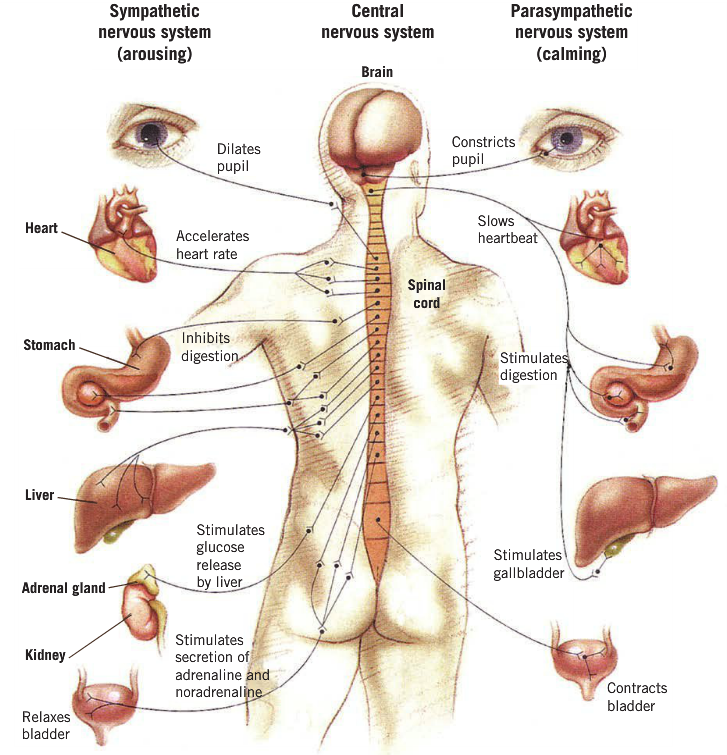
Psychology

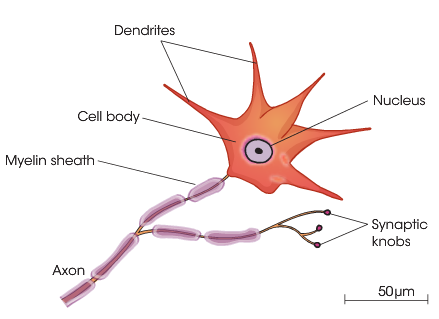
# Biological influences/bases of behaviour

**NERVOUS SYSTEM**

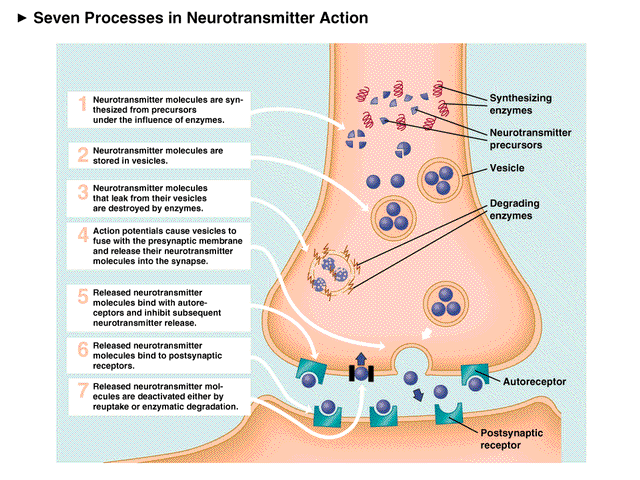
* Brain: perceives and stores sensory information
  + Two cerebral hemispheres joined together by the corpus callosum
    - Left hemisphere:
      * Controls movement in the right side of the body
      * Production of speech
      * Receives sensations from the right side of the body
      * Comprehension of language
      * Reading
      * Writing
      * Analytical thinking
      * Sequential processing
      * Logical reasoning
      * Mathematics
      * Looks at parts
    - Right hemisphere:
      * Controls movement in the left side of the body
      * Receives sensations from the left side of the body
      * Recognition of faces
      * Recognition of patterns
      * Musical ability
      * Spatial ability
      * Emotional expression
      * Detection of emotion
      * Looks at wholes
    - Corpus callosum: a thick band of nerve fibres in the middle of the brain that connects the left and right hemispheres and transfers information registered in one hemisphere to the other hemisphere for processing
* Spinal cord: connects the brain to the peripheral nervous system and transmits sensory information from the peripheral nervous system to the brain and motor messages from the brain to the peripheral nervous system
* Peripheral nervous system: transmits sensory information inwards to the central nervous system and motor messages from the brain outwards to the rest of the body
* Somatic nervous system: division of the peripheral nervous system that transmits sensory information received from sensory receptor cells inwards to the central nervous system, and motor messages from the central nervous system to the body’s voluntary skeletal muscles
* Autonomic nervous system: division of the peripheral nervous system that transmits motor messages from the brain to the body’s internal organs and glands, which results in involuntary activity of internal organs and glands and transmits messages back to the brain about the activity levels of these organs and glands
* Sympathetic nervous system: branch of the autonomic nervous system that alters the activity levels of internal muscles, organs and glands to physically prepare the body for increased activity during times of high emotional or physical arousal
* Parasympathetic nervous system: branch of the autonomic nervous system that maintains an energy level appropriate for normal bodily functioning and physically calms after high arousal by reversing the changes in bodily functioning caused by the domination of the sympathetic nervous system

**NEUROTRANSMISSION**

* Neurotransmitters: brain chemicals released at the synapse that transmit messages between neurons
* Neuron: an individual nerve cell that receives, transmits and processes information
  + Three types:
    - Motor (efferent) neurons
    - Sensory (afferent) neurons
    - Interneurons
  + Cell body (soma): contains the nucleus that controls the maintenance and metabolic function of the cell
  + Dendrites: fine branches from the cell body that receive incoming information from other neurons and transmit it to the cell body
  + Axons: transmit information from the cell body to other neurons or to cells in glands and muscles
    - In motor and sensory neurons, the axon is surrounded by a fatty myelin sheath that protects the axon and assists with speedy transmission of nerve impulses



