to understand the influences on their **experiences and behaviour.**

8. **Rich Description:** The case study report includes rich descriptions of the client's experiences, emotions, and behaviours, often supplemented with direct quotes or excerpts from interviews.

9. **Theory Development:** Case studies can contribute to theory development by providing detailed, real-world examples that illustrate and expand upon existing theories or generate new ones.

10. **Ethical Considerations:** Throughout the process, researchers must ensure the ethical treatment of participants, including maintaining confidentiality and addressing any ethical dilemmas that may arise.

11. **Findings and Implications:** The final report summarizes the findings; discusses their implications for social psychology or clinical practice; and may suggest recommendations for interventions or further research.

Case studies are particularly useful when researchers aim to explore complex, unique, or rare phenomena, as they allow for an in-depth examination of individual experiences. However, it is essential to recognize that case studies have limitations, including difficulties in generalizing findings to broader populations due to their unique and context-specific nature.

3.2 FOCUS GROUPS DISCUSSION

Focus groups discussions are a qualitative research method commonly used in social psychology and other fields to assess attitudes, perceptions, and behaviours within a group context.

3.2.1 Key Components of Focus Groups

1. **Participant Selection:** Researchers choose a group of participants who share relevant characteristics or experiences related to the research topic. Typically, focus groups consist of 6 to 12 participants to encourage active discussion.

2. **Moderator:** A skilled moderator facilitates the discussion. This individual guides the conversation, encourages participants to express their thoughts, and ensures that the discussion stays on track.

3. **Structured Format:** Focus group discussions follow a structured format with a predefined set of open-ended questions or topics. These questions are designed to elicit participants' opinions, experiences, and emotions related to the research topic.

4. **Interactive Environment:** Participants engage in a dynamic and interactive conversation with one another. This format allows for the exploration of diverse perspectives and the emergence of shared or conflicting viewpoints.

5. **Group Dynamics:** Focus groups influence group dynamics to uncover social influences, normative behaviours, and consensus or dispute within the group. Participants often react to each other's statements, providing insights into social processes.

6. **Anonymity and Disclosure:** Participants may remain anonymous to each other or choose to disclose their identities, depending on the study's design. Anonymity can encourage honest and open discussion, especially on sensitive topics.

7. **Recording and Analysis:** Focus group discussions are typically audio or video-recorded for later analysis. Researchers transcribe the recordings and analyze the data using qualitative methods like thematic analysis or content analysis.

8. **Data Synthesis:** The researcher identifies themes, patterns, and commonalities within the discussions. These findings can provide valuable insights into shared beliefs, attitudes, or cultural norms within the group.

9. **Generalization:** While focus group findings are not typically meant for generalizing to larger populations (as in quantitative research), they can provide a deeper understanding of specific social phenomena and help generate hypotheses for further research.

10. **Report and Interpretation:** The results of focus group discussions are reported in a narrative format, often with illustrative quotes from participants. Researchers interpret the findings within the context of the objectivesof the study.

3.2.2 Advantages and Disadvantages of Focus Groups

Focus groups have distinct advantages and disadvantages when used in assessment within the field of social psychology:

Advantages:

1. **Rich Data:** Focus groups generate rich, qualitative data, allowing researchers to explore participants' experiences, attitudes, and emotions in-depth.

2. **Group Interaction:** They capture group dynamics and social interactions, shedding light on how individuals influence one another's opinions and behaviours.

3. **Diverse Perspectives:** Focus groups can reveal a range of perspectives, including shared beliefs and disagreements, which can deepen the understanding of social phenomena.

4. **Exploratory Nature:** Focus groups are well-suited for exploratory research, generating hypotheses and insights for further investigation.

5. **Quick Data Collection:** Compared to individual interviews, focus groups can collect data from multiple participants in a shorter time frame.

6. **Cost-Effective:** Conducting one focus group session can be more cost-effective than interviewing participants individually, especially when exploring collective experiences.

7. **Contextual Insights:** Researchers can gain insights into the social and cultural context of participants, enhancing the understanding of behaviours and attitudes.

Disadvantages:

1. **Limited Generalizability:** Findings from focus groups are typically not generalizable to larger populations due to the small sample size and non-random participant selection.

2. **Social Desirability Bias:** Participants may conform to social norms or provide socially desirable responses, limiting the accuracy of their true opinions.

3. **Dominant Voices:** Some participants may dominate the discussion, while others may be hesitant to speak, potentially skewing the data.

4. **Moderator Effect:** The effectiveness of the moderator can significantly impact the quality of the data. A biased or inexperienced moderator may introduce bias into the discussions.

5. **Time-Consuming:** Analyzing data from multiple focus groups can be time-consuming, especially when transcribing and coding recordings.

6. **Resource Intensive:** Focus groups require facilities, recording equipment, and skilled moderators, making them resource-intensive compared to some other assessment methods.

7. **Limited Privacy:** Participants may be less willing to share sensitive or personal information in a group setting, limiting the depth of exploration.

8. **Sampling Challenges:** Selecting appropriate participants with the right characteristics and experiences can be challenging and may require careful consideration.

In a nutshell, focus groups offer valuable insights into social psychology, but they are most effective when used in combination with other research methods to complement their strengths and address their limitations. Researchers should carefully consider their research goals and the specific advantages and disadvantages of focus groups when deciding on their use in assessment.

3.3 SUMMARY

The qualitative approach in social psychology provides a deeper understanding of human behaviour by exploring the subjective experiences, meanings, and context that quantitative methods may not capture as effectively. It complements quantitative research and is particularly valuable when studying complex social and psychological phenomena.

Case studies offer an in-depth, context-rich method for assessing social psychological phenomena. They are particularly valuable when exploring complex, real-world situations and can contribute to both theory development and practical applications. However, researchers must carefully consider ethical concerns and acknowledge the limitations associated with this method.

Focus group discussions are particularly useful in social psychology for exploring group norms, collective experiences, and social influence processes. They can help researchers gain an understanding of how individuals interact and influence one another within a social context, contributing to the broader understanding of human behaviour and attitudes.

3.4 QUESTIONS

1. Discuss case study as a method of assessment.
2. Explain the process of case studies.
3. What are focus groups?
4. Enumerate the advantages and disadvantages of focus groups.

3.5REFERENCES

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4

ASSESSMENT METHODS USING QUALITATIVE APPROACH - II

Unit structure :

4.0 INTRODUCTION

Implicit methods are widely used in social psychology as assessment tools to uncover unconscious or automatic attitudes, biases, and cognitive processes that people may not be aware of or may not be willing to report explicitly.

4.1 IMPLICIT METHODS IN SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

Mentioned below are some key aspects of implicit methods in social psychology:

1. **Definition:** Implicit methods assess implicit cognition, which refers to automatic and subconscious mental processes that influence judgments, attitudes, and behaviours.

2. **Implicit Association Test (IAT):** The IAT is a well-known implicit method. It measures the strength of associations between concepts and

evaluations by assessing the speed of categorizing words or images into different categories. For example, it can reveal implicit racial biases by measuring how quickly participants associate positive or negative words with different racial groups.

3. **Implicit Measures of Attitudes:** Implicit methods can assess implicit attitudes towards various topics, such as race, gender, or political affiliation. These measures are based on reaction times or error rates when participants perform tasks related to these topics.

4. **Priming:** Priming experiments involve exposing participants to a stimulus (e.g., words, images, etc.) that can influence subsequent attitudes or behaviours without their conscious awareness. For instance, showing words related to ageing before asking participants to walk at a certain pace can affect their walking speed.

5. **Evaluative Conditioning:** This method assesses changes in attitudes by pairing a neutral stimulus with a positive or negative stimulus repeatedly. Over time, the neutral stimulus can become associated with the emotional valence of the positive or negative stimulus.

6. **Implicit Memory Tests:** These tests assess the unconscious retrieval of information from memory. Participants might be exposed to words or images and later tested on their memory of those items, even if they were not consciously aware of seeing them.

7. **Physiological Measures:** Some implicit methods use physiological responses, such as skin conductance or eye tracking, to gauge implicit reactions to stimuli.

8. **Applications:** Implicit methods are used to study various topics in social psychology, including prejudice, stereotypes, attitudes, self-concept, and decision-making. They provide insights into implicit biases and can help researchers understand how these biases influence behaviour.

9. **Controversies:** There is ongoing debate about the reliability and validity of implicit measures, as well as ethical concerns related to privacy and the potential for reinforcing stereotypes.

10. **Complementing Explicit Measures:** Implicit methods are often used alongside explicit measures (e.g., self-report questionnaires) to provide a more comprehensive understanding of attitudes and behaviours. The combination of implicit and explicit assessments can help reveal discrepancies between what people consciously report and their automatic, implicit responses.

4.1.1 Implicit Association Test

The Implicit Association Test (IAT) is a widely used psychological assessment tool that measures implicit attitudes, biases, and associations between concepts. It was developed by Anthony Greenwald and colleagues in the 1990s and has since been employed in numerous studies

across various fields, including social psychology. Here's an explanation of how the IAT works:

Purpose: The IAT is designed to uncover implicit, subconscious attitudes or biases that individuals may not be aware of or may not readily disclose through explicit self-report measures.

Procedure:

1. **Task Setup:** Participants are presented with a computer-based task in which they categorize words or images into different categories. The categories are typically displayed at the top of the screen.

2. **Category Pairings:** The key feature of the IAT is the manipulation of category pairings. For example, in an IAT examining racial biases, participants might be asked to categorize words related to "African American" and "European American" along with positive and negative words.

3. **Trials:** Participants perform a series of trials where they quickly categorize words or images by pressing specific keys. For instance, they might be instructed to press one key when they see words related to "African American" or positive words and another key when they see words related to "European American" or negative words.

4. **Block Structure:** The IAT consists of several blocks, each with a different category pairing. Importantly, the order of category pairings is manipulated to measure the ease of association between concepts. There are typically two critical blocks, where the categories are paired in ways that reveal potential biases. For example, one critical block may pair "African American" with "negative," and the other may pair "European American" with "positive."

5. **Response Times:** The IAT records participants' response times and errors as they categorize items in each block. Faster response times are interpreted as stronger associations between the paired concepts. Slower response times or more errors suggest weaker associations or potential biases.

Scoring and Interpretation:

The IAT generates a numerical score that reflects the strength of the associations between concepts. The larger the score, the stronger the implicit bias or attitude. Scores can range from strongly negative to strongly positive, indicating the direction and magnitude of the bias.

Interpretation: A positive IAT score may suggest an implicit bias in favour of one concept over another, while a negative score may suggest bias in the opposite direction. However, it is important to note that a single IAT score is not diagnostic of individual beliefs or behaviours, and results should be interpreted in conjunction with other information.

Applications:

The IAT has been used to study implicit biases related to race, gender, age, and many other social and cultural factors. It has also been employed in fields such as marketing, health, and education to understand implicit preferences and attitudes.

It is crucial to acknowledge that the IAT has faced criticism regarding its reliability, validity, and the implications of individual scores. Despite these challenges, IAT remains a valuable tool for exploring implicit attitudes and biases, contributing to our understanding of human cognition and behaviour.

4.1.2 Implicit Measures of Attitudes

Implicit Measures of Attitudes refer to assessment methods used in psychology to uncover individuals' implicit or subconscious attitudes and biases toward various concepts, objects, or groups. These measures are designed to reveal attitudes that people may not be aware of or may not be willing to report explicitly through self-report measures. Here is a brief description of various tasks involved in Implicit Measures of Attitudes:

1. Reaction Time-Based Tasks: These tasks assess the speed of participants' responses while categorizing stimuli (e.g., words, images) into different categories. The assumption is that faster responses indicate stronger associations between concepts. Common tasks include:

- **Implicit Association Test (IAT):** As explained earlier, the IAT measures the strength of associations between pairs of concepts (e.g., race and positive/negative words) by comparing response times when categorizing them.
- **Go/No-Go Association Task (GNAT):** Similar to the IAT, participants quickly categorize stimuli into different categories, but in this task, they need to inhibit responses to certain combinations of categories, making them sensitive to implicit biases.

2. Error Rate Tasks: Instead of measuring response times, these tasks assess the frequency of errors when participants categorize stimuli. Higher error rates may suggest implicit biases. An example is the Affective Misattribution Procedure (AMP), where participants misattribute their feelings toward one stimulus to another stimulus presented subsequently.

3. Implicit Memory Tasks: These tasks assess participants' implicit memory of stimuli that they were exposed to earlier but may not consciously remember. For instance:

- **Word Stem Completion Task:** Participants complete word stems (e.g., "h_t") with the first word that comes to mind. Unconscious exposure to certain words can influence their word choices.
- **Priming:** Priming experiments expose participants to a stimulus (e.g., words, images) that can influence subsequent attitudes or behaviours

without their conscious awareness. For example, showing words related to "trust" before asking participants to evaluate a person can affect their judgments.

4. Physiological Measures: Some implicit measures use physiological responses, such as skin conductance, to gauge implicit reactions to stimuli. For example, changes in skin conductance can indicate emotional arousal in response to specific stimuli.

5. Implicit Association Tasks in Social Cognition: These tasks examine implicit social attitudes and stereotypes. They involve categorizing images or words related to social groups (e.g., gender, race) and attributes (e.g., good, bad) to assess implicit biases.

Implicit Measures of Attitudes are valuable in understanding the automatic and unconscious processes that influence human behaviour. They have been used to investigate implicit biases related to race, gender, age, and various social and cultural factors. However, it is important to recognize that these measures have limitations and should be used in conjunction with explicit self-report measures to provide a more comprehensive understanding of attitudes and biases.

4.1.3 Priming

Priming is an implicit method of assessment in social psychology that involves exposing individuals to a stimulus (e.g., words, images, or ideas) to influence their subsequent thoughts, attitudes, or behaviours related to that stimulus, often without their conscious awareness. Priming operates on the idea that exposure to specific cues can activate associated mental representations, affecting individuals' subsequent responses. Here is a description of priming as an implicit method:

Procedure:

1. Priming Stimulus: Participants are exposed to a priming stimulus, which can be presented in various forms, such as words, images, or concepts. This stimulus is chosen based on the research question and the desired effect on participants' subsequent cognition or behaviour.

2. Delay: There is often a short delay between the presentation of the priming stimulus and the subsequent task or evaluation. This delay can range from a few milliseconds to several minutes.

3. Target Task: Participants engage in a target task or evaluation that is related to the priming stimulus. The goal is to assess whether the priming stimulus has influenced their responses.

Examples:

- **Semantic Priming:** In this form of priming, participants are exposed to a word or image that is related in meaning to the subsequent task.

For example, if participants are primed with the word "ocean," they may subsequently rate a picture of a beach more positively than if they were primed with a neutral word.

- **Affective Priming:** Affective priming involves using emotionally charged words or images to influence subsequent emotional judgments.

For example, if participants are primed with positive words like "joy" or "happiness," they may subsequently rate neutral stimuli more positively.

- **Stereotype Priming:** Stereotype priming assesses how exposure to stereotypes can affect individuals' perceptions and judgments.

For instance, if participants are primed with words related to a particular stereotype (e.g., "athlete" for African Americans), they may subsequently evaluate a person from that group based on the stereotype.

Key Points:

1. Priming can occur consciously or unconsciously, depending on the design of the experiment. Subliminal priming involves presenting stimuli too quickly or faintly for participants to consciously perceive.
2. The effects of priming can be short-lived, lasting only for a brief period after exposure to the priming stimulus. However, in some cases, priming effects can be more enduring.
3. Priming has been used to investigate a wide range of phenomena, including memory, decision-making, social judgments, and stereotype activation.
4. It highlights the flexibility of cognitive processes and the ways in which environmental cues can shape our perceptions and behaviours.
5. Researchers use priming to explore the automatic and unconscious aspects of human cognition, revealing how subtle cues in the environment can influence our thoughts and actions.

Priming studies have contributed significantly to our understanding of how context and subtle cues can impact human behaviour, often revealing implicit biases and cognitive processes that people may not be consciously aware of.

4.1.4 Evaluative Conditioning

Evaluative Conditioning is an implicit method of assessment in social psychology that explores how associations between stimuli can influence individuals' attitudes and evaluations, often at an implicit or subconscious level. This method is used to investigate how pairing neutral stimuli with positive or negative stimuli can affect people's emotional responses and evaluations.

Procedure:

1. **Stimulus Pairing:** In Evaluative Conditioning, researchers typically start with a neutral stimulus (e.g., a picture, word, or brand) that doesnot inherently evoke positive or negative emotions or evaluations.

2. **Pairing with Affective Stimuli:** The neutral stimulus is repeatedly paired with either positive or negative affective stimuli.

For example, a neutral picture might be presented alongside pleasant images or words to create a positive association. Alternatively, it could be paired with unpleasant images or words to create a negative association.

3. **Repeated Exposure:** The pairing of the neutral stimulus with the affective stimuli is typically done multiple times to reinforce the association. Participants are exposed to these pairings without being explicitly told the purpose of the study.

4. **Post-Conditioning Evaluation:** After the conditioning phase, participants are asked to evaluate the originally neutral stimulus. This evaluation can be done using various measures, such as self-report ratings or reaction time tasks.

Key Concepts:

1. **Transfer of Affect:** The underlying idea is that the positive or negative affect associated with the affective stimuli transfers to the initially neutral stimulus. As a result, the neutral stimulus is now evaluated more positively or negatively, depending on the pairing.

2. **Automaticity:** Evaluative Conditioning is considered an implicit method because the change in evaluation is often unconscious and automatic. Participants may not be aware of the influence of the conditioning process on their evaluations.

Applications:

Evaluative Conditioning has been used in various areas of social psychology and beyond:

1. Advertising and Branding: Marketers use Evaluative Conditioning to associate their products or brands with positive emotions, aiming to create more favourable attitudes among consumers.

2. Prejudice and Stereotyping: Researchers have employed this method to examine how associations between social groups and affective stimuli contribute to prejudice and stereotyping.

3. Attitude Change: Evaluative Conditioning has been used to study how subtle conditioning processes can influence people's attitudes on various topics, such as politics or social issues.

Limitations:

1. **Limited Longevity:** The effects of Evaluative Conditioning can be relatively short-lived, particularly when participants are aware of the conditioning process.

2. **Individual Differences:** Not everyone responds to conditioning in the same way, and the effectiveness of this method can vary among individuals.

In summary, Evaluative Conditioning is an implicit method used to investigate how repeated pairings of neutral stimuli with affective stimuli can lead to changes in individuals' evaluations or attitudes. It sheds light on the automatic and unconscious processes that influence our emotional responses and judgments.

4.1.5 Implicit Memory Tests

Implicit Memory Tests are a category of implicit methods used in social psychology and cognitive psychology to assess individuals' implicit or unconscious memory of information, typically involving words, images, or stimuli they have been exposed to previously. These tests aim to reveal memory processes that operate without conscious awareness. Here is a description of Implicit Memory Tests in the context of social psychology:

1. Word Stem Completion Task: In this task, participants are presented with word stems (e.g., "h_t") and asked to complete them with the first word that comes to mind. Unbeknownst to participants, some of these stems are related to words they were previously exposed to in a separate context. The completion of word stems with words related to the previously presented information indicates implicit memory of those words.

2. Word Fragment Completion Task: Similar to the word stem completion task, participants are given incomplete words (e.g., "h _ p _ _ t _ _") and are asked to fill in the missing letters to complete the word. Implicit memory is demonstrated if participants are more likely to complete the word with the letters associated with previously presented words.

3. Priming: Priming is a broader category of implicit memory tests that involves exposing participants to a stimulus (e.g., words, images) that can influence subsequent attitudes, behaviours, or judgments without their conscious awareness.

For example, if participants are shown words related to "honesty" before evaluating a person's trustworthiness, they may rate that person more positively without realizing the influence of the prime.

4. Affective Priming: In this variant of priming, participants are primed with emotionally valenced stimuli (e.g., positive or negative words) before performing a task, such as evaluating a social stimulus (e.g., a person's

face). Implicit memory is demonstrated when the emotional valence of the prime influences participants' evaluations of the subsequent stimulus.

5. Semantic Priming: Participants are exposed to words or images related to a particular concept or category (e.g., "ocean" before evaluating "fish"). The primed concept can unconsciously influence their judgments or associations with the subsequent stimulus.

