**GEDS 107: INTRODUCTION TO GENERAL PSYCHOLOGY**

**INTRODUCTION**

**DEFINITION OF PSYCHOLOGY**

**P**sychologists do not always agree on a simple common definition of psychology because

* Psychology is a relatively new discipline and its techniques and methods are still being developed and improved on often.
* Psychology has a vast coverage and psychologist who work in these different fields tends to define it differently.
* Psychology is not “common sense” or the study of the mind as defined by the ancient Greek Philosophers but “the scientific study of behaviour”.
* Psychologists generally study human behaviour and try to understand why people behave the way they do. They gather information about a subject and by carefully analyzing their information, they reach a conclusion.
* Based on the above, ***Psychology can be comprehensively defined as a scientific study of behaviour and mental processes with the application of the results to human problems.***
* ***Hence, this definition is made up of three main concepts as indicated below.***

**SOME BASIC CONCEPTS IN THE DEFINITION OF PSYCHOLOGY**

**Scientific study**: the study of psychology is scientific because it tends to carry out rigorous investigations into behaviour by collecting data, analysing the data, interpreting the data before making conclusions.

**Behaviour**: Behaviour mean anything that we do that can be observed such as talking, sleeping, dancing as well as unobservable behaviour like thinking, sensation, perception etc.

**Application of the result –** practicality of the study results in finding solution to human problems

**EMERGENCE OF PSYCHOLOGY**

Psychology as a discipline borrowed some aspects of philosophy especially the part that has to do with the nature of man and how he relates to his environment and Physiology.

* Psychology is relevant to the understanding and prediction of human behaviour.
* There are several misconceptions from the general public and especially from the mass media about what psychology is all about.
* This is because human behaviour could be observed by different people from different perspectives based on their intuition, belief or experience.
* **HISTORY OF PSYCHOLOGY**
* **I**ntroduction of psychology as a new field of study was in 1879 in Leipzig, Germany with Wilhelm Wundt who opened the first experimental psychology laboratory.
* Some years after his contribution, many universities in Europe and the United States began to set up their own laboratories.
* The early pioneers of psychology strongly based their work on objectively studying human psychological processes using the same experimental methods used in the natural sciences such as physics and chemistry.
* The first recognized text book in psychology was written and published by William James in 1890.
* Psychology was given much publicity through the writings of Sigmund Freud which made very great significant contribution to the development of psychology.
* Today, psychology has become a course with a very wide coverage with techniques and principles that can be applied to almost all areas of human endeavours.

**OBJECTIVES OF PSYCHOLOGY INCLUDE**

* To observe the behaviour of individuals.
* To describe their behaviour
* To develop an understanding of the causes and consequences of that behaviour
* To predict accurately if, when, how and in what form that behaviour occurred
* To control behaviour by making it start, stop, or vary in some predictable way.
* To be able to observe, describe, understand, predict, control and treat observable behaviour, psychologists try to collect data and explain the data by formulating a theory that will assist in explaining the data, using scientific methods to ascertain the validity and reliability of theory and its usefulness in predicting behaviour and applying the knowledge in solving human problems

**APPROACHES IN PSYCHOLOGY**

**The Biological Approach:** Psychologists working in this field tend to look for the causes of behaviour in relation to the functioning of the brain and nervous system. It is relevant because the brain and other biological processes determine and control human behaviour which is the scope of psychology. So, it becomes difficult to understand behaviour without understanding how the brain works.

**The Psychodynamic Approach:** The pioneer of this approach is Sigmund Freud. He believes that human behaviour is as a result of inherited instincts and biological drive and a struggle to balance the competing demands of personal needs and societal expectations. Freud believes that the core of an individual’s personality is formed before the age of six.

**The Behaviourist Approach:** This approach is concerned with observable behaviour and the environmental factors that are responsible for sustaining them. Ivan Pavlov and B.F. Skinner are the major proponents of behaviourism.

**The Cognitive Approach:** The cognitive approach believes that human behaviour is affected by the way people think. The major focus of this approach is on thinking, perception, memory, consciousness etc. The cognitive psychologist view human beings as individuals that can reason, rationalize, solve problems and take decisions.

**The humanistic Approach:** This approach is concerned with how an individual’s unique traits affect his behaviour.

**SPECIALTIES/ FIELDS IN PSYCHOLOGY**

***Some different fields of study in psychology are:***

**Abnormal Psychology** - studies the nature of individual pathologies of mind, mood, and behavior

**Cognitive Psychology** - studies the higher mental processes such as attention, language, memory, perception, problem solving, and thinking.