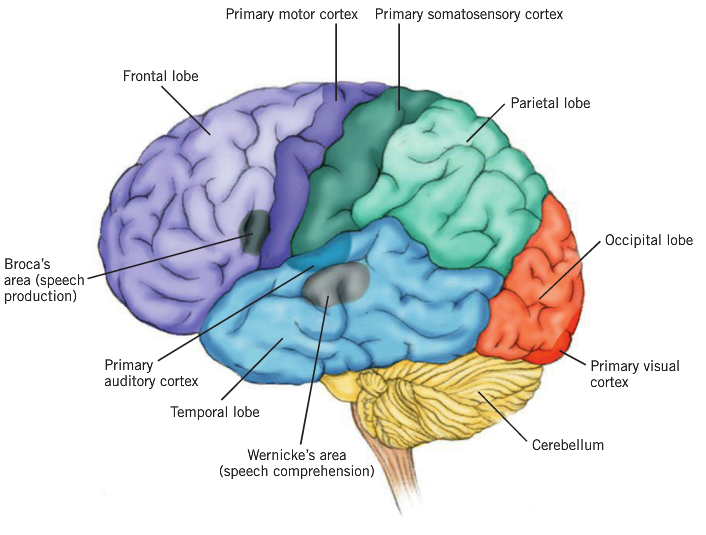
* Synapse: the microscopic space between neurons over which messages pass
* The process of neurotransmission:
  + The neurotransmitters are synthesised and stored in vesicles so that when an action potential arrives at the nerve ending, the cell is ready to pass it along to the next neuron
  + When the action potential arrives at the terminal, the neurotransmitter must be quickly and effectively released from the terminal and into the synaptic cleft
  + The neurotransmitter must then be recognised by selective receptors on the post synaptic neuron so that it can pass along the signal and initiate another action potential
    - In some cases, the receptors act to block the signals of other neurons also connecting to that postsynaptic neuron
  + After its recognition by the receptor, the neurotransmitter must be inactivated so that it does not continually occupy the receptor sites of the postsynaptic cell
    - Inactivation of the neurotransmitter avoids constant stimulation of the postsynaptic cell, while at the same time freeing up the receptor sites so that they can receive additional neurotransmitter molecules, should another action potential arrive



* + Most neurotransmitters are specific for the kind of information that they are used to convey
    - As a result, a certain neurotransmitter may be more highly concentrated in one area of the brain than it is in another
  + The action potential being passed along the axon is an electrical impulse while the message travelling across the synapse is chemical based
    - Action potential: the nerve impulse activated in a neuron that travels down the axon and causes neurotransmitters to be released into the synapse
* Serotonin: a neurotransmitter that is involved with…
  + Appetite
  + Sleep
  + Learning
  + Memory
  + Mood
  + The more serotonin, the more elevated a person’s mood is
* Dopamine: a neurotransmitter that is involved with…
  + Behaviour
  + Cognition
  + Voluntary movement
  + Motivation
  + Punishment
  + Reward
  + Lack of dopamine leads to Parkinson’s disease

**ROLES OF THE FOUR LOBES OF THE CEREBRAL CORTEX**

* Frontal lobe: an area at the front of the brain responsible for…
  + Reasoning
  + Planning
  + Parts of speech
  + Movement
  + Emotions
  + Problem solving
* Primary motor cortex: an area at the rear of the frontal lobe that…
  + Directs body’s skeletal muscles
  + Controls voluntary movement
* Broca’s area: an area in the left frontal lobe close to the primary motor cortex that…
  + Controls the muscles responsible for the production of articulate speech
  + Broca’s aphasia: an impairment in the ability to produce articulate speech, caused by damage to the Broca’s area
    - People can understand what is being said to them and know what they want to say but cannot physically produce some, or all, of the words to communicate
* Parietal lobe: an area at the top of the brain responsible for…
  + Movement
  + Orientation
  + Recognition
  + Perception of stimuli
* Primary somatosensory cortex: a strip of neurons located at the front of the parietal lobe, adjacent to the primary motor cortex that…
  + Registers and processes sensory information from the receptors in the body
    - Touch
    - Temperature
    - Pressure
  + More of the somatosensory cortex is devoted to sensory inputs from the hands than anything else
* Temporal lobe: an area at the sides of the brain responsible for…
  + Perception and recognition of auditory stimuli
  + Memory
  + Speech comprehension
* Primary auditory cortex: an area of the temporal lobe that…
  + Registers and processes auditory information
* Wernicke’s area: an area of the left temporal lobe responsible for…
  + Comprehension of language
  + Formulation of meaningful sentences
* Wernicke’s aphasia: an impairment in the ability to understand language and formulate coherent, meaningful speech, caused by damage to the Wernicke’s area
  + People have difficulty associating words with meaning, speech may be perfectly fluent and sentences may be grammatically correct, however they do not make sense and may not be aware of this
* Occipital lobe: an area at the back and base of the brain responsible for…
  + Visual processing
* Primary visual cortex: the area at the base of the occipital lobe that…
  + Registers, processes and interprets visual information sent from each eye
* Cerebellum: a brain structure attached to the rear of the brainstem responsible for…
  + Helping coordinate voluntary movement
  + Balance
  + Fear
  + Pleasure
  + Language
  + Attention



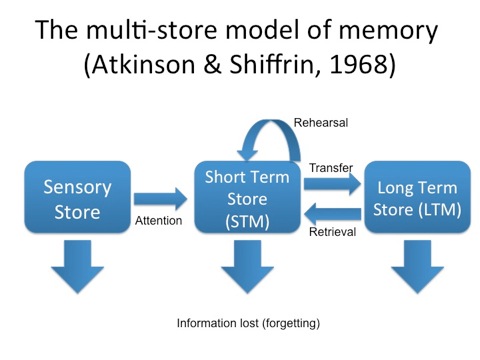
**FACTORS THAT AFFECT BEHAVIOUR, EMOTION AND THOUGHT**

* Heredity: a term referring to traits and features that are inherited from one’s parents and ancestors
* Hormones: chemical messengers produced by endocrine glands
* Adrenaline: a hormone…
  + Secreted by the adrenal medulla
  + Transmitter substance for the sympathetic nervous system
  + Increases…
    - Blood flow to muscles
    - Pupil dilation
    - Output of the heart
    - Blood sugar
  + Suppresses functions of…
    - Reproductive system
    - Digestive system
    - Immune system
  + Controls fight-flight response
* Noradrenaline: a hormone…
  + Synthesised from dopamine
  + Secreted by adrenal medulla
  + Causes alertness/arousal
  + Influences reward system
  + Enhances memory retrieval
  + Increases…
    - Heart rate
    - Blood sugar
    - Pupil dilation
  + Suppresses…
    - Digestive system
    - Reproductive system
* Stimulants: psychoactive drugs that…
  + Excite the nervous system
  + Arouse the body’s functions
  + E.g. cocaine, ecstasy and ice
* Depressants: psychoactive drugs that…
  + Calm the activity of the nervous system
  + Slow the body’s functions
  + E.g. alcohol and heroin
* Hallucinogens: psychoactive drugs that…
  + Change perception
  + Give sensory images without input from the senses
  + E.g. LSD, magic mushrooms and marijuana (mild)