6. Repetition Priming: This test measures implicit memory by presenting participants with stimuli they have encountered previously. The speed or accuracy of participants' responses to previously seen stimuli is used to assess their implicit memory for those items.

Implicit Memory Tests are valuable tools in social psychology because they reveal unconscious influences on perception, judgment, and behaviour. They can be used to investigate how exposure to specific information or concepts can shape individuals' implicit attitudes, stereotypes, and reactions to social stimuli. However, it is essential to recognize that implicit memory tests provide insights into automatic cognitive processes but do not necessarily reflect explicit or consciously held beliefs or memories.

4.2 SOCIOMETRY: IMPORTANCE AND OVERVIEW OF SOCIOMETRIC ASSESSMENT PROCEDURES

Sociometry is a field of social psychology that focuses on the measurement and analysis of social relationships within groups. It was developed by Jacob L. Moreno in the early 20th century and has since been used to study social dynamics, group interactions, and interpersonal relationships.

4.2.1 Importance of Sociometry

1. Understanding Social Structure: Sociometry helps researchers and practitioners understand the structure of social relationships within a group. It provides insights into who interacts with whom and how those interactions influence the group's functioning.

2. Identifying Group Dynamics: By examining patterns of social connections, sociometry can reveal group dynamics such as leadership, cliques, social isolation, and conflict.

3. Improving Group Processes: Sociometric assessments can be used to identify and address issues within a group, leading to improved communication, cooperation, and overall group effectiveness.

4. Research Tool: Sociometry is a valuable research tool for studying social behaviours, decision-making processes, and the impact of social networks on individual and group outcomes.

4.2.2 Sociometric Assessment Procedures

1. Questionnaires: Participants in a group are asked to provide information about their social relationships, such as whom they like, trust, or prefer to work with. These questionnaires can be structured to gather data on various aspects of social relationships, including attraction, friendship, and collaboration.

2. Ranking and Rating Scales: Participants may be asked to rank their group members or rate them on various dimensions, such as popularity, leadership, or contribution to the group. These rankings and ratings can provide insights into social hierarchies and group roles.

3. Nomination Procedures: In nomination-based sociometry, group members nominate others based on specific criteria. For example, participants might be asked to nominate peers they consider their best friends or those they find most influential.

4. Social Network Analysis (SNA): SNA is a quantitative approach to sociometry that uses mathematical and graphical techniques to analyze social networks within a group. It visualizes connections, identifies key players, and measures the strength and centrality of relationships.

5. Sociogram: A sociogram is a visual representation of social relationships within a group. It typically uses symbols and lines to depict connections between group members. Sociograms can reveal patterns of affiliation, isolation, or conflict.

6. Data Analysis: After collecting sociometric data, researchers can analyze it to identify central figures (popular individuals), isolate individuals (those with fewer connections), and identify subgroups or cliques within the group.

7. Intervention: Based on the findings from sociometric assessments, interventions can be implemented to improve group dynamics.

For example, addressing conflicts, promoting inclusivity, or facilitating communication between isolated individuals.

4.3 SUMMARY

Implicit methods have contributed significantly to the field of social psychology by uncovering hidden biases and shedding light on the complex interplay between conscious and unconscious processes in human behaviour and cognition.

Sociometry plays a significant role in understanding and improving social interactions within various settings, including schools, workplaces, therapy groups, and communities. It helps researchers and practitioners gain insights into the social fabric of groups, which, in turn, can lead to more effective interventions and strategies for building positive and cohesive social environments.

4.4 QUESTIONS

1. Define implicit methods of assessment.
2. Describe the Implicit Association Test.
3. What are the implicit measures of attitudes?
4. Describe the process of priming.
5. Discuss evaluative conditioning.
6. What are the Implicit Memory Tests?
7. What is sociometry?
8. What is the importance of sociometry?
9. Explain the sociometric assessment procedures.

4.5 REFERENCES

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5

TOOLS FOR ASSESSMENT IN THE AREAS OF CHILDREN AND ADULTS - I

Unit Structure :

5.0 OBJECTIVES

- To know the tools for assessment used with children.
- To know the tools for assessment used with adults.

5.1 INTRODUCTION

This unit focuses on various assessment techniques used for children and adults. Here, we will try to have a better and more in-depth understanding of the tools used to assess the intelligence and personality of children and adults. We will concentrate on six tools (i.e., CPM/SPM, CAT, Draw-a-man, CPQ and WISC) altogether used with children. Also, we will focus on two tools (i.e., TAT and HTP) that are used with adults.

Let us begin by discussing these tests one by one. For our convenience, we will look at these tests in two separate categories as measuring intelligence and personality and in the sequence, accordingly, particularly in Section 5.2, which describes the tools used with children. First, we will try to seek some basic knowledge of intelligence and personality with some of their important aspects.

5.1.1 Intelligence

Conventional intelligence tests (IQ tests) have enormous potential for both use and misuse in assessing intelligence. They can be used to examine and treat children who were previously labelled as "stupid." On the other hand, such IQ tests also can be used for illegal and unethical purposes, such as categorizing people falsely, creating a bad impression about them or particularly people of some gender or belonging to some community/ies, etc. Thus, these tests are equally vulnerable to being misinterpreted to support racism and gender-/ sex-biased ideologies. This unit will briefly discuss intelligence assessment.

Classification of Intelligence Tests

Intelligence tests are classified on several bases.

1. **Individual and Group tests** - Intelligence can be measured using individual or group tests. Individual and group tests are first classified according to how they are administered. An individual test, according to Simon-Binet, is the one that can only be given to one person at a time. Such tests were insufficient to classify army personnel quickly and in large numbers during World War I. As a result, group intelligence tests that could be administered to a large group of people at once such as the Army Alpha and Army Beta were developed.

In contrast to individual intelligence tests, group tests can be administered to multiple people at the same time. As a result, a group intelligence test enables us to assess the intelligence of a large number of people—up to hundreds at once—in a timely and effective manner.

2. **Verbal, Non-verbal/ Performance tests** - There are other two types of intelligence tests based on the form and content of the test items, namely, verbal/paper-pencil tests and nonverbal/performance tests. Because verbal tests use written language as items, the examinees/ test takers must be literate.

A verbal test, as the name implies, requires language proficiency to pass. The ability to comprehend and address language-based problems is referred to as verbal intelligence. The test takers must have the ability to analyse verbal information as well as language-based reasoning to solve problems presented in such tests/sub-tests, such as verbal analogies. Because of the overemphasis on verbal skills, psychologists realised that these tests were inappropriate for those who did not know English or had limited language ability, such as illiterates, children, and people with

speech and hearing impairments. As a result, several nonverbal/performance intelligence tests were created.

Performance test questions are manipulative in nature and do not use any language at all. Examinees must manipulate the objects in a specific and desired manner. As a result, these tests can be successfully administered to people who are blind, deaf, or illiterate. Nonverbal intelligence tests assess a person's ability to analyse visual information and solve problems without using language. To complete the tasks, it may be necessary to perform visual analogies, comprehend and recognise relationships between visual concepts and situations, and recognise visual sequences.

The first nonverbal/performance assessment was the Seguin Form Board. The Kohs Block Design test (Kohs, 1920) and the Porteus Maze Test (Porteus, 1915, 1919) are two well-known early twentieth-century performance tests. The Kohs Block Design test requires one to create a pattern out of painted blocks. The Porteus test consists of a series of graded mazes. Although this test is still available, it is not widely used.

Some performance tests claim to be appropriate for use with people from various cultures and prefer to be referred to as culture-free, culture-fair, culture-reduced, and cross-cultural tests. Some tests that include nonverbal subtests along with a verbal component are:

- Wechsler scales,
- Kaufman scales,
- Das-Naglieri test,
- Otis Quick-scoring Intelligence Test, and
- Multilevel Ability Test.

There are several well-known nonverbal intelligence tests, such as the Culture-fair Intelligence Test (Cattell, 1940; IPAT, 1973) and Raven's Progressive Matrices (Raven, 1938, 1986, 1992, 1995).

Measures of Intelligence

There are hundreds of tests that claim to assess intelligence or cognitive ability. Various tests have been developed for use with a variety of populations, including children, adults, members of ethnic minority groups, the gifted, and the disabled (e.g., visually, hearing, or motorically impaired people).

Some tests are administered individually, while others are administered in groups. Some tests have a large body of research to back up their reliability and validity, while others have very little. Some are easy to administer and score, while others are extremely challenging.

Although there are numerous intelligence tests to choose from, most psychologists use only a few of them on a regular and widespread basis. Some of these widely used tests are:

- **The Wechsler Scales**: the Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale-Third Edition [WAIS-Ill], the WAIS-R as a Neuropsychological Instrument

[WAIS-R NI], the Wechsler Intelligence Scale of Children-Fourth Edition [WISC-IV], and the Wechsler Primary and Preschool Scale-Third Edition [WPPSI-III]) are unquestionably the most popular and widely used tests.

- **The Stanford-Binet(Fifth Edition)**: It is the second most popular intelligence test.

- **Some other tests:** Popular alternatives include the Kaufman Assessment Battery for Children (K-ABC), the Woodcock-Johnson Psycho-Educational Battery, and Raven's Progressive Matrices.

Culture-Fair Tests

Intelligence tests, according to critics, are biased towards the majority group in society. Minorities and the underprivileged are frequently at a disadvantage. There are cultural differences between any two groups. Different cultural groups place different values and demands. Thus, they motivate different behaviours.

As a result, culture-free tests are required to assess individuals from various cultures. During the 1910s, some of the earliest cross-cultural tests (Knox, 1914) were developed. Generally, cultures differ along the following dimensions:

- **Language** – Different cultural groups speak different languages.

- **Reading experience**– Different cultures have different educational backgrounds. In some cultures, illiteracy is widespread.

- **Speed** – The tempo of daily life, motivation to hurry, and the value placed on speed of performance vary greatly among different cultural and ethnic groups, even within a single country.

- **Environmental experiences** – Different natural and social phenomena are experienced by people from various cultures. Many cultures, for example, have no experience with snowfall. They may be unable to provide information about snowfall if questioned.

Earlier, the classic culture-free tests attempted to control these cultural parameters. The authors strive to make the test content as culture-free as possible. However, it is recognised that the impact of culture cannot be completely eliminated from these tests.

As a result, the term 'culture-fair' is used instead of 'culture-free' tests. Raven's Progressive Matrices (RPM -Raven, 1938, 1986, 1995) sets itself free from the effects of language and speed. The test includes abstract figures that are thought to be neutral to any culture.

5.1.2 Personality

In this section, we will proceed to learn about personality assessment. Our personality has a large influence on our behaviour, social interactions, and

relationships. As a result, it is critical to understand and assess our personality in order to understand its implications in various aspects of our lives. This will allow us to develop, modify, and improve our personalities in order to function more effectively.

Personality assessment is a major area of research, and various theories have influenced the development of personality assessment. The way various theories conceptualise personality has an impact on how personality is assessed.

For example, trait theorists are more concerned with identifying specific traits in individuals, whereas psychoanalysts will use projective techniques to assess one's personality. However, when it comes to measuring or assessing one's personality, psychologists use a comprehensive approach that combines various assessment techniques.

In this Unit, we will look at some of the personality tests most commonly used with children (i.e., CPQ, CAT and Draw-a-Man) and adults (i.e., TAT and HTP), including projective tests.

Application of Personality Assessment

Personality assessment aims to measure an individual's personality traits and characteristics in the following different areas:

- **Educational** - It has a wide range of applications in schools and educational settings. The child's performance is linked to his or her personality.
- **Career** - Personality assessments are also commonly used in career decisions and in determining the fit between job requirements and personality traits.
- **Clinical** - The clinical application of personality assessment is reflected in the use of personality tests for personality disorder diagnosis.
- **Counselling** - It also has implications for counselling.
- **Health and well-being** - Personality can influence our health and well-being, and understanding one's own personality can help us modify our health behaviours and practises.
- **Industrial and organisational** - Personality assessment is crucial in the industrial and organisational contexts. We must understand how our personality affects both ourselves and others in the workplace.
- **Sports and military** - Personality assessments are also used in many other fields, such as sports and military settings.

Thus, personality assessment is relevant and useful in a variety of settings. Because personality is an integral part of who we are, it has consequences for everything we do, and thus the importance of personality assessment

cannot be overstated. Multiple methods are used to assess personality, and they can be broadly classified into two categories:

1. **Direct Methods -** Direct methods include Observation, Interviews, Personality Inventories/Questionnaires, Rating scales, Behavioural data and Situational tests.

2. **Indirect Methods** - Indirect methods include Projective techniques.

Personality tests or inventories are often in the form of questionnaires or scales that contain questions/statements that the individual or test taker must answer in a specific standardised format. Therefore, these tests are referred to as paper-and-pencil tests. They can also take the form of a computerised test. Inventories are the most widely used method of personality assessment.

Before moving to our main content of the unit, let us understand the projective tests briefly, which can be considered to be an extension to the self-report personality measures like inventories and questionnaires and are extremely helpful in personality assessment.

Projective Tests

Projective measures of personality are popular tools for assessing personality. Unlike self-report measures, where the individual is given structured test stimuli, projective tests require the individual to respond to unstructured or ambiguous stimuli. The basic assumption behind using unstructured test stimuli in projective tests is that the individual projects his or her latent or unconscious feelings, needs, emotions, motives, and so on to the ambiguous stimulus. Individual responses in the form of projection reflect the nature of his/her personality.

Projective techniques are based on the psychoanalytic view of personality, which holds that the true nature of personality is hidden deep within the unconscious. As a result, responses to questions in inventories or interviews may not accurately reflect the individual's true personality characteristics. Direct methods, according to projective techniques, are incapable of assessing one's personality, and they can only be revealed through indirect methods.

Furthermore, social desirability may operate when the person is on guard and knows what is being asked, and the person may not even be aware of his true personality to answer correctly. As a result, indirect measures such as projective techniques are more effective in assessing an individual's true personality.

While projective tests tap the unconscious and reveal the subject's personality through the interpretation of their responses, such interpretation requires extensive training. Making up a story based on some pictures or drawings is an example of a projective technique. The unconscious feelings, emotions, or thoughts are projected onto these

drawings, pictures, or stories, which are then analysed to determine the individual's personality.

As mentioned previously, we will learn about four of such projective tests (i.e., CAT, Draw-a-person, TAT, and HTP) that are used with children and adults.

5.2 CHILDREN: TOOLS FOR ASSESSMENT

5.2.1 Tools for Assessing Intelligence

We will cover three intelligence tests used with children, called Coloured Progressive Matrices (CPM), Standard Progressive Matrices (SPM), and Wechsler's Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC).

1) Coloured Progressive Matrices (CPM)/ Standard Progressive Matrices (SPM)

These two tests are the two variations of a single intelligence test, called Raven's Progressive Matrices (RPM). Therefore, they share most of the characteristics of this test in common. So it is important for us to know about RPM along with its brief history. A few of their independent characteristics that are not common are noted down separately below under their respective headings.

Raven's Progressive Matrices have a long and illustrious history as one of the most widely used culture-reduced tests. Factor analyses carried out in Spearman's lab in the 1930s showed that tests based on straightforward pictorial analogies had high correlations with a number of other intelligence tests and, more importantly, had high loadings on Spearman's 'g' factor.

Raven's Progressive Matrices (available in both paper and computer formats) are a collection of multiple-choice items that all adhere to the same basic principle. Each item represents a perceptual analogy as a matrix. Some valid relationships link items in each row of the matrix, and others link items in each column of the matrix. Each matrix is presented with a portion of the matrix missing in the lower-right corner. The subject must choose the piece that best completes each matrix from a set of six or eight alternatives, i.e. the test taker must choose the missing part of the matrix from the options listed below it.

The RPM test is a nonverbal test. Language is only used to give instructions to the test taker. When a test taker understands his task, he no longer needs to solve problems using language. As a result, the RPM is best suited for testing non-English speakers. As a result, the influence of culture is kept to a minimum. The test can be administered either individually or in groups. The test has lower predictive validity against academic criteria than traditional verbal intelligence tests.

Raven's Progressive Matrices are available in three variations. We will be focusing on two of its variations CPM and SPM, which are widely used with children.

- **Coloured Progressive Matrices(CPM)**

  - This variation appears to be better suited for younger children (ages 4 to 10) as well as slightly older children and adults who exhibit signs of retardation.

  - It consists of three sets (A, Ab, and B) of twelve matrices that use colour and are significantly easier than the Standard Progressive Matrices.

  - This test is designed for younger children aged 5 ½ to 11 ½ years.

  - It is a culture test with simple, straightforward instructions. It is made up of 36 items divided into three subtests that evaluate abstract and reasoning abilities.

- **Standard Progressive Matrices(SPM)**

  - This variation is the most common form, consisting of 60 matrices organised into 5 sets.

  - Each of the five sets includes 12 matrices with solutions that follow similar principles but differ in difficulty.

  - The principles involved in solving the five sets of matrices include perceptual discrimination, rotation, and pattern permutations.

  - The first few items in each set are fairly straightforward, but later matrices may involve extremely subtle and complex relationships.

  - The Standard Progressive Matrices are appropriate for people aged 5 to 80, and because this test has a low floor and a relatively high ceiling, the Standard Matrices are also appropriate for the majority of ability levels.

The third variation of this test is **Advanced Progressive Matrices** which is suitable for intellectually superior persons who find the Standard Matrices to be too simple. The Advanced Matrices are made up of three sets of 12 matrices, the solutions to which frequently rely on extremely subtle concepts. The test effectively distinguishes those with extremely high Standard Progressive Matrices scores.

Since CPM and SPM are variations of the same non-verbal or performance intelligence test, they share more or less the same strengths and limitations along with their applications.

Strengths, Limitations, and Applications of CPM/SPM:

Strengths -

- CPM/SPM are not only simple to administer, but they also provide the test giver/administrator/user with extensive norming, validation, and standardisation data that allows inferences about the examinee to be drawn.
- They come with excellent support documentation, such as a technical manual and an administration and scoring manual
- Scores are relatively unaffected by linguistic and ethnic background.
- **They are very economical tests to administer.**
- One of the most significant advantages of these Matrices tests is the speed with which they provide valid information about an adult's or child's cognitive functioning.
- A computerised version of these tests is also available to expand the test's usage.

Limitations –

- Scholars and clinicians frequently hold polarised views on the suitability of CPM/SPM to determine cognitive abilities in cross-cultural populations;
- They do not take into account one's verbal and emotional intelligence.

Applications -

- CPM/SPM tests are one of the most widely used instruments for assessing analogical reasoning, abstraction capacity, and perception.
- They are usually given on a regular basis in schools and during the hiring process. In fact, it is now a standard component of psycho-technical tests used in the selection of certain professions.
- They are also helpful in situations where one would like to know beforehand how intelligent students or job candidates "in general" are.
- They work for both children and adults, regardless of whether they have communication or motor issues. Individuals with speech and hearing impairments, as well as non-English speakers, can benefit from it.
- They require "Gestalt" attention as well as analogical reasoning where the person must use exploratory behaviour. They must also make comparisons and use multiple sources of information to complete the matrices.

- They are used as a psycho-educational tool to obtain a comprehensive assessment of general cognitive functioning.
- They are also beneficial in providing reliable and valid data in academic and educational settings as well as for research purposes.
- They help in identifying cognitive strengths and weaknesses in a variety of neurological conditions, as well as providing useful information for clinical and neuropsychological evaluations. This helps in treatment planning and placement decisions.
- They can also be used as part of a battery of assessments to identify learning disabilities and giftedness.

2) Wechsler's Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC)

Before knowing about Wechsler's Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC), let us know briefly about Wechsler's scales of intelligence since WISC is also a part of it being one of its versions.

David Wechsler saw intelligence as a collection of specific, qualitatively distinct abilities as well as a global entity. Intelligence is a global concept because it characterises an individual's overall behaviour. According to Wechsler, brain damage, psychotic deterioration, and emotional difficulties may have a greater impact on some cognitive functions than others. As a result, he argued that a person's performance on various subtests should be examined in order to diagnose various psychiatric conditions. Therefore, his tests contain a variety of subtests from both the verbal and nonverbal domains.

