

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

INTRODUCTION

- Defn. Psychology is the systematic study of human behavior and mental processes.
- Psychology comes from two Greek words, “**psyche**” which means soul (mind) .”**Logos**” which means study.
- Psychology simply means study of the mind

Branches of psychology

- i) **Clinical Psychology:** Studies; diagnosis, cause, treatment of mental disorders. For example, clinical psychologists have recently devised effective forms of treatment for reducing aggression among highly assaultive children
- ii) **Counselling Psychology:** Assists individuals in dealing with many personal problems that do not involve psychological disorder. For example counselling psychologists assist individuals in career planning and developing more effective interpersonal skills.

Branches cont.

- iii) **Development Psychology:** Studies show people change physically. Cognitively and socially and over entire life span. For example development psychologist have found that patterns of attachment children form to their parents can influence the nature of the romantic relationship they form as adults. (Vormarock, 1993)

Branches cont.

I

- **Iv)Cognitive Psychology:**Investigates all aspects of cognition; memory,thinking, reasoning, language, decision making.For example cognitive psychologists have recently found evidence suggesting that the reason we can not remember events that happen to us before we are about three years old is that we lack clearly developed self concept of this age(Howe and Courage, 1993)

Branches cont.

- **iii) Development Psychology:** Studies show people change physically, Cognitively and socially and over entire life span. For example development psychologist have found that patterns of attachment children form to their parents can influence the nature of the romantic relationship they form as adults. (Vormarock, 1993)

Branches cont.

- **V)Industrial/ organisation Psychology:**
- Studies all aspects of behaviour in work- settings selection of employes, evaluation of performance, work motivation, leadership. For example industrial/ organisation psychologist have found that work performance often decreases sharply when employees feel that they are being treated un fairly- that they are receiving fewer benefits than they deserve, score fewer points than those who feel that there salaries are fair(Harder, 1992)

Branches cont.

- **Vi)Psychobiology(Physiological Psychology):**Investigates the biological bases of behaviour-the role of biological events within our nervous systems and bodies in everything we do, sense, feel or think. For example, psycho-biologist have recently investigated the possible role gender difference in behaviour of subtle difference in the structure of females and male brains.(Law,Pellegrino and Hunt, 1993)

Branches cont.

- VII) **Social Psychology**: Studies all aspects of social behaviour and social thoughts. How we think about and interact with others. For example social psychologist have recently found that while men and women use complaints to change others' behaviour, the two genders use this technique in slightly different ways.

Branches cont.

- **Viii) Experimental Psychology**
- Studies all aspects : of basic psychological processes such as perceptions, learning and motivation. For example research by experimental psychologist has recently added much to our understanding of attention- the process of directing portions of our information processing capacity to specific stimuli. This knowledge in turn is now being applied to the design of more effective warnings about various hazards.

SCHOOLS IN PSYCHOLOGY

- After contributions of plato,Aristole,, Bacon, Kant and other researchers further developed the discipline of psychology scientifically(explain objectively, systemically and accurately) This gave rise to many schools of psychology, most notably:
Structualism,Functionalism,Behaviourism, Gestalt psychology and Psycho analytic psychology

Schools cont.

- . These schools differed from three perspectives; in their objectives of study(the consciousness mind, the un conscious mind, examining the functions of the mind or observing the effect of the environment o behaviour), and in their methods of study(some schools had their subjects report the contents of their minds or observing overt behavior.

Structuralism

- Structuralism was the oldest proper school of psychology. Structuralists were inspired by the efforts of biologists, chemists and physicists to analyze matter and categorise the cells, molecules and atoms.

Structuralism cont.

- Following the lead of these scientists, structuralism tried to analyze the mind break it into its component elements such as ideas and sensation and discover how these elements interact.

Structuralism cont.

- It was developed by a German called Wilhem Wundt in the late 19th century. He used **introspection** which means looking within . It attempts to explain behaviour by using these elements interact to form thoughts and feelings. The inner experiences a person tells can be interpreted in the light of the behaviour being investigated. The method is used by doctors, lawyers, intelligence officers and others people involved in investigative work.

Functionalism:

(William James and John Dewey, James, Angell)

- Functionalists preferred to study how the mind affects what people do. For, structuralist might study the components of taste e.g sweetness, bitterness etc. Functionalists would prefer to study how the ability to distinguish different tastes affects behaviour.
- Does the person prefer a sour drink to a sweet one and so on.

Functionalism cont.

- Functionalists are interested in how the mind functions and are concerned with why people behave the way they do. Proponents of functionalism stressed the biological significance(the purpose and function) and natural processes including behaviours. Among its basic ideas are the following:
- It's concerned with mental operation and not mental structure. For example the mind remembers but does not contain memory.

Functionalism cont.

- Mental processes are not studied as isolated and independent events but as part of the biological activity of the organism. These processes are aspects of the organism adaptation to the environment and are product to it's evolutionary history.
- Functionalism studies the relationship between the environment and the response of the organism to the environment. There are no meaning ful differences between mind and the body; they are part of the same entity.

Functionalism Cont.

- The human mind is a cumulative process which can be modified by a new experience.
- The environment influences /controls the way we behave e.g. how much we drink, how we walk, etc.
- Human experience is continuous and evolves overtime.
- Thinking is not an end in itself. Its function is to produce useful elements.

Behaviorism

- It was developed by Edward Thorndike, Ivan Pavlov and John Watson)
- Behaviorism rejected the position shared by structuralism and functionalism that the mind is the proper object of study for psychology.
- Behaviorism believed that because psychology is the study of observable behaviors, mental events, which cannot be observed, are outside the realm of psychology. Behaviorism is thus the study of relationship between people's environment and their behavior.

Behaviorism cont.

Behaviorism further emphasizes the following about human behavior:

- Human beings are born empty slates(tabula rasa) i.e. man is born with an empty mind.The environment , culture... impact on it with time to form behavior such as language, caring personality, aggression etc. In one of his works,.

- Watson wrote: Give me a dozen healthy infants, well-informed and my own specified world to bring them up and I will guarantee to take any at random and train him to become any type of specialist I might select- doctors, lawyer, artist, and yes even beggar man and thief, regardless of his talent, tendencies, abilities, vocations and race of his ancestors

Behaviorism cont.

- The imparted behavior can also rub off depending on circumstances.
- Most behavior that we manifest are acknowledged through learning from the environment.
- Human behavior tend to be pervasive i.e we tend to behave in a similar pattern in most cases.
- Human beings are reactive to the environment i.e the tend to respond to the conditions around them with out much thought i.e we abide by authority.
- Human beings are passive and deterministic i.e they wait to be modeled by the current circumstances/ environment.

Gestalt psychology

It was advanced by Marx Wertheimer, Kurt Koffka, Richer

- The word Gestalt comes from a German word “Gestalten” which can be translated to mean the whole unit, a totality, a pattern, form or a configuration. The following key points were stressed by Gestalt psychologists:
- The mind does not respond passively to discrete external stimuli but instead organises (actively) stimuli to form a coherent and meaningful whole. Thus perception is more than a series of individual sensations.

Gestalt cont.

- We are likely to get more meaning than simply perceiving only parts of reality/ behavior individually. E.g Love –(caring, kissing, romance) , classroom –(desk, chair,white/black board, chalk, markers) etc.
- Gestalt emphasizes that individuals perceive objects and patterns as a whole unit and stressed that the whole unit of what we perceive is different from the total/ sum of its different parts meaning that we perceive an object as a unit, it is more meaningful than when we simply perceive its parts individually.

Psychoanalytic Psychology

- It was developed in by a medical doctor called Sigmund Freud who was practicing in Vienna Austria. He noted through his research that some of the patients had nothing physically wrong with them although they had symptoms of physical illness such as headache, exhaustion , insomnia etc.
- Freud suggested that mental conflicts were behind these symptoms and that these conflicts had been pushed out normal awareness into what Freud called the unconscious part of the mind..

Psychoanalytic cont.

- He further suggested that much of human behavior is as a result of thoughts, fears and wishes that are hidden within the unconscious mind.
- People are often unaware of these motivating forces though they have a strong effect on behavior.
- Freud further suggested that many of the behaviors we show are as a result of our experience during infancy and childhood.

Psycho analytic cont.

- Freud's psycho analytic psychology's challenges is to uncover/ reveal/bring into open unconscious conflicts since they were very deep down in our conscious mind.
- To do this Freud, the technique called Hypnosis(putting some one into a trace or sleep).Hypnosis was not quite successful in revealing what was buried in a persons memory.He developed another method called free association in which a patient was asked to lie comfortably on a couch and requested to say whatever came to his/her mind no matter how irrelevant/ foolish it was.

GOALS AND AIMS OF PSYCHOLOGY

- To measure and predict behaviour
- To understand and explain behaviour
- To predict and control behaviour
- To improve the quality of human life

Goals cont

- **Measuring and describing behavior**

The role of a psychologist is to measure behaviour e.g anxiety, attitudes, depression, intelligence. A major goal of a psychologist is therefore to develop technique for measuring these attributes. In order to understand this context each measuring instrument must possess two qualities i.e **reliability and validity**.

Reliability of an instrument means that when that instrument is used to measure a given behaviour or constant or a characteristic it should give us consistent results every time it is used or

Goals cont.

- administered.eg if you are trying to find how you weigh and you jump on a weighing scale several times getting the same results or reading,then that weighing scale is said to be reliable.However if we get different results every time we jump on it then it is unreliable.
- **Validity** of an instrument means that the instrument is measuring the characteristic that is designed or meant to measure.
- For example , if a teacher wants to know how intelligent his students are and he uses a tape measure around the head of each student and decides that the one with the biggest head or circumference is the most intelligent, he will be very wrong.

Goals cont.

- He may administer the instrument again and again and he will get similar/ consistent results about the circumference of the heads of students-in as far as the size of the students heads are concerned it is invalidity of the results about intelligence. Reason being that the instrument is used to measure what it is not designed for. A tape measure is not an instrument for measuring intelligence. If an instrument is valid (appropriate) measuring exactly what it is supposed to measure automatically it is expected to be reliable. However an instrument may be reliable but not necessary valid.

Understanding and explaining Behaviour

- The second important goal of psychology is to understand and explain behaviour and mental processes. In this case psychology is interested in identifying the why this or that? The above involves the use of theories. A theory is an attempted explanation that makes sense out of a large number of observations. A good theory helps us to make reasonable guess when we do not know the correct answer. These guesses are technically called hypothesis. A hypothesis is a tentative and testable or verifiable explanation of the relationship between causes and consequences or effect.

Prediction and control of Behavior

- The third goal is to be able to predict and there by control behavior. By prediction we mean that if a given event "A" is always followed "B" on different occasions, then in future whenever we witness "A" we predict or expect "B" to follow. By control we mean that we are able to modify and regulate the condition such that when "A" produces "B" we are able to say with confidence that event "A" not any other caused or produced B. To be able to predict and control behavior we rely on the past or present information about behaviour.

Improvement of quality of Human Life.

- Many psychologists argue that the knowledge of psychology should be used to improve the life of an individual. E.g to provide better education opportunities for citizens like UPE & USE programmes. To prevent crime in society and others like corruption, prejudice, sectarianism in places of work to control dehumanizing activities like prostitution etc All these show that there is need for psychologists in all spheres of life

ROLE OF PSYCHOLOGY TO MEDICAL OFFICER

- Psychology is a science. Science implies to knowledge which is based on scientific research.
- This knowledge is then available for others to apply.
- The subject matters to be studied in psychology are many:

Roles cont.

- Human behavior
- Human experience ,language-communication
- There is an important distinction to be made between behavior and the interpretation of the meaning of behavior.
- We look at the facial expression and the movement of person.
- Behaviour of some body is public and observable
- Experience is however something private about patients, we want to know what they feel, think, suffering from or enjoy.
- The study of experience in addition to the study of behavior makes psychology interesting and relevant to a clinical officer.

HISTORY OF PSYCHOLOGY

- The origin of psychology is dated to 1879 when **Wirlhem wundt** set up the first psychology lab in Leipzig. Most of the worlds early scientinfic psychologists got their education from Wundt.
- **Edward Titcher**, Wundt,s student expanded his teachers work and this school of thought is called **structurism** . It attempts to describe the structures that make up the mind.
- **William James** , influenced by Dawin's theory of evolution ,founded the school of **Functionalism** which learns how the mind produces useful behaviours.

HISTORY CONT.

- **Functionalists** ,proposed that more adaptive behavior patterns are learned and maintained, whereas the less adaptive ones are discontinued.
- **J.B Watson** the founder of **behaviorism** asserted that for psychology to be a natural science , it must limit it self to observable and measurable behavior not mental processes

HISTORY CONT.

- In the 1920s another school known as the **Gestalt psychologist** arose in Germany, they argued that one can't cope to understand human nature by focusing on the observable behavior alone.
- The Gestalts were more concerned with perceptions and to them perceptions are wholes that give meaning to parts.