# Cognition

**MEMORY**

* Memory: the internal record of some previous event of experience
* Process:
* Multistore model: Atkinson and Shiffrin developed the stage model which has three separate stages
  + Sensory memory:
    - Retained for up to five seconds
    - Two types:
      * Iconic memory: a register for visual memories
      * Echoic memory: a register for auditory memories
    - It is thought there are registers for the other senses
    - It is through attention that sensory memories are encoded to the short term memory
    - Encoding: refers to the conversion of sensory memory into a form that can be processed by the brain
    - Storage: the retention of the information
    - Retrieval: the recovery of information stored in the brain
  + Short term memory:
    - Retention time of around 30 seconds
    - Information in short term memory may be rehearsed for transfer into long term memory
    - Also known as working memory



* Working memory model: Baddeley and Hitch created the working memory model with the central executive and three slave systems
  + Central executive: responsible for…
    - Organising information
    - Coordinating the slave systems
    - Directing attention to relevant information
    - Suppressing irrelevant information
    - Retrieves information from long term memory
  + Phonological (articulatory) loop: responsible for…
    - Storing and processing phonological information
    - Rehearsing it silently so one can remember something as long as it’s refreshed in the rehearsal loop
  + Visuospatial sketchpad: responsible for…
    - Storing visual and spatial information
    - Constructing and manipulating visual images including details of…
      * Shape
      * Colour
      * Motion
      * Pattern
      * Position
    - Represents mental maps
  + Episodic buffer: responsible for…
    - Linking information across domains to form integrated units of visual, spatial and auditory information with time
    - E.g. memory of a story or movie
    - Episodic buffer has links to long term memory

Baddeley & Hitch’s

Working Model of Memory

* Magical number seven: Millar proposed that the amount of unrelated material that could be stored in the working memory was between five and nine pieces (7 +/- 2)
  + Capacity is greatest for digits and lower for letters and words
* Rehearsal
  + Maintenance rehearsal: remembering something for immediate use
    - Not used for transfer of information into long term memory
    - E.g. saying a phone number out loud or in one’s head to put into one’s phone immediately
  + Elaborative rehearsal: actively processing and encoding information by associating it with meaning
  + Chunking: combining material into larger, meaningful groups bases on patterns/regularities to increase the capacity of the working memory
* Long term memory:
  + Relatively permanent store of information
  + Retained from 30 seconds – forever
  + Information in long term memory can decay over time (naturally fade away), especially if it’s not used or retrieved very often
  + Information moves from the working memory to the long term memory through physical changes in the neurons and neural networks to make associations and hence the storage permanent
  + Two types of long term memory:
    - Procedural (implicit) memory:
      * Stores the way people do things
      * The “how to” of memory
      * Not a conscious memory process
      * Mainly refers to the learning of motor skills
      * Little effort to retrieve
      * Retrieval is more or less automatic because the skills are well established and learned
    - Declarative (explicit) memory:
      * Conscious effort for retrieval
      * Two types of declarative memory:
        + Episodic memory:

For past personal events

An internal representation of one’s own interpretation of an experience in one’s life

Specific events linked to particular feelings, sensations and time

* + - * + Semantic memory:

Knowledge of facts and information based on understanding and interpretation

Often of spoken/written material

An encyclopedia of memory

Stores mental representations of the world

* Recall, recognition and relearning: three ways of measuring what a person has remembered
  + Recall: retrieving information from memory without any prompts/cues
  + Recognition: identifying information from a number of alternatives
  + Relearning: relearning information that has been previously learned
    - If it is learned more quickly the second time, it is assumed that some of the information is retained from the first instance of learning it
* Forgetting: failure to retrieve information that has previously been stored or use it as required
  + Retrieval failure: inability to retrieve a certain piece of information
    - Successful retrieval requires the use of cues/prompts that cause a search to ne activated, transferring likely information from long term memory to working memory
  + Interference: forgetting as a result of retrieval difficulties due to competing, similar information being stored
    - Information is not lost, but blocked or mixed up
    - Two types of interference
      * Proactive interference: information previously learned interferes with new learning
      * Retroactive interference: new information interferes retroactively with old information
  + Motivated forgetting: refers to the inability to retrieve information because there’s some benefit to not remembering it
    - Self-protecting defence as the information may be anxiety provoking or it may simply be convenient or desirable to forget it
    - Not deliberate
  + Decay: the natural fading away of memory over time
    - More evident in working memory and sensory register
    - Decayed memories can sometimes be recovered with cues/prompts
  + Amnesia: memory loss due to brain damage caused by such things as a blow to the head, misuse of alcohol/drugs, aging or brain surgery
  + Primacy/recency (serial position) effect: the tendency to recall items presented first and last in a series better than middle items

**THEORIES AND PROCESSES OF LEARNING**

* Learning: a relatively permanent change, often of behaviour, that occurs as a result of experience
* Learning theory: a theory put forward by behaviourists to explain the acquisition of all behaviours through the principles of conditioning
* Classical conditioning: learning caused by the pairing, or association, of two stimuli, one of which is not normally associated with the desired response, such that the experience of that stimulus alone results in the desired response behaviour
  + Pavlov’s dogs:

|  |  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- | --- |
| UCS | UCR | NS | CS | CR |
| Unconditioned stimulus | Unconditioned response | Neutral stimulus | Conditioned stimulus | Conditioned response |

* Operant conditioning: learning explained by its consequences
  + Positive reinforcement: addition of a positive/desired stimulus after desired behaviour
    - E.g. getting money for a good report card
  + Negative reinforcement: removal of an unpleasant stimulus after desired behaviour
    - E.g. not getting grounded for a good report card
  + Positive punishment: addition of an aversive stimulus after undesirable behaviour
    - E.g. smacking for a bad report card
  + Negative punishment: removal of a positive/desired stimulus after undesirable behaviour
    - E.g. taking away a phone for a bad report card
  + The Skinner box: a box with a number of levels that can be pressed by the animals, as well as a feeding chamber that delivers food/water in response to the lever pressing behaviour that is being learned
* Observational learning: learning through watching others and copying their behaviour
* Reciprocal determinism: an explanation by Bandura of how a person’s behaviour is both influenced by an influences the environment and personal factors such as thoughts and feelings