The Wechsler scales are comprised of several verbal and performance subtests. Some of the subtests are core tests, while others are supplemental. These subtests can be used to compute the Verbal IQ, Performance IQ, and Full Scale IQ. They can generate four Index scores in addition to IQ scores. The first Wechsler intelligence scale was introduced in 1939. Following that, the Wechsler scales were revised several times for three different categories:

- for adults (16-90 years),
- for school-going children (6-16 years) and
- for pre-schoolers (2½ - 7 years).

These scales are used to evaluate general intelligence, but they can also be used in psychiatric diagnosis. The evolution of these scales over time is depicted below:

Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS)	Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC)	Wechsler Preschool and Primary Scale of Intelligence
Wechsler-Bellevue-I:1939	Wechsler-Bellevue-II:1946	WPPSI: 1967
WAIS: 1955	WISC: 1949	WPPSI-R: 1989
WAIS-R: 1981	WISC-R: 1974	WPPSI-III: 2002
WAIS-III: 1997	WISC-III: 1991	
WAIS-IV: 2008	WISC-IV: 2003	

Since their publication, the Wechsler intelligence scales have been the most widely used instruments among clinical and school psychologists for assessing the cognitive abilities of children, adolescents, and adults. Let us now move to the WISC.

The Wechsler Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC) is an intelligence test for children aged 6 to 16. The most recent version is the WISC-V Fifth Edition (Wechsler, 2014). The WISC-V has both verbal and nonverbal subscales. The WISC-V typically takes 45 to 65 minutes to administer. WISC has been translated or adapted into numerous languages, and norms for several countries have been established.

In India, the Malin's Intelligence Scale for Indian Children (MISIC), a WISC adaptation developed by Arthur J. Malin, is used. However, the MISIC norms are out of date (they have not been updated in 50 years), and many clinical psychologists do not use it in their practice because of the possibility of Flynn effect errors in measured IQs.

Because Indian children are from a developing country, their intellectual abilities have changed dramatically over the last five decades, making the use of MISIC obsolete, though some psychometricians argue that such changes are minor and thus the test remains valid. Clinicians prefer the fourth edition of the WISC to the MISIC, which was adapted and standardised for India in 2012.

It is suggested that MISIC's standards must be updated because it is currently India's most popular intelligence test as a WISC adaptation. MISIC continues to have supporters and will be used by clinicians across the country.

- **Subtests** - Each of these four domains of intellectual functioning includes both "core" or mandatory subtests that must be administered in order to calculate an index or IQ score and at least one "supplementary" or optional subtest that is not used to calculate the index or IQ score.

- **The Verbal Comprehension** category includes two supplemental subtests- Information and Word Reasoning, in addition to the three core subtests of Similarities, Vocabulary, and Comprehension.
- **The Perceptual Reasoning** category also consists of three core subtests - Block Design, Picture Concepts, and Matrix Reasoning, as well as one supplementary subtest of Picture Completion.
- **The Working Memory** category includes two core subtests, Digit Span and Letter-Number Sequencing, as well as one supplemental subtest – Arithmetic; and
- **The Processing Speed** category includes one supplemental subtest called Cancellation in addition to the two primary subtests of Coding and Symbol Search.

- **Indices and scales -** There are four index scores that correspond to the main areas of intelligence:

- Verbal Comprehension Index (VCI)
- Perceptual Reasoning Index (PRI)
- Working Memory Index (WMI)
- Processing Speed Index (PSI)

There are also two broad scores generated that can be used to summarise general intellectual abilities:

- Full-Scale IQ (FSIQ), based on the total combined performance of the VCI, PRI, WMI, and PSI
- General Ability Index (GAI), based only on the six subtests that comprise the VCI and PRI

As previously stated, the WISC-V provides four index score IQs as well as an overall or full-scale IQ based on the results of all four index scores. The mean of these IQ scores is 100, with a standard deviation of 15.

To reflect human intellectual functioning, the four-factor scores (Verbal Comprehension, Perceptual Reasoning, Working Memory, and Processing Speed) were created using factor analysis techniques and a wide range of research studies. Each subtest has a mean of 10 and a standard deviation of 3. The WISC- V has high reliability, validity, and stability, according to Wechsler (2014).

Key Features of the WISC:

- The test assesses verbal comprehension, perceptual reasoning, working memory, processing speed, and fluid reasoning, among other cognitive abilities. This allows for a thorough evaluation of a child's cognitive abilities and aids in identifying areas of strength and weakness.

- The test is standardised, which means that it was given to a large representative sample of children and the results were analysed to create norms. The results of a child's test can then be compared to those of their peers, providing a clear picture of their cognitive abilities.
- The test is administered individually, that is, one-on-one by a trained psychologist, allowing for a personalised assessment of a child's abilities.
- The WISC has been thoroughly researched and has proven to be highly reliable and valid. This means that the test accurately measures what it is supposed to measure and yields consistent results over time.
- The WISC is used as a clinical tool in addition to an intelligence test. The WISC-V is used by some practitioners to diagnose intellectual disabilities, giftedness, specific learning disabilities, placement in specialised programmes, and clinical intervention.
- The WISC can be used to identify gaps between a child's intelligence and academic performance. Learning disabilities can be diagnosed in a clinical setting by comparing intelligence scores to achievement test scores.
- In general, the WISC is a useful tool for assessing children's cognitive abilities and can provide useful information for educational and intervention planning. It should be noted that the WISC is only one tool in a larger assessment process and should be used in conjunction with other assessment measures and information sources. Furthermore, the test must be administered in a standardised and appropriate manner by a trained professional.

5.2.2 Tools for Assessing Personality

The Children's Personality Questionnaire (CPQ), is one of the most commonly used personality inventories with children. Let us study the same in some more detail.

1) Children's Personality Questionnaire (CPQ)

Personality inventories typically assess several traits. The Children's Personality Questionnaire (CPQ)(Porter & Cattell, 1985)is a self-report personality inventory for children aged 8 to 12. It can be used to assess their personal, social, and academic development, as well as aspects of their personality that influence academic performance and social adjustment both inside and outside of the classroom. Because the findings supplement standard academic aptitude measures, they can be used to improve the accuracy of academic achievement prediction. They have also been used to evaluate candidates for scholarships and to assist school and occupational counsellors in career guidance.

The questionnaire assesses 14 personality dimensions based on a factor analysis of personality conducted by Cattell in 1950. There are four forms

to choose from: A, B, C, and D. Each form has 140 items, with ten for each dimension. Each form contains 140 items, with 10 items per factor per form. Each form is divided into two parts. Thus, Form A is composed of Parts A1 and A2, each of which contains 70 items. Forms B, C, and D are divided similarly. Except for the items in factor B, intelligence, each item has a forced-choice, "yes" or "no" answer.

The items were designed to be as "neutral" in terms of social desirability as possible. It is designed to require only a normal reading vocabulary of an average child of eight. The test is given without a time limit, and for younger children, the testing time can be divided into two parts for a given form; however, one test session should not last more than 50 minutes.

Answer sheets can be machine-scored by the publisher or hand-scored by the test administrator. There are two separate stencils available for scoring the answer sheet. These two stencils are required to obtain the 14 raw scores from each of the test forms.

Scores are displayed as normalised stens (N stens), standard deviation stens (S stens), and percentile ranks. The manual includes separate norms tables for boys and girls because several personality factors have significantly different means between the groups.

Applications and Uses of the Test

WISC has several applications and uses for the following purposes:

- To gain a better understanding of children whose educational progress is clearly hampered by personality issues.
- To identify children who require individual attention and to guide those children who have emotional conflicts or behavioural disorders. Because of this earlier recognition, many behavioural issues can be avoided or handled before they develop into defensive habits and other complications that are resistant to treatment.
- To assist the student in making future educational and vocational decisions.
- When appropriately weighted personality measures are used, future school achievement and creativity can be predicted and understood more precisely.
- To encourage the keeping of meaningful developmental records for children. Clinical practice and work with delinquents and children courts all require a diagnostic instrument which operates with these basic personality concepts.
- To assess the progression of character and personality development. If schools keep test and criterion records of emotional maturity, self-control, anxiety level, concentration capacity, social learning, and other such traits, these traits may eventually receive as much intelligent attention as academic grades do now.

- It can be used as an individual test in the clinic or as a group test in the classroom.
- In general, it can be used to assess, comprehend, and predict personal adjustment, social development, and academic performance.

We have learned briefly about projective tests in Section 5.1.2. Some commonly used projective techniques are discussed further below.

2) Children's Apperception Test (CAT)

The Children Apperception Test (CAT)was developed and published in 1949 by psychiatrist and psychologist Leopold Bellak and Sonya Sorel Bellak. It is based on the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), a picture-story test designed for adults. The Indian version of CAT is also available.

The Children's Apperception Test (CAT) is a projective personality test used to assess individual differences in children's responses to standardised stimuli presented as pictures of animals (CAT-A) or humans (CAT-H) in common social situations. The stimuli in the CAT-S, a supplement to the CAT, include images of children in common family situations, such as prolonged illnesses, births, deaths, and separations from parental figures.

The CAT is used to assess personality, maturity level, and, in some cases, psychological health. The theory is that a child's responses to a series of drawings of animals or humans in familiar. According to the theory, a child's reactions to a series of drawings of animals or humans in familiar situations will reveal significant aspects of the child's personality.

Some of these personality dimensions include:

- reality testing and judgement,
- control and regulation of drives,
- defences,
- conflicts, and
- autonomy.

Because the CAT cards are intended for children aged three to ten, animal figures are used instead of human figures. It was assumed that children aged three to ten would identify more easily with animal drawings. These animal images are more like human situations involving -

- feeding issues,
- sibling rivalry,
- parent-child relationships,
- aggression,
- toilet training, and
- other childhood experiences.

CAT supplementary cards depict various scenarios such as –

- the classroom,
- playground interaction, and
- reactions to illness.

A trained professional should administer the CAT, which usually takes 20-45 minutes. The test can be used in therapy directly or as a play technique in other settings. After carefully establishing rapport with the child, the examiner shows the child one card after another in a specific sequence (although fewer than ten cards may be used at the examiner's discretion) and encourages the child to tell a story about the characters, complete with a beginning, middle, and end.

The examiner may ask the child to describe the scene depicted, the emotions of the characters, and what might happen in the future. There are no correct or incorrect answers in a projective test like the CAT. As a result, the test has no numerical score or scale. On the provided form, the test administrator records the essence of each story told and indicates the presence or absence of certain thematic elements.

Each story, like the TAT, is carefully analysed to reveal the child's underlying needs, conflicts, emotions, attitudes, and response patterns. The creators of the CAT recommend a set of ten variables to consider when interpreting the results. The major theme of the story, the major character's needs, drives, anxieties, conflicts, fears, and the child's conception of the external world are among these variables.

The CAT, like other projective measures, has been criticised for lacking a standardised method of administration as well as standard norms for interpretation. Studies of interactions between examiners and test subjects have discovered, for example, that the race, gender, and social class of both participants influence the stories told as well as how the examiner interprets the stories.

Applications and Uses of the Test

CAT has several applications and uses for the following purposes:

- To learn about the child's personality structure, his dynamic way of reacting to problems, and how he would handle his developmental problem.
- The CAT, which is intended for use in clinical, educational, and research settings, provides the examiner with data based on the child's perceptions and imagination, which the examiner can use to better understand the child's current needs, motives, emotions, and conflicts, both conscious and unconscious. It is typically used in clinical assessment as part of a larger battery of tests and interview data.
- The test's images elicit a child's anxieties, fears, and psychological defences.
- This test also tells us about the child's structure and his dynamic method of reacting to and dealing with his developmental problems.

- The CAT may be clinically useful in determining which dynamic and structural factors are associated with a child's behaviour and problems in a group, at school, kindergarten, or at home.
- The CAT could be used as a play technique in therapy.
- CAT can be used to make informed decisions about differential diagnosis and treatment recommendations.

3) Draw-A-Man

Florence L. Goodenough created the Draw-A-Man Test of Intellectual Maturity (DAM) in 1926, and Dale B. Harris revised it in 1963. It has been widely used to assess children's intellectual maturation, to elicit personality type and unconscious material, and as part of neuropsychologic test batteries.

Florence Goodenough, a child psychologist, pioneered the formal use of drawing for psychological assessment in 1926. When Goodenough wanted to find a way to supplement the Stanford-Binet intelligence test with a nonverbal measure, she became interested in drawing. She believed that children draw what they know rather than what they see and that the nature and content of a child's drawing are more closely related to their mental development than to anything else. Many changes can be seen in different ages of children's drawings, and these changes are directly related to a child's general intelligence. Her extensive research on children's drawings resulted in the first drawing intelligence test, known as the Goodenough Draw a Man test.

Among the other psychologists interested in children's development was Piaget (1956-1970), who conducted numerous studies on human drawing. Though the test's initial purpose was to provide an easily scored, relatively culture-free measure of the pre-adolescent child's intellectual functioning, subsequent research has shown that it serves this purpose well.

However, Goodenough proposed a second application of the test: using the DAM to assess personality adjustment. In fact, the test has evolved into a valuable tool for detecting and diagnosing behavioural disorders and individual maladjustment in children. On the theoretical foundation of Goodenough's original effort, several other tests have been developed and validated.

The test guidelines, as established by Goodenough and later revised by Harris, appear to suggest the possibility of analysing personal adjustment with the DAM. The following is the test's central premise: A child's drawing of an object reveals his discrimination about that object as a concept. When expressed, this concept becomes a useful index to the complexity of his concepts in general.

According to Harris, the following three fundamental factors contribute to concept formation:

- **The ability to Perceive**, i.e., to discriminate likenesses.
- **The ability to Abstract** to a new situation this discrimination.
- **The ability to Generalize** from a given context to a new context.

Each of these statements appears to imply that the child must accurately perceive his surroundings in order to be considered adequately adjusted and, as a result, to perform well on the DAM.

The Draw-A-Man Test contains no actual items. Patients are given a blank piece of paper (8.5 x 11) labelled "Draw an Entire Man" and a pencil, and they are instructed to draw an entire man from memory. The Draw-A-Man Test usually takes less than 5 minutes to complete.

Applications and Uses of the Test

DAM has several applications and uses for the following purposes:

- Apart from children, the test has also been used to detect unilateral spatial neglect (USN) in adult stroke patients.
- It can also be used with stroke patients.

It is recommended, however, that it not be used with patients who have had a left stroke or who are left-handed and need to rule out the presence of apraxia, as this may impair the validity of testing results. The Draw-A-Man Test should be used for screening purposes only, not for clinical diagnosis of USN.

5.3 ADULTS: TOOLS FOR ASSESSMENT

In this section, we will learn about two more projective tests which are helpful in personality assessment that are used with adults. They are the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) and the House-Tree-Person Test (HTP). Let us now explore them briefly one by one.

1) Thematic Apperception Test (TAT)

Henry A. Murray and Christina D. Morgan (1930) created the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT), a projective psychological test. Proponents of the technique argue that subjects' responses to ambiguous images of people reveal their underlying motives, concerns, and perspectives on the social world.

Historically, the test has been one of the most widely researched, taught, and used techniques of its kind. The test aims to assess a person's motivational traits, patterns of thought, attitudes, observational capacity, and emotional responses to ambiguous test materials as reflected in the stories.

In the case of the TAT, the ambiguous materials are a set of cards depicting human figures in a variety of settings and situations. The TAT is made up of 31 black-and-white images depicting various social and interpersonal situations. The subject is asked to tell the examiner a story about each picture. Ten of the 31 images are gender-specific, while the remaining 21 can be used with adults of either sex as well as children.

The subject is asked to tell the examiner a story about each card that includes the following elements:

- the event shown in the picture;
- what led up to it;
- what the characters in the picture are feeling and thinking; and
- the outcome of the event.

TAT is widely used in psychology research to investigate topics such as –

- dreams and fantasies,
- mate selection,
- the factors that influence people's occupational choices, and
- similar topics.

Even though it is not a diagnostic test, it is sometimes used in psychiatric evaluations to assess disordered thinking and in forensic examinations to evaluate crime suspects. The TAT can be used to help people better understand their own personalities and use that knowledge to make important life decisions.

Finally, it is sometimes used as a screening tool in psychological evaluations of candidates for high-stress occupations (for example, law enforcement, the military, and religious ministry). There is no specific preparation required before taking the TAT, though most examiners prefer to schedule sessions (if more than one) over two days.

Except for the fact that it is a one-on-one test, there is no standardised procedure or set of cards for administering the TAT. It cannot be given to groups. In one common method, the examiner only shows the subject ten of the 31 cards at each of the two sessions. The sessions are not timed, but they last about an hour on average.

The TAT has been criticised for lacking a standardised administration method as well as standard norms for interpretation. Studies of interactions between examiners and test subjects have revealed that the race, gender, and social class of both participants influence both the stories told and how the examiner interprets the stories. TAT card sets for African American and elderly test subjects have been attempted, but the results have not been encouraging. Furthermore, the 31 standard images have been criticised for being too gloomy or depressing, which may limit the range of personality traits that the test can assess.

The Indian adaptation of TAT was developed by Uma Choudhary in 1960. It consists of 14 cards as modified for the Indian population.

Applications and Uses of the Test

TAT has the applications and uses for the following purposes:

- The TAT is a popular projective test for assessing children and adults. It is intended to reveal a person's perception of interpersonal relationships.
- Thirty-one picture cards are used as prompts for stories and descriptions of relationships or social situations.
- The TAT is useful in the interpretation of behaviour disorders, neuroses, psychoses, and psychosomatic illnesses, as well as in any comprehensive study of personality. As a result, the test can aid in a person's greater understanding and awareness. TAT, like RT (Rorschach Inkblot Test), is a projective test that is especially effective when combined with other forms of analysis, such as psychotherapeutic interviews or brief psychoanalysis.
- TAT is also used as a professional evaluation service. Professional psychologists use the test to help clients better understand themselves. This can assist clients in working on themselves and recognising their own personality, thereby enhancing personal growth.

Therapists can use the TAT in a variety of ways. Among these are:

- **To learn more about a person** - In this way, the test serves as an icebreaker while also providing useful information about potential emotional conflicts that the client may have.

- **To help people express their feelings -** The TAT is frequently used as a therapeutic tool to allow clients to express their feelings in an indirect manner. A client may not be able to express a specific emotion directly, but they may be able to identify the emotion when viewed from a distance.

- **To explore themes related to the person's life experiences -** Clients dealing with issues such as job loss, divorce, or health issues may interpret the ambiguous scenes and relate them to their specific circumstances, allowing for deeper exploration during therapy.

- **To assess someone for psychological conditions-** The test is sometimes used to assess personality or thought disorders.

- **To evaluate crime suspects -** Clinicians may administer the test to criminals in order to assess the risk of recidivism or to determine whether a person fits the profile of a crime suspect.

- **To screen job candidates -** This is sometimes used to determine whether people are suited to specific roles, particularly positions that require dealing with stress and evaluating ambiguous situations, such as military leadership and law enforcement.

2) The House-Tree-Person Test (HTP)

The House-Tree-Person Test (HTP) is a projective test that is used to assess various aspects of personality. Participants in the test are asked to draw a house, a tree, and a person. These drawings are interpreted to create a picture of the person's cognitive, emotional, and social functioning. John Buck, an early clinical psychologist, developed the HTP test in 1948. It was originally designed to assess children's intelligence and was based on Florence Goodenough's 1926 Draw-A-Man personality test. Buck and psychologist Emanuel Hammer revised the HTP test again in 1969.

HTP is The house-tree-person test is one of the most widely used projective tests for children and adults, and it is appropriate for anyone aged 3 and up. The child must draw a house, a tree, and a person in a specific order. The examiner takes notes on the spontaneous comments and behaviour during the drawing, followed by a planned interview eliciting details, clarification, and material with symbolic significance.

This is a very simple test, but it reveals a lot of information about the child and his interactions with his parents. Clinical psychologists, occupational therapists, and educators all use the test. It is also used as part of a battery of personality and intelligence tests, including the Rorschach, TAT, and WAIS, to assess personality.

Furthermore, the HTP test is an effective tool for assessing brain damage in schizophrenia patients. The house-tree-person test takes about 150 minutes to complete on average. Therapists can choose between a one-phase test in which they draw with a pencil or crayon and a two-phase test in which they draw with a crayon in the first phase and a pencil in the second. Each phase is divided into two parts, with the first being nonverbal and creative, and the second being structured and verbal.