PERSPECTIVES IN PSYCHOLOGY

- Any topic in psychology can be approached from a variety of perspectives.
- **i.BiologicalPerspective:** This approach explains behaviour in terms of electrical and chemical processes taking place in the body particularly within the brain and the nervous system. It specifies neurobiological processes that underlie behaviour and mental processes.
- **ii.Behavioural perspective:** This approach focuses on observable behaviour and tries to explain it in terms of its relationship to the environment.
- It was advanced by J.B Watson. In this psychology study, individuals are looked at in terms of their behaviour rather than the brains or nervous system.

PERSPECTIVES CONT.

- III) **Cognitive perspective:** This focuses on mental processes such as thinking, remembering, reasoning, deciding, problem solving etc. And tries to explain behaviour in terms of mental processes. The perspective is premised on two assumptions.
 - a) It's only by studying mental processes that we can understand what organisms do.
 - b) We can study mental processes by focusing on specific behaviour but interpreting them in terms of underlying mental processes.

PERSPECTIVE CONT.

- **IV) Psychoanalytic perspective:** This was developed by Sigmund Freud. The basic assumptions of this is that much of our behaviour stems from processes that are unconscious. By the unconscious processes, Freud meant beliefs, fears and desires a person is not aware of but nevertheless influence behaviour.
- **V) Phenomenological perspective:**
It is sometimes called humanistic. Unlike the other approaches this focuses almost entirely on subjective experience. It is concerned with the individual's personal view of events. Phenomenological psychologists put it that we are not acted upon by forces beyond our control but instead we are actors capable of controlling our own destiny. This is also called humanistic psychology.

HUMAN GROWTH&DEVELOPMENT

- Development is the study of changes in people's lives from conception to death(womb to tomb). The field focuses on factors that constitute development across the life span. There are three domains namely; physical, cognitive and psycho-social development. The major development stages humans go through are prenatal, infancy and childhood, adolescence, adulthood and old age.

Principles of human development

- The process of human of growth and development tend to be characterized by a number of aspects that are described as principle of human growth and development. These are:
- These processes tend to be gradual and continuous
- They tend to be orderly and take certain pattern.
- The processes are not uniform in all humans

- The processes are gender related,ie. Male and females tend to have features that are unique to their respective gender or sex.
- The processes tend to be inter-related and complex, e.g gender vs personality, height vs personality
- Growth and development is affected by the environment and heredity factors.

Physical development

- This refers to the biological growth or maturation. Physical development includes changes in the body tissues and organs, such as in terms of height, weight and size .It also includes the ways a person uses his /her body such as motor skills and sexual development.
- **Prenatal Development**
- This is the development that occurs btm conception and the movement before birth.

Prenatal dev. Cont.

- It takes place in place in the mother's uterus and differs from mother to mother.
- Development begins in the fallopian tube when a sperm cell penetrates the wall of ripened ovum to form a zygote.
- The fertilized ovum develops through several stages ie
- Zygote Embryo Foetus
(0=2weeks) → (2-8wks) → (8wks-birth)

Prenatal cont.

- All of the organs including the brain must mature a great deal before birth and different structures and sub structures mature at different times. Although the majority of many unborn young ones follow a normal development pattern, there are those who encounter problems resulting in abnormal growth.

Factors affecting prenatal development.

- **1.Teratogens:**These are any agents that may pass from the mother thru the placenta barrier and affect embryo. This includes prescribed and unprescribed drugs, narcotics, nicotine, alcohol, etc.
- A more severe risk arises if the fetus is exposed to alcohol during pregnancy.The infant may develop signs of foetal alcoholic syndrome(FAS) a condition characterized by stunted growth of the head, and body, malformations of the face, eyes, ears and nervous system damage resulting in seizures, hyperactivity, learning, disabilities and mental retardation

Teratogens cont.

- In milder cases, the child's appearance may be normal but the child is still likely to have impaired academic skills, deficits in language, memory and motor speed.
- The more alcohol the mother drinks and the longer she drinks during pregnancy, the greater the risk to the foetus.

Factors affecting prenatal dev.

- **2. Maternal nutrition:** The growing foetus receives its nutrition from the mother. If she eats little it also receives little. Prenatal malnutrition increases the risk of birth defects, prolonged labour, still birth and infant mortality. The harmful effects of prenatal malnutrition are greater when the nutrition deficiency occurs in later pregnancy.

Factors cont.

- **3. Maternal diseases:** Many disease agents are capable of crossing the placental barrier, thus affecting normal prenatal development.
- **4. Mothers emotion state:** Although many women are happy to learn that they are pregnant, over a half of the pregnancies are unplanned for and causes psychological stress. Single women and those unhappily married are often bitter, angry and depressed about their pregnancies.

Factors cont.

Such women put their babies at risk especially miscarriage, prematurity, low birth weight.

Stress also weakens the immune system, making pregnant mothers susceptible to infectious diseases. More so such women are likely to drink alcohol, and smoke cigarettes.

5. Environmental hazards: This may include, trauma and radiations which can cause mutations or damage DNA. Effects due to radiations were tragically apparent in children born to pregnant Japanese women who survived the bombing of Nagasaki & Hiroshima. (1945). Miscarriage, slow growth, underdeveloped brains & malformation of the skeletons & eyes were common.

Infancy/ toddler stage

- This is a period ranging from birth to approximately 2 years. Within this period, the child begins to learn or cope with the new world.
- **Common characteristics:**
- Most of the child's activities are controlled by reflex action .
- The child is completely dependent upon the parents and care takers.
- The child tends to develop strong , attachment
- To parents, siblings and those that are usually around it

Childhood cont.

- It is a period for development of locomotion skills.
- The mouth is the greatest source of pleasure.
- Most of the child's communication is through ,crying,bubbling and the phobic reactions for external objects or strangers.
- **Implication:**
- Children should be given adequate care and affection from parents and care –takers.
- They need adequate protection from parents and care takers from external harm.
- Parents and care –takers should endeavor to provide enough company to their children.
- Children need balanced diet if they are to grow well healthy.
- Parents and care-takers should learn to understand the language of their children.

Childhood stage (2-12years)

- This is a period from approximately 2 to 12 years of age. Developmentally this period can be sub-divided into 3 sub stages, namely;-
 - a) Early childhood(2-5years)
 - b) Middle childhood(5-9years)
 - c) Late childhood (9-12years)
- According to growth and development process, the characteristics of children in this period can be categorized according to physical, psychological and cognitive dimensions.

Characteristics of childhood stage

- This is a period of rapid growth of muscles and body structures.
- It is the period for rapid development
- It is a period when the child is highly imitative of what he /she sees or hears .They rarely tell lies. It is a period when one has to be careful with what he/she does before the child.
- The child is inquisitive- highly exploratory, they want reasons and clear answers, that is how they learn. There is need to be careful, not to hurt the child. Children never forget they revenge badly.They story of child whose doll was thrown down stairs and how he threw amother's baby.
- Play is their greatest source of pleasure.

- They pair with peers of their sex to play games of their sex.
- Children develop peer group norms. This is due to expanded socialization. They hate being confined in gates, they want to get out.
- There is egocentrism- basic for early childhood, they see things from the I point of view e.g if you gave them a gift, it is no longer yours, they expect you to beg them and they give you something small.

Implications

- Children should be provided with lots of play, stimulating materials. We need to know what is to be evoked by e.g. social, mental or intellectual. They should be talked to by parents, adults and care takers.

Adolescence stage

- Adolescence, refers to a period of transition from childhood to adulthood extending from 12 years to late teens when physical growth is nearly complete.
- During this period a person develops to sexual maturity and begins to identify himself or herself as an individual separate from family.
- Adolescence starts at puberty, the period of sexual maturation and goes on for three to five years (3-5) with a child developing into a biologically mature adult.

Adolescence cont.

- It starts with secondary sexual characteristics. In girls, menarche is the term used to describe the first menstrual period. The first menstrual period is irregular. Some girls attain menarche as early as 11 years and others as late as 17 years. But on average it is 13 years. Boys on average mature 2 years later. Adolescence and puberty tend to have psychological effects on the youngsters. The period is characterized by moodiness, inner turmoil and rebellion. Being an early or late maturer, affects the adolescent's satisfaction with the appearance of the body and hence self esteem.

Adolescence cont.

- The effect tends to be more negative on the side of girls than boys .This is the stage during which most youngsters engage or have their first sex encounters. Research shows that today's adolescents engage in sexual activities much earlier than their parents did despite the advent of HIV/AIDS. Adolescents consult their peers on areas of sexual culture, like how to dress, the music to listen to, the fun to have etc, but also seek parents advise on important matters.

Adolescent cont.

- Family conflicts in form of quarrels and arguments are common in this stage. These arguments normally involve simple aspects of daily life like work, messy rooms, playing radio on high volume. These conflicts represents an adolescents attempt to exert control over his or her life. The adolescent gets caught up between two worlds- one of dependence and another of responsibility.
- They want independence (power to decide for them selves) but they fear the increased responsibility that accompanies adult hood
- If parents are authoritative and un willing to grant more autonomy to the adolescents, the conflict may escalate
- Parents who provide explanation s for their decisions and provide democratic structure of decision making give the adolescent a sense of autonomy that reduces conflict and leads to easy transition to adulthood.

- One major task in a dolescence is identity development, the search for personal identity, involves deciding what is worth doing gender roles, feelings about self worth and competence.
- This is search for self identity, proceeds throughout life and is resolved in a number of ways. Some young people after a period of experimentation commit themselves to life goals and proceeds towards them. For those who accept parents values without question the identity crisis may never occur. Some adopt a deviant identity, one that is at odds with the family values. Some go through a period of identity confusion and others never develop a sense of personal identity even as adults.

Adulthood

- This stage/period ranges between approximately 20-55 years of age. It can be seen through three sub stages.i.e
 - a)-20-35 Early adulthood stage
 - b)35-45Middle adulthood
 - c)45-50 Late adulthood stage.

General characteristics of adulthood

- ❖ This is a period of assuming responsibilities, social, economic, political marital and civil responsibilities.
- ❖ Here most people have accomplished at least basic education
- ❖ The adults acquire variety of experiences from where to learn.
- ❖ This is the time for settling down, people make up their mind on what they want to be.
- ❖ This is the time for caring for the young ones, dependants or relative or grand children.
- ❖ It is time for setting goals/ laying foundation for the future
- ❖ Adults should know their roles and responsibilities. If they are to be better examples for the future generation.

Old age

- This is approximately from 55 plus. It is usually referred to as retirement age from civic responsibilities . However the social responsibilities continue. This is a period of looking back, either in desperation or integrity basing on what one has done or achieved.

Implications of old age

- Since they reached retirement age, they need to be assisted to fulfill their social responsibilities
- There is need to help these people appreciate themselves on what they have done and not to despair for what they have not done.
- In their final stage of life, they need to be assisted to die a happy death i.e they should be helped to cope with anger, bargaining, depression so as to accept that death is inevitable.
- They need to be loved and they need adequate care and affection from care takers.
- Should be consulted because they have a wide experience.
- They should give independence to their children to run their affairs

COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT

- This looks at how children develop mental processes by which they acquire knowledge.
- It is a gradual increase in knowledge and ability to process information. A Swiss psychologist **Jean Piaget** studied children's cognitive development and came up with the theory of how their abilities to think and reason progress as they mature. He realized that a child's intellectual development is not merely an accumulation of experience or maturation on unfolding but a child constructs new mental processes as he/she interacts. He came up with the following stages:

Sensorimotor(0-2years)

- During this stage infants are discovering the relationship between their actions and the consequences. The stage is called so because of the interplay between the motor ability(motor activity) and the perception. The children differentiate themselves from objects and learn that they are agents of actions. So they begin to act intentionally E.g a child shaking a rattle to make noise(a rattle is a toy that makes noise when pressed on)

Pre- Operational(2-7years)

- In this stage children can think in symbolic terms but their words and images are not yet organized in a logical manner. They can't comprehend certain rules or operations as yet and hence the name pre –operational. This deficit can be illustrated by experiments on development of conservation example a child is given clay to make it to a ball equal to another ball and after doing this he declares them to be the same.

Pre-operational cont.

- Leaving one ball for reference, the experimenter rolls the other into a long sausage shape while the child watches, the child plainly sees that no clay is added or subtracted but will believe that the two no longer contain the same clay but the longer one contains more. One reason why children below seven have difficulty in the conservation principle is that their thinking is still dominated by visual impression.

Concrete-operational(7-12years)

- In this stage children can think logically about objects and events, they master various conservation concepts and can perform logical manipulations e.g here they can arrange objects basing on certain dimension say height or weight.

Formal- operational(12& above years)

- Here the child,s thinking becomes formal, a child can think logically about abstract prepositions and can test hypothesis systematically. The child becomes concerned with hypothetical and future problems. Children in this stage will experiment by changing variables E.g they will reason that one variable affects another the effect will appear only if you hold one variable constant and change the other, if no effect appears they will rule out the hypothesis.