**TECHNIQUES FOR MODIFYING BEHAVIOUR**

* Token economies: artificial systems of reward and reinforcement where symbolic markers, such as coloured counters or fake money, are used to reward desirable behaviour
  + Token economies are more effective than simple reinforcement schemes, because, in reinforcement, the person whose behaviour is being changed can become “full” and cease to respond to the reinforcement
  + The accumulation of tokens leads to a secondary reinforcer, so one can never get “full” and the changes to behaviour are likely to continue
  + Tokens are not usually withdrawn as a penalty, instead, a different, unpleasant consequence should occur
  + Criticisms:
    - When token economies are used in places such as prisons and hospitals, it is difficult to maintain the improvement after leaving the institution as tokens have to be replaced by social reinforcers which are often ineffective
* Systematic desensitisation: the application of classical condition to fears and phobias in humans
  + The person is taught to relax, then once in a calm state, they are gradually exposed to the object of their fear, starting with the least frightening situation – this is called graded exposed
  + E.g. showing a person a picture of a spider rather than a live one, if spiders are the object of their phobia and then hierarchically working up to real one
* Cognitive behaviour therapy: a therapy technique used by psychologists, based on the premise that cognitions influence feelings and behaviours and vice versa
  + The therapist helps the patient identity unhelpful thoughts, feelings and emotions
  + There are two components:
    - Cognitive therapy: based on the theory that distressing emotions and behaviours are the result of maladaptive thinking and thus dysfunctional thoughts are replaces with ones that can be managed
    - Behavioural therapy: the therapist helps to change behaviour through behaviour modification, relaxation and other behavioural change techniques
  + Cognitive behaviour therapy is used to treat depressive and anxiety disorders such as post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD)

# Relational influences

**TYPES OF SOLUTIONS TO RESOLVE CONFLICT**

* Conflict: a form of intense interpersonal and/or intrapersonal dissonance between two or more interdependent parties
  + Two types:
    - Interpersonal: occurs when two individuals have incompatible needs, goals or approaches in their relationships
    - Intrapersonal: internal dissonance surrounding the self
  + Imposed solutions: solutions dictated by one party
    - Rarely effective in ending conflict
    - At times a third party may impose a solution
  + Distributive solutions: involve compromise or mutual concessions
    - Competitive in nature
    - All parties are viewed as competitors
  + Integrative solutions: both sides benefit by coming to a solution through understanding the other party’s motives and needs
    - “win-win” solutions

**TECHNIQUES FOR RESOLVING CONFLICT**

* Counselling: won’t solve the problem but will assist the client in dealing with skills necessary to solve the conflict themselves
  + E.g. assertiveness
* Negotiation: aiming to reach an agreement
  + Enter believing both party’s interest contradict their own
  + Learning each party’s interest soon helps resolve conflict
  + Come to an integrative solution
* Mediation: independent/neutral third party watches/guides the involved parties (who remain in control) to a solution
  + Come to an integrative or distributive solution
  + When fails can become arbitration
* Arbitration: neutral third party hears arguments and imposes a final binding decision
  + Reach an imposed solution

**SOCIALISATION PROCESSES WITHIN FAMILIES**

* Socialisation: the process through which people acquire the values, standard, skills, knowledge and behaviours that are regarded as appropriate to their present/future roles in their particular culture
  + Process of three steps:
    - Direct instructions: being told an absolute rule
      * E.g. don’t pick your nose in public
    - Indirect socialising: modelling from other’s behaviours
    - Gatekeeping to/from opportunities
* Attachment: “a strong emotional tie developed over time between an infant and his/her primary caregiver” – Bowlby
  + Evolutionary principle: the theory put forward by Bowlby that attachment is important for survival and evolved over generations
    - Believed there is an innate tendency to form attachment, with adults being innately programmed to become attached to their children
    - This effect is similar to imprinting and occurs during the critical period (0-2½yrs)
    - If no attachment occurs during the critical period there will be limited, if any, attachment thereafter
    - Early patterns of attachment are related to later characteristics
    - Three factors:
      * Infants and adults are innately programmed
      * Attachment is a biological process during 0-2½yrs
      * Continuity hypothesis/monotropy
  + Continuity hypothesis
    - Part of Bowlby’s theory of attachment
    - Relationship with ONE special attachment figure (monotropy) provides infants with an internal working model of relationship
  + Internal working model: a mental framework that enables individuals to predict and manipulate their environment
  + Maternal deprivation hypothesis: if the infant is unable to form a warm, intimate, continuous relationship with the mother/permanent mother substitute, the child will have difficulty forming relationships with other people and be at risk of behavioural disorder
    - Criticisms: Robertson and Robertson believed that the mother and child may be separated and deprivation avoided, so long as a substitute carer is provided
  + 44 thieves:
    - Aim: to investigate the long-term effects of maternal deprivation on people in order to see whether delinquents have suffered deprivation.
    - Procedure:
      * Between 1936 and 1939 an opportunistic sample of 88 children was selected from a clinic
      * Of these, 44 were juvenile thieves and had been referred to the clinic because of their stealing
      * Bowlby selected another group of 44 children to act as “controls” (individuals referred to the clinic because of emotional problems, but not yet any crimes)
      * On arrival at the clinic, each child had their IQ tested by a psychologist who also assessed the child’s emotional attitudes towards the tests
      * At the same time a social worker interviews a parent to record details for the child’s early life (e.g. period of separation)
      * The psychologist and social worker made separate reports. Bowlby then conducted an initial interview with the child and accompanying parents (e.g. diagnosing affectionless psychopathy)
    - Findings:
      * More than half the juvenile thieves had been separated from their mothers for longer than six months during their first five years
      * In the control group only two had endured such a separation
      * 14 of the young thieves (32%) showed affectionless psychopathy
      * None of the control group were affectionless
      * 86% of the affectionless psychopaths had experiences a long period of maternal separation before the age of 5 years (they had spent most of their early years in residential homes or hospitals and were not visited often by their families
    - Conclusion:
      * Maternal separation/deprivation in the child’s early life caused permanent emotional damage
      * He diagnosed this as affectionless psychopathy
        + Lack of…