On separate sheets of paper, test takers are instructed to draw a house, a tree, and a person as accurately as possible. Following that, they are asked a series of questions about their drawings. Buck proposed a list of 60 questions, but trained test administrators are free to create their own variations and follow-up questions. Here are some examples of the questions that might be asked:

The house	**The tree**	**The person**
Who lives in the house?	What kind of tree is it?	Who is the person?
Do people visit the house?	How old is the tree?	How old is the person?
Is it a happy house?	What season is it?	How does that person feel?
What is the house made of?	Is the tree alive?	Is the person happy?
What goes on inside the house?	Who waters the tree?	What does the person like doing?

After the respondents have answered the questions, their drawings are analysed and interpreted. It is based on the idea that drawings reflect feelings. The details of a drawing are interpreted as representations of various personality traits. Thus, **Drawing a house** is thought to express the respondent's family relations and family values, whereas **drawing a tree** is thought to suggest the deepest, unconscious aspects of the personality. **Drawing a person**, on the other hand, is a symbolic representation of one's ideal self and social interactions.

Other aspects of drawings include the dimensions of objects, the level of detail, the placement of objects on the page, and the pressure, firmness, and solidity of strokes and lines, which indicate determination and decision-making abilities. In addition to the above factors, therapists consider the test taker's attitude, words, and gestures while drawing. Any expression of frustration, anger, or satisfaction is taken into account in test analysis.

A house-tree-person test can be scored objectively or subjectively. In administering and scoring the HTP tests, trained therapists rely on John Buck's 350-page manual and interpretive guide. Quantitative scoring provides a general assessment of intelligence. According to research, the quantitative assessment correlates strongly with other well-established intelligence measures.

Applications and Uses of the Test

HTP has the applications and uses for the following purposes:

- The HTP's primary goal is to assess aspects of a person's personality through the interpretation of drawings and responses to questions.
- It is also occasionally used to assess brain damage or overall neurological functioning.

5.4 SUMMARY

We learned about the various types of intelligence and personality assessments used with children and adults in this unit. We also discovered that there are a variety of other individual and group intelligence tests. An individual test is given to one person at a time, whereas a group test can be given to more than one person at the same time.

There are two types of intelligence tests: verbal and nonverbal. A verbal test is one that requires the use of language in order to be successful. Nonverbal tests, which do not require the use of words, rely on the ability to analyse visual data to solve problems.

Psychologists also acknowledged that intelligence tests designed for Westerners are not appropriate for use with non-Westerners. As a result, they created many culture-fair tests for cross-cultural use. Though intelligence tests have gained popularity, their widespread use is fraught with controversy. IQ tests can be abused, and if they are, they can be more harmful than helpful.

We also learned that because personality is not a one-dimensional characteristic, personality assessment cannot be based on a single technique. If we want to have a comprehensive, better, and more accurate understanding of an individual's personality, we must combine the various methods of assessing personality. Personality assessment is a field with numerous applications ranging from education to career counselling to clinical settings. Following that, various methods of personality assessment, including direct and indirect techniques, were described.

5.5 QUESTIONS

1. Discuss two tests used to measure intelligence (Intelligence Quotient - IQ).
2. Discuss Coloured Progressive Matrices (CPM) and Standard Progressive Matrices (SPM) in detail.
3. What is a culture-fair test? Give some examples of culture-fair intelligence tests.
4. Describe the Wechsler's Intelligence Scale for Children (WISC).
5. Write a note on the classification of intelligence tests.
6. Give examples of any two projective tests and discuss.
7. Write a note on the applications of personality assessments.
8. Discuss CPQ and its applications.

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6

TOOLS FOR ASSESSMENT IN AREAS OF FAMILY AND INDUSTRY - II

Unit Structure :

6.0 OBJECTIVES

After you go through this unit, you will be able to:

- Know the tools – Kinetic Family Drawings technique and Couples Satisfaction Index (CSI) and discuss their importance.
- Assessment tools used in the industry setting – FIRO – B and cognitive mapping technique and discuss their beneficence.

6.1 FAMILY: ASSESSMENT TOOLS

We learned about a few intelligence and personality assessments used with children and adults in the previous unit. In this unit, we will progress and learn about assessment techniques that focus on the family as a whole. We will also concentrate on assessment techniques used in industrial settings.

In counselling, assessment is the process of gathering vital information about a person and his family. According to Kline (2000), assessment is used to help understand and predict behaviour. Typical assessment methods include history interviews with a person and his or her family, behavioural observations, and formal tests to gather information about the person and family (Lovler, Miller, & McIntire, 2010).

Family counselling without assessment is similar to driving without a map. The counselors must be aware of where all family members have been, where they are now, and where they intend to go in the future

(Deacon & Piercy, 2001).Couples and family counselling meetings are attended by clients for a variety of reasons. Some may seek premarital counselling to help prepare for an upcoming marriage; others may seek couples' counselling to understand why they feel distant from each other after years of marriage; and still others may seek premarital counselling to help prepare for an upcoming marriage.

Professional counselors can use assessment techniques effectively in each of these cases to gather information, develop hypotheses, evaluate treatment progress and outcomes, and facilitate change. As a result, developing treatment interventions for couples, families, and children requires an accurate assessment of family relationships and functioning. In family interventions and individual psychotherapy, the success of a treatment plan is frequently dependent on a careful assessment of the nature of the problem and the potential for a solution (Bray, 2010).

The assessment process involves gathering, analysing, and synthesising relevant data about the family context in order to not only identify stresses and problems, as well as the resulting adaptation, but also to evaluate strengths and resources. We begin with a projective technique of family assessment - the Kinetic family drawings technique (KFD) - and then move on to a self-report inventory known as the Couples Satisfaction Index (CSI). The KFD is similar to other psychometric projective techniques studied in previous units, such as Goodenough's Draw-A-Man Test and Buck's House-Tree-Person (HTP) technique.

6.1.1 Kinetic Family Drawings (KFD) Technique

Kinetic Family Drawing (KFD) is a creative drawing technique. The KFD was created by clinical psychologist and psychiatry professors Burns and Kaufman (1971) at the University of Washington. It requires the test-taker to draw a picture of his or her entire family. Children are asked to draw a picture of their family, including themselves, "doing something." This image is intended to elicit the child's attitudes towards his or her family as well as the overall family dynamics.

The KFD is sometimes used to assess child abuse. The goal of the KFD is to explore and access a child's view of self in the context of the family system by interpreting meaning from what was projected onto the drawing. The inspiration for this tool came from a desire to gather more information from the "family drawing." The argument is that including kinetic action would be more informative than drawing a family with akinetic action.

Figure drawings are projective diagnostic techniques in which a person is instructed to draw a person, an object, or a situation in order to assess cognitive, interpersonal, or psychological functioning. The KFD is based on the premise of object relations theory, which views parents as the objects that mediate self-identification in an automatic and unconscious manner. These objects are expressed in the drawing through characteristics that can provide meaning through styles, actions, symbolism, and chronological timing.

The original KFD text acknowledges that interpreting children's drawings is not a concluding part and it suggests further reading on symbolism. It also emphasises the significance of inquiry in clarifying features, as well as the importance of context and prior knowledge.

The K-F-D method is a type of reflective testing tool; the children's works can be used to gain insight into the interaction of individual family members as well as the development of the child's sense of self within the family.

The K-F-D self is an expression of the nuclear self, which is formed in family life (Fan, 2006). The K-F-D method reflects the inner self of the individual; it is an extremely detailed representation of the childhood self.

The K-F-D drawing analysis focuses on the depiction of the interaction between the individual child and other family members, with the drawing serving as a reflection of the inner self. The K-F-D drawings can be used to gain a better understanding of the child's sense of self within the family and of the psychological interaction between family members by observing and interviewing the children about the characteristics of the human figures portrayed in their drawings, the interaction between family members, the symbols used, the spatial layout of the pictures, and the omission of specific members of the family from the drawings (Fan, 2006).

Description of Kinetic Drawing System

To use the Kinetic Drawing System, all we need is -

- a pencil,
- blank paper,
- a scoring booklet, and
- about 20 minutes with the child.

Procedure with Instructions:

The evaluator hands over to the client a piece of paper and a pencil and instructs -

"Draw a picture of everyone in your family, including you, DOING something. Try to draw whole people, not cartoons or stick figures. Remember, make everyone DO something - some kind of action" (Burns & Kaufman, 1972, p.5).

There is no time limit, but the evaluator should keep track of the time spent. There is no specific post-drawing inquiry, but the evaluator could ask an open-ended question or request about the drawing.

Scoring Procedure:

Scoring is simple. Each drawing is examined by the examiner for the presence or absence of specific characteristics, which are all listed in the Scoring Booklet of the test. Once scored, the drawings can be easily

interpreted by the evaluator by using an interpretive manual to investigate the drawing's style, symbols used, individual actions, and interactions between individuals.

The evaluator also takes into account the distance between figures, the size of the figures (as measured on a grid provided in the interpretive manual), barriers, and figure combinations. Defence mechanisms depicted and omitted body parts should be investigated further.

Strengths,Weaknesses and Application of Kinetic Family Drawing:

Strengths:

- In a single drawing, this assessment provides a lot of information about a person and his or her perception of the familial dynamic.
- The interpretive manual depicts actions, styles, and symbols with illustrations.
- It enables information to be gathered in ways that clinical interviews, observations, or questionnaires cannot.

Limitations:

- Because it is necessary to draw human figures in action, this drawing may be perceived as artistically challenging and relatively threatening.
- The manual's organisation makes it difficult to use.
- This assessment is not supported by empirical research.

Applications:

- The KFD is a projective tool for determining a client's self-concept and interpersonal relationships. In this sense, the Kinetic-Family-Drawing (K-F-D) is a tool for measuring family dynamics, including self-development within various family matrices.

- If we speak the language, K-F-Ds can tell us a lot about family interactions. Most of us, however, are visually illiterate and miss the valuable, rich, documented sources of personal and interpersonal information that are captured and fixed in K-F-Ds. The K-F-D represents how one perceives himself/herself in the context of his/her family.

- The goal of a KFD is not to find a solution to a problem; rather, it should supplement interviews and therapy, which can investigate deeper into the context.

- Interpretations of KFD without validation or triangulation are misleading because the content is heavily subjective.

- While it is acknowledged that the KFD is best administered in conjunction with an interview, there appears to be no specific guidance on the process in the literature.

- The KFD is being studied as part of the projective techniques in clinical psychological assessment research.
- In the United States, the KFD is frequently used as part of the formal clinical psychology assessment process.
- In contrast, UK clinical psychologists preferred interviews, and when the KFD was used, it served two functions. It was 'rarely used' in formal assessment and 'frequently/always used' in informal data collection.
- The tool can be used to build rapport and as an informal technique that children enjoy and find accessible.
- KFDs can also be used in family therapy by assigning a task to everyone in the room.

Next, we move on to the Couple Satisfaction Index (CSI).

6.1.2 Couples Satisfaction Index (CSI)

Marriage is one of the most intimate relationships. Marriage is the primary source of adult intimacy, support, companionship, and personal growth for many couples. A satisfying romantic relationship is one of the strongest predictors of life satisfaction and well-being, which translates to better physical health and a longer lifespan.

Couples in troubled relationships are more prone to mood and anxiety disorders, as well as drug abuse. Relationship satisfaction has emerged as a primary goal in relationship research as well as couple therapy literature, and it serves as the foundation for understanding how relationships or marriages function.

However, there is conceptual confusion in this field, and many terms, such as satisfaction, adjustment, success, happiness, and companionship have been used in literature. As a result, these terms are frequently used interchangeably.

Couple satisfaction is a subjective evaluation of one's relationship; it is interpreted by assessing one's positive feelings for one's partner, satisfaction with the relationship, and overall evaluation of couple satisfaction. Many factors influence it, including depression, relationship education, sexual communication, sexual satisfaction, and an individual's educational level.

Another factor that influences relationship satisfaction is cultural diversity; collectivistic cultures are characterised by fidelity, support, and partnership, which have an impact on the couple's relationship. In contrast, in individualistic cultures, such as those found in Western countries, satisfaction is associated with achieving the couple's goals rather than meeting individual obligations.

Healthcare professionals essentially have to access valid and reliable tools for assessing the quality of romantic relationships.Such tools have been seen to be related to psychological and physical health outcomes on numerous occasions. Funk and Rogge (2007) created the Couples Satisfaction Index (CSI) to address the shortcomings of the most widely used measures of satisfaction by increasing precision and power of measurement.

Description of the Couples Satisfaction Index (CSI)

Couples Satisfaction Index (CSI) is a 32-item scale designed to assess satisfaction in an intact (married, cohabiting, or dating) couple's relationship. The items are designed to assess the presence of interpersonal problems and the severity of such problems. This measure was originally designed to be used with married or cohabiting couples in large studies with large samples and in studies that can only accommodate measures with a few items.

The scale is a self-report version with various items with varying response scales and formats. The authors have also specified that the scale can be safely shrunk to a 16-item format or even a 4-item format, depending on the needs of the researcher.

The CSI scales are freely available for research and clinical use, and no additional permission is required beyond the form, nor do the authors generate study-specific permission letters. This test can be taken in person or online.

Procedure with Instructions:

Item 1 on the CSI-32 uses a 7-point scale.

"Please indicate the degree of happiness, all things considered, of your relationship, with 0 being extremely unhappy and 6 being perfect.

The other 31 items, on the other hand, used a variety of response anchors, all with 6-point scales. For example -

"I feel I can confide in my partner about almost anything".

Participants are given circles to fill in (on paper versions) or radio buttons to click (on online surveys) while administering the scale.

CSI scores have a strong correlation with other measures of relationship satisfaction (including all of the measures that influenced its development) and can distinguish between distressed and non-distressed relationships. Cronbach's coefficient was 0.98 for the entire scale.

Scoring and Interpretation:

To score the CSI-32, simply add the responses from all of the items. The CSI-32 score ranges from 0 to 161. Higher scores indicate more relationship satisfaction. CSI-32 scores less than 104.5 indicate significant relationship dissatisfaction.

Strengths and limitations of the CSI

Strengths:

- The CSI is a reliable metric with high internal consistency.
- The measure can be used with a variety of intact couples (married, cohabiting, exclusive but not living together, and so on).
- Apart from the original 32-item one, which is free to access and easy to score, it has two short measures (16-item and 4-item).

Limitations:

- There is little information on the CSI-16's test-retest reliability.
- There is insufficient evidence to establish that the CSI-16 is sensitive to change in short interventions.
- Due to a lack of translated versions, the use of this questionnaire is restricted.

6.2 INDUSTRY: ASSESSMENT TOOLS

No human wants to live alone because their instincts are driven or triggered by socialisation, and they want to interact and share their social cravings with others - whether at work, at home, or in social settings. As a result, people face some subtle challenges in maintaining healthy or cordial relationships over time. Relationships can be harmed or damaged as a result of minor annoyances or misunderstandings. As a result, the by-products of strained workplace relationships such as stress, anxiety, jealousy, unfair competition, frustrations, and so on contribute to a decrease in employee work efficiency.

Because many of these issues would affect the entire group, they could lead to personal incompatibility. As a result, using the personalityinventory scores to determine team membership appears logical. There are numerous such instruments available, but the cost, intrusiveness, and requirement for a counselor's interpretation make many of them burdensome.

To avoid such complications, the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behaviour (FIRO-B; Schutz, 1992) is frequently chosen for use in assigning members to writing teams. Everyone has different requirements for participation, influence, and closeness. These needs shape how we interact with others.The FIRO-B instrument is designed to measure personality characteristics on six dimensions— Expressed Affection, Wanted Affection, Expressed Inclusion, Wanted Inclusion, Expressed Control, and Wanted Control.

6.1.3 Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behaviour(FIRO – B)

William Schutz, PhD developed the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behaviour TM (FIRO-B®) instrument in the late 1950s and published it in 1958 in the book FIRO: A Three-Dimensional Theory of

Interpersonal Behaviour. Schutz created the FIRO-B theory to help understand and predict how high-performance military teams would collaborate.

Schutz began developing the FIRO-B theory with the premise that "people need people." His theory's basic premise was simple: "People need people," and people's interpersonal needs motivate their behaviours. He used the term interpersonal to refer to any interaction between people, real or imagined. He used the term "need" to describe a psychological condition that, if not met, causes discomfort or anxiety.

Schutz was influenced by psychological literature, including the works of Freud, Adorno, Fromm, Adler, and Jung, among others, in addition to his own observations of group behaviour. He proposed categorising interpersonal needs into three categories: inclusion, control, and affection. The FIRO-B model describes how these three types of interpersonal needs interact along two dimensions: expressed and wanted.

Description of FIRO-B

For over 40 years, the FIRO-B assessment has assisted people all over the world in unravelling the mysteries of human interaction at work and in their personal lives.

This 54-item self-scorable instrument is simple to complete and administer, and it quickly gathers critical insights into how an individual's needs for inclusion, control, and affection can shape his or her interactions with others.

The FIRO-B tool kit includes –

- some narrative and graphic reports,
- a technical guide,
- booklets and
- other resources that highlight ways to use the assessment as an integral part of team-building initiatives, management training programmes, and communication workshops.

It is ideal for use in one-on-one coaching, small groups, or teams. The FIRO-B instrument assesses the individuals' interpersonal needs as well as the impact of their workplace behaviour.

Three needs are assessed along two dimensions: "expressed" behaviour (how much we initiate behaviour) and "wanted" behaviour (how much we prefer others to initiate behaviour).

The FIRO-B reports help the individuals manage their behaviour, identify stagnation and conflict, and find possible solutions, as well as increase productivity by being aware of interpersonal dynamics at work.

Scoring and Interpretation:

- A high "expressed" score indicates that the individual believes he or she exhibits this behaviour, whereas -
- a high "wanted" score indicates that the individual wishes for others to act in this manner in relation to him or her.
- Affection and Inclusion are similar, but Control is very different.

Uses of FIRO-B:-

The FIRO–B assessments are appropriate for a variety of applications, including the following:

- **Team building**—To accelerate team formation and enable members to overcome obstacles and progress to higher levels of performance.
- **Leadership and executive development**—to identify leadership styles and assist leaders in unlocking greater team performance by meeting managers', peers', and direct reports' interpersonal needs.
- **Relationship building**—to help employees understand how to meet the interpersonal needs of customers and stakeholders in order to get the most out of working relationships.
- **Professional development**—to raise employees' self-awareness in order to better understand how positive behavioural changes boost morale, productivity, and engagement.
- **Conflict management**—to enhance abilities in assessing various types of conflict and employing emotionally intelligent strategies.

The FIRO-B instrument can also be used in conjunction with the MBTI® instrument for leadership development, as demonstrated by the Leadership Report Using FIRO-B® and MBTI®, as well as in team-building workshops.

Strengths:

Apart from improving workplace interactions, this test is -

- **Simple -** Easy to use in helping individuals, teams, and organizations; easy to incorporate into training, consulting, and coaching.
- **Powerful** - For understanding human behaviour and motivation in a wide variety of situations.
- **Comprehensive -** The three basic dimensions—inclusion, control, and openness—describe the dynamics of individuals, pairs, teams & organizations, eliminating the need for multiple models

6.1.4 Cognitive Mapping

In the 1930s,the groundbreaking psychology experiment took place in a Berkeley University lab.They revolutionised design process thinking and UX research and taught the world about latent learning and cognitive mapping.They also laid the groundwork for what is known as mental models.

Edward Tolman, the scientist who pioneered the concept of cognitive mapping in psychology, was a strong supporter of latent learning. This is defined as a type of learning that is not necessarily visible or apparent during the process of information input but becomes apparent later on when appropriate situations or motivations enter the picture.

In other words, the brain engages in the process of learning not only by responding to positive or negative reinforcement, but also at a subconscious level.

For example, you may not consciously try to learn and remember the route to work, including the buildings, shops, trees, and even people's faces, but if asked to draw a map of the same route from memory, you will be able to do so in most cases.