**Developmental Psychology** - concerned with interaction between physical and psychological processes and with stages of growth from conception throughout the entire life span.

**Gestalt psychology** - insists that psychological phenomena can be understood only when viewed as organized, structured wholes, not when broken down into primitive perceptual elements

**Health psychology -**  studies the ways people stay healthy, the reasons they become ill, and the ways they respond when they become ill

**Industrial/organizational psychology** – apply psychological principles to ensure that workers are motivated for greater productivity. They study topics like motivation, job satisfaction, job performance, etc

**Counselling psychology** – psychologists here are involved in how to assist individuals overcome their career, vocational, personal as well as marital challenges

**Clinical psychology** – A clinical psychologist is someone who specialises in the treatment of those with behavioural problems and mental illnesses. They use psychological principles to diagnose, understand and treat deviant behaviours. clinical psychologists often work within hospitals or specialist psychiatric facilities

**Forensic psychology** - It involves mainly the application of psychology to the area of crime and the legal system.

**Educational psychology** – concerned with studying factors related to learning with the aim of making learning faster and easier. They study topics like

**Personality Psychology** – concerned with the study of individual unique characteristics and how they affect behaviour

**Social Psychology** - studies the effect of social variables on individual behavior, attitudes, perceptions, and motives; also studies group and intergroup phenomena

**Physiological Psychology** - focus on the examination of the biological best bases of behaviour with particular reference to the biochemical reactions underlying memory and learning, and the role of various portions of the brain in the regulation of such motives as hunger and thirst, and such basic processes as sleep.

**Occupational Health Psychology** - focuses on work environment, the individual, and the work-family interface. It applies psychological principles to improve the quality of work life and to protect and promote the safety, health and well being of workers.

**Cardiac Psychology** - specializes on the workings of the heart which is the centre of emotions, and what a person thinks or feels.

**Psychology of Law** - deal generally on human behaviour with reference to testimony, evidence, influences, crime, truancy, delinquency, and emotion.

**Community Psychology** - Is concerned with managing family-care, child guidance and rehabilitation programmes.

**Psychology of Politics** - deals with the problems of control of behaviour among groups, with the study of organizations of people in conflict.

**Feminist Psychology**  - This branch of psychology deals on how widely-held feminist tenets can be integrated across the field of psychology.

**THE METHODS OF RESEARCH IN PSYCHOLOGY**

***Psychologist use the following methods to study behaviour***

1. **Survey**: In using surveys, the psychologist may be interested in studying large number of people.
2. **Questionnaires** are set of written questions which helps to obtain readily available information about behaviour. Hence, it is used to seek for peoples opinion concerning how they feel or think about some issues. A sample which is often statistically determined is randomly selected from the population.
3. **Interview –** Face to face question and answer whereby the interviewer will make notes, which he or she will later analyse, discuss and report.

2. **Naturalistic- observational**: Psychologists use this method to study how animals and people behave in their normal environments. In using this method, the psychologist observes the behaviour of his subjects in their natural settings and he does not make any attempt to manipulate or interfere with their behaviour.

3. **Correlational Studies**: Psychologists use this method when they want to determine if two variables are related for instance, two variables like height and weight can be measured to see if they are related in any way.

4 **Case Study:** The case study method is used when studying the biography of an individual. The case study method provides comprehensive information about the individual that is being studied from various other sources.

5. **Experimental method:** This method enables a psychologist to identify causes and effects in a scientific experiment. This is the most reliable method of investigation in psychological research because it adopts a precise and systematic approach but its findings have limited application because of the small population of people involved.

6. **Psychological test method**: Psychological tests are used to measure unobservable concepts like abilities, interests, achievements, aptitude, intelligence etc.