Emotional development

Concern for others

Guilt

* + - * + Inability to form meaningful and lasting relationships
  + Bowlby’s 3 types of attachment:
    - Secure children: have a positive working model of themselves based on their feelings of security derived from having an emotionally supportive primary caregiver
    - Avoidant children: assumed to have rejecting primary caregiver, so working model of themselves is unacceptable and unworthy
    - Ambivalent children: have an inconsistent caregiver, resulting in a negative self-image and they tend to exaggerate emotional responses to gain attention
  + Rhesus monkey study: a study by Harlow into the attachment tendencies of Rhesus monkeys. There monkeys were provided with a cloth-covered wire cylinder and a bare wire cylinder with food. The monkeys displayed greater levels of attachment to the cloth “mother” than the one offering food. This proved that “contact-comfort” was more important in infants forming attachment. However, the cloth cylinder did not provide the love required for healthy psychological development and, later in life, the monkeys were indifferent to their offspring and had difficulty mating and parenting.
  + Strange Situation: a study by Ainsworth into ways of measuring attachment. Infants were placed in situations where their behaviours were scored on:
    - Proximity/contact seeking
    - Contact maintaining
    - Avoidance of proximity/contact
    - Resistance to contact/comforting
  + A, B, C typing: Ainsworth proposed three types of infant attachment based off her results from the “Strange Situation” experiment:
    - Type A (insecure avoidant)
      * No sign of distress when mother leaves
      * Infant plays normally with stranger
      * Little interest in mother upon her return
      * Mother and stranger can provide equal comfort
      * 15% of infants are in this category
    - Type B (securely attached)
      * Distressed when mother leaves
      * Avoidant of stranger when alone but friendly with mother present
      * Happy when mother returns
      * Uses mother as a safe base from which they explore their environment
      * 70% of infants are in this category
    - Type C (insecure resistant)
      * Distressed when mother leaves
      * Fearful of stranger
      * Approaches mother upon return but avoids contact
      * Smacks away offered toys
      * Cries more than other types
      * Explores less than other types
      * 15% of infants are in this category
    - Criticisms:
      * Ethnocentric – white American, middle class infants
      * Low population validity
      * Low ecological validity
      * Grossman and Grossman:
        + Applied “Strange Situation” procedure to German infants
        + Findings:

49% type A, 33% type B, 18% type C

* + - * + Conclusions:

There are cross-cultural differences in attachment

E.g. it is a German cultural norm to keep interpersonal distance between mother and infant, therefore German infants are less likely to engage in proximity seeking behaviours

* + - * Van Ijzendoorn and Kroonenberg:
        + Meta-analysis of 32 “Strange Situation” experiments conducted in different countries
        + Aim: to investigate the reported rates of different infant attachment types across and within cultures
        + Findings:

Secure attachment was the most common type of attachment across the 8 different nations studied

Significant difference in distribution of insecure attachments:

In Western cultures the dominant insecure attachment type was insecure avoidant (type A)

In non-Western cultures the dominant insecure attachment type was insecure resistant (type C)

In China there was a 50/50 split between insecure resistant and insecure avoidant types

Differences within cultures:

Marked differences within cultures

1.5x greater variation within a culture than between cultures

One Japanese sample was more similar to two of the U.S. samples than to the other Japanese sample

The Israeli city sample was more like the U.S. than it was the Israeli kibbutzim sample

One of the German samples was as different from another German sample as it was different from an Israeli kibbutzim or U.S. sample

Japanese children show similar pattern to Israeli children but for different reasons

* + - * + Evaluation

5/32 cultures were collectivistic

“Strange Situation” test was designed by Americans using American children

Separation anxiety in other cultures may represent other factors thus not always a suitable measure of attachment

Japanese children are rarely left by their mothers and thus react differently to separation

German parents value independence so try to raise non-clingy infants

* + - * Takahashi:
        + Aim: to see whether it’s appropriate to apply “Strange Situation” procedure to Japanese children
        + Findings:

68% securely attached (almost identical to the American sample)

No avoidant insecure infants

32% insecure resistant

Japanese infants are much more disturbed after being left alone (in fact, so distressed that the ‘left alone’ phase had to be stopped)

If they had not been so distressed, many more (possibly >80%) would have been classified as securely attached

* + - * + Conclusions:

There are cross-cultural variations in the way infants respond to separation

Japanese infants tend to sleep with their parents until after two years of age – they’re almost never left alone

Behaviours observed were reactions to extreme stress, which was not the original aim of the “Strange Situation”

No avoidant behaviour can be explained by the fact that Japanese children are taught that such behaviour is impolite

The “Strange Situation” does not have the same meaning for the Japanese as it does for American participants and is not, therefore, a valid form of assessment for that culture

* + - * + Evaluation:

Ethical issues (many infants distressed)

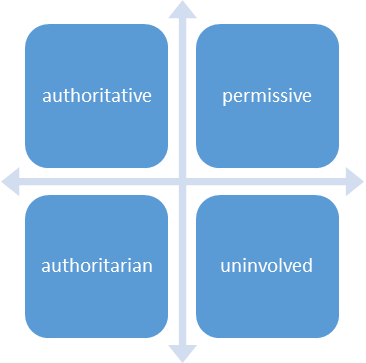
Limited sample (not appropriate to generalise all Japanese people, although the results are important in terms of cultural/subcultural differences in attachment)

* Features of different parenting styles
  + Diana Baumrind theorised four styles of parenting related to level of responsiveness and level of control:
    - Authoritarian:
      * Constrain independence
      * Strict rules
      * Harsh punishments
      * Obedience is seen as a virtue
      * Favour forceful measure to repress self-will if it conflicts with what they think is right
      * Less responsive to children
      * Less accepting of children
      * Consequences:
        + Higher levels of depression
        + Prevent children from exercising control over their own behaviour
        + Perform moderately well at school
        + Less problem behaviours
        + Poorer social skills
        + Poorer self-esteem
        + Less independent girls
        + More aggressive boys
        + Externally motivated
        + Discontented
    - Authoritative:
      * Direct children in a rational manner
      * Explain meaning behind rules
      * Recognise children’s individuality
      * Joint decision making
      * Oversee children assuming more responsibility
      * Provide sufficient “scaffolding” (notes on scaffolding later) for children’s learning
      * Allow children to proceed independently when doing well
      * Encourage children’s self-reliance
      * Consequences:
        + High social competence
        + High academic competence
        + Fewer problem behaviours
        + Fewer mental health problems
        + Prone to leadership qualities
    - Permissive:
      * Accept children’s impulses in a non-punitive and acceptant manner
      * Allow children to be self-regulated and free from rules/discipline
      * Consult children about parent/family decisions
      * Do not encourage children to obey externally defined standards
      * Consequences:
        + Don’t learn to be responsible for own behaviour
        + High self-esteem
        + Better social skills
        + Perform less well academically
        + More susceptible to antisocial peer pressure
        + More likely to engage in problem behaviour
    - Uninvolved:
      * Few demands
      * Low responsiveness
      * Little communication
      * Generally detached from child’s life
      * In extreme cases reject/neglect child’s needs
      * Consequences:
        + Lack of self-control
        + Low self-esteem
        + Less competent than peers