Tolman (1948) coined the term "cognitive mapping" in his paper "Cognitive Maps in Mice and Men". However, social and behavioural scientists did not adopt the ideas until the 1970s (Eden, 1988).

Most early cognitive mapping research focused on problem-solving with individuals, where cognitive mapping was used as a "reflective device," and it was broadly classified as part of the "counselling paradigm." As a result, the goal of using cognitive maps was to guide careful problem construction and assist individuals in "changing their minds" in a creative way.

Cognitive mapping is defined as "a process of a series of psychological transformations by which an individual acquires, codes, stores, recalls, and decodes information about the relative locations and attributes of phenomena in their everyday spatial environment."

This is best understood as a neuropsychological process in which both conscious and subconscious levels of learning are involved, and where conscious intent is not always present. This mapping produces a graphical layout or diagram form of the information that is "mapped" by the brain, also known as a cognitive map.

In layman's terms, a cognitive map is an overall mental image or visual representation of a setting's spatial layout. Cognitive mapping is the process by which the brain forms a mental structure based on memory and instincts, which can then be represented by a physical visual diagram or schema.

The Psychology of Cognitive Mapping

Many people remember things and past events in a very different light than they did at the time. When we recall events, situations, or even people's faces and how they sounded, we tend to identify, portray, and retell them using our subjective beliefs.

Through his experiments on rats, Edward Tolman discovered that each person's cognitive maps are unique, and they not only provide insights into an individual's mental representation of concepts, but also the relationships between these concepts.

In other words -how we each perceive and represent the "maze" in our brain. These cognitive maps are used by psychologists to gain a better understanding of a person's psyche in terms of what that person knows and believes.

From the perspective of the design process, cognitive mapping is a comprehensive, all-encompassing process that includes visual representations of mental models (diagrams, schema, flowcharts, etc.). A cognitive map is as simple as taking a piece of paper and a pencil or crayon and drawing a map of your work route.

Characteristics of Cognitive Mapping

- **Diverse in nature and purpose:** Cognitive mapping is used for a variety of purposes across many disciplines. The most general type of mental-model visualisation is cognitive maps.
- **No restrictions on structure or form:** Cognitive maps are not required to follow a specific format. As a result, they are frequently abstract and lack a consistent hierarchy. They are adaptable and can accommodate a broad range of concepts or situations that must be represented.

Benefits of Using Cognitive Mapping Technique

1. Cognitive scientists typically seek to describe and comprehend the behaviour of actors or social systems by analysing action units or broad action techniques. In light of this, a cognitive map can serve as a rough approximation, or even as a simulation tool, for the thought patterns and bases that are assumed to underpin managerial decision-making.
2. Cognitive maps contain more information and can help to capture more richness and shade of what is said than conventional notes.
3. Cognitive mapping can assist in organising people's jumbled thoughts in a more meaningful way. And, once thoughts are properly structured, mapping can assist in distinguishing between goals, options, or central ideas and peripheral ideas.
4. Discussing interviewees' cognitive maps can help to explore and develop the argumentation beyond the often superficial points initially made. Furthermore, researchers discovered that cognitive maps were easier to understand than a matrix or some mathematical notation.

5. Cognitive maps are viewed as tools that can be used to examine and improve managerial judgement. The use of graphics aids in the simplification of ideas and the transmission of complex ideas from individual to individual and organisation to organisation. This assists managers in making sense of complicated organisational issues.
6. Maps can help to highlight priorities, particularly when the decision-maker is overwhelmed with information. On the other hand, if there is less available information, maps can provide missing information based on existing patterns, thereby facilitating decision-making.
7. Individuals are given feedback using cognitive maps; this procedure facilitates self-examination and leads the individual to modify his attitudes and behaviour. Managers could use it as a whiteboard to record and reveal critical system elements (of employees) and their influence links for analysis and discussion. As a result, cognitive mapping can also be used as a communication or training tool.

Limitations of Cognitive Maps

1. It is difficult to represent normative beliefs or operational maxims in terms of a cognitive map, that is, what it is or what should be done. In this regard, a cognitive map is indeterminate because such assertions cannot be read directly from a map and then used to accurately describe or predict the behaviour of organisational actors (Laukkanen, 1990). As a result, if accurate prediction of outcomes or action dynamics is critical, the cognitive mapping technique may not be appropriate.
2. Furthermore, in terms of labour (efforts) and economics (costs), cognitive maps are typically more expensive to produce than a set of sentences covering roughly the same area.
3. In addition, if the data and the resulting volume of cognitive detail to be represented and analysed are inherently large, the use of a computer-based programme becomes necessary, which is not only time-consuming but also requires expert handling.
4. Furthermore, analysing cognitive maps is difficult because there are few prescriptive methods.

6.3 SUMMARY

This unit helped us understand how a family works, why it is critical to use assessment strategies that are appropriate to the family's cultural background and socioeconomic level, and how assessment techniques assist counselors in gathering information about family problems. Typically, a single method cannot provide a complete picture.

As a result, a multidimensional assessment from the perspective of family members to each other is required for family assessment. Couple and family therapy employs a variety of assessment methods, including observational methods, interviews, self-reports of family interaction, and graphic representations of relationships.

Furthermore, we looked at how individuals perceive themselves to be behaving in interpersonal relationships, as well as which instruments can be used to facilitate effectiveness in those relationships.

FIRO-B has been widely used in a variety of settings, including the investigation of individual personality dynamics, sensitivity training, marriage counselling, personnel selection and assignment, team building, and, most importantly, managerial relationships. FIRO-B focuses on three aspects of human relationships: inclusion, control, and affection.

In addition to these, this chapter also helped to understand the concept of "cognitive mapping." Cognitive mapping is a type of mental representation that allows people to acquire, code, store, recall, and decode information about the relative locations and characteristics of phenomena in their everyday or metaphorical spatial environment.

6.4 QUESTIONS

1. Discuss in detail a projective technique used in family assessment – the Kinetic Family Drawings (KFD) test.
2. Write a note on the uses and applications of KFD.
3. Write a note on the Couple Satisfaction Index.
4. Write a note on FIRO – B and how is it useful in improving workplace- interaction.
5. What is cognitive mapping?
6. What are the benefits and limitations of Cognitive mapping?

6.5 REFERENCES

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7

TOOLS FOR ASSESSMENT IN AREAS OF ATTITUDE AND WELL-BEING – I

Unit Structure :

7.0 OBJECTIVES

- To understand what is attitude, its components, and its development.
- To know the characteristics and types of attitudes.
- To know different methods of measuring attitudes.
- To understand the concept of well-being and its classification.

7.1 INTRODUCTION

Humans are social animals influenced by their social interactions and society as a whole. As a result of these social interactions, they form opinions about people and various issues in life. Attitudes are formed when these views are more than just thoughts and include emotional and action components.

Attitudes are very important in our lives because they determine how we react to people and objects in our environment. Attitudes are our expressions of our likes and dislikes for people and things. They influence or direct our behaviour in social situations. For example, you have probably noticed that your behaviour differs when you are nursing an elderly man versus a child, or when you're nursing a critically ill patient versus one with a minor illness. These behavioural differences are the result of your attitudes towards the elderly and children. How you interact

with a patient suffering from these diseases is determined by your attitude towards a critical, terminally ill patient.

Attitude is a point of view or thought about any topic (attitude object) that is accompanied by an emotional component and an action component that causes us to behave in a specific way in relation to an attitude object.

The cognitive aspect refers to the thought (or viewpoint) component. The affective aspect refers to the emotional component, and the behavioural aspect refers to the action component. These three elements are known as the A-B-C components of an attitude.

- **Affective aspect: Emotional or feeling component (**How he feels about it.)

- **Behavioural aspect: Action component (**Behavioural tendency both verbal and nonverbal towards the object).

- **Cognitive aspect: Thought component (**What a person knows of it and his belief about it).

Attitudes are a predisposed tendency to respond in a specific way rather than a fixed response. A variety of factors influence attitudes. Attitudes are evaluations of a wide range of attitudinal items such as likes/dislikes, anti-pro, positive or negative. An object of attitude is anything that elicits evaluative feelings.

A distinction is often made between attitude and opinion. An opinion is a belief that a person has about something in his environment. It differs from attitude in that it lacks the affective component that is central to attitude. Attitudes differ from value systems in that attitudes are thought of as being about a single object, even if that object is abstract.

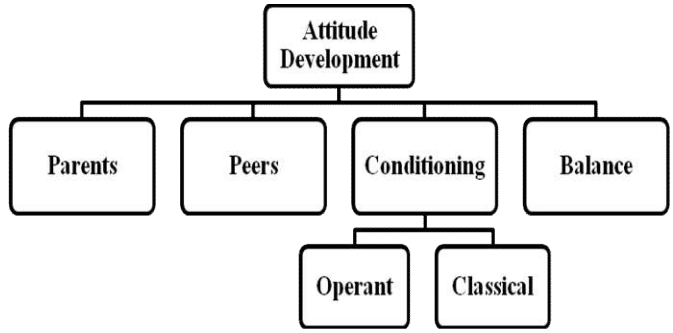
Value systems, on the other hand, are orientations towards entire object classes. Value systems are frequently formed from individual attitudes. Attitudes are frequently functional in the sense that they provide emotional satisfaction to the individual. The entire personality structure of an individual, and thus his behaviour, can be thought of as organised around a central value system composed of many related attitudes.

7.2 ATTITUDES

Development of Attitudes

Attitudes can develop in a variety of ways. Heredity may play only a minor role in differences in physical characteristics and intelligence. Environmental factors are primarily responsible for the formation of attitudes. They are as follows:

Figure 7.1 Responsible Factors For the Development of Attitudes



- **Parents**:- Family is the first place where attitudes are formed. Parents initiate the information flow that shapes beliefs and attitudes towards things. Based on early information, we form categories in our heads. Sullivan has discovered that the information provided by parents in the early stages of life is extremely difficult to reverse. Parental feedback shapes incorrect and non-adaptive attitudes, with huge implications for future personality development.

- **Peers:-**Other people, such as friends and group members, tend to influence us as we grow. They act as a reference group in the formation of attitudes. One identifies with friends and shapes his or her attitudes in relation to the dominant norms of the group in question.

- **Conditioning:-**

a) Classical Conditioning: The association of a conditioned stimulus with an unconditioned stimulus is referred to as classical conditioning. According to Staats and Staats (1958), words that have acquired affective meaning can generate either positive or negative attitudes.

The general implications of classically conditioned attitudes were demonstrated by Zanna, Kiesler, and Pilkoris (1970). Many attitudes formed through classical conditioning are found to be irrational because they were paired with an emotion-producing unconditioned stimulus, either accidentally or in a completely unrelated situation. Classical conditioning can also be used to develop appropriate attitudes.

b) Instrumental Conditioning: Instrumental conditioning can be used to teach an attitudinal response by reinforcing a response that occurred in the presence of a discriminated stimulus. Insko (1965) demonstrated the long-term persistence of conditioned attitudes.

- **Forming Attitudes by Balance:-**According to balance theory (Heider, 1946, 1950; Newcomb, 1953), people prefer consistency or harmony in the relationship between their cognitions. Because everyone prefers balance, people develop attitudes that are compatible with other existing sentimental relationships.

Characteristics of Attitudes

- People can have either a positive or negative attitude. For example, some people may believe that climate change is real, whereas others do not.

- Similarly, attitudes towards objects, specific people, an entire cultural group, or a social group can be positive or negative. They are the result of people's experiences and exposures.

- Some attitudes are very stable and resistant to change, whereas others are unstable and vary greatly depending on the situation.

- We may have strong feelings about some things, but our feelings about other things or issues may be hazy or uncertain (Tormala& Rucker, 2007).

- When we do not have a specific attitude towards something, attitudes related to that topic may influence the attitude we develop towards that specific issue.

Types of Attitudes

In general, attitudes can be classified into two types:

- **Explicit attitudes:** These are the attitudes that we are consciously aware of and can easily communicate to others.

- **Implicit attitudes:** These are attitudes that we do not consciously possess. They are more difficult to control and are not self-reported.

7.2.1 Measurement of Attitudes

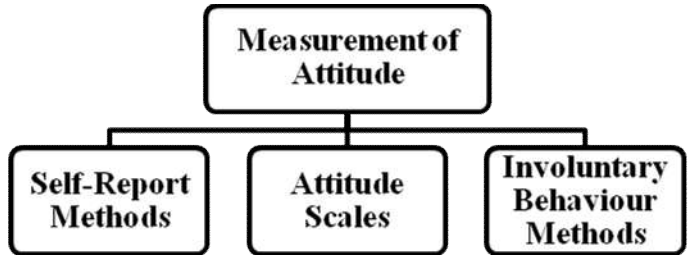
The term attitude was coined to describe some underlying response tendencies. Attitudes cannot be precisely measured because they are hypothetical constructs. Any attempt to assess them must be inferential, which means we can only examine behaviour that is logically inferred to indicate the attitudes to be measured and quantify these indications to get a sense of how much individuals or groups differ in their psychological orientations towards a specific object or issue.

As previously stated, attitudes are measured using inference. However, some data are required to support the inference. Several techniques are used to collect this information. Respondents may be explicitly questioned about their feelings about the study's topic, given a task with specific instructions, and their recorded performance.

Let us go into detail about some techniques. Attitudes are assessments. Attitudes can be measured in a variety of ways. Some are very simple, while others are quite complex. In general, attitudes can be measured by

using the techniques depicted in Figure 7.2. Let us explore them one by one.

Figure 7.2 Measurement of Attitudes



- **Self-Report Methods**

The respondent is given a questionnaire or a list of statements related to the attitudinal object in the self-reporting method. The response format is either fixed, in which response categories such as agree-disagree, like dislike, favourable unfavourable are named; or left open-ended, in which respondents can use their own words, in which an individual's attitude is measured simply by asking him/her about the attitude object.

Thus, self-report measures contain straightforward and direct questions. However, attitudes cannot be measured simply by asking a single question. As a result, another tool, attitude scales, is used to measure attitudes.

Self-report has several drawbacks. People are sometimes more concerned with making a good impression, which makes it difficult for them to admit their prejudices, stereotypes, weaknesses, and failures. It is also related to social conformity, as people may respond differently than they believe. Another disadvantage of this type of measurement is that a question may mean different things to different respondents, resulting in inaccurate measurements. Another disadvantage of this method.

- **Attitude Scales**

Attitude scaling is the process of creating a scale to serve as a foundation for assigning a numerical value to a person's attitude and comparing him or her to others. When an attitude is conceived of as measurable on a single scale, this is possible. In theory, such a scale can be nominal, ordinal, or interval, but most are built and used as interval scales (even when they are ordinal).

The attitude scale can be said to be another type of self-report, which consists of many questions grouped to form a questionnaire. These all questions revolve around the same attitude object.

There are several established procedures for attitude scaling, including the Thurstone, Likert, and Guttman methods. Among these, the Likert scale is the most commonly used tool. The respondent is given a questionnaire to

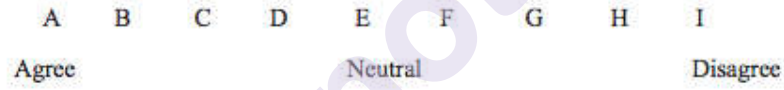
fill out, and the total score is computed based on the responses. The score is then used to assess a person's attitude.

Although some attitude questionnaires measure more than one dimension, the scores on the various individual questions are all assigned to one or the other dimension. The Eysenck Personality Inventory's extroversion and neuroticism scales, the Machiavellianism scale's Tactics and Views dimensions, and the Telic Dominance Scale subscales are all examples.
The four methods of constructing attitude scales viz.

a) **Thurstone type scale** – A Thurstone scale is an attitude scale made up of items (statements) with which the respondent must either agree or disagree. Only items on which they both agree are scored. Each item has a value, and the respondent's scale score corresponds to the mean of the items with which the respondent agrees.

The item scores are usually calculated by asking some judges to rank each item on the scale using an eleven-point scale that reflects the attitude being measured. Each item's final score is the median of the individual scores of all judges.

Typically, more items are judged than are used, and the final selection is based on two criteria: first, that items covering the entire eleven-point range are included, and second, that items have a small variation (between judges).



b) **Likert type scale** - Likert scaling is a method of attitude scaling in which respondents indicate their level of agreement with each item on a scale (e.g., a five- or seven-point scale). Their scale score is the sum of their scores for each item.

Likert scales were developed in 1932 as an extension of Thurstone scales, with the goal of eliminating the unreliability of using intermediary judges in scale construction. Original Likert scales lacked a neutral or middle point, and respondents were 'forced' to agree or disagree with the scale item.

Most current users of Likert-type scales do not adhere to this specification. Although Likert scales are not always unidimensional, the approach assumes a single dimension. It has been argued that analysing a Likert scale can identify clusters that are indicative of multiple dimensions, but this is far weaker than the multi-dimension identification claimed for Guttman scaling.

c) **Guttman's scalogram** - This is a unidimensional scalogram. The overall position on the attitude dimension is consistent with the responses to each item. Guttman attitude scales entail the researcher

creating a series of hierarchical statements about the concept under consideration. These statements should demonstrate a growing intensity of attitude. The point at which a respondent disagrees with a statement reflects the scale position of the respondent.

The ideal Guttman scale is constructed in such a way that if the respondent disagrees with statement 5 (after agreeing with statements 1–4), the respondent will also disagree with statements 6 and 7, and so on, as these represent more extreme expressions of the attitude under investigation.

Guttman scales are not perfect in practice. The researcher, the subject, and independent judges may not all interpret the rank order of the statements in the same way. Typically, pilot research indicates a coefficient of rank ordering reliability.

The Guttman method's strength is its ability to identify more than one dimension on the scale. The reproducibility coefficient indicates how closely the material relates to a single dimension. Furthermore, the Guttman approach does not draw any conclusions about the latent nature of the data, but rather manipulates the empirical data directly to determine an attitude.

d) **Osgood's semantic differential type-** In Osgood's semantic differential scale, each statement is given two opposing responses, such as good-bad or fair-unfair. This is a relatively simple structure to build. This method appears to be useful for some types of scaling problems.

Semantic differential scaling is a versatile method of attitude scaling in which subjects rate concepts of interest to the researcher on a bipolar (usually) seven-point scale. The scale's two ends are defined by pairs of adjectives with ostensibly opposing meanings (e.g., good/bad, etc.).

Involuntary Behaviour Methods/ Covert measures

Attitudes can be measured indirectly, inwardly, and covertly. Direct questions are not asked in this case, but attitudes are measured indirectly. Observing behaviour, such as facial expressions, tone of voice, or body language, is one option in this regard. Although behaviour gives us hints, it is not a perfect way to assess attitudes. One body movement cannot always convey the same meaning.

For example, we nod our heads when we agree; other times, we nod to be polite. People can also manipulate their outward behaviour in the same way that they can manipulate information in self-reports.

Physiological measures are used in these. Previously, galvanic skin response and pupil size were used to measure attitudes as indicators of arousal. These have not been particularly successful because only the extremes of attitudes can be measured, and the direction of attitude cannot be specified. Electromyographic recordings from the major facial muscles

have recently been used to measure attitudes, but this has yet to be proven. In recent years, some exciting inventions have been made to measure an individual's covert behaviour. Among them, here are the following:

- **Facial Electromyograph (EMG)**

A facial electromyograph is a device that measures the activity of the facial muscles, which is linked to emotions and attitudes. College students' facial muscle activity was recorded by John Cacioppo and Richard Petty (1981) as they listened to a message with which they agreed or disagreed. The pleasant message increased activity in the cheek muscles, a facial pattern associated with happiness. The unpleasant message triggered activity in the forehead and brow area, which are associated with sadness and distress. These subtle changes were missed by outside observers who later observed the participants.

We will see another covert technique called the Implicit Association Test (IAT) in detail (Section 7.2.2), which is also used for measuring attitudes.

Indirect versus Direct Measures

In contrast to direct measures, indirect measures do not rely on verbal self-reports to infer attitudes. Instead, they rely on more indirect measures of attitude, such as differences in reaction times, facial expressions, or specific brain activation. Indirect measures can be further classified as physiological or latency-based.

Techniques such as electro-dermal activity (EDA), pupillometry, eye-tracking, and electromyography (EMG) are examples of physiological measures, as are various brain imaging techniques such as functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI), which allow direct observation of brain activity during mental tasks. These physiological measures, while promising in their own right, do not yet provide standardised forms of attitude assessment.