**THE NERVOUS SYSTEM, THE BRAIN AND BEHAVIOUR**

**The Nervous system**

* The Nervous system is a complex organ that is made up of special cells called neurons that are responsible for transmitting signals between different parts of the body.
* It has two divisions namely the central nervous system and the peripheral nervous system
* While the central nervous system is composed of the brain and the spinal cord, the peripheral nervous system consists of the autonomic and somatic systems
* The autonomic component also called the involuntary component regulates blood pressure and rate of breathing while the somatic also called the voluntary component

**The Neurons**

* A neuron is a cell that transmits electrical and chemicals signals. They are responsible for information communication in the body. Neurons are the building blocks of life
* They are made up of the soma, dendrite and axon as well as the synapse and myelin sheath
* Neurons are classified according to their functions in the body as **i) sensory neurons** (sends information from sensory receptors in the skin, eyes and nose which will be interpreted as touch, sight and smell);**ii) Motor neurons** (sends information away from central nervous system to control the muscle glands); and **iii)Interneuron**(sends information between motor neurons and the sensory neurons).

**The central Nervous System**

* Is the integration and command centre of the body consisting of the brain and spinal cord
* The central nervous system controls all the workings of the body
* It controls our thoughts, movements, emotions, desires as well as our breathing, heart rate, hormone release, body temperature etc

**The brain**

* The brain is the most complex organ in the body made up of billions of neurons.
* It is responsible for coordinating the activities of the body including creation of memories, sensation of emotion as well as higher mental functions like reasoning, problem-solving, creativity.

- It is composed of four different lobes charged with different functions

- The temporal lobes process sensory input. They are responsible for audition

- The occipital lobes is the visual processing region of the brain

- The parietal lobes is responsible for touch

- The frontal lobes coordinate higher mental activities like attention, motivation, planning etc

**Brain Regions**

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| S/N | PART/REGION OF THE BRAIN | FUNCTION (S) | EFFECTS ON BEHAVIOUR WHEN DAMAGED |
| 1 | Cerebellum | Motor control, language and attention, | Disrupted motor control known as Ataxia, inability to run, walk etc |
| 2 | Brain stem | Involuntary functions eg. Vomiting, breathing, sneezing etc | Could lead to death |
| 3 | Hypothalamus | Body temperature, thirst, hunger etc | lack of motivation, lack of appetite or thirst with the result that the person eats/drinks too little, excessive hunger or feeling of thirst with the result that the person eats or drinks too much, rapid digestion, changed libido, changed sleep-wake schedule, sleepiness, altered menstrual pattern, feelings of euphoria, hyperactivity |
| 4 | Thalamus | Regulates consciousness, sleep, awareness and alertness | Deafness, blindness, loss of memory |
| 5 | Cerebral Cortex | Sensory perception, language, speech, voluntary movement, personality trait, mental activities like memory, attention, perception, perception, cognition, awareness, thought, consciousness | Inability to speak, write, or pronounce correctly, low memory and intelligence, personality and emotional changes |
|  |  |  |  |

**The spinal cord**

* Carries information between the brain and the body

**The Peripheral Nervous system**

- The peripheral nervous system is comprised of the autonomic and somatic nerves. While the autonomic nervous system consists of the sympathetic and parasympathetic nervous system, the somatic is made up of the cranial and spinal nerves.

- they Connect the central nervous system to the other parts of the body

- they receive information from the external environment

- through the autonomic nervous system, they control respiration, heart rate, blood pressure, digestion etc

- The somatic nervous system controls voluntary muscular movements and mediates reflex actions while the autonomic nervous system controls involuntary behaviou**rs**

**PERCEPTION**

**Definition**

* Process of having awareness of things or events within one’s external environment
* Mental process of organizing sensations into meaningful patterns
* The brains interpretation of information processed by the senses
* Awareness of our environment through sense organs
* The process which involves seeing, receiving, selecting, organizing, interpreting and giving meaning to the environment

**Nature of Perception**

* Perception is dependent on past experience and could be influenced by our needs, expectations, attitude, beliefs, values, culture etc
* It is an intellectual process
* It could be a subjective process since different people may perceive the same thing differently

**Sensation and Perception**

Perception cannot occur without sensation. Sensation is the process by which the sense pick up information from the environment while perception occur when we are able to attach meaning to what we sense. Hence, sensation begins the process of perception.

**Role of the sensory systems in perception**

* Detection – the process of picking up changes in our environment through our sense organs
* Transduction – process of converting the normal information into a form that the brain can understand before transmitting it to the brain
* Transmission – process of transferring the message to a particular region of the brain for processing
* Information processing – the coding of information to describe quality, quantity or intensity

**ESSENTIAL Features/elements of Perception*:***

* **Sensory experience** – for instance, the Visual (the eye) is for vision, the Auditory (ear) for audition or hearing, the Tactile (nose) for smell, the Gustatory ( tongue) for taste and the skin for touch
* **Meaning** - meaning occur when you have a sensory experience (e.g seeing, hearing etc) and you compare the present sensory experience with your past experience and understand it, then there is meaning.
* **Discrimination**- ability to distinguish one event from another

The taste receptors in the tongue are called taste buds. They detect different kinds of taste like sweet, bitter, sour and salty

**Principles of Gestalt Psychology**

**Similarity**: tendency to group together similar objects in terms of form, colour, size or shape e.g. all the workers coming from the same place may be perceived as similar.