Level of control - high

Level of responsiveness - high

Level of control - low



Level of responsiveness - low

# Communication

**COMMUNICATION STYLES**

* Impact of social background:
  + Codes
    - Bernstein looked into the relationship between language style and social class and came up with two codes:
      * Elaborative code:
        + Complex and precise sentences
        + Meaning clear from sentence alone
        + More descriptive words
        + Explanations to gain compliance
        + Events in past and future are referred to
        + Abstract ideas and future possibilities are expressed often
        + No context required
        + “upper class” language
      * Restricted code
        + Language of the “working class”
        + Short and simple sentences
        + Much information is conveyed non-verbally
        + Highly contextual
        + Few descriptive words
        + Abstract ideas are rarely expressed
        + “here and now” stressed
        + Commands to gain compliance
  + Black English Vernacular (BEV)
    - Labov considered BEV to be just as complex and rule governed as standard English
    - BEV should be seen as different not deficient
    - BEV is not a result of verbal deprival but rather a result of being deprived from an environment conducive to learning
    - Educational institutions blame BEV “mistakes” on laziness thus making literacy and educational attainment difficult
* Examples of gender differences
  + Tannen researched differences between men and women regarding styles of communication
  + Women tend to talk in terms of rapport:
    - Style of interaction based on…
      * Establishing relationships
      * Developing understanding
      * Negotiating differences
    - Women enjoy sharing experiences
    - Women use private talk a lot more than men
  + Men tend to talk in terms of report:
    - Using talk as a way of…
      * Gaining and holding attention
      * Negotiating and maintaining status
    - Communicate to impart information
  + Series of six contracts:
    - Tannen described a set of six gender differences in communication
      * Status vs support
        + Men seek status
        + Women seek support
      * Independence vs intimacy
        + Men desire independence
        + Women desire intimacy
      * Advice vs understanding
        + Men focused on fixing
        + Women focused on understanding
      * Information vs feelings
        + Men talk in grunts of information
        + Women talk about feelings
      * Orders vs proposals
        + Men give orders
        + Women make proposals
      * Conflict vs compromise
        + Men willing to fight
        + Women willing to compromise

**FEATURES OF PERSUASIVE COMMUNICATION**

* Source of the message:
  + Authority
  + Competence
  + Trustworthiness
* Nature of the communication:
  + Appeal to reason
  + Appeal to emotion
  + Evoke fear response
* Characteristics of the audience:
  + Age
  + Gender
  + Need for “cognition”
  + Cultural differences
* Factors influencing persuasive:
  + A list of six factors:
    - Reciprocity:
      * Obligation to give when you receive
      * Not what is given but how
    - Scarcity:
      * Want more of what there’s less of
    - Authority:
      * What makes that persuader credible/knowledgeable
    - Consistency:
      * Commitments that can be made easily by people
      * Starting off small and working to big commitments
    - Liking: (three determinants of liking)
      * Similarity
      * Complimentary
      * Cooperative
    - Consensus:
      * Look to behaviour of other
      * Benefits of behaviour

**FEATURES AND LIMITATION OF THEORIES OF LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT**

* Innate and learned behaviours
  + Nativist perspective:
    - Chomsky believed language was an innate mechanism derived from a “language acquisition device” (LAD) that is common to all humans
    - LAD, allegedly, contains grammatical rules common to all languages (universal grammar) which allows production of consistent sentences once vocabulary is learnt
    - He claimed people were genetically predisposed to learn this “universal grammar”
    - Children naturally learn language
    - Weaknesses:
      * Paid little attention to the social environment in which the child develops
      * Not easy to prove because it is not ethical to isolate somebody just for research purposes
  + Sociocultural theory:
    - Vygotsky theorised that all fundamental cognitive abilities were the product of sociohistorical development
    - Unlike Chomsky, he believed patterns of thinking are not innately determined and that all modes of thinking are transmitted to the child by means of language
    - Through interaction with his/her environment, the child’s elementary function develop into more sophisticated, higher mental functions
    - He termed the “zone of proximal development” (ZPD)
      * Zone between current knowledge and knowledge unobtainable at that time
      * Learning occurs in ZPD with assistance of facilitators (teachers, parents, more advanced peers etc.)
    - Strengths:
      * Emphasis on social factors contributing to cognitive development
      * More and different emphasis on the role of language in cognitive development
    - Weaknesses:
      * Does not provide as many specific hypotheses to test as Piaget’s theory
      * Assumption that it is relevant to all cultures
  + Constructivist theory:
    - Bruner’s theory of language development acknowledged both innate mechanisms and the influence of environment
    - The “language acquisition support system” (LASS) describes how parents (mainly mothers) guide and support their children’s emerging language through interaction
    - The children learn the language of whatever social, historical or cultural group they are a part of
    - According to Bruner, the LASS requires Chomsky’s LAD and vice versa
    - The interactional frameworks providing by parents were dubbed “scaffolding”
      * The parent must remain one step ahead of the child in order to push them a little beyond their current capabilities through the use of extremely well-known, familiar and comfortable routines
      * These routines were called formats
        + Include things like…

Dinner/bath time

Joint book reading

“peek-a-boo”

* + - Language is supported through interactions which facilitate growth of reference
      * Reference: how people manage and direct attention through linguistic means and is highly context sensitive
    - Over time the mother will become more critical of the child’s use of language and more demanding of sophisticated communication, raising the bar and consistently pushing the child’s language development
      * This is an example of Bruner’s “spiral curriculum”
        + Tasks/information start at a basic level and get increasingly difficult with increasing competence of the child
    - Bruner believed learning to be an active process with three modes of representation:
      * Enactive: learn through movement/action
        + 0-18 months
      * Iconic: learn through images/icons
        + 18+ months
      * Symbolic: learn through abstract symbols
        + 6-7+ years
      * Once a child reaches one level, they can transition at will between that stage and the one below
    - Strengths:
      * Emphasis on social nature of learning