Furthermore, they necessitate (expensive) equipment and considerable expertise in the field of cognitive neuroscience, rendering most of these research techniques inaccessible and/or unsuitable for more applied research. This is much less true for indirect measures based on response times (or latencies).

Affective priming, the Extrinsic Affective Simon Task, the Go/No-Go Association Task, and, most notably, the Implicit Association Test (IAT) are relatively standardised forms of attitude assessment that require little more than a computer and a testing environment free of external distractions.

7.2.2 Implicit Association Test (IAT)

The concept of an attitude towards an object or person is central to social psychology. Psychologists have traditionally measured attitudes by simply asking people to self-report their beliefs, opinions, or feelings. When measuring socially sensitive attitudes, such as racial prejudice, this approach has limitations because people are often motivated to self-report unprejudiced, egalitarian beliefs (despite harbouring negative associations). To avoid this social-desirability bias, psychologists have devised several tasks aimed at measuring implicit attitudes that are less willing to deliberate control (and potential distortion).

One of the most influential measures of these unconscious attitudes is the Implicit Association Test (IAT). Anthony Greenwald, Debbie McGhee, and Jordan Schwartz published the IAT in the scientific literature in 1998. IAT is a covert measure of unconscious attitudes derived from how quickly people respond to concept pairings such as black or white with good or bad.

The IAT test is based on the fact that we associate various social objects with positive or negative description words more or less readily. IAT is a test that looks for subconscious associations between mental representations of objects (concepts) in memory. Its most well-known application is the evaluation of test subjects' implicit stereotypes, such as associations between specific racial categories and stereotypes about those groups.

The test has been applied to a wide range of belief associations, including those involving racial groups, gender, sexuality, age, and religion, as well as the test taker's self-esteem, political views, and predictions. The validity, reliability, and usefulness of the Implicit Association Test in assessing implicit bias have been the subject of significant academic and popular debate.

The IAT is now widely used in social psychology research, as well as clinical, cognitive, and developmental psychology research to a lesser extent. The IAT has recently been used as an assessment in implicit bias training programs, which aim to reduce participants' unconscious bias and discriminatory behaviour. IATs are increasingly being used in applied micro papers.

While IATs are available off-the-shelf, creating your own IAT may allow you to tap into respondents' implicit attitudes towards something more contextual. The purpose of an IAT is to assess a respondent's implicit attitudes. While asking someone how they feel about something yields an explicit attitude that may be influenced by response biases, the IAT seeks to reveal implicit attitudes. Each respondent is shown a series of stimuli (words and/or images) and is required to sort them into two categories.

The central premise of any IAT is that the stronger the association a respondent forms between two concepts, the faster they form these associations. Each IAT includes several rounds of training, a stereotypical ("easy") paired test, and a non-stereotypical ("hard") paired test. The two categories in which stimuli must be sorted with a keystroke to the right or left are at the top of the screen. A stimulus can be words or images displayed in the middle of a screen.

7.3 WELL BEING

The composite measure of health is well-being. It encompasses all aspects of health in their entirety: physical, social, mental, and sexual, which denote both objective and subjective life conditions. Well-being has been defined as an individual's or other social unit's quality of life, and it can be assessed through the lens of an individual's subjective assessments of his or her experiences, such as perceptions of emotional or spiritual well-being, or through objective measures such as those that index physical health (e.g., blood pressure).

Furthermore, cultural definitions of well-being or positive functioning are frequently found at work within societies. Individuals may be considered to have an adequate quality of life if they are gainfully employed and financially self-sufficient. Regardless of who defines – individuals, researchers, policymakers, or society at large – all definitions carry implicit or explicit values about the components of positive well-being, and definitions of different entities may differ or even conflict.

For example, some people associate luxury with a high quality of life, but groups concerned with social justice may see such a lifestyle as self-indulgent and call its quality into question.

According to Veenhoven (2004), the term "well-being" broadly "denotes that something is in a good state,". Though the term does not specify what is in good condition or what constitutes that good condition, there were primarily two approaches to defining happiness. The hedonic and the eudaimonic traditions. Happiness, positive emotions, and life satisfaction are all central to the hedonic tradition. In contrast, the eudaimonic tradition defined happiness as effective and positive psychological functioning and development.

Despite these opposing viewpoints, well-being as a construct is viewed as multi-dimensional (Dodge et al, 2012). Let us now look at various definitions of well-being.

- Shin and Johnson (1978, pg. 478) stated that “well-being is a global assessment of a person’s quality of life according to his own chosen criteria”.

- Shah and Marks (2004, pg. 2) explained that “well-being is more than just happiness. It is feeling satisfied and happy. Well-being means

developing as a person, being fulfilled, and making a contribution to the community".

- According to Dalal and Misra (2006), the concept of well-being is closer to the concept of mental health, life satisfaction, and happiness.

The concept of well-being refers to a subjective feeling, which involves an evaluation of those affective and cognitive aspects of life which are getting affected by disease and illness directly or indirectly. Often it involves an evaluation of happiness, sense of contentment, sense of belongingness, achievement and being without any distress and discomfort.

Well-being is defined by researchers as the emotional and cognitive understanding of one's own abilities and characteristics, adaptive collaboration with one's community and the world, and lifespan growth and development, which includes life satisfaction and positive energy and mood.

For many decades, the study of well-being has been centred on two concepts of positive functioning:

- One is based on Bradburn's (1969) happiness research, which defined positive functioning as a balance of positive and negative affect. However, this aspect appeared to be primarily related to affective aspects of well-being.

- Diener (1984) provided the second perspective, which was based on cognitive dimensions but lacked an affective dimension of happiness, emphasising life satisfaction as the primary indicator of psychological well-being.

Diener's perspective on subjective well-being emphasises individual strengths and assets rather than illness and weakness. People have an abundance of subjective well-being (SWB) when they have many pleasant and few unpleasant emotions; when they are engaged in interesting activities; when they have many pleasures and fewer pains; and when they are satisfied with their lives (Diener & Oishi, 2000).

However, Ryff (1989), who was also working on conceptualising well-being, argued that this three-component SWB model (happiness, life satisfaction, and positive affect) fails to describe the aspects of a person's life that provide the foundation and meaning of well-being. Ryff defines well-being as more than just happiness with life.

Classification of Well-Being

An individual's or a group's well-being includes both objective and subjective components.

- **Subjective well-being:** It is that aspect of one's well-being that can only be measured directly by asking people about three aspects of well-being:

  - evaluative well-being (life satisfaction),
  - hedonic well-being (positive emotions such as feelings of happiness, sadness, and so on), and
  - eudemonic well-being (sense of purpose and meaning in life).

Subjective well-being is made up of three interconnected components: life satisfaction, pleasant affect, and unpleasant affect. Affect refers to pleasant and unpleasant moods and emotions, whereas life satisfaction refers to a cognitive sense of satisfaction with life (Diener & Suh, 1997, p. 200).

- **Objective well-being:** This type of well-being has its origins in the discipline of economics. It can be measured using self-reports as well as objective measures such as mortality rates, life expectancy, and so on. This type of happiness assesses whether people have access to basic human needs and rights such as education, food, water, and health care.

Well-being can also be classified as emotional well-being, physical well-being, social well-being, workplace well-being, and societal well-being (Davis, 2019).

- **Emotional well-being** refers to a person's ability to cope with stress, be resilient, and express positive emotions.
- **Physical well-being** is defined as improving one's bodily functioning through exercise and a healthy diet.
- **Social well-being** is defined as effective communication, the ability to form relationships, and the availability of adequate social support.
- **Workplace well-being** refers to an individual's ability to advance in his or her profession, pursue one's interests and values, and find meaning and happiness.
- **Societal well-being** entails active participation in community and environmental activities.

Ryff's Model Of Well-Being

Ryff (1989) clarified the conceptualization and assessment of well-being, also known as positive functioning. She contended that happiness and well-being are founded on human strengths, personal striving, and growth.

Ryff and her colleagues developed a model of well-being based on descriptions of positive psychological and social functioning, drawing on theories of positive mental health from personality and clinical psychology (Ryff, & Keyes, 1995). This conceptualization was originally used to

describe positive functioning across the lifespan, but it has since been extended to describe positive mental health (Keyes, 2002).

These researchers developed a definition of happiness that emphasised the positive aspects of mental health. In other words, just as mental illness is defined by symptoms that reflect underlying pathology, these researchers identified markers that reflect underlying mental health and well-being.

According to Ryff's model (1989), well-being is the process of optimally realising one's talents and potential. It also includes people's evaluations of their own lives, both affective and cognitive. It reflects positive functioning, personal strengths, and mental health and serves as a source of resilience in the face of adversity. Here are the three dimensions of well-being as mentioned below:

Emotional Well-Being:

Emotional well-being is defined as having more positive emotions such as joy and happiness and fewer negative emotions such as hatred and jealousy. Three components that explain the emotional well-being are as follows:

- **Positive Affect**: It refers to the presence of positive emotions such as joy and happiness.
- **Negative Affect**: It refers to the absence of negative emotions such as hatred and anger.
- **Life Satisfaction**: It is defined as a feeling of contentment and satisfaction with one's life.

Psychological Well-Being:

Contentment and happiness with one's own life are examples of psychological well-being. CarollRyff (1989) proposed the six-factor model of psychological well-being. She developed a multi-component framework of psychological well-being based on developmental theories such as –

- Jung's (1933) formulation of individuation,
- Jahoda's (1958) positive criteria of mental health,
- Allport's (1961) conception of maturity,
- Roger's (1961) perspectives on fully functioning individuals, and
- Maslow's (1968) conception of self-actualization.

Based on the aforementioned perspectives on positive psychological functioning, Ryff (1989) developed her own conceptualization for describing psychological well-being. She included "autonomy" and "personal growth" dimensions from Jahoda's criteria for positive mental

health, as well as "positive relations with others" from Allport's conception of maturity, in her definition of psychological well-being.

The six dimensions of psychological well-being that Ryff and her colleagues developed based on developmental theories of positive psychological functioning are as follows:

- **Self-Acceptance**: It refers to having a positive attitude towards oneself, accepting different aspects of oneself, and feeling good about one's past life. This is the most important aspect of optimal functioning and maturity.
- **Personal Growth**: To achieve optimal psychological well-being, one must continue to develop one's potential, to grow and expand as a person. This includes feelings of continued growth and effectiveness, as well as openness to new experiences and challenges.
- **Purpose in Life**: A person with a strong sense of purpose in life has goals and beliefs that give meaning and purpose to their life.
- **Environmental Mastery**: This refers to a person's ability to select or create environments that are appropriate for his or her psychological characteristics. People who have a high level of environmental mastery feel competent, can manage complex environments, and can create personally suitable living situations. Positive psychological capital requires active participation and mastery of one's surroundings.
- **Autonomy**: It consists of self-determination, independence, and internal control over one's behaviour. People who have autonomy are at ease with self-direction. They do not seek approval from others, have internal standards, and resist mass laws or negative social pressures from others.
- **Positive Relations with Others**: Interpersonal relationships that are warm, satisfying, and trusting are examples of this. The ability to empathise and love is regarded as a critical component for maintaining positive relationships with others, which contributes to flourishing mental health.

Social Well-Being

In today's terrorised world, social health is a major concern. The appraisal of one's circumstances and functioning in society is referred to as social well-being. Five dimensions of social well-being proposed by Keyes (1998) are as follows:

- **Social Acceptance**: Individuals who demonstrate social acceptance, trust others, believe others are capable of kindness, and maintain positive attitudes towards others while understanding their complexities. Others' social acceptance appears to be the social counterpart of self-acceptance, which is included in psychological well-being.

- **Social Actualization**: This is the belief in society's evolution and the sense that society has potential that is being realised through its institutions and citizens. It also includes the belief that people have potential and that society can evolve positively.
- **Social Contribution**: It is an assessment of one's worth. It entails believing oneself to be an important member of society and believing that one's life is not only useful to society but also valued by others.
- **Social Coherence**: It consists of an interest in society and the belief that society is understandable, logical, predictable, and meaningful. It is the perception of the social world's quality, organisation, and operation, and it includes a desire to know about the world.
- **Social Integration**: This is an assessment of one's relationship with society and community. Integration is the degree to which people feel they have something in common with others and a sense of belonging to their communities and society. This includes a sense of belonging to a community, as well as a sense of comfort and support from the community.

Social well-being entails assessing one's own circumstances and functioning in society. Humans are a social species. How one gets along with others, family members, and society members is determined by social well-being. It refers to how much one feels connected to and included by society.

Despite the complexity of the well-being model (with three components of emotional well-being, six components of psychological well-being, and five components of social well-being), measures of emotional, psychological, and social well-being have high internal reliability and validity. According to research, all three components are related, but each contributes to well-being in its own way. These three well-being measures, which include emotional, psychological, and social well-being, are negatively related to symptoms of mental illness.

As a result, this expanded model of well-being appears to be particularly relevant for investigating the relationship between well-being and mental health. The elements of emotional, psychological, and social well-being are summarised in Figure 7.3.

Figure 7.3 Elements of emotional, psychological and social well-being

7.3.1 Assessment Of Psychological and Social Well-Being

- **Assessment Of Psychological Well-Being (The Ryff Scales Of Psychological Well-Being Scale)**

Before 1989, there was a lot of research on the concept of happiness, which coincided with the rise of the positive psychology movement. While research on these concepts revealed overlapping themes related to well-being and optimal functioning, none of them fully encapsulated the concept of psychological well-being on its own.

Description of the Ryff Scales Of Psychological Well-Being Scale

Today, psychological well-being is a distinct construct with six core dimensions (adapted from Ryff& Keyes, 1995). The Ryff Scales of Psychological Well-Being constitute a theoretically grounded instrument that measures multiple aspects of psychological well-being. Among these aspects are the following:

- Self-acceptance – acceptance of the self
- Relation with Others - the establishment of quality ties to other
- Autonomy - a sense of autonomy in thought and action
- Environmental Mastery - the ability to manage complex environments to suit personal needs and values
- Purpose of Life - the pursuit of meaningful goals and a sense of purpose in life
- Personal Growth - continued growth and development as a person.

Let us take a look at the various scale variations. The most commonly used version of the Psychological Well-being Scales has 42 items that are both positively and negatively worded. The measure is also widely used in an abbreviated, 18-item form. This scale is appropriate for adults with a basic reading level of 6th - 8th grade. The scale usually lasts 3-5 minutes for the 18-item version and 6-8 minutes for the 42-item version.

On a 7-point scale, respondents rate how strongly they agree or disagree with 42 statements (1 = strongly agree; 7 = strongly disagree).

Scoring and Interpretation

To compute subscale scores for each participant, add the responses to each subscale's items. Higher scores indicate greater psychological well-being (a high score indicates that the respondent has mastered that area in his or her life). Certain items, however, have reversed scores because they are worded in the opposite direction of what the scale is measuring.

A low score, on the other hand, indicates that the respondent is uncomfortable with that particular concept. Ryff and colleagues have not published global cut-offs for what constitutes a 'low' or 'high' score on these scales. Instead, assuming a normal sample distribution, researchers

may wish to classify the lower and upper quartiles (25%) of responses as low and high. You could also determine cut points for the lower-, middle-, and upper-scoring groups by randomly assigning respondents to these groups based on their total scores.

The 42- and 18-item Psychological Well-being Scales are described in detail above. While these scales are quick to administer, practitioners looking for a particularly high-quality assessment of well-being may want to use the longer versions of these scales to ensure greater internal consistency. For this purpose, two questionnaires are available: the long (84-item) questionnaire and the medium (54-item) questionnaire.

- **Assessment of Social Well-Being**

Individuals are intertwined with social structures. They must face social challenges and compare their life quality and personal functioning to social criteria (Keyes and Shapiro, 2004). However, in the hedonic and psychological well-being models, research on social well-being has been almost completely ignored (Keyes, 2002; Joshanloo et al., 2012).

Keyes (1998) proposed social well-being as a measure of how well individuals function in the social world in which they are embedded. It is the ability to carry out social roles effectively and efficiently, as well as the monitoring and evaluation of how they operate in the community and the quality of relationships with others, relatives, and social groups.

Lower levels of social well-being were discovered to be the most powerful predictors of poor mental health. Social health indicators include –

- **Social contribution** (a belief that one's life is useful to society and that the output of one's own activities is valued by others),
- **Social integration** (a sense of belonging to a community from which one derives comfort and support),
- **Social acceptance** (a positive attitude towards others while acknowledging and accepting people's differences),
- **Social actualization** (belief in the potential of people, groups, and societies to evolve or grow positively), and
- **Social actualization** (belief in the potential of people, groups, and societies.

Individuals who are socially well-adjusted can deal with problems in their social roles more successfully. Because of the social nature of human life and its challenges, it is impossible to ignore the social aspect of health.

Description of Social Well-Being Scale

One of the most commonly used questionnaires is the Social Well-Being (Keyes, 1998) scale, which measures social health in above mentioned

five domains: social integration (seven items), social acceptance (seven items), social actualization (seven items), social contribution (six items), and social coherence (six items). Thus, the questionnaire contains 33 items, each of which was answered on a five-point Likert scale (1 = "completely disagree" to 5 = "completely agree").

Scoring and Interpretation

Each item was assigned a score between 0 and 4. As a result, the total range of the questionnaire's total score is 0-132. The obtained scores are classified as low (0-44), moderate (44-48), and high (89-132) social well-being.

Higher scores indicate that socially healthier people do not view society negatively and regard themselves as valuable members. They should be concerned about and feel safe in their community, leading a consistent life.

Reliability and Validity

Several studies confirmed the validity and reliability. Cronbach's alpha was 0.81 in Hashemi et al.'s study, which was designed to evaluate the psychometric properties of the questionnaire's short form. Cronbach's alpha ($\alpha = 0.86$) was used to calculate the internal consistency reliability in our study.

In summary, social well-being focuses on individuals' perceptions of and attitudes towards society as a whole. Prior research has found that a sense of community (Sohi et al., 2017) and social participation (Albanesi et al., 2010) have an impact on social well-being.

Furthermore, some studies have demonstrated the outcomes of social well-being, such as anxiety issues (Keyes, 2005), general mental and physical health (Zhang et al., 2011), and prosocial behaviours (Keyes and Ryff, 1998).

7.4 SUMMARY

We covered two topics in this unit: attitudes and well-being. Attitudes are a proclivity to behave or act in response to some aspect of the environment; the intensity of positive or negative affect for or against a psychological object; or an expression of likes and dislikes.

Attitudes are divided into three categories: cognitive, affective, and conative. Parents lay the groundwork for attitude formation by providing information. Conditioning later influences this. According to the Balance theory, developing a harmonious attitude is simple. Many different techniques for measuring attitudes have been developed, with self-report questionnaires being the most common. Attitude scales allow for precise and quantitative measurement. The IAT is now widely used in

social psychology research, as well as clinical, cognitive, and developmental psychology research to a lesser extent. It is a covert measure of unconscious attitudes derived from how quickly people respond to concept pairings such as black or white with good or bad.

Happiness, a sense of contentment, a sense of belonging, achievement, and being free of distress and discomfort are all components of well-being. Subjective well-being and objective well-being are two broad categories of wellness. According to Ryff's (1989) model, well-being is the process of optimally realising one's talents and potential. There are three dimensions to happiness: Well-being on all levels: emotional, psychological, and social. Emotional well-being is defined as having more positive emotions such as joy and happiness and fewer negative emotions such as hatred and jealousy. Contentment and happiness with one's own life are examples of psychological well-being. Social integration, social contribution, social acceptance, social coherence, and social actualization are all dimensions of social well-being.

7.5 QUESTIONS

1. Define attitude and discuss its components.
2. Discuss the development of attitudes.
3. What are the characteristics of attitude?
4. Write a note on the types of attitudes.
5. List the methods of measuring attitudes.
6. Write a note on the covert measures of attitude.
7. Discuss the concept of well–being.
8. How is well-being classified?
9. Write a note on Ryff's model of well-being.
10. What is social well-being and why is it important?
11. Elaborate on the assessment techniques of psychological and social well–being.