**Proximity**: tendency to group together objects that are near each other

**Closure or completeness**: When people see incomplete information, they tend to fill up the gaps themselves to make the information meaningful. This may be done on the basis of past experience

**Simplification: When** people identify main stimulus features and assess how they are organized, they now interpret the situation and the perceiver simplifies the information.

**Common region**: the tendency to see objects in the same common area as a group

**Common fate**: tendency to perceive objects that move in the same direction as a group

Connectedness: tendency to group together objects that are physically attached

**Illusion**

Occur when there is difference between what we perceive and what actually happened. It could be illusion of length, illusion of area, illusion of distortion or illusion of direction. Illusion is also known as misleading perception

**Extra-Sensory Perception**

* This is perception that is not based on any known human senses.
* Another name for extra-sensory perception is Psi-Phenomena
* People who practice extra-sensory perception are called Parapsychologists

- ***Types of extra-sensory perception are:***

***-* Clairvoyance** - when perception is not affected by distance

- **Telepathy** - ability to read someone’s mind

- **Precognition**- accurately predicting future events

- **Retro cognition** – awareness of past events without prior information

**CONSCIOUNESS**

* Could be defined as awareness of internal and external environment
* Could also mean awareness of our actions and of the world around us
* Everything you are aware of at any given time forms part of your consciousness.

**Altered states of consciousness**

* Altered states of consciousness, sometimes called non-ordinary states, include various mental states in which the mind can be aware but is not in its usual wakeful condition, such as during [hypnosis](https://www.psychologytoday.com/us/therapy-types/hypnotherapy), [meditation](https://www.psychologytoday.com/us/basics/meditation), hallucination, trance, and dream .

**Ways to alter consciousness are:**

Sleep

Dream

Coma

Death

Use of psychoactive drugs

Hypnosis

Meditation

Trance

Fever, e.t.c

**Altering consciousness through Psychoactive Drugs**

Psychoactive drugs are chemicals that change our state of consciousness. They work by influencing neurotransmitters in the CNS.

Using psychoactive drugs may create tolerance and, when they are no longer used, withdrawal. Addiction may result from tolerance and the difficulty of withdrawal.

**Psychoactive Drugs are broadly classified as:**

**Stimulants: example cocaine,**  caffeine, nicotine, and amphetamine. Stimulants increase neural activity in the CNS.

**Depressants**: example alcohol, barbiturates, and benzodiazepines. Depressants decrease consciousness

**Opioids: example** codeine, opium, morphine and heroin. Opioids produce euphoria and analgesia by increasing activity in opioid receptor neurons.

**Hallucinogens**: example cannabis, mescaline, and LSD. Hallucinogens create extreme alteration of consciousness as well as the possibility of hallucinations.

**Reasons for Use of Drugs**

Drug use is influenced by social norms as well as by individual differences. People who are more likely to take risks are also more likely to use drugs.

Stress, peer influence, age and personality could influence drug addiction

Bible Passages against the use of psychoactive drugs

**Altering consciousness through Sleep**

* Sleep could be defined as an innate biological rhythm that cannot be entirely ignored.
* Humans cannot survive long enough without sleep
* When we fail to sleep there are consequences like lack of concentration, inability to remember clearly, trembling hands, drooping eyelids, inattention, irritability, increased pain sensitivity, general discomfort etc
* Range of sleep differ from person to person hence, there are short sleepers (who sleep for an average of 5 hours or less per night); average sleepers (sleep for about 7 – 8 hours per night) and long sleepers (who sleep for about 9 hours or more per night)
* As we become older, the amount of sleep declines
* The Brain wave machine called ELECTROENCEPHALOGRAM (EEG) is used to measure the changes that take place during sleep

