PSYCHOLOGY

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INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY

- Psychology is the scientific study of mind (mental processes) and behavior. The word "psychology" comes from the Greek words "psyche," meaning life, and "logos," meaning explanation.

- The Challenges of Studying Psychology

- Relation to you

Table 1.2 The Most Important Perspectives of Psychology

Psychological Perspectives	Description	Important contributors
Structuralism	Uses the method of introspection to identify the basic elements or "structures" of psychological experience	Wilhelm Wundt, Edward B. Titchener
Functionalism	Attempts to understand why animals and humans have developed the particular psychological aspects that they currently possess	William James
Psychodynamic	Focuses on the role of our unconscious thoughts, feelings, and memories, and our early childhood experiences in determining behavior	Sigmund Freud, Carl Jung, Alfred Adler, Erik Erickson, Karen Horney
Behaviorism	Based on the premise that it is not possible to objectively study the mind, and therefore that psychologists should limit their attention to the study of behavior itself	John B. Watson, B. F. Skinner
Biological	Focuses on the role of biology (genetics, neurotransmitters, hormones, and the brain) on human behavior and mental processes	Michael Gazzaniga
Humanistic	Emphasis is placed on the individual's potential for personal growth	Carl Rogers, Abraham Maslow
Cognitive	The study of mental processes, including perception, thinking, memory, and judgments	Hermann Ebbinghaus, Sir Frederic Bartlett, Jean Piaget
Social-cultural	The study of how the social situations and the cultures in which people find themselves influence thinking and behavior	Fritz Heider, Leon Festinger, Stanley Schachter
Evolutionary	Focuses on adaptation and survival as the basis of behavior and mental processes	Charles Darwin, David Buss, Richard Dawkins, Steven Pinker

PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORIES FOR YOU

- **Information processing theory**

- Information processing theory is a cognitive theory that uses computer processing as a metaphor for the workings of the human brain. Initially proposed by George A. Miller and other American psychologists in the 1950s, the theory describes how people focus on information and encode it into their memories.

- Memory

- Encoding

- Storage

- Retrieval

- Limitations

PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORIES FOR YOU

- **Classical conditioning theory**

- Russian physiologist [Ivan Pavlov](), classical conditioning is a type of unconscious or automatic learning. This learning process creates a conditioned response through associations between an unconditioned stimulus and a neutral stimulus.

- Stimulus

- Response

PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORIES FOR YOU

- Classical conditioning—also sometimes referred to as Pavlovian conditioning—uses a few different terms to help explain the learning process. Knowing these basics will help you understand classical conditioning.

- An unconditioned stimulus is a stimulus or trigger that leads to an automatic response. If a cold breeze makes you shiver, for instance, the cold breeze is an unconditioned stimulus; it produces an involuntary response (the shivering).

- A neutral stimulus is a stimulus that doesn't initially trigger a response on its own. If you hear the sound of a fan but don't feel the breeze, for example, it wouldn't necessarily trigger a response. That would make it a neutral stimulus.

- A conditioned stimulus is a stimulus that was once neutral (didn't trigger a response) but now leads to a response. If you previously didn't pay attention to dogs, but then got bit by one, and now you feel fear every time you see a dog, the dog has become a conditioned stimulus.

- An unconditioned response is an automatic response or a response that occurs without thought when an unconditioned stimulus is present. If you smell your favorite food and your mouth starts watering, the watering is an unconditioned response.

- A conditioned response is a learned response or a response that is created where no response existed before. Going back to the example of being bit by a dog, the fear you experience after the bite is a conditioned response.

PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORIES FOR YOU

- **Hierarchy of needs**

- Abraham Maslow created the hierarchy of needs as a theory of motivation. This motivational theory is often helpful in the workplace and many managers may implement it while developing motivational strategies.