Formal operational cont.

- Although cognitive development is divided into stages the quality of the child's thinking does not change dramatically from one stage to the next. Transition between stages is gradual involving consolidation of earlier skills. Many of the differences between the younger and the older children are due to differences in their ability to remember..

- The younger child may be unable to hold certain concepts b'cse doing so is beyond what its memory capacity permits. What changes with age is the ability to organize knowledge and improve memory

SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

- Social and emotional development of children depends greatly on their experiences during their first year of life. Most importantly on the manner in which the care givers respond to their needs .Irrespective of where they are raised from , infants begin smiling at about the same age. Indicating that smiling is an innate (in born) response. By their 4th months infants begin to show preference for familiar family members though they are still receptive to strangers.

SOCIAL DEV. CONT.

- At about 8 months they begin to show distress on approach of a stranger. This is stranger anxiety. The distress over separation from the parent reaches a peak at about 1½ years and then declines such that by the age of 2 years most children can comfortably interact with other people in the absence of their parents. Two factors are responsible for the onset of the anxiety.

Social dev. Cont.

- The first is memory growth when the mother leaves the infants gets aware and this leads to distress and anxiety. But as memory of past instances of separation and return improves the infant becomes able to anticipate return of the mother and the anxiety declines.
- The second factor is growth of autonomy as children grow they can communicate their wants and dependence on the care givers declines, so the issue of the parents presence becomes less critical.

ATTACHMENT

- This is the intimate enduring relationship between the infant and the care giver during infancy.
- This relationship is characterized by reciprocal affection shared and a desire to maintain physical closeness.
- People believe that an infant's attachment to its care giver is primarily b'se of the nourishment that the care giver provides but this is not true as studies reveal that it is for something more than nourishment.

Attachment cont.

- The attachment provides the security necessary for the child to explore his /her environment and it forms the basis for interpersonal relationship later in life. Failure to form secure attachment to primary persons in early years is related to inability to develop close personal relationship in adult life.

Types of Attachment cont.

- Ainsworth(1973) identified a secure pattern of attachment and three patterns of insecurity
- 1 Secure attachment:** Here children play comfortably and are friendly to strangers when parent is present. They get distressed when the parent leaves and may cry, but when she returns, they calm down and get comforted and go back to play. Mothers of securely attached children are more affectionate, caring and responsive to their needs and cries.

Types cont.

2.Avoidant attachment:(insecure)

Here children mind less about the care givers presence and seem not distressed when she leaves. If distressed they can be comforted by a stranger, they ignore the mother when she returns or may approach her briefly and get back to their play. Mothers of such children showed them little affection and were generally un responsive to the infant's needs and cries.

Types cont.

3. Resistant attachment(insecure)

These infants remain close to the mother before departure but seem ambivalent (contradicting feeling) towards her when she returns, they display resistive behavior like hitting, biting and pushing her , they may continue crying after being picked up and are not easily comforted. Mothers of such children are inconsistent in their responsiveness only attending to mood rather than when the infants need them.

Type cont.

4. Disorganised attachment:(insecure)

- This is in infants who respond in a confused manner, when re- united to parents. They might look away while being held by the parent or show other confused behaviours making it difficult for the parent.
- To give them a concern. This pattern reflects the greatest insecurity. Although infants primary attachment is to the person providing and early care other family members too are a source of security

ATTACHMENT&LATER DEVELOPMENT.

- There is a relationship between the pattern of attachment and the way the infant copes with new experiences in later life. The securely attached will be more social and approach problems with enthusiasm and will always readily seek help from adults. The insecurely attached on other hand get easily frustrated and angry, seldom ask for help, tend to ignore directions from adults.

ATTACHMENT CONT.

- They tend to be socially withdrawn and hesitant about participating in activities. So the pattern of the care giver- infant attachment has an important influence on later development.

MENTAL PROCESSES

- These include memory, thinking, intelligence, reasoning, learning, level of consciousness, sleep, dreams and mental disorders.

MEMORY

- All learning requires memory. If we remembered nothing from our experiences, we could learn nothing.
- **Memory** is the act of preserving what has been acquired for later use. The mental operations by which our sensory experience are converted into memory is known as information processing and this focuses on the ways in which we receive, intergrate, retain and use information. We have three stages of memory-encoding, storage and retrieval.

Memory cont.

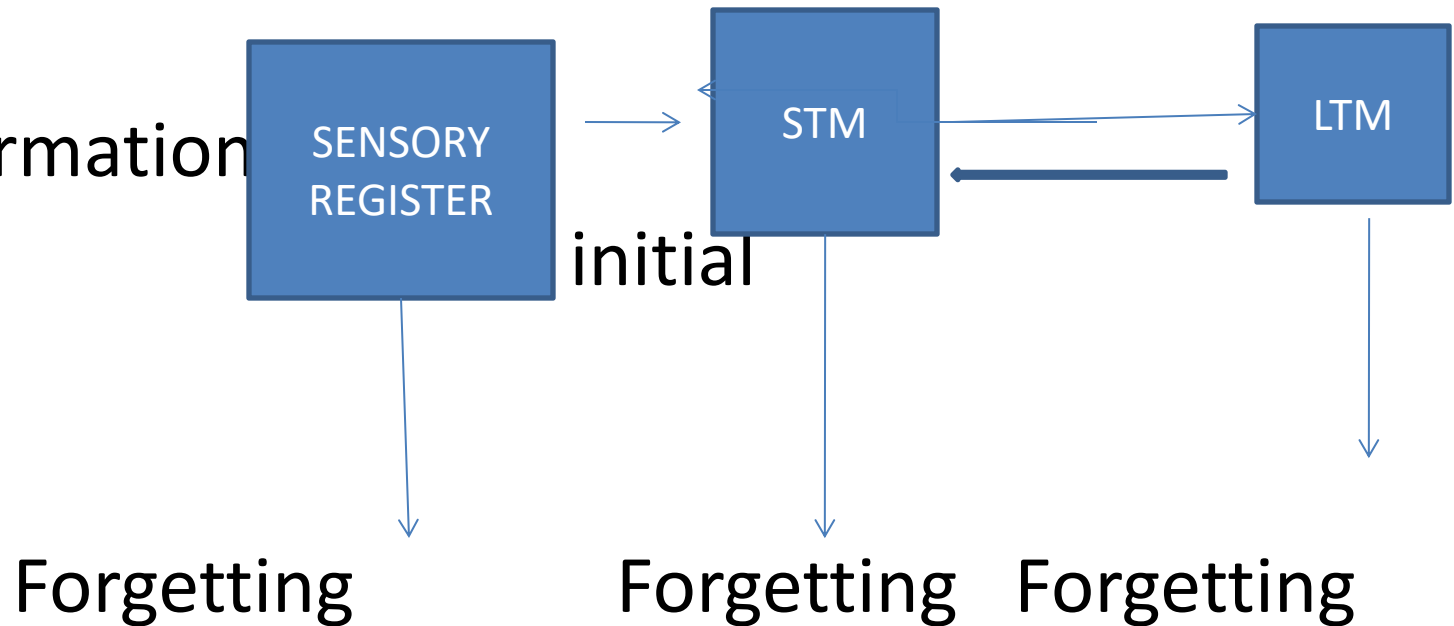
- **Encoding** is depositing some thing in memory.
- **Storage** is to do with maintaining the information in the memory.
- **Retrieval** : is recovering the information from the memory when needed. Forgetting is attributed to failure at any of the three stages.
- Our memory operates at three levels, namely: sensory register, short term memory and longterm.

Memory cont.

- Incoming

- information

-



Memory cont.

- Incoming information reaches to the sensory register to the short term memory and thru rehearsing information stored at short term memory is transferred to long term memory.

SENSORY REGISTER

- Every thing we know comes to us through our senses . Immediately we experience something, the sensory system hold an image of the information even after the stimulus has disappeared. The sensory store holds this for up to a second. Some memory at this level is extremely short.

Short term memory (STM)

- If information is to be remembered. It must be transferred to short term memory shortly after it has come in. There it's then processed or ignored. This has to be done very first because more and more information will be coming in soon.
- The limit of short term memory is demonstrated by our ability to easily repeat five digits but nine or more are difficult.
- For information to be retained in short term memory it has to be rehearsed.

Short term memory cont.

- In rehearsal the event is repeated several times. Short term memory is seen as a system that not only temporally stores the information but also processes works with current information . It is thus often referred to as working memory

LONG TERM MEMORY(LTM)

- Storage of information at this level is relatively permanent. Information is retained to full life time of the organism. According to the information processing model, information is stored first as short term memory(STM) and later processed to become (LTM).
- Besides the time factor long term memory differs from STM in two ways viz:

LONG TERM MEMORY CONT.

- i)LTM has unlimited capacity unlike STM which has capacity of seven categories on average.
- ii)The mode of data processing is different in the two STM requires simple repetition whereas LTM requires an elaborate system of encoding.

MEMORY DISTINCTION

- Memories can be declarative or procedural.
- Declarative memory is the ability to state a fact. Where as procedural memory is memory of how to do something(a skill).
- Two kinds of long term declarative memory are : semantic and episodic memory.

Semantic memory is memory of general principles.

Episodic memory is one of specific events including of when and where they happened.

memory cont.

- E.g Memory of the rules in playing golf is semantic memory while the memory of the most recent time you played golf is an episodic memory.
- Episodic memories are more fragile than semantic memories e.g People at times remember a statement they have heard but forget when, where and from whom they heard it. This is called **source amnesia**.

FORGETTING

- This is inability to recall. It may be due to failure in encoding, storing or retrieval of information. There are four theories that account for forgetting:

1. Interference theory:

According to this theory information is lost from memory because it is disturbed or displaced by other information. Interference can be caused by an experience that occurred after we had learnt a material.

Forgetting cont.

- This is called retrograde interference. In this case later memories interfere with the recall of earlier memories.
- When earlier memories interfere with recall of the material learned this is called proactive interference.

2. **Decay Theory:**

- This assumes that learning leaves a trace on the brains and that traces not actively and used easily fade away with time.

Decay theory cont.

- Decay theorists stress that we have a limited capacity for processing information and that rehearsal prevents decay by keeping the information in the memory.

3.REPRESSIVE THEORY

According to Freud forgetting is caused by factors within an individual such as anxiety and frustration. Freud called this exclusion of information from awareness.(motivated forgetting)

Repressive theory cont.

- According to this theory some information is important to us and will be remembered. Some information may cause us internal pain and anger and is thus likely to be remembered such information is repressed.

CONSOLIDATION THEORY

- Another view of forgetting focuses on destruction of memory trace in its formative stages. Certain conditions recurring after an experience can eradicate a memory before it becomes permanent. Any event that disrupts normal neural functioning can also disrupt memory. Drugs & alcohol can result in loss of memory by interfering with consolidation of the traces.

Memory cont.

- In contrast to forgetting, amnesia is severe loss of memory that may result from different causes like injury to the brain and strokes, encephalitis, alcoholism, ECT, etc.
- The primary symptom of amnesia is inability to acquire new information or remember day to day events. This is **anterograde** amnesia.
- The second symptoms is inability to remember events that occurred prior to injury

Or disease this is called **retrograde amnesia**

IMPROVING MEMORY

- To improve memory we must improve the way we store information in the first place ie the key to improving memory lies in organizing and encoding memory more effectively when you learn the associations you form the learnt materials becomes important retrieval cues that remind you of the material later(Mnemonic devices) are any memory aids based on encoding each item in specific way and they come in a variety of ways.
- Other technique include timing of the study and self monitoring of understanding

THINKING

- Unlike computers animals esp. human beings are not controlled directly by commands from the environment.
- Higher order animals(mammals) esp. Primates do not respond directly but instead take the stimuli into consideration along with other inputs and memorized data and then make the decision as to what action to take.

Thinking cont.

- For example; suppose you have some meat but just before you start eating you are called to the next room to answer a phone call, your dog then picks one piece of meat from the plate and eats it. You shout at the dog angrily letting it to know that grabbing your meat is a bad act of which it can be punished.
- If this happens again and the dog is reprimanded(punished) it is likely to store it on its conscious that much as it's fun to steal the meat from a plate, the act has a punishment associated with it and is therefore not good.

Thinking cont.

- If these circumstances happen again, the dog won't automatically grab the meat instead the stimuli(smell&sight) of meat will go into the dogs processor i.e brain where it is combined with other stored information and other external stimuli “ like is there any one watching”.
- The processor will then result in decision either to steal the meat or not to steal. The above is an example of thinking.

Thinking cont.

- Defn. Thinking is the fundamental ability to create mental images and manipulates those images.
- This is great evolutionally gift that man has had for long separating him from the rest of the animal kingdom and giving him supremacy. Thinking can be considered as a language of the mind and by this we have more than one language.

Thinking cont.