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8

TOOLS FOR ASSESSMENT IN AREAS OF ALCOHOL AND DRUGS, DISABILITIES -II

Unit Structure :

8.0 OBJECTIVES

- To understand the concepts of alcoholism, drug abuse, drug dependence-physiological and psychological, drug addiction and drug tolerance.
- To understand the screening for alcohol problems and tools for assessment of dependence.
- To learn the concept of disability.
- To know the different kinds of impairments covered by the RPWD Act 2016.
- To know the psychological and vocational assessment of disability.

8.1 INTRODUCTION

We learned about attitudes and well-being in the previous unit. This unit will focus on the assessment of alcohol, drugs, and disability. Let us first understand these three concepts in this section. In the next sections, we will focus on the assessment part for each of them.

8.1.1 Alcohol And Drug Abuse

Adolescents, young adults, and others are particularly vulnerable to alcoholism and drug abuse. The use of drugs causes a variety of biological and psychological problems in the individual. The accurate assessment of clients' drug use habits is a major responsibility of the community health nurse. Alcohol and drugs have been used in India since the beginning of time. Their primary goal was to find pleasure or to avoid or reduce pain, discomfort, and frustration.

As we are all aware of the fact that alcohol and drug abuse is currently widespread, and this has become a major concern. The misuse of harmful or addictive substances such as alcohol, illegal or street drugs, prescription and over-the-counter medications, and volatile chemicals leads to alcoholism and drug abuse.

As a result, problems such as mental and physical illnesses, as well as family, housing, employment, and legal difficulties (associated with social issues such as broken families, child abuse and delinquency, ruined careers, homicide, suicide, etc.) arise. Cancer, heart disease, AIDS, gastrointestinal and neurological disorders are all known to be linked to alcohol. Thus, this problem is causing so much loss to the country and the world at large.

The prevalence of drug abuse varies by location, whereas alcohol abuse is a nearly universal problem. In fact, drug addiction has reached epidemic proportions in many countries. Drug trafficking is a serious crime against which legal action must be taken. Treatment of substance abuse disorder is complex and difficult because each abuser's reason for substance abuse and addiction is unique. Furthermore, each abuser's family environment and situation are unique.

All of these factors must be considered in the treatment and management of substance abuse. Psychological and pharmacological interventions, such as detoxification and substitute prescribing, are used. Drug use and abuse are on the rise, affecting our children, youth, men and women, and the elderly. To understand these as one of the emerging societal problems, we will now learn the definitions of various terms such as alcoholism, drug abuse, dependence, addiction, and tolerance.

Definition of the terms

- **Alcoholism** is a chronic disease or behavioural disorder characterised by the uncontrollable and repetitive consumption of alcoholic beverages. The drinker's body suffers functional and structural damage as a result of this addiction or habit. The WHO Experts Committee on Mental Health recognises alcohol as a distinct type of drug. Its addiction must be considered as one of the problems associated with drug abuse.

- **Drug Abuse** is defined as the self-administration of a drug for non-medical reasons in amounts and frequencies that may impair an individual's ability to function effectively and result in social, physical, or emotional harm. These drugs cause both psychological and physiological dependence. That is, when a person takes a drug, he or she experiences a sense of well-being (which is actually a pathological state of well-being) and is unable to function mentally or physically.

- **Drug dependence** is described as "a state, psychic and sometimes also physical, resulting from the interaction between a living organism and a drug; characterized by behavioural and other responses that always include a compulsion to take the drug on a continuous or periodic basis in order to experience its psychic effects and sometimes to avoid the discomfort of its absence."

- **Physical dependence** occurs when a drug abuser's body becomes so accustomed to a specific drug that he can function normally only when he takes drugs. When a person stops using drugs, they may experience a range of physical withdrawal symptoms ranging from mild discomfort to convulsions, depending on the type of drug.

- **Drug use** is defined as the use of drugs in accordance with a physician's orders or experimental use without a prescription that has no long-term negative consequences for the individual.

- **Drug Addiction** is defined as the use of drugs for a long enough period of time and at a high enough dosage that the individual's body develops tolerance and dependence on the chemical.

- **Tolerance** is the physiologic need for a drug in increasing amounts to achieve the same psychologic effect, whereas dependence is the physiologic need for a drug in order for the body to function. Withdrawal symptoms occur when such a drug is removed or discontinued.

- **Substance abuse** is a term that is becoming more common in the literature to describe the use of any chemical, drug, or alcohol that causes individual, familial, social, occupational, financial, medical, or legal problems. This term is useful in describing a similar set of problematic behaviours of abusers, but because of the differences in the legalities of alcohol and drug use, it is frequently necessary to separate drug use from alcohol use or abuse in order to adequately discuss the topic.

- **Psychological dependence** occurs when a drug becomes so ingrained in a person's thoughts, emotions, and activities that stopping using it, or even thinking about it, becomes extremely difficult. An intense craving and abnormal obsession for the drug and its effects characterise psychological dependence.

Section 8.2.1 of this unit will deal with alcohol and drug speciality assessment instruments. Now we will understand another important concept which will be learning in the same unit, that is, disability.

8.1.2 Disability

The term "disability" refers to a general absence or lack of one or more capacities that the majority of human beings possess and without which our physical or mental activities are limited partially or completely. Disability is much more complex and is not always readily apparent. It may be either temporary or permanent in different forms, such as a broken limb or chronic migraines that make it difficult to speak. Accordingly, the needs, rights, and provisions centred on disabilities also should not be well taken care of while providing "equal access to all." The question then becomes, what exactly is disability?

Our understanding of what disability is, its consequences, factors that make it worse or help to alleviate it, our approach to disability, and other aspects have evolved over time. At the same time, it remains highly contested. Let us understand the definition of disability given by the World Health Organisation (WHO).

According to WHO (2001), "[a] disability is any condition of the body or mind (impairment) that makes it more difficult for the person with the condition to do certain activities (activity limitation) and interact with the world around them (participation restrictions)".

Three key points in the preceding statement should be highlighted for our attention. The World Health Organisation defines disability as having the following three components:

- **Impairment** in a person's body structure or function, or mental functioning; examples of impairments include loss of a limb, loss of vision or memory loss.

- **Activity limitations**, such as difficulty in seeing, hearing, walking, or problem-solving.

- **Participation restrictions** in normal daily activities, such as working, engaging in social and recreational activities, and obtaining health care and preventive services.

Table 8.1 Difference between the three terminologies

- **Impairment** – It refers to a loss (or a form of abnormality) in physiological, psychological or anatomical structure or function. Impairment can be corrected with the help of aids and/or appliances and does not always lead to a disability or handicap.
- **Disability** – It results from impairment, and refers to a lack of ability to perform functions that fall within the normal range of activities carried out by people of a specific age group.
- **Handicap** – It results from impairment or disability. It refers to the disadvantage faced by an individual that causes an inability to perform normal roles as per his/her age, gender, and educational status. Handicap occurs as a result of social, cultural and physical barriers that prevent individuals with disability or impairment in a function within the regular systems of society.

There is also disagreement over terminology. Some people and activists prefer the term "differently abled," while others prefer "disabled." Previously, the term 'handicap' was used, and some people still use it today. However, the term 'handicap' is problematic.

In the early 1900s, when the new fields of sociology and social work began to look at people in terms of their place in society as a whole, the term handicap was applied to physical and mental differences. More offensive terms, such as crippled, lame, imbecile, invalid, etc. were also used.

However, with the beginning of the disability rights movement, things began to change. The term 'disabled' was coined as part of the self-determination process. This evolution in terminology also reflects the struggle for asserting rights.

Table 8.2 Terminologies: Earlier and Current

Earlier Terms	**Current Terminology**
Disabled people	People with disability
Blind people	People with visual impairment
Mental retardation	Intellectual disability
Deaf	Hearing impairment
Crippled	Physical impairment

Classification of Disabilities

The Right of Persons with Disabilities Act, 2016 (RPWD, 2016) has increased the number of disability conditions from 7 to 21. The updated list of disabilities also includes three blood disorders and acid attack survivors. Following is the list of 21 disabilities, recognised under the RPWD Act 2016:

Table 8.3 List of 21 disabilities recognised under the RPWD Act, 2016

1. Blindness	12. Chronic Neurological conditions
2. Low-vision	13. Specific Learning Disabilities
3. Leprosy Cured persons	14. Multiple Sclerosis
4. Hearing Impairment (deaf and hard of hearing)	15. Speech and Language disability
5. Locomotor Disability	16. Thalassemia
6. Dwarfism	17. Haemophilia
7. Intellectual Disability	18. Sickle Cell diseases
8. Mental Illness	19. Multiple Disabilities including deaf-blindness
9. Autism Spectrum Disorder	20. Acid Attack victim
10. Cerebral Palsy	21. Parkinson's disease
11. Muscular Dystrophy	

8.2 ALCOHOL AND DRUG SPECIALTY:ASSESSMENT, INSTRUMENT AND DRUG DETECTION TESTING

Evaluation is not a one-time event. This happens in stages. Thus, the stages of evaluation are as follows:

a) **Preintervention**: The purpose of the assessment is to define the problem, formulate a treatment plan, select an appropriate treatment from a variety of options, and motivate clients to participate in treatment.
b) **Intervention**: Here, the assessment is done to monitor progress.
c) **Post-intervention**: This assesses the maintenance and self-discipline status.

There can be different levels of assessment depending on the reasons for the assessment and the settings in which the assessment is performed (inpatient vs. outpatient). This can range from brief screening and basic assessment for diagnosis to specialised assessment for making clinical treatment decisions and re-assessment for ongoing care.

Specificity / Cost		
Stages of Assessment	Broad Focus / Inexpensive Narrow Focus / Costly	**Levels of Assessment**
1. Preintervention		1. Brief Screening
2. Intervention		2. Basic Assessment
3. Post-intervention		3. Specialized Assessment

Source:- (Rao. Mohan & Lal, 2005)

Table 8.1 Various Stages of Assessment

The key to appropriate management is a thorough history, proper physical examination, neuropsychiatric examination and relevant lab- investigation. Important aspects from the alcohol use misuse perspective are as follows:

Phase 1 – Ask

- Inquire with all patients about their use of alcohol and other substances, including prescription and over-the-counter medications. Clinical indicators for screening include:

- Patients who are pregnant or trying to conceive.
- Patients who are prone to heavy drinking, such as smokers, adolescents, and young adults.
- Patients with alcohol-related health problems, such as cardiac arrhythmia, dyspepsia, liver disease, depression or anxiety, insomnia, or trauma.
- Patients have a chronic illness that is not responding appropriately to treatment, such as chronic pain, diabetes, gastrointestinal disorders, depression, heart disease, or hypertension.

- Differentiate between alcohol use, harmful use and dependence.
- Conceptualise assessment as ongoing and not necessarily "one-off" and record the information.
- Recognise that the manner and style in which this is done can be a powerful determinant of both the amount of relevant information elicited and engagement in the therapeutic process. It is usually best to ask about alcohol consumption alongside other health behaviours like smoking, diet, and exercise.
  Some clinicians have discovered that prefacing the alcohol questions with a non-threatening opener like "Do you enjoy a drink now and then?" can encourage reserved patients to speak up. In some cases, you may want to include the questions "How often do you buy alcohol?" and "How much do you buy?" to help you create an accurate estimate.
- Recognise and respond to the ambivalence that alcohol-abusing patients may experience.
- Be non-judgmental and non-confrontational in your actions.

Phase 2 – Assess

- Assess the degree of dependence.
- Use the assessment process to educate patients about the effects of alcohol.
- Inform about withdrawal symptoms.
- Make some assessment of the level of motivation or "stage of change" at which the patient may be.

Phase 3 – Advice

- Continue the assessment within a brief 5- to 10-minute "motivational interviewing" framework.
- Provide the patient with the opportunity to express anxieties and concerns.
- Offer personalised feedback about clinical findings, including physical examination and biochemical and haematological tests.
- Discuss and outline the personal benefits and risks of continued drinking and safe levels of drinking.
- Provide self-help materials (e.g. manuals).

Phase 4 – Assist

- Offer encouragement and support while instilling positive success expectations.
- Acknowledge that previous attempts may have caused a loss of confidence and self-esteem.
- Suggest that if the goal is self-discipline, a "quit date" is set, so the patient can plan accordingly to rid of any alcohol in the house and safely (is it safe to stop drinking abruptly or not?). Certain conditions warrant advice to withdraw as opposed to cutting down. These include when drinkers:

➢ Are or may become pregnant.
➢ Are taking a contraindicated medication.
➢ Have a medical or psychiatric disorder caused by or exacerbated by drinking.
➢ Have an alcohol use disorder.

If patients with alcohol use disorders are unwilling to commit to abstinence, they may be willing to cut down on their drinking. This should be encouraged while noting that abstinence, the safest strategy, has a greater chance of long-term success.

For heavy drinkers, who do not have an alcohol use disorder, use professional judgment to determine whether cutting down or abstaining is more appropriate, based on factors such as these:

➢ A family history of alcohol problems
➢ Advanced age

- Injuries related to drinking
- Symptoms, such as sleep disorders or sexual dysfunction

It may be beneficial to discuss various options, such as reducing to recommended limits or abstaining completely for a month or two before reconsidering future drinking. If cutting back is the first step, but the patient is unable to do so, suggest abstinence.

- Go over a variety of alternative coping strategies, including identifying cues that may help distract the patient.

Phase 5 – Arrange

- Be prepared to refer or organize admission to a specialist or appropriate unit if the patient is,

- In severe withdrawal, including delirium tremens;
- Experiencing unstable social circumstances;
- Likely to develop serious withdrawal due to a severe degree of dependence or a previous episode of severe withdrawal, including delirium tremens;
- Severely dependent;
- Has a severe comorbid physical illness;
- Has comorbid mental illness, including suicidal ideation;
- Using multiple substances;
- Has a history of frequent relapse.

During all phases, close attention should be paid to the appropriateness of various options for the particular individual – "tailor-made" where possible.

1) Patient History Areas

In most cases, a routine psychiatric interview will include a review of a patient's drug history. Furthermore, when interviewing patients for other reasons, all doctors should consider the possibility of comorbid drug misuse and be prepared to ask about it. The more detailed assessment described here is appropriate for patients whose primary clinical concern is drug use and who are being evaluated for entry into a treatment programme.

A detailed assessment of a patient with drug use issues will usually take more than one consultation. Only in a few cases (such as an opiate-dependent patient presenting with an acute medical emergency) should treatment be considered before a full assessment. History should include the following topics:

- **Background information:** Name, address, next of kin, GP, names of other professionals involved (e.g. social worker, probation officer).

- **Reasons for consultation now:** Why has the drug user presented now, (e.g. pressure from family, pending conviction, had enough,

increasing difficulty injecting)? What does the user seek from the program? In females, is there a possibility of pregnancy?

- **Current drug use:** Enquire about each drug taken over the previous 4 weeks. Describe the frequency of use (e.g. daily, most days, at weekends); and the number of times taken each day. Record the amount taken and the route. Ask the user about episodes of withdrawal. Include alcohol, tobacco, and cannabis. If there is IV use, inquire about needle or other equipment sharing.

- **Lifetime drug use:** Record the age at first use of drugs and the changing pattern of drug use until the most recent consultation. Enquire about periods of abstinence or stability and the reasons for this (e.g. prison, relationship, treatment programme).

- **Complications of drug use:** Overdoses deliberate or accidental. History of cellulitis, abscesses, or phlebitis. Hepatitis B and C and HIV status if known.

- **Previous treatment episodes:** Timing, locus, and type of previous drug treatment. How did the treatment attempt end? Was the treatment helpful?

- **Medical and psychiatric history:** All episodes of medical or psychiatric inpatient care. Contact with hospital specialists. Current health problems. Relationship with GP.

- **Family history:** Are there other family members with drug or alcohol problems? Family history of medical or psychiatric problems.

- **Social history:** Current accommodation. How stable is this accommodation? Sexual orientation and the number of sexual partners. Enquire about safe sex precautions. Describe the user's relationship: sexual, personal, and family. Note how many of these individuals currently use drugs.

- **Forensic history:** Previous or pending convictions. Periods of imprisonment. Enquire about continuing criminal activity to support drug use (remind the patient about confidentiality).

- **Patient's aims in seeking treatment:** What is the patient's attitude to drug use? What treatment options do they favor?

- **Mental status examination (MSE):** Observe for history or objective signs of depressed mood or suicidal thoughts or plans. Inquire directly about generalized anxiety and panic attacks (a benzodiazepine user may be self-medicating a neurotic condition). Inquire directly about paranoid ideas and hallucinatory experiences and the directness or otherwise of their relationship with drug use.

- **Physical examination:** General condition. Weight. Condition of teeth. Signs of IV use (examine particularly arms for signs of phlebitis, abscess, or old scarring). Examine for enlarged liver. Signs of withdrawals on assessment.

- **Urine screening:** This is essential. Several specimens should be taken over several weeks. Repeated absence of evidence of a drug on screening makes its dependent use unlikely. Occasionally, testing errors do occur so do not take action (e.g. stopping maintenance prescription) on the basis of the results of a single sample.

- **Blood testing:** FBC, LFT, discuss with patient the need for HIV and Hepatitis screening.

2) Standardised Assessment and Screening Tools:

Such tools can be effective data collection tools because they provide an objective (reliable and valid) view of the client's difficulties and current life situation (Ries, 1995; Winters, 1999). Furthermore, when done correctly, standardised assessment can be a source of rapport building. Table 8.2 presents information on the available screening and assessment tools, in terms of their utility, administration, strengths, limitations and cost involved in using them.