Self-actualization
desire to become the most that one can be

Esteem
respect, self-esteem, status, recognition, strength, freedom

Love and belonging
friendship, intimacy, family, sense of connection

Safety needs
personal security, employment, resources, health, property

Physiological needs
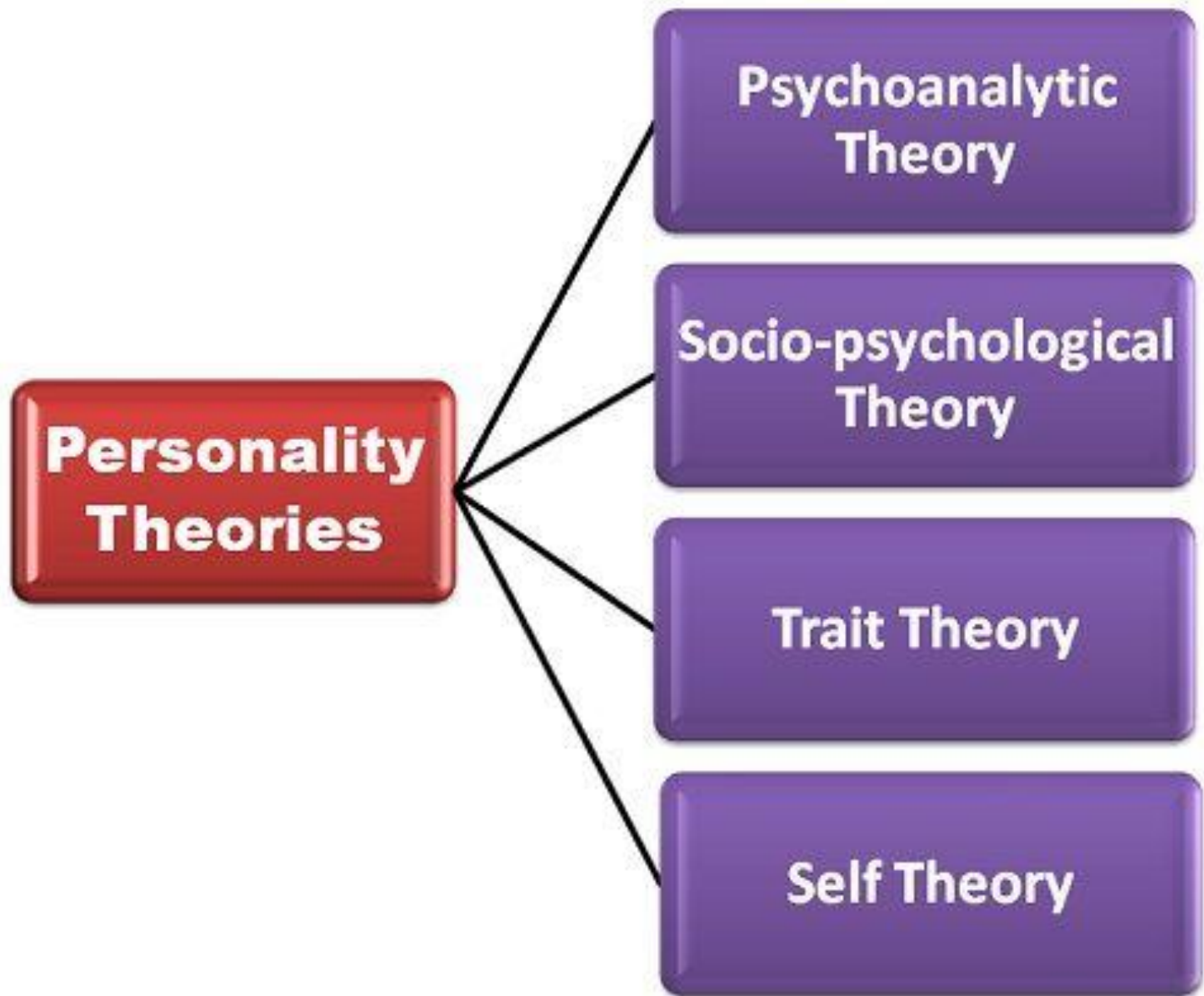air, water, food, shelter, sleep, clothing, reproduction

PSYCHOLOGICAL THEORIES FOR YOU

- **Theory of moral development**

- Kohlberg's theory of moral development involves three levels of morality. The theory that individuals navigate through these levels of moral reasoning to make a decision or perform an action.

- A manager may refer to this theory while identifying what motivates an employee to make specific decisions and become a high-functioning, productive individual in the workplace.

Kohlberg's Theory of Moral Development

Level Three Postconventional (11 years on)

Step 6 — Individual principles of conscience.

Step 5 — Conforms to maintain communities. Emphasis on individual rights.

Level Two Conventional Level (7 to 11 years)

Step 4 — Conforms to avoid censure by authorities.

Step 3 — Good boy/girl morality. Conforms to avoid disapproval or dislike by others.

Level One Preconventional (younger than six)

Step 2 — Naïve hedonism. Conforms to get rewards and to have favors returned.

Step 1 — Punishment and obedience orientation. Obey rules to avoid punishment.