- There is a model of thought corresponding to sentences we seem to hear in mind. (**propositional thoughts**). There is also one that corresponds to visual images we seem to see in our mind- **imaginal thought**.
- Then motoric thought is one that corresponds to the sequence of mental movements.
- Thinking includes a wide range of activities.

Thinking cont.

- Thinking includes a wide range of activities:
- Neurons communicate with each other through the electrochemical process. Every time you think, learn or communicate a neuron in the brain sends a nerve impulse down its axon, an impulse is fired across the synaptic gap via a neural transmitter.
- The impulse then travels along the axon of the next neuron and the process continues. This activity is the process that creates the intricate pathways of thought.

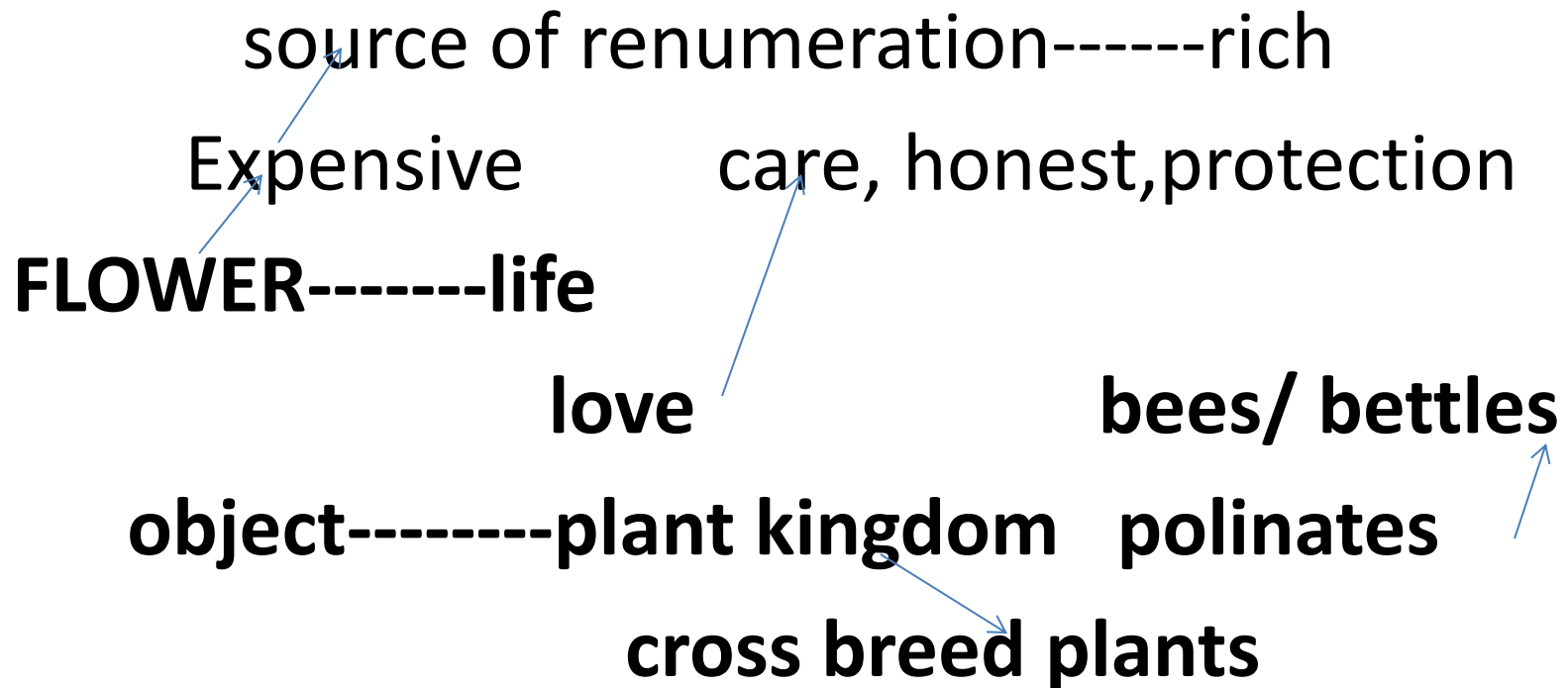
CONCEPTUAL NET WORK

- We don't store words in the brain in isolation, but in network of related ideas (conceptual net work) so any word will always remind you of any thing or some thing else.
- We link a concept to other concepts that relate to it in a variety of ways.
- Activation of one concept always activates other concepts that are related to it.

Conceptual cont.

- The phenomena called spreading activation in other words. Thinking of one of one concept makes it easier to think of its related concept as well.

Illustration of a conceptual network



REASONING

- Memory associations are not the only means we have of organizing prepositional thought.
- The kind of organisation of interest manifests it self when we try to reason. Reasoning is a process of thinking and drawing conclusions. Reasoning can be deductive or inductive.
- **Deductive reasoning** is a process of reasoning from a general principle to a particular instance eg . Taking a fact that many arabs are extremists and you judge any arab you see to be extremist.

Reasoning cont.

- **Inductive reasoning:** This is inferring or reaching conclusion by taking a particular instance e.g. catching a person belonging to one tribe in theft and you take all members to be thieves.

- Many
- Deductive
- One

- One
- Inductive
- Many

CONSCIOUSNESS AND ITS ALTERED STATES

- Consciousness is one's current awareness of events in the environment and of bodily sensations, memories and thoughts. It involves monitoring and controlling our selves and the environment so that actions are repeated accurately.
- We cannot attend to all stimuli that comes to our selves at a given moment. Our consciousness focuses on some and ignores others i.e. our attention is selective in that some events always come first e.g. you cannot concentrate on studying when hungry or while experiencing pain.

Subconsciousness

- Events that are not a focus of our attention can still have some influence on consciousness we register and evaluate stimuli that we don't
- Consciously perceive such stimuli operate at the subconscious level of awareness e.g hearing your name in a conversation to which you are not part.

Preconsciousness

- These are memories that are not part of consciousness at a given moment , but can be retrieved to the consciousness when needed.
- These memories are accessible to the consciousness and are called pre-conscious memories. Eg a sequence in tying a shoe lace or procedure in driving a car.

Un consciousness

- Some memories and desires are not accessible to the consciousness and are assigned to the unconsciousness.
- According to Sigmund Freud, painful memories and wishes are repressed to the unconscious where they continue to influence our actions indirectly through dreams, irrational behaviours, mannerisms and tongue slips.
- “A tongue slip” is an unintentional remark assumed to reveal hidden impulse.

Un consciousness cont.

- E.g.” Iam sad that you are getting better”
- Such desires are the cause of some mental illnesses and Freud developed a method of psycho analysis in which these desires are brought to the consciousness then by curing the individual.

Altered states of consciousness

- Some activities are practised so often that they become automatic, such activities no longer require our attention they require little conscious control. The control gets dissociated from the consciousness.
- An example of divided consciousness is demonstrated by multiple personality. This is existence of 2 or more personality within an individual each personality has its own name age ,memories and characteristic behaviour.

Altered consc. Cont.

- In most cases some personalities have no awareness of the others. Periods of an explained memory loss for long time (hours) are a clue to presence of multiple personality disorder. Here consciousness is divided so sharply.
- The switch from one personality to the other is often accompanied by slight change in body posture and voice tone.
- Multiple personality often develops in response to traumatic event in childhood. The child copes with a painful problem by creating another personality to bear the difficulty.

SLEEP AND DREAMS.

- Sleep seems the opposite of wakefulness yet two have much in common. We think when we sleep, and this is indicated by dreams, we form memories while sleeping(because we remember the dreams).
- People asleep are not entirely insensitive some walk in their sleep, and others decide to wake at a given time and they do so.
- Circadian rhythm is rhythm of activity and inactivity lasting about 24 hours.

Sleep cont.

- Our decisions to sleep come from within us but not from the environment.
- **Why do we sleep?** –The repair and restoration theory, says the purpose of sleep is to enable the body recover from the vigorous actions of the day.
- According to the evolution or energy conservation theory of sleep, evolution equipped us with a regular pattern of sleeping and waking to conserve fuel and prevents us from walking into danger.

Stages of sleep & dreaming.

- Sleep involves 5 stages 4 of which are of deep sleep and the 5th is called rapid eye movement (REM) sleep. During the 5th stage the sleeper's eyes move rapidly back and forth under the closed eye lids .
- The other four stages are called non(REM) (NREM) sleep.
- These stages keep alternating throughout the night.

Stages cont.

- During (NREM) sleep eye movements are absent, heart and breathing rate decreases greatly and there is increased muscle relaxation and decreased brain activity
- During REM sleep eye movements occur rapidly, the heart rate increases and the brain appears to be more active than when we are awake therefore mental activity is different in REM & NREM periods.
- Sleepers awakened during period always report having visually vivid dreams. But when awakened during NREM sleep they may not report dreams.

Difference btn NREM&REM

- | • NREM | REM |
|-------------------------------|------------------|
| • Decreases heart rate | Increased H rate |
| • Decreased breathing R | Increased BR |
| • Decreased brain activity | Increased BA |
| • Increased muscle relaxation | Decreased MR |

Sleep stages cont.

- We become conscious of a dream only if we awaken while dreaming. Dreaming is an alternate state of consciousness in which remembered images and phantancies are temporary confused with internal reality.
- Dreams usually give a clue to some one's worries, concerns and emotions involved in most cases is fear.
- We all dream and people who report that they don't simply can't recall their dreams.

Dreams cont.

- Some people have vivid in which events look so normal that they feel awake and conscious only on awakening do they realize that it was a dream.
- Some people do sleep walk this only occurs in non REM periods. The sleep walkers eyes may be open but un seeing they usually forget about what they have done.

SLEEP DISORDERS

- Asleep disorder exists when the inability to sleep well produces impaired day time functioning.
- **Insomnia:** This is inability to sleep often due to anxiety or depression. Many people some times complain of insomnia, yet they have normal sleep.
- **Narcolepsy:** (irresistable urges to sleep) People with this experience recurring attacks of extreme sleepiness at inappropriate times e.g dozing while performing an exercise during day time

Sleep disorders

- **Sleep apnoea:** Here the individual fails to breathe, for a minute or longer while asleep and wakes up gasping for breath. When such people manage to sleep they snore.
- One reason for this is that the brain fails to send a breath signal to the diaphragm muscles. The other reason could be that muscles at the top of the throat become too relaxed allowing the wind pipe to close partially.
- During sleep apnoea, oxygen levels in blood drop dramatically leading to secretion of emergency hormones that make the sleeper awaken to breathe again. The sufferer actually sleeps for less than half of the time spent in bed.

Sleep disorders cont

- **Hypersomnia**
- This is the opposite of insomnia. It is characterized by excessive but non refreshing sleep. The person may sleep for 8 hours take an afternoon nap and then sleep for 18-20 hours on weekends but still finds trouble awakening.

Psychoactive Drugs

- People use drugs to alter consciousness; to stimulate or relax, to bring sleep or prevent it and to produce hallucinations. Such drugs that affect the consciousness are called psychoactive drugs.
- With repeated use the individual becomes physically dependant on the drug, or psychological dependant on the drug. Psysical dependency(addiction involves tolerance.

Categories of psychoactive drugs.

1. **Depressants:** These depress the nervous system, they include Barbiturates, tranquilizers and alcohol.
2. **Opiates:** Opium and its derivatives collectively called opiates diminish physical sensation and capacity to respond to stimuli by depressing the CNS. They are commonly called narcotics and are widely consumed because of their ability to alter mood and reduce anxiety. They include Heroin, Morphine, Codeine and Pethidine.

Psycho active drugs cont.

- 3 .**Stimulants:** In contrast to depressants and opiates this increases arousal, their immediate effect is that they increase alertness and decrease in feelings of boredom. Their ability to alter mood and decrease self confidence is the principal reason for their use. Or getting euphoria, elated or high mood. They affect the CNS by prolonging the activity of dopamine synapses. They include Amphetamines, Caffeine and Cocaine

4.Hallucinogens:

These changes perceptual experiences. They change the users perception of both his internal and external world.The user may experience visual, auditory and tactile hallucinations.Some of these drugs derieved from plants like cactus and mushrooms, while others are synthesized in the laboratory like;Lysergic acid Diethylamide(LSD),Phencyclimide(PCP).LSDis very potent and causes hallucinations even at low doses.

- **5.Cannabis**

- The cannabis plant has been harvested for long because its psychoactive effects. The dried leaves and flowers is the form used in most countries. The psycho active substance contained is **Tetrahydrocannabinol(THC)**.It interferes with the performance of complex tasks. It intensifies with sensory experiences, distorts perception and impairs learning and memory.

- After some one has taken a drug repeatedly its effects grow weaker unless he increases the dose . This is called tolerance. When the habitual user suddenly stops using the drug he enters a state of withdrawal characterized by a variety of unpleasant symptoms He is therefore compelled to use the drug again to reduce unpleasant withdrawal symptoms and is said to be physically dependant on the drug

PERSONALITY AND ITS MEASUREMENT

- In a lay man's language, personality refers to a person's qualities that make him unique.
- It can be defined as a pattern of characteristic thoughts, feelings and behaviors that persist over time and situation and distinguish one person from the other.
- It encompasses intelligence, emotions, cognition Motivation, learning ,abnormality and social interactions.