**There are 4 stages of sleep**

* At sleep **stage one** the name of the wave shown by the EEG is called **Alpha waves,** **Sleep spindles for stage 2, Delta waves for stage 3 and Pure or high delta waves for stage 4.**
* There are **two main states of sleep namely REM sleep (rapid eye movement sleep) otherwise called paradoxical sleep and NREM sleep (N**on-rapid eye movement sleep) otherwise called slow waves.
* REM sleep is associated with dreaming while less dreams occur in NREM sleep

Some of the sleep disorders are Insomnia, sleep walking and sleep taking disorders, sleep apnea, narcolepsy etc

**LEARNING**

* Learning is defined as the process of acquiring new or modifying existing [knowledge](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Knowledge), [behaviours](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Behavior), [skills](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Skill), [values](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Value_(personal_and_cultural)), or [preferences](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Preference).
* Learning is also **a relatively permanent change in behavioural potentiality that occurs in the environment as a result of reinforcement, practice and experience.**
* Human learning begins before birth and continues until death as a consequence of ongoing interactions between person and environment
* Learning may occur as a result of [habituation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Habituation), [classical conditioning](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Classical_conditioning), [operant conditioning](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Operant_conditioning) etc

**Forms of Learning**

* *Non-associative learning r*efers to "a relatively permanent change in the strength of response to a single stimulus due to repeated exposure to that stimulus. Changes due to such factors as [sensory adaptation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sensory_adaptation), [fatigue](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Fatigue_(medical)), or injury do not qualify as non-associative learning. Examples of non-associative learning are [habituation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Habituation) and [sensitization](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Sensitization).
* **Active learning** occurs when a person takes control of his/her learning experience. Active learning encourages learners to have an internal dialogue in which they verbalize understandings.
* **Associative learning:**  Associative learning is the process by which a person or animal learns an association between two stimuli.

*Two types of associative learning are classical and operant conditioning*

* In classical conditioning a previously neutral stimulus is repeatedly paired with a reflex eliciting stimulus until eventually the neutral stimulus elicits a response on its own.
* Notable terms/ elements in classical conditioning include – **( check page 75, 76 of your psychology text book)**
* Influential contributors of classical conditioning are Ivan Pavlov and John B. Watson
* In operant conditioning, a behavior that is reinforced or punished in the presence of a stimulus becomes more or less likely to occur in the presence of that stimulus.
* Influential contributors of Operant conditioning are B. F. Skinner and Edward R. Thorndike
* Thorndike proposed the  **laws of effect, exercise , intensity and readiness as relate to operant conditioning**
* Observational learning is learning that occurs through observing the behavior of others. It is a form of social learning which takes various forms, based on various processes. In humans, this form of learning seems to not need reinforcement to occur, but instead, requires a social model such as a parent, sibling, friend, or teacher.
* Through play, children learn social skills such as sharing and collaboration. Children develop emotional skills such as learning to deal with the emotion of anger, through play activities. As a form of learning, play also facilitates the development of thinking and language skills in children.
* Rote learning is [memorizing](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Memorizing) information so that it can be [recalled](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Recollection) by the learner exactly the way it was read or heard. The major technique used for rote learning is learning by repetition, based on the idea that a learner can recall the material exactly (but not its meaning) if the information is repeatedly processed.

**Factors affecting learning**

**External factors** affecting learning are[*: heredity*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Heredity)*, status of students, physical environment.*  **Internal factors** are *individual goals or purposes, motivational behaviour, interest, attention, drill or practice, fatigue, aptitude,* [*attitude*](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Attitude_(psychology))*, emotional conditions, guidance* etc

**MEMORY**

* Memory is the faculty of the [mind](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mind) by which [information](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Information) is encoded, stored, and retrieved.
* It is a mental function of remembering information learned or experienced.
* The three process of memory are: encoding, retention and retrieval
* Encoding is the process of converting information into a code in which it can be placed into memory
* Retention or storage is keeping or saving the information in memory until it is needed
* Retrieval or recall means to bring up the stored information for use

**There are two types of memories namely short term memory and long term memory**

* Long term memory consists of episodic memory (*retains information about* an event. For example, the birth of your first child, your matriculation, your birthday); semantic memory (which is less specifically focused on particular times and places but deals with a variety of meaningful information like general concepts and rules.) and procedural memory (which stores the procedure in doing things, e.g. how to type)

Causes of forgetting include inattention, age, passing of time, laack of interest, low intelligence, lack of sleep, etc while memory can be enhanced through rehearsal, recitation, attention, interest etc

**EMOTION**

# Emotion is a type of mental state that interacts with other mental states and causes certain behaviours.

* It is any [conscious experience](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Consciousness) characterized by intense mental activity and a certain degree of [pleasure](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Pleasure) or [displeasure](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Suffering).
* Emotion is often confused with [mood](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Mood_(psychology)), [temperament](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Temperament), [personality](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Personality_psychology), [disposition](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Disposition), and [motivation](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Motivation).
* Emotions also have a relatively brief duration
* **Types of Emotion**: anger, sadness, happiness, disgust, fear, guilt, envy, desire, joy, ecstasy etc.