# Developmental psychology

**STAGES AND CHARACTERISTICS OF DEVELOPMENTAL THEORIES**

* Cognitive development
  + Piaget considered that we build an understanding of our world and develop our thinking skills through active interaction with our environment
  + This leads to us building “schemas”
    - Schema: an idea about what something is and how to deal with it
    - Piaget thought there were two processes by which we gain and change our schemas:
      * Assimilation: interpreting new experiences and information in terms of our existing schemas
      * Accommodation: if a schema is too broad, we adjust and construct more to fit the particulars of new information
  + Piaget believed there were four stages to describe the development of children’s thinking:
    - Sensorimotor:
      * Ages 0-2yrs
      * Babies develop their understanding of the world through their sensory and motor interactions with it
      * Little understanding of “object permanence”
        + Object permanence: the knowledge that things continue to exist when not in sight
        + Test:

Hidden objects test:

Presenting infants of different ages with a toy and then seeing if they’d look for it after it had been hidden

Babies under 8 months of age did not seek the toy

* + - * Acquire language
      * Demonstrate trial and error behaviour
      * Start using intentional actions
      * Develop use of primitive symbolism
      * Criticism:
        + Piaget confuses competence and performance as a child may be perfectly capable of successfully completing the task but, due to the nature of the situation, they “fail”
    - Preoperational:
      * Ages 2-7yrs
      * Children are still unable to carry out the mental operations that would allow them to think logically
      * Children are egocentric
        + Egocentric: can only perceive the world from their own viewpoint
        + Test:

Three mountain task:

A child sits on one side of a mountain model and must determine what the person on the other side can see

Until the age of about six, children cannot comprehend that another person can hold an entirely different visual perspective than their own

* + - * Develop an understanding of cause-effect relationships
      * Develop ability to use symbolic thought
      * Cannot conserve
      * Criticism:
        + Hughes’ policeman task

Proved that children between 3½ and 5yrs could hide a boy from a policeman, indicating the ability for the child to take in alternate perspectives

* + - Concrete operational:
      * Ages 7-11yrs
      * Children can think logically and carry out mental operations so long as they are working with concrete materials (materials that they can experience through their senses)
      * Understand conservation
        + Conservation: knowing that an object doesn’t change its weight, mass or volume simply because it changes shape
        + Test:

Liquid conservation test:

Pouring water from a short and wide glass into a tall and thin glass and asking the child which class contained the most water

If the child understands that the volume remains unchanged, they are capable of conservation

* + - Formal operational:
      * Ages 11+yrs
      * Children become capable of abstract thought, hypothetical and flexible thinking
        + Test:

Pendulum task:

Weights are hung from different lengths of string and had varying masses

Children were asked what factors influences the speed of the swing

Children at the formal operational stage systematically tested the variables to determine their effects and concluded that the length of string determined the speed

* + - * Social and moral development occurs
      * Criticism:
        + Social context
        + Some adults would be unable to successfully complete the pendulum task
* Moral development
  + Morals: standard of behaviour; principles of right and wrong
  + Piaget devised two states/stages of morality
    - Heteronomous:
      * The first stage – 5-10yrs
      * Being governed by another’s rules/laws
      * Focusing on moral realism/absolutism
        + Moral knowledge and understanding are objective and absolute
      * Belief of immanent justice and expiatory punishment
        + Decreed by authority
      * Focus: amounts of damage
    - Autonomous:
      * The second stage – 10+yrs
      * Bound by one’s own rules
      * Sees external rules as a product of social agreements rather than sacred unchangeable laws
        + The morality of cooperation
      * It is not a matter of obeying external authorities, but moral rules that grow from human relationships
      * We must respect opposing points of view (moral relativism)
      * There is a reduced belief in immanent justice
      * Focus: intentions behind damage
    - Criticisms:
      * Gender biased (like Kohlberg)
  + Kohlberg proposed six stages of morality within three categories:
    - Pre-conventional:
      * Stage one:
        + Punishment and obedience
        + Egocentric
        + Don’t recognise different points of view
        + Confuses perspective of authority with one’s own
      * Stage two:
        + Individual
        + Instrumental
        + Concrete
        + Aware of different interests and that these may conflict
        + Instrumental exchange of services
        + Goodwill
        + Fairness
    - Conventional:
      * Stage three:
        + Mutual interpersonal expectations
        + Conformity
        + Relationships
        + Following rules
        + Living up to expectations of others
        + Maintaining trust
        + Gratitude
        + Respect
        + Loyalty
      * Stage four:
        + Social system
        + Maintenance of one’s conscience
        + Doing one’s duty
        + Taking the view of the system
        + Obeying laws
        + Upholding the social order
    - Post-conventional:
      * Stage five:
        + Rights
        + Social contracts
        + Asserting and integrating…

Basic rights

Values

Legal contracts

* + - * + Laws as social contracts
      * Stage six:
        + Universal ethical principles
        + Moral point of view
        + Commitment to the universal principles of justice
        + Respect for others
    - Heinz dilemma: a woman was near death from a unique kind of cancer. There’s a drug that might save her but it costs $4000 per dose. The sick woman’s husband, Heinz, went to everyone he knew to borrow money and tried every legal means, but he could only get together $2000. He asked yhe scientist who discovered the drug for a discount or to let him pay later but the scientist refused. Should Heinz break into the laboratory to steal the drug for his wife?
      * Answers:
        + Stage 1: Heinz should not steal the medicine because he will go to prison
        + Stage 2: Heinz should steal the drug because he will be much happier if he saves his wife, even if he goes to prison
        + Stage 3: Heinz should steal the medicine because his wife expects it
        + Stage 4: Heinz should not steal the medicine because the law prohibits stealing
        + Stage 5: two possible answers:

Heinz should steal the medicine because everyone has a right to live, regardless of the law

Heinz should not steal the medicine because the doctor has a right to fair compensation

* + - * + Stage 6: two possible answers:

Heinz should steal the medicine because saving a life is a more fundamental value than the property rights of another person

Heinz should not steal the drug because that violates the rule of honesty and respect