Personality cont.

- No two people have the same personality.
- The study of personality is the most important field for it answers questions like who the person is, why he or she does things he or she, does, why his behavior seems some times unusual.
- Why different people behave different to the same situation i.e why does the same fire that hardens the egg melts the butter.

Personality cont.

- A number of forces shape an individual personality throughout the course of life, these include: the genetic, environment and cultural influence.
- Many characteristics are passed on to children from parents and genetic inheritance is very important determinants of personality.
- Though the genetical factors account for as much as 50% of variability in many personality characteristics. It leaves another big % primarily related to the environment.

Personality cont.

- The cultural differences too can account for differences in our personality characteristics and there is enough evidence that culture shapes personality traits.

PERSONALITY THEORIES

- What makes one person different from another?
- Greeks thought the body was made of four body fluids; blood, phlegm or black and yellow bile.
- According to the Greek physician, Hippocrates (460-371 BC), there are four possible personality types:

Personality types

- **Sanguine:** individuals who had an abundance of blood; they tended to be cheerful, optimistic and active.
- **Phlegmatic:** people who are listless, sluggish and tired, because they had less phlegm.
- **Melancholic:** People who were always sad, brooding with melancholic temperaments resulting from too much bile.
- **Choleric:** People who were easy to excite and also easy to anger, because of excess yellow bile

Personality type(friedman&Rosenman)

- **Type A personality**
 - These are at risk of developing cardiovascular disease(CVD).They are:
 - Aggressive
 - Usually in a hurry
 - Have high levels of competitiveness and ambition
 - Live under great pressure
 - Demanding of themselves and others
 - Have an exaggerated sense of time urgency
 - Become very irritated at delays or failure to meet their dead lines.
- Tend to schedule

Type B Personality

- These individuals tend to be coronary-disease resistant. They are:
- More relaxed
- More agreeable
- Have far less sense of time urgency.

Type c personality

- These have a cancer-prone personality. They are:
- Highly sociable and nice people
- Very inhibited in expressing negative emotions. Bottling up such emotions.
- Tend to feel less hopeless in the face of severe stress.
- Passive uncomplaining and compliant.

PERSONALITY DEVELOPMENT

- Personality develops through the interaction of hereditary dispositions and environmental influences.
- Children grow physically, mentally, socially, emotionally and form attachments and relationships.

Erickson's psychosocial theory

- Personality develops through confronting a series of 8 major psychosocial stages. Each stage involves a different crisis of conflict over how we view ourselves in relation to other people and the world.
- Each crisis is present throughout life, but takes on special importance during a particular age period.

Psycho social stages of personality development

- **Basic trust versus basic mistrust**
- During the first year of life we depend totally on parents or other caretakers. Whether we develop basic trust or mistrust depends on how adequately our needs are met and how much love and attention we receive.
- **Autonomy versus shame and doubt**
- During the next two years, children become ready to separate themselves from their parents and exercise their individuality.

- If parents unduly restrict children, or make harsh demands during toilet training, children develop shame, and doubt about their abilities and later lack the courage to be independent.
- **Initiative versus guilt**
- Ages 3-5 display great curiosity about the world. Children develop a sense of initiative if allowed freedom to explore and receive answers to their desires and suppress their curiosity if they are held back or punished.

- **Industry versus inferiority**
- At ages 6-12 life expands into school and peer activities. Children who experience pride and encouragement in mastering tasks develop industry(a determination to achieve).Repeated failure and lack of praise for trying leads to a sense of inferiority.
- **Intimacy versus isolation**
- Young adults (20-40) develop intimacy, that is , the ability to open oneself to another person and to form close relationships.Many people form close adult friendships, fall in love and marry.

- **Generativity versus stagnation**
- One achieves Generativity by doing things for others, exercising leadership and making the world a better place.(through their careers, volunteer work , raising children, or involvement in religious and political activities). Many young adults also make such contributions to society, but Generativity typically becomes a more central issue later in adulthood.(40-60)

- **Integrity versus despair**
- This marks the final crisis and usually occurs during late adulthood(over 60).Older adults review their life and evaluate its meaning . The person experiences integrity(a sense of completeness and fulfillment), if the major crises of earlier stages haven been successfully resolved. Older adults who have not achieved positive outcomes at ealier stages may experience despair, regretting that they cannot relive their lives in a more fulfilling way.

Approaches in study of personality

- **1.Psychodynamic approach:**
- This relates personality to the interplay of conflicting forces within an individual including those that the individual may not recognize(un conscious)
- The approach based on the theories of Sigmund Freud and Carl Jung. Which asserted that behavoiur is guided by the un consciousness.
- So the approach claims that many of the influences behind ones personality are hidden and that much of her behaviour is a result of competing motivation.

Approches in study of personality cont

- **2. Traits Approach:**

- This emphasizes that people have consistent Personality that can be measured and studied. It takes into account traits e.g friendliness, politeness, honesty, words that people often use to describe others.

However psychologists often try to make the descriptions accurate and systematic and specify stuations in which they apply.

Approches in study of personality cont

- **3.Learning approach:**
- This assumes that the behaviour that constitutes personality are learnt.They can be learnt through individual experience or as social learning psychologists emphasize, they can be learnt by imitation or vicarious reinforcement and punishment. So though genetics and other biological factors influence development of personality traits, some specific specif ones must be learnt.

Approches in study of personality cont

- E.g gender roles(pattern of behaviour) each person is expected to follow because of bening male or female.Because of people,s experience and the variation they can have very specialized characteristics showing a trait in one situation and not in another.

Approches in study of personality cont

- **4.Humanistic Approach**
- This deals with consciousness values and beliefs including spiritual, experiences and beliefs people live by and die for. According to humanists personality depends on what people believe and the way they perceive the world.

Approches in study of personality cont

- Humanistic psychology emerged in 1950 as protest against behaviourism and psychoanalysis which were dominant at that time. Humanistics view people as good and striving as perfectionists. They claim that people make deliberate conscious decisions about what to do with their lives.

THE GRAND THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

- This was advanced by Sigmund Freud(1856-1930)
- His personality theory is the most comprehensive, far reaching and out standing whose impact extend beyond pscychology.
- He worked with Josef Breuer a psychiatrist while treating awoman and they found that recalling of past experiences produces release of pent up emotional tension (catharsis) there by healing the illness

Theories cont

- He called the unconscious part of the mind the repository of memories emotions and thoughts many of which are illogical and affect our behaviour even though we can't talk about them.
- Psycho analysis is the process of bringing them to the conscious.

The personality structure

- Freud believed that personality is made up of three major systems, the **ID**, **Ego** and **super ego**.
- With each having its own function but the three interact to govern behaviour.
- **Id**
- This is the most primitive part of personality and is present at birth. It consists of the basic biological drives ie. The need for eating, drinking, eliminating wastes avoiding pain, gaining sexual pleasure and aggression.

The Id

- He believed that the sexual and aggressive drives are the most important determinants of personality.
- The I.d seeks immediate gratification of these impulses and operates on pleasure principal.

In regard to sex ,the Id says “ if it feels good, why not have it,here and now.....”

- It endeavors to obtain pleasure and to avoid pain regardless of the circumstances.

Id& Ego

- It does not care about the existing law, social customs or norms and the needs of others

Ego

- This emerges in early infancy and operates on the reality principal. It ensures that the Id's desires are satisfied in accordance with reality.
- It redirects the Id 's demands so that they are discharged on appropriate objects at the right time and place .It mediates the Id demands and demands of the super ego and is therefore the executive of personality

Ego cont.

- In regard to Ego e.g. the Ego says” not now”, later.As for aggression, suppose that your fellow student annoys you to the point of feeling like slapping him. Your Ego would encourage you to tell him his mistake instead of punching him. In the nose.
- Pleasure ← id — ego —————→ Morality

Super ego

- This appears in late infancy. It contains values, and directions of society as interpreted to children by parents and enforced by rewards and punishment imposed on them.
- The super ego has two subsystems; the conscience and ego ideal.
- The conscience consists of things people must not do and is acquired through parental punishments.

Super ego cont.

- The ego ideal consists of things that are encouraged in society and through parental rewards.
- The super ego represents the ideal(what) I ought to do rather than real) and is for perfection rather than pleasure.
- It is the conscience that makes us feel guilty for doing or thinking wrong and the ego which makes us feel good for doing or thinking right.
- A person overdominated by his or her super ego seems too moralistic and unable to be comfortable with pleasure.

Superego cont.

- In regard to sex, the superego says “Not now, wait until you are married or let me prudently present my suggestion for sex to this cute girl”. These three systems are often in opposition, the ego postpones gratification, the id wants immediately and superego battles with both the id and ego because behaviour often lacks the moral code but in a well integrated personality the ego, remains in firm but flexible control. Those who are dominated by superego are usually up right and self conscious but too demanding on others and very judgemental.

Personality Development(Freud)

- Freud believed that during the 1st years of life the individual progresses through several developmental stages of personality , he called them because the pleasure seeking impulses of the id focuses on a particular area of the body and activities connected to that area.The body parts concerned were the mouth, the anus, and other body zones.

Personality development cont.

- Freud proposed that we have a psycho-sexual energy, which he called libido a Latin word meaning “**Desire**”.
- As the child grows, certain body parts become focus of pleasure according to different stages. These stages are: oral stage, Anal stage, phallic stage, latency and genital stage.

Psycho –sexual stages.

Oral stage: (From 0-1 year)

Here the infant derives pleasure psychosexual from the stimulation of the mouth, including the lips, and the tongue particularly while suckling at the mother's breast. According to Freud, an infant who receives either too little or too much opportunity to suck can become fixated at oral stage.

Oral stage cont.

- When weaned, it may cause traumatic experience, especially if the child is handled poorly by the parents.
- Over gratification or under gratification(fixation) results in over eating, overdrinking, smoking ,overdependence,kissing, drug addiction fingernailbitting,&chewing gum

Anal stage(1-3 years)

- During this stage children undergo toilet training and get psycho-sexual pleasure from stimulation of the anal sphincters.(bowel movements)
- A child can develop a fixation at the anal stage if toilet training is too strict or if it starts too early or too late

Anal stage cont.

- A person fixated at this stage goes through life holding things back, being orderly, stubborn, being messy, destructive, wasteful.
- In terms of sex, these people tend to have sexual interest in the buttocks of an individual eg enjoying looking at and touching bums of other people, homosexual tendencies etc.

The Phallic stage(3-5 years)

- In the phallic stage , children begin to play with their genitals.They become aware of what it means to be male or female.
- The child begins to rub, touch or even exhibit the genital organs eg the boy will hold his member(penis) in front of visitors without embarrassment, the girl puts her fingers in her private parts, scratches them etc.
- The child also shows interest in the anatomy of parents ie. The distinctive features of the mother or father.

Phallic stage cont.

- The child may want to see the features of the mother or father, hides before her/ him as they change clothes
- and get sexually attracted to the opposite sex parent. The child also begins to sense that babies are not manufactured in heaven but actually made between mummy and daddy.
- Boys look at fathers as rivals , for the mother's love(**Oedipus complex**) and they develop fear of being castrated(castration anxiety)

Phallic stage cont.

- In normal course of development , the boy identifies him self with the father. By being like the father and doing the things together with him he may avoid punishment.
- The girl takes interest in her father and begins to blame the mother that I was her who caused a hole in her(as she had a penis which was removed by her mother).She there fore begins to envy what the father has and that's why she becomes attached to him(Penis envy).

Phallic stage cont.

She wants to possess the father sexually and replace the mother. She then identifies with the mother by assisting with activities in the house. In a way, she is taking over the mother's roles to win approval from father (competition). Fixation at this stage will be reflected in adult behaviour as below:

- Girls compete with mothers for the father's love (Electra complex) a girl with electra complex feels romantic attraction towards her father and hostility towards her mother. and they develop **penis envy**.
- Improper resolution of the oedipal complex in males may lead to characteristics like Exhibitionism and over masculinity (**XYY**)
- In girls it leads to activities like promiscuity, seductiveness and striving for superiority over men.

Latency stage(6-12years)

- During this stage children suppress their psychosexual interests. There is no erogenous zone.
- Therefore no fixation can take place. The sexual impulses becomes dormant and displaced into mastering social skills.
- The stage is a period of socialization as children begin their formal schooling and they develop important friendship with their peers.

Genital Stage(12& above)

- Here young people take strong sexual interests in other people of opposite sex.
- One who fixated a lot of libido in earlier stages has little libido left for genital stage. But those who have successfully negotiated the earlier stage can now decline primary satisfaction from sexual intercourse ie the sexual impulse is now directed in a mature and socialized form through love relationships outside the family.

Genital stage cont.