## Theories of Emotion

## James-Lange Theory

**William James (1842-1910)** formulated one theory and around the same time, Carl Lange (1834-1900), developed a similar one. So, the two were combined and called James-Lange theory of emotion. It proposes that physiological arousal precedes the experience of emotion. E.g. according to this theory, we don't blush because we're embarrassed; rather, we feel embarrassed because we blush.

## Cannon-Bard Theory

Walter Cannon (1871-1945) and Philip Bard (1898-1977), proposed a different theory. Their Cannon-Bard theory of emotion suggests that we experience emotions at the same time as we experience physiological arousal; or, the emotion and the arousal are simultaneous. For example, according to this theory, we blush and feel embarrassed at the same time.

## Two-Factor Theory

Stanley Schachter (1922-97) and Jerome Singer, proposed another theory of emotion which speculate that that when we experience physiological arousal, we cognitively process the context in which we find ourselves before feeling the proper emotion. This theory called the two-factor theory of emotion because it maintains that the experience of emotion depends on two factors: physiological arousal and cognitive processing.

# Motivation

* Motivation can be defined as the process of arousing or attracting movement in the individual towards the attainment of some goals.
* Motive is the reason for behaviour
* Humans have different needs which motivate them to act in various ways

People seem to have different wants.

**Theories**

1. Many theories posit a hierarchy of needs, in which the needs at the bottom are the most urgent and need to be satisfied before attention can be paid to the others. Such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs, example:

|  |
| --- |
| self-actualization |
| Esteem |
| Belongingness |
| Safety |
| Physiological |
|  |

According to Maslow, lower needs take priority. They must be fulfilled before the others are activated.

#### Alderfer's ERG theory: Alderfer classifies needs into three categories, also ordered hierarchically as growth needs (development of competence and realization of potential); relatedness needs (satisfactory relations with others and existence needs (physical well-being). Alderfer believed that as you start satisfying higher needs, they become more intense (e.g., the power you get the more you want power), like an addiction.

#### Acquired Needs Theory (mcclellan). This theory postulate that some needs are acquired as a result of life experiences

● need for achievement, accomplish something difficult. as kids encouraged to do things for themselves.

● need for affiliation, form close personal relationships. as kids rewarded for making friends.

● need for power, control others. as kids, able to get what they want through controlling others.

#### iv) Cognitive Evaluation Theory: This theory suggests that there are actually two motivation systems: intrinsic and extrinsic that correspond to two kinds of motivators:

* intrinsic motivators:  Achievement, responsibility and competence. motivators that come from the actual performance of the task or job -- the intrinsic interest of the work.
* extrinsic:  pay, promotion, feedback, working conditions -- things that come from a person's environment, controlled by others.

Intrinsically motivated individuals perform for their own achievement and satisfaction. If they come to believe that they are doing some job because of the pay or the working conditions or some other extrinsic reason, they begin to lose motivation.

v) Two Factor theory (Herzberg): According to Herzberg, two kinds of factors affect motivation, and they are in different ways:

**hygiene factors**. These are factors whose absence motivates, but whose presence has no perceived effect. They are things that when you take them away, people become dissatisfied and act to get them back examples include decent working conditions, security, pay, benefits (like health insurance), company policies, interpersonal relationships.

**motivators**. These are factors whose presence motivates. Their absence does not cause any particular dissatisfaction, it just fails to motivate.

So hygiene factors determine dissatisfaction, and motivators determine satisfaction. The two scales are independent, and you can be high on both.

#### Equity Theory: Equity theory says that it is not the actual reward that motivates, but the perception, and the perception is based not on the reward in isolation, but in comparison with the efforts that went into getting it, and the rewards and efforts of others. If everyone got a 5% raise, B is likely to feel quite pleased with her raise, even if she worked harder than everyone else. But if A got an even higher raise, B perceives that she worked just as hard as A, she will be unhappy. In other words, people's motivation results from a ratio of ratios:  a person compares the ratio of reward to effort with the comparable ratio of reward to effort that they think others are getting.