Table 8.2 Summary of available screening and assessment measures

Instrument	Utility/Measures	Administration	Strengths	Limitations	Cost
GLOBAL INSTRUMENTS					
Addiction Severity Index (ASI)	Assessment and outcome measurement. 30 day & lifetime alcohol use, drug use, medical problems, psychiatric problems, family/social problems, employment, legal problems.	Interview or self-report	Widely used across a range of population groups.	Psychometric and interpretation concerns. Less extensive Australian use. Lengthy	No
Brief Treatment Outcome Measure (BTOM) / Australian Alcohol Treatment Outcome Measure (AATOM)	Outcome measurement. Bloodborne virus risk, drug use, social and psychological functioning, health.	Interview	Adequate reliability and validity. Australian. No training required. Previous use within D&A sector in NSW. Public domain.	Limited testing across populations	No
Global Appraisal of Individual Needs (GAIN)	Assessment and outcome measure. Background information, substance use, physical health, risk behaviors, mental health, environment, legal, and vocational information.	Interview (can also be self-administered)	DSM-IV diagnosis. Includes satisfaction index. Range of short versions. Comprehensive. Good psychometrics.	Copyrighted/cost. Lengthy. American terminology. Not widely used outside USA.	Yes
Health of the Nation Outcome Scale (HoNOS)	Assessment and outcome measurement. Severity of aggression, self harm, D&A use, memory/orientation, physical problems, mood disturbance, hallucination and delusions, other mental, social relationships/environment.	Interview	Generally adequate validity and reliability. Thoroughly evaluated and extensively used across a range of populations (incl. Indigenous Australians). Public domain.	Inter-rater reliability concerns. Training required.	No
Indigenous Risk Impact Screen (IRIS)	Screening. D&A problems and mental health risks.	Interview	Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander specific. Adequate reliability and validity. Brief. Public domain.	Aboriginal and Torres Strait Islander specific. Limited empirical validation	No
Maudsley Addiction Profile (MAP)	Outcome measurement. Substance use, health risk behaviour, physical and psychological health, social functioning.	Self-report or interview	Adequate reliability and validity. Used widely across different cultural groups. Public domain	Limited validation in specific population groups and outside of Europe.	No
Opiate Treatment Index (OTI)	Assessment and outcome measurement. D&A use, risk taking, social functioning, criminality, health status, psychological adjustment.	Interview	Good reliability and validity. Australian. Public domain.	Training required. Only moderate validation in different populations. Lengthy. Predominantly a research instrument.	No

Alcohol, Smoking and Substance Involvement Screening Test (ASSIST)	Screening. D&A use and risk (lifetime/recent substance use, specific substance involvement, frequency, dependence, abuse, intravenous drug use).	Interview	Good psychometrics across a range of cultures. Brief and simple to administer. Includes brief intervention strategies. Public domain.	Limited empirical evidence for sub-populations.	No
Alcohol Use Disorders Identification Test (AUDIT)	Screening and outcome measurement. Alcohol use: consumption, dependence, and related problems.	Self-report or interview	Freely available. Brief. Good psychometrics across a vast range of populations (incl. mentally ill). No training required. Australian version.	Concerns about utility in females, Indigenous and older populations. Intended for general population.	No
CAGE/CAGEAID	Screening. Identify problem alcohol use.	Self-report or interview	Very brief. Moderate-good psychometrics. Used in a variety of populations (adapted for Indigenous Australians). Freely available.	Test-retest concerns. Concerns about utility in females and mentally ill populations.	No
Dartmouth Assessment of Lifestyle Instrument (DALI)	Screening. Substance use disorders use with people with severe mental illness.	Interview	Brief and simple. No special training required. Adequate psychometrics	Limited studies in different populations.	No
Drug Abuse Screening Test (DAST)	Screening and assessment. Identify problem drug use.	Self-report or interview	Brief. Freely available. Good psychometrics in range of populations (incl. mentally ill).	Concerns over applicability to women and across cultures. Does not discriminate between past and present use.	No
Michigan Alcoholism Screening Test (MAST)	Screening and assessment. Identify problem alcohol use.	Self-report or interview	Brief. Public domain. Good psychometrics across a range of populations (incl. mentally ill). No training required for use.	Does not discriminate between past and present drinking. Concerns over applicability to women and across cultures.	No
T-ACE/TWEAK	Screening. Specifically designed to identify at-risk drinking pregnant women (but has some utility in other groups).	Interview	Available online without cost. Very brief. Moderate psychometrics. No training required.	Does not provide a picture of pattern of use. Debate over suitable cut-off scores.	No
Timeline Followback Method (TLFB)	Assessment and outcome measurement. Information on the amount/duration of D&A use over a specified period of time.	Variety of collection methods	Widely used (incl. in mentally ill populations). Simple. Adequate psychometrics.	Training required.	Minimal
D&A SEVERITY INSTRUMENTS					
Alcohol Dependence Scale (ADS)	Assessment and outcome measurement. Identify and assess alcohol abuse and dependence.	Self-report	Adequate psychometrics. Brief. Fairly widely used in a variety of populations	Copyrighted/cost.	Yes

Cannabis Problems Questionnaire (CPQ)	Screening. Problematic cannabis use.	Self-report	Australian developed. Brief. Good psychometrics. Public domain.	Limited empirical studies across different population groups.	No
Leeds Dependence Questionnaire (LDQ)	Assessment and outcome measurement. Severity of D&A dependence	Self-report	Can be used across D&A dependence. Good psychometrics. Brief. Freely available. Incorporates psychological dependence rather than just consumption and physical dependence.	Limited use in all types of substance dependence. Limited use across cultures.	No
Short Alcohol Dependence Data Questionnaire (SADD)	Assessment and outcome measurement. Less severe alcohol dependence, behavioural and subjective changes.	Self-report	Freely available. Adequate psychometrics. Brief.	Limited empirical studies. Lack of use across cultures.	No
Severity of Alcohol Dependence Questionnaire (SADQ)	Assessment and outcome measurement. Severity of dependence on alcohol, withdrawal symptoms etc.	Interview	Freely available. No special training required. Brief. Good psychometrics.	Not widely used across all groups (e.g. psychiatric). Concerns about use in older people and women.	No
Severity of Dependence Scale (SDS)	Screening and outcome measurement. Psychological dependence on a given substance.	Self-report	Very brief. Public domain. Good psychometrics. Widely validated in an Australian context and across drug types.	Very brief.	No
Substance Dependence Severity Scale (SDSS)	Assessment and outcome measurement. Severity of dependence on a variety of substances.	Interview	Generally adequate psychometrics. Range of substances. Based on DSM-IV validation.	Lengthy. Some concern about the cannabis and sedative subscales.	Minimal
CRAVING MEASURES					
Cocaine Craving Questionnaire (CCQ)	Screening. Cocaine craving	Self-report	Brief. Easy to use. Adequate psychometrics. Used in psychiatric populations.	Limited Australian empirical validation.	Minimal
Cocaine Craving Questionnaire (Weiss et al)	Screening. Cocaine craving	Self-report	Brief. Easy to use. Adequate psychometrics.	Limited empirical studies across different groups.	No
Marijuana Craving Questionnaire (MCQ)	Screening. Marijuana craving	Self-report	Brief. Easy to use. Adequate psychometrics.	Limited empirical studies across different groups.	Minimal
Penn Alcohol-Craving Scale (PACS)	Screening. Alcohol craving	Self-report	Brief. Easy to use. Adequate psychometrics. Used in different settings in an Australian context.	Limited empirical studies.	Minimal

8.3 DISABILITY: PSYCHOLOGICAL AND VOCATIONAL ASSESSMENT

8.3.1 Psychological Assessment

Psychological tests used to assess disability can be divided into two types: criterion-referenced tests and norm-referenced tests. Several such norm-referenced and criterion-referenced tests are used for diagnosis and intervention. Norm-referenced tests are those that use normative or standard scores from the normal population to compare a given score from an individual, whereas criterion-referenced tests do not use a norm or standard to compare.

Individual performance is used to compare with future performance in order to measure change, which may be in response to education or training. A variety of tests are now commercially available to identify and diagnose disabled children.

1) Interview

The most commonly used technique for diagnosis is the interview, particularly in the early stages of assessment (Hawkins, 1979). It is a technique in which an interviewer gathers verbal information from an interviewee by interacting with them. Parents, family, carers, or significant other of the person with a disability provide excellent background data on important areas of behaviour that the therapist would not have access to otherwise.

2) Behavioural Assessment

Behavioural assessment is the process of objectively observing and measuring behaviour in a natural or defined setting. This is a method of objectively observing and measuring behaviour. It is necessary to define the behaviour under study when assessing people with disabilities. In this context, behavioural observation is important.

Behavioural assessment is the process of objective observation and measurement. It is essentially a funnel-shaped process with a broad scope that eventually narrows to a narrow and constant focus on specific behaviour (Hawkins, 1979; Cone & Hawkins, 1977). The five main functions of behavioural assessment are as follows: (1) screening and general disposition, (2) definition and quantification of problems of desired achievement, (3) pinpointing the target Behaviour(s), (4) monitoring progress, and (5) follow-up (Hawkins, 1979).

- **Direct Observation:** Direct behaviour observation is the process of simultaneously observing and recording target behaviours (Repp, 1983). The goal of direct observation is to set up learning conditions in such a way that each occurrence of a response can be recorded reliably.

- **Role Play:** Role Play is frequently used to assess individual client behaviour in a social setting, where the therapist or teacher attempts to elicit the target behaviour by asking the client to play specific roles. Such role-playing situations provide an excellent opportunity to observe certain behaviours that are difficult to observe in the natural environment. The most extensive use of role-play is found in the assessment of retarded individuals' social skills.

- **Self-report:** Another indirect method of assessing individual behaviour is self-report or self-observation. This method is used to assess behaviour that cannot be observed by an assessor. The client is asked to objectively and quantitatively record his or her own behaviour. Despite its drawbacks, it is a unique method of obtaining information about the client's private behaviour.

3) Standardised Assessment and Screening Tools

As mentioned previously in the case of alcohol and drugs (Section 8.2), some tools can be effective data collection tools because they provide an objective, reliable and valid view of the client's difficulties and current life situation (Ries, 1995; Winters, 1999). When they are done correctly, standardised assessment can be a useful source of rapport building. Here are a few of such tests listed below (Table 8.4) for the screening of persons with disability:

Table 8.4 Assessment Measures for Disability

Instrument	**Utility / Measure**
Stanford-Binet Scale (The Stanford-Binet Scale of Intelligence was adapted for the Indian population by V. V. Kamath, popularly known as the Binet-Kamath Test for General Mental Ability).	To differentiate the children with mental retardation from others. This is determined by his performance on age-appropriate tasks.
Wechsler Scales (WISC has been adapted for Indian children by A. J. Malin, called Malin's Intelligence Scale for Indian Children (MISIC).	To assess the intelligence of adults and children. In diagnosis of mental retardation, Wechsler Scales of Intelligence have been recognised as a standard tool (ICD-10, 1989) and are one of the most widely used scales for screening mental retardation.

Seguin Form Board	Used for assessing general intellectual functioning for children in the age group of 3.5 years to 10 years. Although the test primarily measures the form perception and motor coordination of children, this can also be used as a measure of intelligence for children in the above age group for screening out mental retardation.
Vineland Social Maturity Scale (India adaptation by A. J. Malin)	The scale primarily focuses on the 'social maturity' of the individual, which roughly indicates the adaptive behaviour between 0-15 years of age. These scales are useful for diagnosis of people with mental retardation.
Diagnostic Test of Learning Disabilities	This diagnostic test of learning disability is used primarily for screening out children. The test consists of 100 items in 8 different core areas, which included visual processing, auditory processing, motor-coordination, cognitive, language, memory functions, perseveration tendencies and disorders in the affective domain.
Behavioural Checklist for Screening Children with Learning Disability (BCSLD)	A tool for general screening to identify children with learning disability.
Comprehensive Test of Basic Word Skills	Word usage, mechanics and grammatical structure
California Achievement Tests	Word usage, mechanics, and grammatical structure
Stanford Achievement Tests	Mechanics and grammatical structure
Iowa Test of Basic Skills	Word usage and mechanics
SRA Achievement Series	Mechanics and grammatical structure
Picture-Story Language Test	To study written expression.
Kaufman Test of Educational Achievement- Normative Upgrade(K-TEA-NU)	Tests mathematical abilities

8.3.2 Vocational Assessment

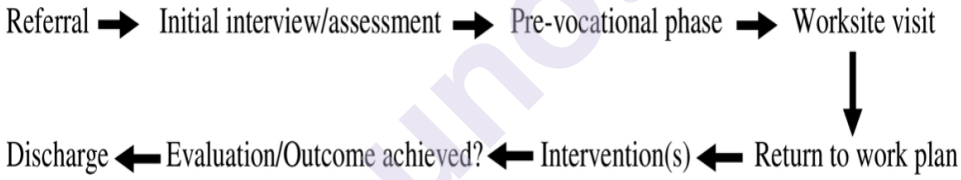
Vocational Rehabilitation

Vocational rehabilitation (VR) is a set of services designed to help people with disabilities or the elderly enter or return to work in order to maintain functional abilities or capacity. These services include comprehensive vocational assessment and evaluation, training, general skill enhancement, refresher courses, on-the-job training, career counselling, job searches, and consultation with potential or existing employers regarding job accommodations and modifications.

The structure of such services may differ depending on the target populations and those who are currently unemployed. Other terms for this type of service include work rehabilitation, occupational rehabilitation, vocational practice, work practice, etc.

Regardless of the setting, the vocational rehabilitation process includes assessment, planning, intervention, and evaluation. A critical component of the VR process is assisting the client with an age-related disability or health condition to understand and manage how it affects their occupational participation in work. The details of the VR process shown in Figure 8.1 guide professionals in assisting clients to return to work.

Figure 8.1 Vocational Rehabilitation Process



This process can be completed in a matter of days or over a period of months. The same VR process pattern is followed whether the person is currently unemployed and looking for work or has a job that is still open for them to return to. We will now go over each of these eight stages to help you understand what is involved in each step of the process.

Stage 1: Referral

The VR process begins when a referral is received. After all, there is no service to provide if there are no referrals! This referral could come from a variety of sources, but it is most likely from a medical practitioner. The referral source influences the outcome you hope to achieve with your client to some extent.

Stage 2: The Initial Assessment

An occupational therapist conducts a thorough assessment of the clients at this stage. The first step is to choose the best location for the initial assessment. This initial contact may take place at the client's home, their

proposed place of employment, a community venue, or a primary care centre. The purpose of the meeting is then explained, and consent for the assessment is obtained.

The assessment meeting will most likely take the form of a semi-structured interview because it is a two-way information-sharing procedure. Setting goals or developing an action plan is often the final part of the initial meeting. The formality and specific details of this plan will differ from person to person and setting to setting. In most cases, after completing the initial assessment, you will be required to complete an assessment report and documentation that outlines your findings, recommendations, and any goals you may have set with your client.

Stage 3: The Pre-Vocational Phase

If the individual wishes to return to work but is currently unable to do so, a pre-vocational programme may be recommended. Pre-vocational training takes place in light and heavy workshops, which are frequently located in the hospital rehabilitation department. They help develop and improve occupational work skills, behaviours, habits, and routines.

The potential level of risk involved in the person entering or returning to work can also be assessed during this phase. As a result, an additional assessment may be required for greater standardisation and generalisability. It ensures that the risk of harm to your client or others is minimised before they are ready to resume work. This is a comprehensive risk management procedure that includes hazard identification, risk assessment, and risk elimination.

Stage 4: The Worksite Visit

Following a basic understanding of the client, both as workers and as occupational demands, it is critical to understand their actual worksite and work environment in order to facilitate the return to work process.

One should gather information about the types of jobs and the work environment during the worksite visit. There are well-established job categories available all over the world that will help us understand the actual work tasks of a specific position or type of work.

Stage 5: The Return to Work Plan

This stage is designed in collaboration with the client and the employer to prepare the worker for vocational responsibilities. The therapist may make a few suggestions for changes to the workplace environment, a list of tasks that should be avoided on the job site, indicated activity that requires supervision and provision, or any additional training and support needed while on the job. A return to work plan specifies the timing and tasks for both the employee and the employer.

Stage 6: Intervention

At this stage, we will look at a variety of potential interventions that experts could use, such as developing a coping mechanism, mentoring, peer support groups, etc. Many occupational therapists use an ergonomics approach to make work easier, such as using the latest equipment, proper lighting, and computers, as well as using correct working posture and easing the body's load, thereby reducing work-related musculoskeletal disorders.

The intervention is designed to ensure that workers are well-matched to their jobs and that the workplace is positive and healthy. A healthy workplace is associated with higher productivity and performance, lower absenteeism, fewer injuries, higher employee morale, and other benefits.

Stage 7: Evaluation/Outcome

Outcomes, such as whether or not the person enters or returns to work, are frequently used to assess the success of the VR process. Through surveys and qualitative interviews, these outcomes include improved work quality and increased job satisfaction.

Stage 8: Discharge

This is the final stage of the VR process, which should take place about three weeks after an employee resumes full-time hours and duties. The appropriate time to discharge a client frequently necessitates sound judgement. Ideally, this should occur when the client's objectives have been met and no additional assistance from various stakeholders is required.

Surprisingly, older adults who have returned to work after a long absence may require ongoing long-term support. For this subpopulation, discharge should be gradual and extended over time, with alternative supports in place as needed.

Vocational Rehabilitation (VR) Team

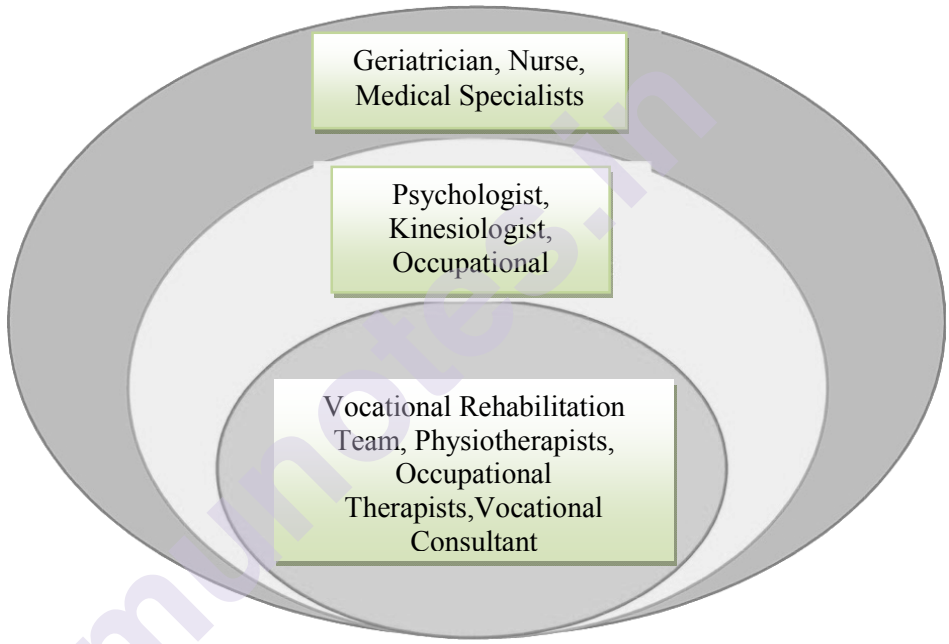
The VR team is a working group of people who will engage in a planned, collaborative effort to overcome the barriers and enable the individual in question to successfully achieve their goal of entering, returning to, or remaining in work. The goal of a VR team is to give the individual the best chance of achieving their work goal.

Because older workers frequently have chronic health conditions and multiple health risks, they frequently require more multidisciplinary care. This entails involving those professionals who are most likely to aid in the achievement of this goal.

As part of the VR team, the approach should be client-centred, coordinated, and collaboratively worked with other key agencies and service providers. The client, the employer or employee representative, and health and vocational professionals will make up the most basic VR teams.

Rehabilitation case managers, geriatricians, nurses, VR consultants, occupational hygienists, and rehabilitation experts are among the health and vocational professionals. Rehabilitation professionals also include physiotherapists (PT), occupational therapists (OT), psychologists, and kinesiologists. Family members, friends, union representatives, and supervisors are among the other stakeholders.

Figure 8.2 Vocational Rehabilitation Team



Certification

In December 2009, the Central Government amended the (Central) Persons with Disabilities (Equal Opportunities, Protection of Rights, and Full Participation) Rules. As a result, the issuance of a Disability Certificate is now a mandatory requirement for Persons with Disabilities to receive benefits under various government schemes and concessions.

There are prescribed assessment and certification criteria for people with various disabilities. The Rehabilitation Council of India is the governing body that determines the qualifications of rehabilitation professionals for various types of disabilities. Such professionals can register themselves in a Central Rehabilitation Register which is an online procedure.

One can find the norms and guidelines for certification for various professionals working in the field of disability on the website link (https://rehabcouncil.nic.in/norms-guidelines) for Registration in Central

Rehabilitation Register (CRR) on the website of the Rehabilitation Council of India (RCI), which is a statutory body of the Ministry of Social Justice and Empowerment and is looked after by the Department of Empowerment and Persons with Disabilities (Divyangjan), Government of India.

8.4 SUMMARY

We are all aware that alcoholism and drug abuse are a complex social problem. It is a societal, family, and individual problem that requires the collaborative efforts of government institutions such as health education and social welfare, voluntary organisations, legislative and political bodies, the community at large, and affected families to find solutions.

We, as psychologists, can make a significant contribution to the prevention and control of this problem by sensitising people and raising awareness among parents about the psychosocial development of their children, early detection, and appropriate treatment for one-time drug abusers and alcoholics.

We also learned in this unit that psychological assessments of people with disabilities are important because they provide supplementary data for diagnosis and evaluation. Interviews, behavioural assessments, and psychological testing are all methods of psychological assessment. Each one has advantages and disadvantages.

Regardless of the setting, the vocational rehabilitation process includes assessment, planning, intervention, and evaluation. Importantly, the VR team focuses on the individual's strengths and abilities rather than their limitations and weaknesses.

8.5 QUESTIONS

1. Define the following terms:
   a) Alcoholism
   b) Drug Abuse
   c) Drug dependence
   d) Physical dependence
   e) Drug use
   f) Drug Addiction
   g) Tolerance
   h) Alcoholism
   i) Substance abuse
   j) Psychological dependence
2. What information is collected as part of history during the assessment of the drug abuser?
3. What are the stages of assessment of alcohol abuse and dependence?
4. Write a note on a few screening and assessment measures available for drug and alcohol abuse.

5. Define and differentiate the terms, disability, impairment and handicap.
6. Describe the five principal functions of behavioural assessment.
7. Write a note on Behavioural assessment and interview techniques.
8. Write a note on available assessment measures for disability.
9. Explain Vocational Rehabilitation and its process.

8.6 REFERENCES

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