- During this stage of personality development, the individual shifts from self orientation in seeking pleasure to an out ward orientation.
- The adolescent begins to shake off dependency on parents and elders and begins to learn how to deal with members of opposite sex.
- The adolescent can now invest his /her energies in constructive work and begin to function in mature and normal way.

EGO DEFENCE MECHANISM AGAINST ANXIETY

- Defence mechanisms: According to Freud, the mind is a battle field between drives, (the id), the constraints imposed by reality on gratification of these impulses (the ego) and the norms of society (the super ego)
- This constant infighting generates what Freud called “neurotic anxiety” Hence a need to defend against them.
- There are many defense mechanisms namely:

Defence mechanisms

- 1. Denial:** This is refusal to believe information that proves anxiety. It's an assertion that the information is incorrect. E.g. someone with a serious problem of alcohol insists "I am not an alcoholic"
- 2. Repression:** This is the rejection of unacceptable thoughts, desires and memories to the unconscious. e.g. A woman seeing someone beaten to death, and she is later unable to remember what she saw.

- **3. Rationalization:** Here people attempt to prove that their actions are rational and justifiable and thus worth of approval. Eg a student who wants to watch a movie instead of studying says "more studying won't do me any good because even those who study hard fail. Or failure to use a condom and the saying that even those who use condoms still die.

Defence mechanisms cont.

4. Displacement: Here one diverts the feelings and thoughts to another more acceptable substitute e.g a man angry with the boss may real want to kick him, but because it may be dangerous to him he gets home and backs at the wife, the wif in return slaps the child, kicks dog.

5. **Projection:** This is the attribution of ones un desirable characteristic to another people or minimizing the un desirable in one self and exaggerating them in others E.g a student who fails the exam may blame the teacher for being a bad teacher though the rest passed.
- ii) Some one who secretly enjoys ponography might accuse others people of enjoying it too much. Here people don't necessarily deny the fault but want to suggest that it's wide spread.

6. **Regression:** This is an effort to avoid anxiety of facing one's current role in life by returning to a more juvenile level of functioning eg a wife may go home to her mother every time she and the husband have a quarrel.

Or a student may console himself with sweets when disappointed by a girl friend repeating the behaviour learnt when the mother gave him sweets to make him feel better every after a disappointment.

- **7.Sublimation:**This is the transformation of sexual or aggressive energy into culturally accepted and admirable behaviour e.g. an aggressive person may channel his energies into playing football. Freud viewed this as the only completely healthy defence mechanism.

8.Reaction formation: Here we deny un acceptance impuleses and give strong expression of their opposite. In this way the conscious motives masks the un conscious one.

E.G amother who feels angry and rejected towards her child checks many times to see if the child is fine during the night and worries excessively about the child's safety on the way to and from school.

Defence mechanisms cont.

9. **Intellectualization:** This involves dealing with the problems as interesting events which can be explained rationally and which have no anxiety content attached to them .

Eg Aman who has just seen a bank robbery in which five people near him were shot dead talks about how interesting it was to observe the variety of ways people react to gun shot and murder

LEARNING THEORIES

- Learning can be defined as a relatively permanent change in behavior which occurs as a result of practice or experience.
- Learning and spreads through out life we basically have three theories of learning:
 1. Classical conditioning
 2. Operant/ instrument condntioning.
 3. Observational/ social learing.

CLASSICAL CONDITIONING

- Our modern understanding of classical conditioning began with a Russian physiologist

Ivan Pavlov.

- During his study he noticed that whenever meat was provided to the dog, it naturally salivated as his experiments progressed he used an electrical bell as a source of noise and varied the time interval between presentation of the sound and the meat. He could ring the bell first and then provide meat, the dog came to associate the ringing of the bell and meat and it could salivate whenever it heard the bell.

CLASSICAL CONT.

- However conditioning only occurred when meat followed the sound within a short time .If there was along delay between the sound and the meat or if the sound followed the meat or if the sound followed the meat there was no salivation.
- Thus the sequence and timing of events are timing of events are important factors in classical conditioning.

Classical conditioning.

- Thus the sequence and timing of events are important factors in classical conditioning.
- The original eliciting stimulus is referred to as unconditioned stimulus(the meat).The response it elicits is unconditioned response.The originally neutral stimulus(Ringing of the bell) which through pairing with the meat becomes able to elicit response is called **conditioned stimulus** and the response it elicits is **conditioned response**. ie

Classical conditioning cont.

Bell —————→ ?

(N)

Meat —————→ Salivation

(UCS)

(UCR)

Bell+Meat —————→ Salivation

(N) (UCS)

(UCR)

Bell —————→ Salivation

(CS)

(CR)

CONDITIONING PRINCIPLE

1) Stimulus generalisation

-When a conditioned stimulus is associated with another similar stimulus, it is likely to evoke the conditioned response. This is called stimulus generalization.

2. Stimuli discrimination: Here the subject learns to discriminate between similar stimuli responding only to the corresponding correct stimuli.

3 Extinction: Here the conditioned stimulus is regularly presented without an unconditioned stimulus thus losing the acquired capacity to elicit the conditioned response.

- **4.Spontaneous recovery**

Extinction is not necessarily permanent. After an interval of time even without conditioned stimuli- un conditioned stimuli pairing(CS-UCS) a previously extinguished conditioned regains it,s earlier capacity to elicit a conditioned response

- 5.Higher Order Conditioning
- Here a conditioned stimuli is used for further training serving as un conditioned stimulus

E.G

Clapping.....?

(Cs)

Coughing.....?

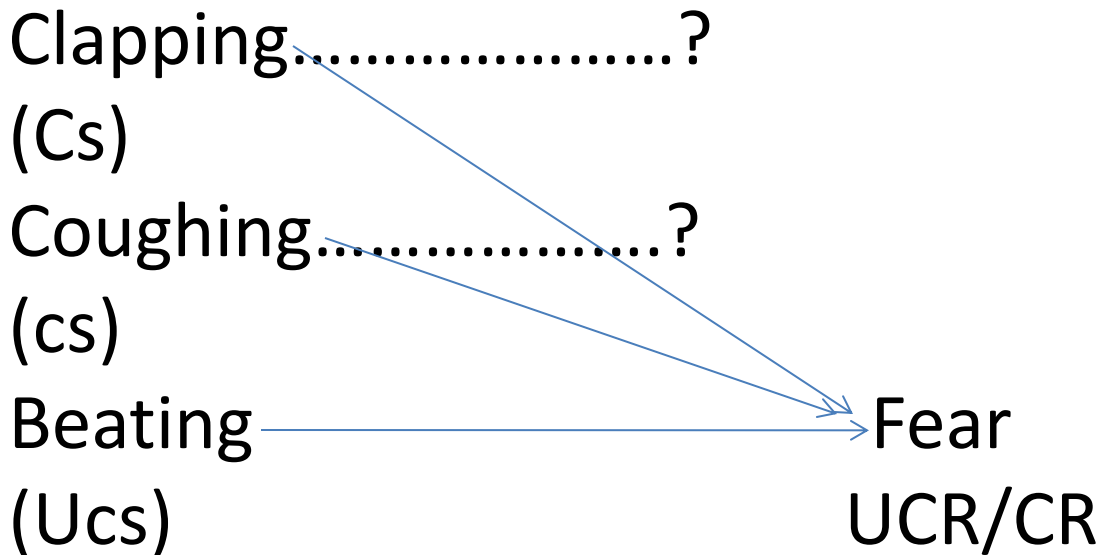
(cs)

Beating

(Ucs)

Fear

UCR/CR



Higher order cont.

- Many people are troubled by behaviour like phobias. A phobic person was probably at some point in life subjected to the feared object in conjunction with stimuli that elicited pain
- **DRUG TOLERANCE**
- Classical conditioning can take place even outside the laboratory, one such example is drug tolerance.
- This refers to the situation where by users of certain drugs experience progressively weaker effects after taking these drugs repeatedly

Higher order cont.

- When the drug user injects himself, the injection procedure is a stimulus that is followed by another stimuli that is drug entry in the brain the drug triggers a variety of body defences against its effects like hormonal secretions
- Injection procedure → Drug entry in the brain → Body defences against the drug.

Higher order cont.

- Initially the injection procedure is a neutral stimuli that gives rise to no relevant response. After pairing with entry of the drug to the brain the injection procedure itself becomes able to evoke the body's antidrug defences.
- The first time someone takes the drug there is a delay between drug entry to the brain and body defences. After conditioning has taken place, the injection procedure alone has conditioned the stimulus to trigger body defences even before the drug enters the brain.

- As defence reactions are aroused earlier and earlier the effects of the drug becomes weaker and the user can thus tolerate higher doses.

Operant conditioning/instrumental learning

- Operant conditioning is after Pavlov, Edward Thorndike began his work, he believed that earlier experiments are only with animal intelligence and never animal stupidity.
- He therefore devised simple behaviouralistic explanation of learning.
- Thorndike discovered that animals learn faster if they get a reward immediately after the response.

Operant cont.

- The animal enters a given situation with a variety of responses first it engages in one response if nothing special happens it engages in the next response and continues like that till it gets to one that will lead to a desirable effect.
- Reinforcement is an event that increases the probability that the preceding response will be repeated.
- Thorndike summarized his view in a law he called

Operant cont

- **The law of effect states that: Of the several responses made to a situation that accompanied by satisfaction to the animal will be more firmly connected to the situation so that when the situation reoccurs response is more likely to recur**
- I.e the animal is more likely to repeat those responses that lead to positive outcomes. This process of changing behaviour by following a response with reinforcement is called Operant conditioning or instrumental learning. Since the subject's behaviour is instrumental in producing an outcome.

Types of reinforcement

- **1. Positive** :This is providing a favourable event that increases the likely hood of the response to reccur eg.food, money, social approval etc
- **2. Negative**: This is strenghtening behaviour by withdraw or avoidance of un pleasant event eg turning off an electric shock when a prisoner gives some useful information. Both +ve and –ve reinforcement increases the occurrence of the response they are paired with.
- **3 Punishment**:This is an event that decreases the probablity that the response will occur again eg beating ., withdraw of a vafourable stimulus etc

SCHEDULES OF REINFORCEMENT

- The simplest procedure in operant conditioning is to provide reinforcement every time the correct response occurs. When this happens it is referred to as **continuous reinforcement**. However this is only necessarily when we are just beginning to learn, later reinforcement may become irregular. Reinforcement for certain responses and not for others is called **partial reinforcement** and this has four schedules:

Schedules of Partial Reinforcement

- **i) Fixed Ratio Schedule:**
- Here reinforcement is provided every after a certain(fixed) number of correct responses.
- **li)Variable ratio Schedule:**
- Here the number of responses necessary for reinforcement varies from time to time e.g Reinforcement may come after three correct responses, then seven(7), eleven (11)thirteen(13) Fifteen(15) etc.

- lli)Fixed interval schedule:
- Here reinforcement is provided for the first responses made after the specific time interval eg the cat may get food for the first correct responses it makes every after six minutes. Animals on search reinforcement learn to pause after reinforcement and wait for the end of interval
- **Variable interval schedule:**

Here the time interval varies btm one reinforcement and the next. There is no way of knowing how long it will take before being reinforced again.

- With the subject accustomed to continuous reinforcement sudden cessation(stop) of reinforcement, is very noticable and will lead to extinction more easily than with the others(Partial reinforcement where long time may pass before it can discover that responses will never be reinforced again.

CONDITIONED TASTE AVERSION

- Animals including people learn to avoid foods especially unfamiliar ones. If they become ill after taking them. This type of learning occurs reliably after a single pairing even with the delay of hours between the food and the illness. The animal is predisposed to associate the illness or discomfort with what it ate there by avoiding it in future.

SOCIAL/ OBSERVATIONAL LEARNING

- We learn about many behaviours before we try them the first time . Much learning especially in humans results from observing the behavior of others and imagining the consequences of our behaviour. According to Albert Bandura imitation and modeling are fundamental means by which new models of behaviour are acquired. This theory of learning recognizes the importance of our ability to symbolize, imagine, figure out cause- effect relationship and anticipate outcomes of our behaviour

MODELS.

- The term model refers to the actual person we imitate people whose behaviours serve as stimulus or who are privileged in life eg film actors, TV presenters, footballers etc. However, peers sibling and parents also serve as models.

Source of reinforcement in Social learning

- Imitation is reinforced in three ways:

1.Direct reinforcement of the learner by the model:

Here the learner expects reinforcement from the model and this could be material or approval.It is common to hear parents exclaim over behaviour of children” He is smart” He behaves like Dad.

2.Consequences of the behaviour Particularly if behaviour is socially acceptable

Social learning cont.

- 3. Vicarious reinforcement:- This involves delivering a second hand type of reinforcement from observing some one else performing a behaviour . (vicarious means :experienced as a result of watching, listening to or reading about the activities of other people, rather than by doing the activities yourself)
- The observer assumes that the model does something because he derives or gets a reward and so any one else who engages in the same type of behaviour will get a reward.