1. Reinforcement Theory: [Operant Conditioning](http://www.mcli.dist.maricopa.edu/proj/nru/opcond.html) is the term used by [B.F. Skinner](http://www.biography.com/find/bioengine.cgi?cmd=1&rec=22315) to describe the effects of the consequences of a particular behavior on the future occurrence of that behavior. There are four types of Operant Conditioning: Positive Reinforcement, Negative Reinforcement, Punishment, and Extinction. Both Positive and Negative Reinforcement strengthen behavior while both Punishment and Extinction weaken behavior.

#### Expectancy Theory (Vroom): This theory is meant to bring together many of the elements of previous theories. It combines the perceptual aspects of equity theory with the behavioral aspects of the other theories.

**COGNITIVE PSYCHOLOGY**

This is a branch of psychology that deals with internal mental processes such as thinking.

Thinking is the act of paying attention to information, making a mental representation of that information and then making decisions about the information.

The unit of thought are image, language and concept

Image is a kind of representation in one’s mind with is composed of pictures

Concept is an idea representing a group of events or items which enables us think abstractly

Concept could be conjunctive, relational or disjunctive

Language is a collection of words or symbols combined to thinking and communication

Language development involves four cognitive abilities such as intellectual skills, declarative skills, cognitive skills and motor skills

Some of the factors that affect language development are sex, physical factors, socio-economic factors, bilingual or multilingual factors, emotional stress, bad and inadequate model etc

**INTELLIGENCE**

* Can be defined as a mental or cognitive ability which comes to play in problem solving.
* It is reasoning ability of individuals
* It is the ability to carry on abstract thinking
* The power of good responses from the point of truth or fact
* Intelligent quotient is the result obtained when an individual’s mental age (MA) is divided by his/her chronological age (ie biological age) and multiplied by 100 and it reflects the extent to which a child is mentally advanced or backward for his/her age

**HUMAN DEVELOPMENT**

1. **Erikson’s theory of psychosocial development**

* Erikson speculates that it is human nature to pass through genetically determined sequence of psychosocial stages, spanning the whole life span. Each stage involves a struggle between two conflicting personality outcomes, one of which is positive (or adaptive) and the other negative (or maladaptive) and that healthy development involves the adaptive outweighing the maladaptive

**Erik Erikson's Stages of Psychosocial Development**

| Stage | Psychosocial Crisis | Basic Virtue | Age |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| 1. | Trust vs. Mistrust | Hope | 0 – 1 |
| 2. | Autonomy vs. Shame | Will | 1 – 3 |
| 3. | Initiative vs. Guilt | Purpose | 3 – 5 |
| 4. | Industry vs. Inferiority | Competency | 6 – 12 |
| 5. | Identity vs. Role Confusion | Fidelity | 12 – 18 |
| 6. | Intimacy vs. Isolation | Love | 18 – 40 |
| 7. | Generativity vs. Stagnation | Care | 40 – 65 |
| 8. | Ego Integrity vs. Despair | Wisdom | 65+ |

1. **[Jean Piaget](http://www.unige.ch/piaget/Presentations/presentg.html)’s (1896-1980) Theory of Cognitive development:**  Piaget believed that biological development drives the movement from one cognitive stage to the next.

***Stages of Cognitive Development. Piaget identified four*** [***stages in cognitive development***](http://childdevelopmentinfo.com/development/piaget.shtml)***:***

* Sensorimotor stage (Infancy). In this period (which has 6 stages),

intelligence is demonstrated through motor activity without the use of symbols

Knowledge of the world is limited (but developing) because its based on physical interactions / experiences.

Children acquire object permanence at about 7 months of age (memory).

Physical development (mobility) allows the child to begin developing new intellectual abilities.

Some symbollic (language) abilities are developed at the end of this stage.

* Pre-operational stage (Toddler and Early Childhood).

In this period intelligence is demonstrated through the use of symbols, language use

memory and imagination are developed,

thinking is done in a non logical, non-reversible manner.

Egocentric thinking predominates

* Concrete operational stage (Elementary and early adolescence).

In this stage intelligence is demonstrated through logical and systematic manipulation of symbols related to concrete objects.