The Big 5 Personality Traits

|	High levels	Low levels
Openness	• Extremely creative • Trying new things • Extremely focused on handling new challenges • Thinks about abstract concepts	• Doesn't like change • Not interested in new things • Doesn't welcome new ideas • Isn't very imaginative
Conscientiousness	• Spends more time preparing • Focuses and finishes important tasks on time • Pays extra attention to details • Likes having a set-out schedule	• Doesn't like structures and scheduling • Doesn't like to take care of things • Fails to complete important or assigned tasks
Extraversion	• Loves being the center of attention • Conversation starter • Enjoys meeting new people • Naturally being able to make new friends	• Unable to start conversations • Doesn't like making small talks • Thinks a lot before speaking
Agreeableness	• Shows a lot of interest in other people • Usually cares about others • Feels empathetic towards other people • Loves helping	• Shows less interest in other people • Has low interest in other people's problems • Doesn't care about how other people feels
Neuroticism	• Gets upset often • Dramatic mood swings • Feeling anxious	• Very emotionally stable • Handles stress well • Rarely feels upset or depressed

Id
"I want to do that now!"

Superego
"It's not right to do that."

Ego
"Maybe we can compromise."

Id:
Instincts
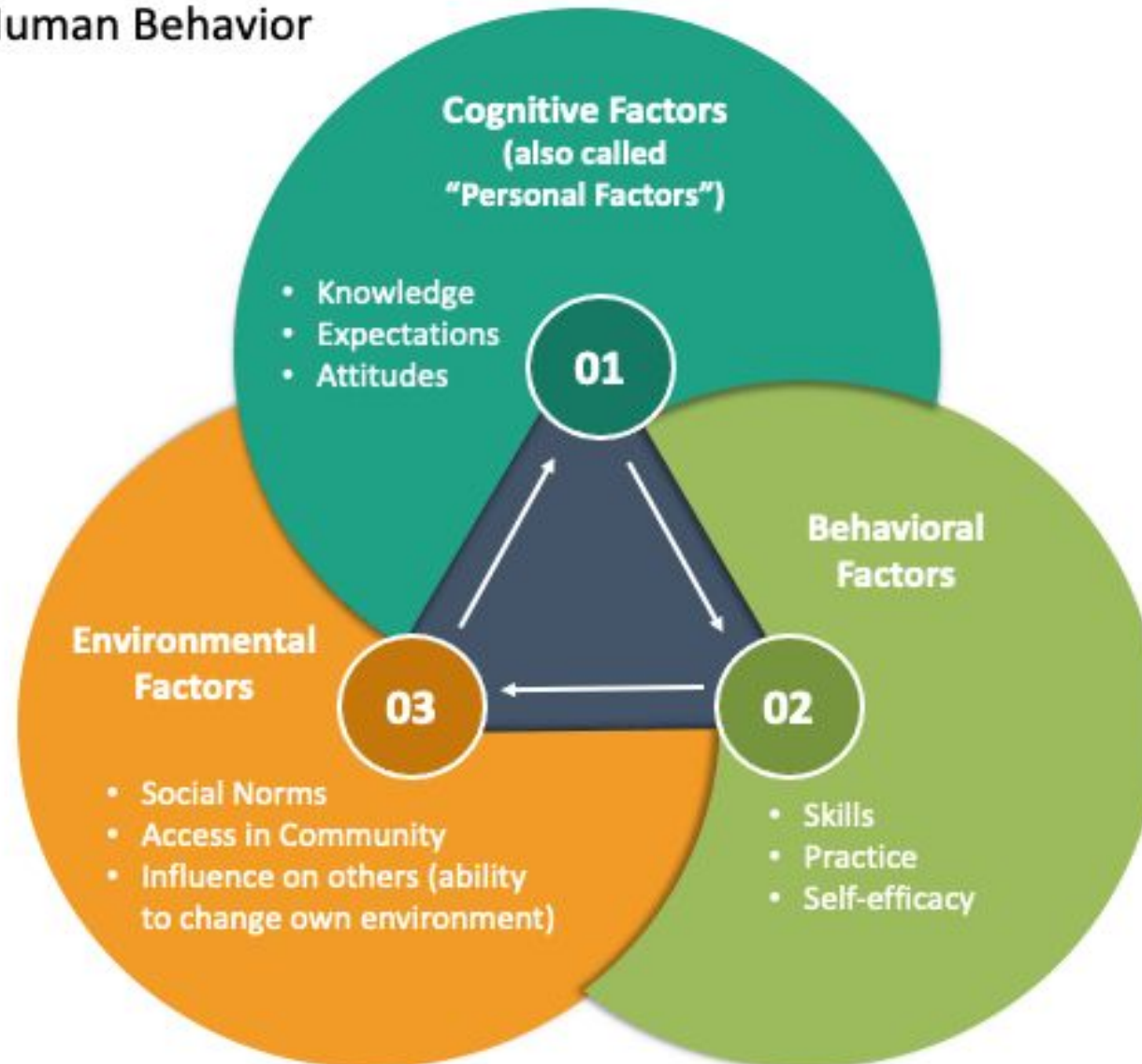
Ego:
Reality

Superego:
Morality
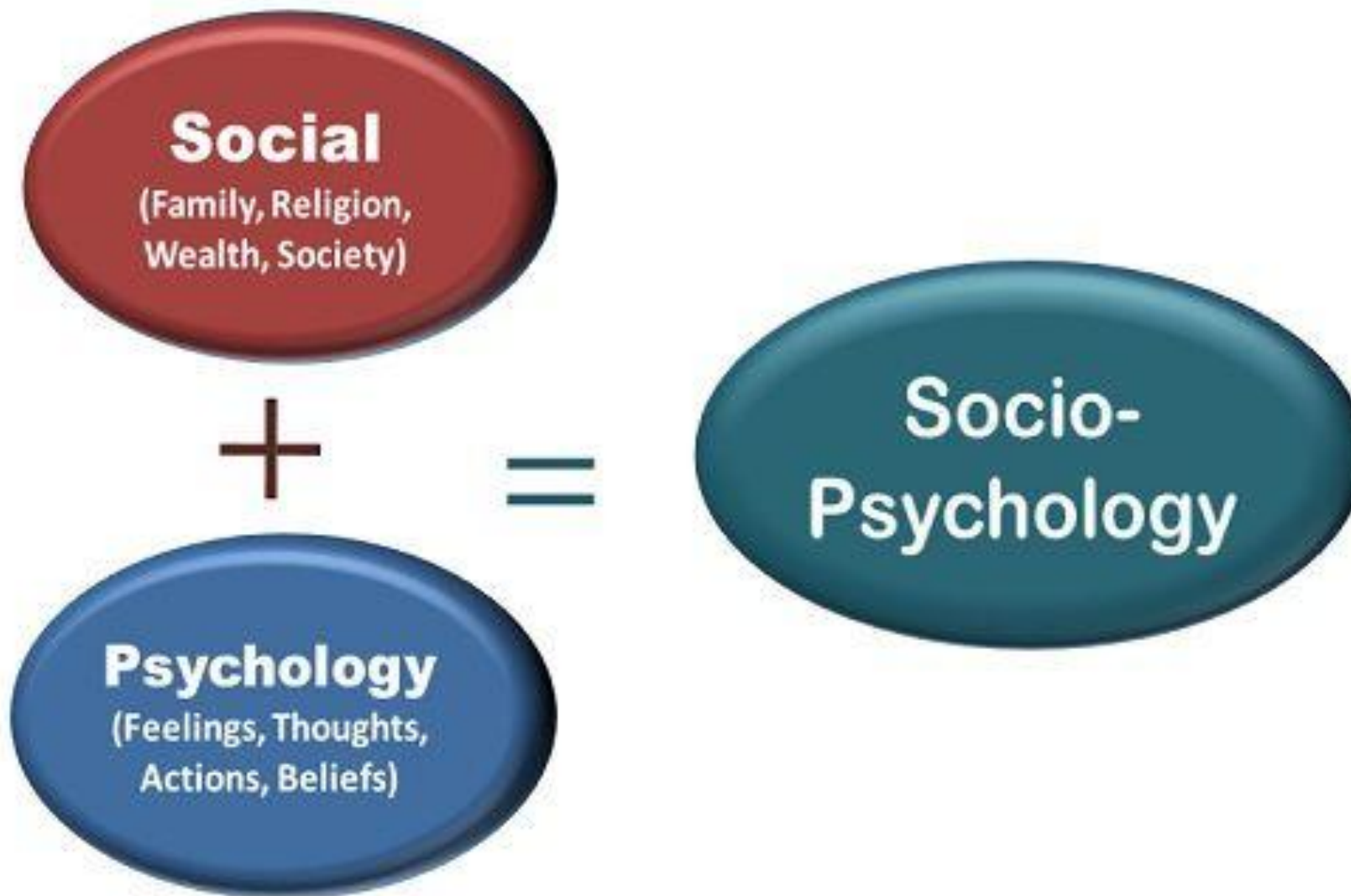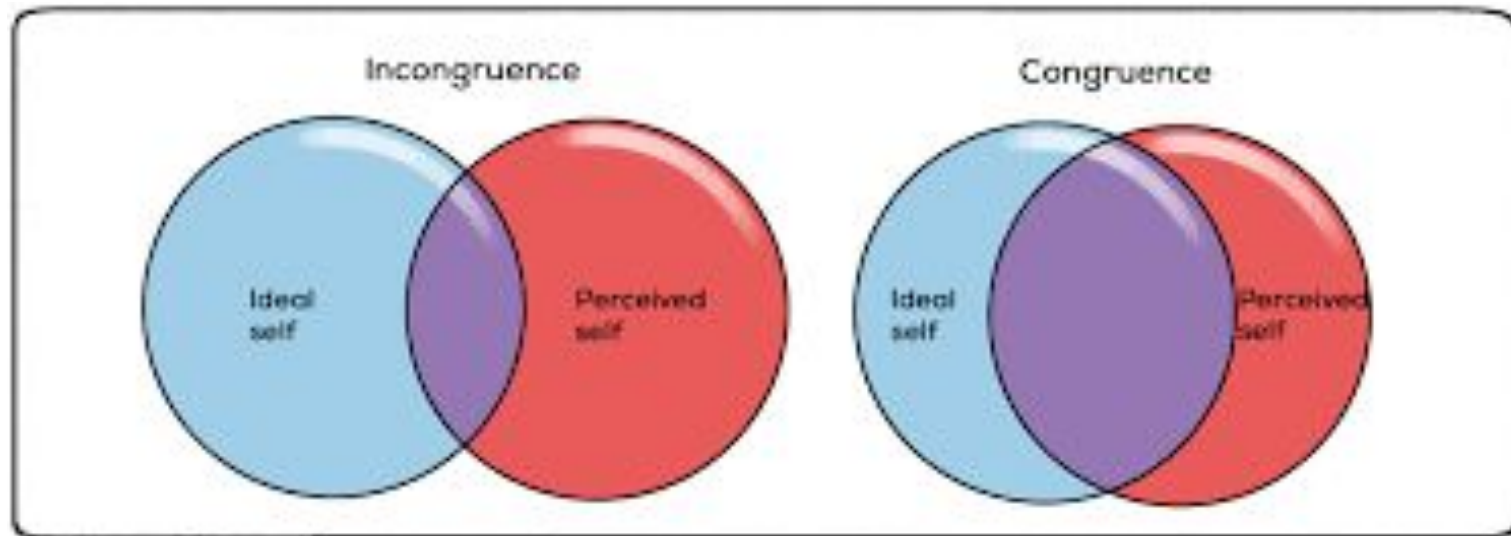
SOCIAL COGNITIVE THEORY