Social learning cont.

- To be influenced we must identify with the person receiving the reinforcement or punishment. Most people think of themselves as successful and one who gets punished is seen as a loser or “not smart enough” Such people tend to ignore the danger associated with the act ie “ **Illusion of invulnerability**”

- **Role of Self –efficacy in learning:**
- At times we doubt our capability in coping other people,s behaviour though they have been reinforced. People imitate some one –else’s behaviour only if they have a sense of self efficacy. This is the perception that they too could perform the same task successfully.
- Our persistence in coping is strongly influenced by **self efficacy**.(efficacy= an ability, especially of a medicine or a method of achieving something, to produce the intended result; effectiveness

Self Reinforcement cont.

- **Self Reinforcement and punishment**
- If our sense of self efficacy is strong enough we try to imitate other people's behaviour but this requires setting goals and monitoring our progress towards the goals. At times we even provide reinforcement and punishment to our selves just like we were training our selves.

INTELLIGENCE AND ITS MEASUREMENT

- Intelligence is the ability to act purposely, think rationally and deal globally with the environment.
- Four(4) theories have been put forward by psychologists to explain intelligence:
- **1.Charles Spearman in his psychometric approach.**The measurement of intelligence found that to perform well on any test of mental ability people need a general ability "g".
- However each task requires use of specific ability "S" in addition to general ability. Thus intelligence consists of general ability plus an unknown number of specific abilities; such as mechanical, alithmetical, musical, logical, drama, etc

R

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- T g m S

- m

- A

- These specific abilities develop independently. He called this the monarch theory of intelligence.

- Another psychologist Raymond Catell accepted Spearman's approach but gave the modification according to him the "g" factor has two components, **Fluid intelligence** and **Crystallized intelligence**.
- Thus intelligence can be compared with water. Fluid water can take any shape but ice crystals are rigid. So fluid intelligence is power of reasoning and using information i.e. It is the basic reasoning ability that can be applied to any problem including the unfamiliar ones.
- Whereas crystallized intelligence consists of acquired skills and knowledge and application of that knowledge to only specific problems.

- 3. Related to Spearman's approach is **Gardner's theory** of multiple intelligence which claims that people have numerous unrelated forms of intelligence. People have a variety of abilities and almost no one is strong in all abilities or weak in all abilities. One can be strong in a particular type of intelligence but not in others.

4.Triarchic theory.

- In contrast to Spearman's monarchic theory, Sternberg looks at three aspects of intelligence.; the **cognitive process**, a situation that requires intelligence and how intelligence relates to the external world.
- The cognitive involves learning the necessary information, planning an approach to solve the problem and combining knowledge with the plan to actually solve the problem

4.Triarchic theory.cont.

- Second aspect emphasises that it is important to distinguish novel situation from repeated ones b'c they require different responses.
- The third aspect; an intelligent person either adapts to the environment or tries to improve the environment if these fail he escapes to a better one.

TESTS OF INTELLIGENCE

1. IQ TESTS

Intelligence Quotient tests measure an individual's probable performance in school and similar settings. The term Quotient dates from the time IQ was determined by dividing mental age by chronological age ie

$$IQ = \frac{M.A}{C.A} * 100$$

This testing was devised by two French psychologists: Alfred Binet and Simon Theophile and modified by English Stanford psychologist to give **Stanford –Binet Test**

- The test contains items that range in difficulty from very simple ones to harder ones and is designated as “age 8” will be answered by almost all 8 year olds and very few of those below eight(8) years. A subject is given items designated for his/her age and the mean IQ is 100.

The Wechsler Tests

- Two IQ tests devised by David Wechsler are WISC(Wechsler intelligence scale for children) & Wechsler adult intelligence scale(WAIS)
- WISC is given to children up to 16 years. The two produce the same average of 100. Like Stanford Binet the test are administered to one individual at a time by a qualified person.
- The scores are in two categories verbal and performance each of the 12 parts starts with the simplest questions and progresses with difficult ones.

- Six of the 12 parts are performance items. Which call for non verbal answers whereas the other six have verbal items that require spoken or written answers
- However Wechsler tests face a lot of criticism one of which is that they tend to be culture specific and unfair to people who can't speak English very well.

Raven's Progressive Matrices

- Because Wechsler tests call for specific information and comprehension of the English language, psychologists have devised a fair test: progressive matrices devised by John Raven. These matrices measure abstract reasoning and have very easy instructions they don't call for verbal or specific information.

The Scholarstic Assessment test(SAT)

- This is designed to measure student's likelihood to do well in college ie it predicts college performance. Other tests include aptitude tests which measure the ability to perform a task and achievement tests which measure how much one has acquired after learning.

Qualities of a good test

- 1. Standardized
- 2. Reliability
- 3. Validity

For a test to be good, it has to be standardized, Reliable and Valid.

Standardization: is the process of establishing rules for administering scoring and interpreting the scores.

Reliability: Refers to repeatability of the scores. The test must be consistent in measuring what it measures in that if the same people are tested twice with the same test the scores should n't differ greatly.

Validity: This refers to how well the test measures what it is intended to measure. Validity has types

i)Content validity: A test has high content validity if the items represent the information the test is meant to measure

ii)Construct validity: This is the correspondence of the tests measurements to a theoretical construct

- iii) Predictive validity: This is the ability of a test's score to predict real world performance
- N.B: Generation by generation people have been getting better and better at whatever the IQ test measure. This tendency is called **“Flynn effect”**

MOTIVATION

- This is a process that initiates, directs and sustains behaviour satisfying, physiological and psychological needs.
- Highly motivated people persist with a to reach their goalbehaviour or even alter the behaviour.
- They frequently set up some goals that they will need to achieve on the way to their final goal.

Theories of motivation

- **1. Instinctive theory:** Here motivation is regarded as an energy. According to Lorenz Konrad, animals engage in instinctive acts when specific energies reach a critical level. Eg animals mating at particular season eg frogs and dogs. He believed that if one response is blocked the energy will activate another. An instinct is an inborn unlearned fixed behaviour that is characteristic of entire species.

ii.The drive theory

- Here motivation is described as a drive i.e a state of unrest or irritation that energises one behaviour after another till one of them removes the irritation.
- **lii). Homeostasis theory:** This rests on the assumptions of maintenance of an optimum level of biological conditions within an organism. It recognizes that we are motivated to seek a state of equilibrium and not to reduce all the stimuli to zero. Our behaviour often anticipates future needs eg you may take a heavy breakfast even though you are not hungry just because you know you will be too busy to stop for lunch.

- **Iv.Incentive theory:** This theory relies on the external stimuli to pull us towards certain actions. The distinction between a drive and an incentive is not clear cut.
- Most motivated behaviours are controlled by a combination of incentives and drives. Eg you may eat food bse you hungry(drive) and because you see an appealing food(incentives) How much you eat depends on the strength of the incentive.

MASLOW HIERACHY OF NEEDS

- According to Maslow at the base , every one .
- needs physical needs(water, air, food, sex).
- This is followed by need for security and safety.
- Then need for love and belonging
- Self esteem &
- Self actualisation

Security , safety and physical needs are **basic needs** while self esteem , love and belongig plue self actualisation are **psychological needs**.

- These two levels physiological and safety constitute the basic needs when these are satisfied one proceeds to needs for love belongingness ie making friends and socializing with them. This is followed by the need for self esteem such as gaining prestige and a feeling of competence.
- At the apex is the need for self Actualization; the need to achieve ones full potential.
- However people at times work to satisfy higher needs before satisfying lower level needs, depending on the circumstances.
- Almost any motivation may take priority over the other at least temporary.

Maslows cont.

- According to Abraham Maslow human behaviour is governed according to hierarchy of needs; that is from the most necessary to ones that receive attention only when others are met. To him the most basic are the physiological needs eg food, water, sex, oxygen and these take priority over others.
- Once people have their physiological, needs, they seek to satisfy, safety needs such as security from attack and a voidence of pain

Intrinsic&Extrinsic Motivation

- Intrinsic motivation is motivation to engage in an act for its own sake.
- An extrinsic motivation on the other hand is based on the reinforcement and punishment the act may bring. Eg eating because you are hungry is an intrinsic motivation and eating to please the cook is an extrinsic motivation.
- When people are given more extrinsic motivation than necessary their intrinsic motivation declines. This phenomena is called **over justification effect**.

Intrinsic & extrinsic cont.

- In such a situation one may ask himself “why am I doing this? The answer is it,s not because I enjoy the act but because am paid.
- Another way of classifying motivation is by categorizing it is either primary or secondary.
- Primary motivation such as the search for food and water are automatic in built processes.
- Secondary motivation develops as a result of specific learning experiences presumably because
- The secondary motivation in the past lead to satisfaction of a primary motivation.

SOCIAL MOTIVES

- These are learned motives that involve other people e.g achievements, need for power and human aggression.
- The need for achievement is a motive to accomplish things and to be successful in performing tasks. People high in the need for achievement prefer to work on moderately challenging and risky tasks, when their performance can be compared with performance of others. They are persistent in their work and life situations where they have control over the outcome.

Power motivation

- This is the source of motives in which the goals are to influence, control, persuade and enhance ones reputation in the eyes of other people.
- The behaviour expression of power motivation, takes many forms like repulsive , aggressive or competitive behaviours. Among men it also takes the form of drinking and sexual domination over women.

- A special form of power motivation termed as Machiavellianism is characteristic of people who express their power motivation by exploiting others in deceptive **deceptive** /dɪ'sep.tɪv/ *adjective*
- making you believe something that is not true
- *It's deceptive - from the outside the building looks small, but inside it's quite big.)*
- (and unscrupulous ways.(behaving in a way that is dishonest or unfair in order to get what you want
- *an unscrupulous financial adviser*

- **Aggression**
- Human aggression though it has a biological basis; it is primarily under the control of social factors. Aggression can be instrumental or hostile. Instrumental aggression is aimed at satisfying some need but not hurting people.
- Hostile aggression is the behaviour whose goal is aimed at harming another human being.
- Among the environmental and social causes of human aggression are intense frustration, insult, un pleasant environmental conditions etc

- Aggression can be learned through social learning, classical conditioning and instrumental/ operant conditioning.
- Punishment, catharsis(he process of releasing strong emotions through a particular activity or experience, such as writing or theatre, which helps you to understand those emotion) and presence of anon aggressive model may serve to lessen the aggressive behaviour.

ATTITUDES

- Attitudes are learnt evaluative responses directed at specific people or objects. They are relatively enduring and influence our behaviour towards the objects.
- An attitude is evaluative and involves a like or a dislike.
- Attitudes are directed at some targets unlike emotions. Emotions come and go but attitudes are relatively more stable. They mediate and influence our behaviour

An attitude has three components:

- i) **Cognitive component:** This involves thoughts and beliefs about the object.
- ii) **Emotional component:** These are feelings towards the object.
- iii) **Behaviour component:** This is the predisposition to act in a specific way towards the object.

Some attitudes may be influenced by genetic factors but most socially significant attitudes are learnt e.g as an infant you were unconcerned about abortion and pollution, but now you probably have attitudes about these topics.

Attitude formation

- We learn attitudes through conditioning and observation:
- **1. Classical conditioning & attitude formation**
- Classical conditioning may be particularly important in forming attitude towards things and people especially when we don't have a lot of prior knowledge about them. E.g if newspapers and Tv programmes frequently associate members of certain ethnic group with violent crimes we may come to show conditioned fear whenever we see members of this group.

- Further more, attitudes that are classically conditioned to specific objects can generalize to similar objects e.g a woman abused by three men in her life will associate these men with pain and stress and may develop negative attitudes towards men in general.

- **2. Operant conditioning & attitude formation**
- The basic principle of operant conditioning is that when a voluntary response is followed by a reinforcement, the probability of future occurrence of that response is increased.
- From this perspective, attitude can be revealed as voluntary responses that shift depending on our history of reinforcement.
- Operant conditioning can help establish important real life attitude. As you grew up, your parents probably rewarded you for expressing proper religious attitude.

- **3. Observational Learning& attitude Formation**
- Certain forms of learning can take place just by watching others behave that way. Eg children may learn to be aggressive by observing their friends fight or watching violent Tvshows.
- In addition to learning aggression, children who watch media violence may develop more tolerant attitude towards aggression.

Cognitive Dissonance

- When we hold particular attitudes we would like our behaviour to match with the attitudes. When our behaviours are inconsistent with our attitude we develop a state of unpleasant tension which may pose a threat to our self esteem. **This is called Cognitive dissonance.**
- The dissonance can be reduced by:
 - i) Changing the attitude to match the behaviour
 - ii) Changing the behaviour to match the attitude.
 - iii) Developing a new attitude or excuse to make the behaviour justifiable.