Operational thinking develops (mental actions that are reversible).

Egocentric thought diminishes.

* Formal operational stage (Adolescence and adulthood).

intelligence is demonstrated through the logical use of symbols related to abstract concepts.

Early in the period there is a return to egocentric thought.

1. **Sigmund Freud's theory of Psychosexual Development**

Freud believes that every child is full of energy that needs to be channelized in the right direction. The overall development of a child depends on the way he/she controls or directs this energy. He named this energy as libido. He believed that libido provides the basic platform for the mind to run on. Freud's five stages of development essentially showcase how sexuality starts from a very young age in humans, and how it develops till adulthood at different stages. If these stages are not completed or are unsatisfied, a person may get fixated, which may lead to a conflicted personality in the adulthood.

***Below are the five stages of psychosexual development in chronological order as described by Sigmund Freud.***

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| Stage | Year | Characterized By |
| Oral Stage | 0 - 1 years | A child derives pleasure through mouth by sucking, biting, and swallowing etc. Conflict arises when the oral needs of child are not met. |
| Anal Stage | 1 - 3 years | Anus becomes the center of gratification as toilet training starts and the pleasure is derived by defecating or retaining faces. |
| Phallic Stage | 3 - 6 years | Genitals become the centre of gratification and children develop attraction towards the parent of opposite sex. Boys suffer from Oedipus complex and girls suffer from Electra complex. |
| Latency Stage | 6 years - puberty | No psychosexual development occurs in children. The libido is diverted towards asexual activities. |
| Genital Stage | Puberty - death | It is the puberty period when sexual urges reawaken that may lead to children exploring their sexuality. |

**PERSONALITY**

William Sheldon classified people based on their body types. Sheldon used his observations to classify body types into three categories namely: ectomorph, endomorph and mesomorph.

The **ectomorph**, is a thin, introverted person with poor social skills. The ectomorph body type have: narrow hips, shoulders, face, chest, skinny arms and legs , high forehead

Ectomorphs were thought to have the following personality characteristics: socially awkward, self-conscious, introverted and private, artistic, thoughtful

The **endomorph** posses body type, which is a rounder body and more relaxed personality, with the following physical characteristics: pear-shaped or round with wide shoulders and hips, high body fat in all areas, including arms and thighs, slim ankles and wrists, adding to the 'funny' characteristic. Sheldon thought endomorphic people had personalities that were:, outgoing, funny, loving, laid-back, attention-seeking

The **mesomorph** is somewhere between the round endomorph and the thin ectomorph. Physically, they have the more 'desirable' body, and have:large head, broad shoulders and narrow waist (wedge-shaped), muscular body, with strong forearms and and thighs,very little body fat. They are generally considered as 'well-proportioned'. Psychologically, they are adventurous, courageous, indifferent to what others think or want, assertive/bold, zest for physical activity, competitive, with a desire for power/dominance, and a love of risk/chance

However, Psychologists prefer to focus on personality traits rather than on body types and the most widely accepted of these are the Big Five consisting of:

* Openness is stands for "openness to experience." People who are high in openness enjoy adventure. They're curious and appreciate art, imagination and new things. The motto of the open individual might be "Variety is the spice of life."People low in openness prefer to stick to their habits, avoid new experiences.
* Conscientiousness: People who are conscientious are organized and have a strong sense of duty. They're dependable, disciplined and achievement-focused. People low in conscientiousness are more spontaneous and may tend toward carelessness. Conscientiousness is a helpful trait to have, as it has been linked to [achievement in school and on the job](https://www.livescience.com/37283-personality-change-mental-health.html).
* Extraversion: Extraverts are chatty, sociable and draw energy from crowds. They tend to be assertive and cheerful in their social interactions whereas introverts need plenty of time being alone. Introversion is often confused with shyness, but the two aren't the same. Shyness implies a fear of social interactions or an inability to function socially. Introverts can be perfectly charming at parties but just prefer small-group activities.
* Agreeableness: Agreeableness measures the extent of a person's warmth and kindness. The more agreeable someone is, the more likely they are to be trusting, helpful and compassionate. Disagreeable people are cold and suspicious of others, and they're less likely to cooperate.
* Neuroticism: People high in neuroticism worry frequently and easily slip into anxiety and depression. If all is going well, neurotic people tend to find things to worry about. In contrast, people who are low in neuroticism tend to be emotionally stable .

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