- Albert Bandura's (1986) Social cognitive theory explains personality development as learning that occurs through interactions with other people

SOCIAL COGNITIVE THEORY

Determines Human Behavior

Cognitive Factors
(also called "Personal Factors")

- Knowledge
- Expectations
- Attitudes

01

Behavioral Factors

02

- Skills
- Practice
- Self-efficacy

Environmental Factors

03

- Social Norms
- Access in Community
- Influence on others (ability to change own environment)

LOCUS OF CONTROL

- Locus of control refers to the belief that consequences are either the result of our own actions, or due to outside forces beyond our control. Rotter noted that individuals who have an internal locus of control assume that their behavior is responsible for the consequences they experience. Whereas, individuals with an external locus of control believe that they are at the whim of luck, chance, or the actions of other people.

PERSONALITY AND CULTURE

- Culture greatly affects how individuals perceive themselves, and one important distinction is where a culture falls on the continuum between individualism and collectivism (Vazire, 2014). Individualistic cultures, such as the mainstream culture in the United States, focus on the self more than relationships. Independence and personal rights are valued over obligations to others. In contrast, collectivistic cultures, such as those in eastern Asia, value obligation to one's group over personal rights and desires. Cultural traditions and hierarchies are stronger in collectivistic cultures. Additionally, personality differences typically assessed, such as the Big Five, appear less noticeable in collectivistic cultures. However, within any culture there will be some members who exhibit more individualism than collectivism and vice versa. Consequently, individualism collectivism may be a personality trait itself.