PERCEPTION

- When we look around we see shapes, figures, shadows, background area of light etc.
- Our knowledge of these objects and their relative location is extensive and gives an idea of what they feel like even if you have not touched them.
- We don't perceive an object as increasing in size as you approach it though the image it casts on the Retina gets larger.
- All perception begins with a stimulus, information is transmitted in the brain when its organized and interpreted.

- It is the organization and interpretation of the sensory experience that we term as perception. The direct effect of stimulation of receptor cells by stimulus is referred to as sensation.
- Our five senses provide us with important information about the outside world. Perception is a rapid automatic and conscious process i.e. we don't see an object and then perceive it. We are presented with a finished product and not details of the process.

ATTENDING

- The process of attending is a readiness to perceive. It's an active process and most times we perceive only those aspects of the environment to which we attend

Factors that influence our attention

1.State of the perceiver.

Attending is based on the interest & motivation and it arises through past experience as well as present stimulation. When hungry we readily attend to smell of food.

- **2.Perceptual set**

A person can attend with specific expectancy in mind. Perceptual set is a readiness to perceive, and in certain manner. Example a husband who is expecting an important phone call will hear the phone ring in the night while the wife may not. She is instead more likely to hear the baby cry.

3.Stimulus characteristics.

We can respond to only few of the many stimuli of which we are exposed. We attend to stimuli that are in accordance with our lives and expectation. We are motivated by some internal factors however the stimulus may catch our attention not because of our needs or internal factors but because it is unique characteristics.

4.Intensity

By intensity , we mean strength of the stimuli.Advetisers attempt to capture our attention by using high intensity stimulus eg the tune on Radio changes in loudness when a commercial plays.

The best location for a visual stimulus is directly infront of the eye, the upper position receives more attention than the lower .Coloured is more attention getting than plane black & white.

Elements of the visual scene can combine in different ways(various) to produce different forms.

- Gestalt psychologist observed that several principles of grouping can predict the combination of these elements.
- These principals can be referred to as laws of grouping.
- The laws of grouping
- **1.The law of proximity**
- This states that elements that are closest together together will be perceived as belonging together.

E.g.

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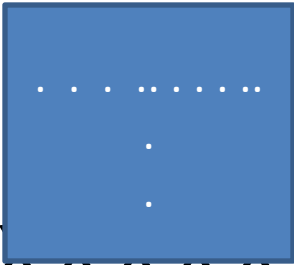
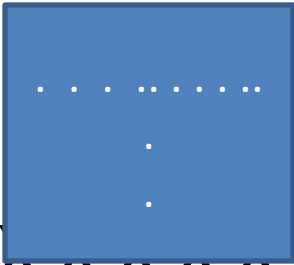
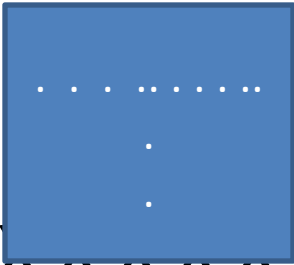
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- The law of similarity: This states that elements that look similar will be perceived as part of the same form
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- X
- X X X X X X X X  X X X X X X X X
- X X X X X X X X  X X X X X X X X
- X X X X X X X X  X X X X X X X X
- In here this example one is more likely to see a diamond inside a square.

- 3. Law of closure:
- This states that our visual system often supplies missing information and closes the outline of an incomplete figure.

-



Two separate figures are perceived as a triangle

- 4. The law of good continuity.
- A line tends to be perceived as continuing in its established direction.
- Stimuli that appear to form a continuous pattern are perceived as a whole. They make an obvious figure

PERCEPTUAL CONSTANCY

- We often continue to have the same perceptual experiences even as sensory data changes. Perceptual constancy refers to this tendency to perceive objects as relatively stable and unchanging despite changing sensory information without this we would find the world very confusing.
- Once we have formed stable perception of an object we can recognize it from almost all positions at almost any distance under any illumination.
- A white house is perceived as white by day or night and from any angle. Memory and experience play an important role in perceptual constancy.

Individual differences in perception

- People differ in the way they perceive sensory inputs to give rise to what they perceive. This may be due to:
- 1. Perceptual learning. This is an increase in the ability to extract explanation from the environment as a result of experience or practice with the stimuli coming from it(environment). Each one of us has learnt to emphasize some sensory in put and to ignore others.

- People trained in various occupations can make perceptual distinctions that the untrained can't make. Experience is the best teacher of these skills and they can never be learnt from books.

2.Set

- This refers to the idea that we may be ready or primed for certain sensory input. Such experiences vary from person to person and are a factor in both the selection of sensory inputs to focus attention to and in organisation of the input.

- **3. Motives& needs**
- Individual differences in motives and needs affect perception. We attend to & organize sensory inputs in ways that match our needs
- Projective tests capitalize on this.
- **4. Perceptual cognitive styles**
- The general processing strategies that characterize different people are known as perceptual cognitive styles

- One dimension along which people vary in perceptual cognitive styles is the degree to which their perception and other aspects of their behavior are flexible or rigid.
- People whose perceptions are at flexible end of the flexible—rigid continuum have a wide focus of attention and are less affected by interfering influences and less dominated by internal needs and motives than those with rigid perception
- Flexible-----Rigid/ constricted

COUNSELING

- 8.Guidence and counselling:, concept and principles of counselling, indications for counselling, qualities of a good counselor, the counselling process.
- **Guidence:** help and advice about how to do something or about how to deal with problems connected with your work, education, or personal relationships ss and the counselling skills.
- **Counselling is:** the job or process of listening to someone and giving them advice about their problems
- Counselling is a helping relationship to help a person help himself or herself out of a difficult situation.

- Defn. Counselling is a process, where by one person listens to the other in order to help him /her to work through or resolve specific problem.
- OR Counseling is a helping relationship between a helper and a client, where by the client is assisted to gain insight into his / her problem and works towards coping / resolving with the problem.
- OR . Counseling is a process of enabling distressed people, recognize their feelings, define their problems and helping them find their own solutions or begin to resolve their dilemma.
- In summary counseling is about creating a new perspective and change may be inside the individual about a situation or that change may be in behaviour e.g giving up drinking alcohol or the change may be in the environment eg setting up support groups.
- .

- Counseling is a process and it takes time
- Counseling involves having a dialogue with a person
- Counseling involves helping the person share out his or her problems and expressing his or her concerns.
- Counseling involves exploring all the possible plan of action
- Counseling involves guiding a person through various possibilities.
- Counseling is not advising & not suggesting for a person what to do

AIMS OF COUNSELLING

- Counseling aims at helping people to:
- 1. Understand their situations more clearly
- 2. Identify a range of options for improving the situation
- 3 Make their own decisions and work on them
- 4. Make choices which fit their values, their feelings and needs.
- 5 Cope better with the problem
- 6. Develop life skills and coping strategies to deal with eventual/similar problems and be bold enough to discuss their issues with a partner or friend.
- 7. Provide support for others while preserving their own strength.

APPROACHES TO COUNSELING

- Psychological
- Psychodynamic
- Behaviour
- Cognitive
- Humanistic
- Gestalt

QUALITIES OF A GOOD COUNSELOR

- 1. Empathetic
- 2. Being an active listener
- 3. Being knowledgeable
- 4. Being courageous
- 5. Being observant
- 6. Being objective and impartial
- 7. Exemplary
- 8. Having patience
- 9. Evaluates one's own thought, behavior and practice
- 10. Enjoying working with people
- 11. Pleasant personality:

COUNSELLING

- **Basic Principles of Counseling**

- 1.The client knows what is best for him/ her:**

- We all perceive the world differently as we all had personal histories that influence or affect our views.
- Through out our lives we develop a variety of coping strategies and ways of managing that we use when troubled by personal problems.
- According to client- centered counseling if given the space and time we are the judges of what is right for us.
- We can listen to other people but in the end we as individuals have to decide our own courses of action

2. Interpretation by the counselor is likely to be inaccurate and is best avoided.

- To interpret is to offer the client an explanation of his thinking, feeling and action.
- Interpretation is useful as it can help us clarify and offer a framework on which the client may make future decisions. However, they are best left to the client to make.

- Since we all live in different perceptual worlds, another person's interpretations of my thinking, feeling or actions is likely to be best on that person's experiences.
- Very often interpretation are put together with moral injunctions like 'oughts' and 'and shoulds' and as a result such interpretation turns into moralistic advice that may lead the client to feel guilty or rejecting the advice as it does not fit in with his own belief or value systems.

3. Advice is rarely helpful

- Advice is rarely directly asked for and rarely appropriate.
- A counselor who offers a lot of advice is asking for a client to become dependent and when the advice turns out to be wrong the counselor- client relationship degenerates.
- However, there are exceptions where giving advice could be appropriate e.g advice about caring for wounds, taking medication or health education.
- But in areas of personal problems, giving advice is rarely appropriate

4.The client occupies a different personal world from that of the counselor and vice versa.

- The fact that we have had varied experiences, have different belief and value system, means that we perceive the world through different frames of reference.
- We tend to act according to our particular beliefs about how the world is.
- So it is important for the counselor to realize her own belief system may not be shared by the client and the client may not see the world the way he she does.

- This realization forms the basis of development of empathy in the relationship.
- Initially therefore the counselor has to explore her own belief and value systems. Thereafter he/she can attempt to enter and share the personal world of the client.

5.Listening is the basis of the counseling relationship.

- To really listen to another person is the most caring act of all and takes skill and practice.
- Listening involves giving up completely to the other person in order to fully understand them.

- We cannot listen properly if we are constantly judging what we hear.
- We must learn to set aside our own beliefs and values and to suspend judgements.
- We must develop the ability to listen to the changing flow of the client's verbalizations and not to rush to pull them back to a particular topic.
- What the client is talking about is what is important.
- Listening is a process of offering free floating attention of accepting, totally the other person's story, accepting that their version of how the world may be different but just as valid as our own.

- We need to listen to metaphors, the descriptions, the value judgements and the words that the client uses: they are all indicators of their personal world. So are facial expressions, body movement, eye contacts and other aspects of non verbal communication.

6. Counseling technique should not be overused:

Many techniques are taught in counseling but the counselor should be careful not to over use them as he/she may be perceived as being artificial, cold or even uncaring.

Much attention may be to techniques and compromises listening and communication.

Techniques such as use of questions, reflections summary, probing etc are very important however must be used discretely and the human side of the counselor must show through the techniques at all times

- **7. Counseling can be learned.**
- All individuals are capable of developing their listening skills and their ability to communicate clearly with other people and these are the basis of counseling.
- The skills can be learned through personal experience and lots of practice, which may be gained in learning workshops for the development of counseling skills and through actual process of doing counselling.

INDICATIONS FOR COUNSELING

- -Chronic illness
- New challenging situations
- Family planning
- Couple counseling
- Pre treatment counseling
- Substance abuse

The process of counseling

- Introduction
- Each counselee is unique, with problems, attitude, values, expectations and experience that are unlike any other. The counselor must, therefore approach each individual a little differently. The course of counseling will vary from person to person.
- There are several steps or phases in every counseling relationship. Some of these steps may be repeated several times as problems are considered and reconsidered.

- **1.Connecting:**
- This involves initiating , building and maintaining a relationship. Between the counselor and counselee. The counselor listens attentively and shows sincere concern and caring as the counselee begins to share feelings, concerns or problems.
- **2. Exploring:**
- Counselees need to tell their stories i.e revealing details of problem situations, missed opportunities and frustrating experiences.
- This is the time when counselee are encouraged to share their feelings, talk about their thoughts, and describe their actions.
- The counselor listens attentively asks periodic probing questions and responds with respect, empathy and sensitivity.
- This exploration of the issues enables building of rapport and promotes a clear understanding of the problem situation.

- **3. Planning.**
- With time the counselee begins to see the problem in different light and discussion moves toward goals and actions that could lead to find solutions. How could the counselee change? Are there things that can be done to make matters better?
- Must some things be accepted because they can not change? Are there actions to be taken, attitudes to be changed, goals to be reached , and / or skills to be learned?
- Together, the counselor and counselee develop plans for taking actions

4. Progressing:

- After deciding what needs to be done, the counselees must be encouraged to start moving toward their goals . The counselor gives support, direction, encouragement and sometimes gentle probing.
- Some times the counselee will take action and experiences failure.
- The counselor then helps the counselee evaluate what went wrong and together they re- plan.

- **5. Stopping**
- Counseling does not last forever. Time has to come when the problem solving relationship has to end. Often there is summarizing what has been learned and /or a accomplished. There may be discussion of ways in which the conselee can be able to cope more effectively with future problems the door is left open for future counseling contacts if they are ever needed.

Questions to consider before counseling

- 1. Am I the appropriate person to counsel?
- 2. Have I the time to counsel?
- 3. Have I the client's permission to counsel?
- 4. Where will the counseling take place

THE TECHNIQUES OF COUNSELING

- 1. Attending
- 2. Listening
- 3. Responding
- (-leading, Reflection, Questioning, Confronting, informing, Interpreting, supporting and encouraging
- 4. Teaching
- 5. Filtering