* + - Criticisms:
      * Culture bias:
        + Hindu dharma forbids stealing under any circumstances therefore there’s no virtue in saving a life – Schweder
      * Gender bias:
        + Morality of care:

Women are more focused on…

Interpersonal connectedness

Care

Sensitivity

Responsibility to people

Scored lower - @ stage 3

* + - * + Morality of justice

Men are more focused on…

Social hierarchy

Right

Scored lower - @ stage 4

* Theory of identity
  + Erikson’s theory of identity describes the normal conflicts/crises that must be overcome during our lives and how they shape our “sense of identity” across our lifespan
  + He believed these stages were genetically determined
  + The crises are struggles between two conflicting personalities:
    - Adaptive (positive)
    - Maladaptive (negative)
  + Adaptive outweighs maladaptive as we subconsciously make an effort to change/develop
  + Erikson acknowledged the impact that the belief and value systems of different cultures have on identity
  + Divided the theory into 8 stages:
    - Basic trust vs mistrust:
      * 0-18 months
      * Trust those who satisfy our needs
      * Must receive attention and affection
      * Virtue: hope
    - Autonomy vs shame and doubt:
      * 18 months – 3yrs
      * Based on gaining control over one’s own body
      * Virtue: willpower
    - Initiative vs guilt:
      * 4-5yrs
      * Focus on exploration
      * Learning to deal with people and problems
      * Develop initiative
      * Can learn from criticism
      * Virtue: purpose
    - Industry vs inferiority:
      * 6-11yrs
      * Mastering social and academic skills
      * Virtue: competence
    - Identity vs role confusion:
      * 12-18yrs
      * Establishing a strong sense of identity
      * Try different roles, attitudes and beliefs to establish a stable identity
      * Can lead to adopting a negative identity
      * Virtue: fidelity
    - Intimacy vs isolation
      * 19-40yrs
      * Partnership
      * Ability to share without losing one’s identity
      * One needs a stable identity in order not to lose oneself in the relationship
      * Change oneself to fit others
      * Virtue: love
    - Generativity vs stagnation:
      * Concerned with establishing and guiding the next generation
      * Parenting
      * Nurturing life values
      * Virtue: care
    - Integrity vs despair:
      * 65+ yrs
      * Looking back at one’s life
      * Satisfied or regretful
      * Wasting or making the most of life
      * Dependent on how previous stages were resolved
      * Virtue: wisdom
  + Criticisms:
    - More applicable to boys as gender personality differences are biological based
      * E.g. penis envy
    - Focuses more on observable (social aspects) of child’s development

**FEATURES OF BANDURA’S SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY**

* Social learning theory (SLT)
  + Bandura’s social learning theory strongly emphasised “observational learning”
    - Observational learning: passively taking in information from watching the behaviour of others; sometimes called modelling
  + This kind of learning happens without any reinforcement but model’s behaviour will only be imitated if the consequences are seen as positive
  + Children develop their personalities through observational processes when they’re exposed to a variety of experiences and cultures
  + We learn from those we hold in high esteem
  + Bandura acknowledges the importance of cognition which intervenes between stimulus and response
* Bobo doll experiment: a Bobo doll was repeatedly knocked over by a female student. She also bashed it, shouting aggressive words and phrases. This was taped and shown to groups of young children. The children were later allowed to play with the doll and they demonstrated the same behaviour as the female student. This showed that children changed their behaviour without reinforcement or punishment.
* Obstacles in learning:
  + Fear of failure
  + Lack of direction
  + Lack of clarity in direction
  + Positive reinforcement not used enough
  + Task not broken down into small enough pieces

# Personality

**FEATURES AND LIMITATIONS OF CONTEMPORARY PERSONALITY THEORIES**

* Personality: an individual’s unique and relatively enduring psychological characteristics and behaviour patterns
* Trait theories
  + Traits: fairly steady, reliable, and enduring interior characteristic which is inferred from a trend of actions, outlooks, feelings, and habits within the person
  + The “Big Five Model”:
    - McCrae and Costa theorised five main dimensions of personality:
      * Openness to experience
      * Conscientiousness
      * Extraversion
      * Agreeableness
      * Neuroticism (emotional instability)
    - These factors are often referred to using the “OCEAN” acronym
    - Each factor has four endpoints/sub-factors (listed low to high) that are the main elements of the overall dimension
    - Openness to experience:
      * Down-to-earth – imaginative
      * Uncreative – creative
      * Conventional – original
      * Unadventurous – daring
    - Conscientiousness:
      * Negligent – conscientious
      * Lazy – hardworking
      * Disorganised – well-organised
      * Late – punctual
    - Extraversion:
      * Loner – joiner
      * Quiet – talkative
      * Passive – active
      * Reserved – affectionate
    - Agreeableness:
      * Suspicious – trusting
      * Critical – lenient
      * Ruthless – soft-hearted
      * Irritable – good-natured
    - Neuroticism:
      * Calm – anxious
      * Secure – insecure
      * Unemotional – emotional
      * Vulnerable – hardy
    - Criticisms:
      * Data driven (no theory)
      * Only accounts for “normal” personality trait sphere (limited scope)
      * Generality
      * Subjectivity
* Humanistic theories
  + The belief that all humans are born good
  + They try to reach their potential throughout their lives
  + Humanists believe personality results from people striving to reach their potential
  + Unconditional positive regard:
    - Rogers’ theory of personality surrounded an idea of “unconditional positive regard”
      * Unconditional positive regard: accepting people for what they are without any expectation of change
        + A type of acceptance
        + The second of Rogers’ three conditions for growth
      * Three conditions for growth:
        + Genuineness
        + Unconditional positive regard
        + Empathy
      * Need to experience these conditions from significant people in our lives in order to grow and self-actualise
        + Self-actualisation: living up of one’s potential
    - Central to Rogers’ theory was the concept of self-identity
      * If we are to have a well-adjusted personality, there needs to be a good match between our…
        + Ideal self: the person we want to be
        + Self-image: the person we think we are
        + True self: the person we really are
      * Humans strive for congruence between these views
      * Congruence is needed to self-actualise
    - Criticisms:
      * Too vague
      * Low generalisability
      * Unreliable
      * Unscientific
      * Ignores biology
      * Cultural bias
      * Qualitative data is difficult to compare
      * Overly optimistic
  + Hierarchy of needs:
    - Maslow theorised five levels of needs:
      * Physiological
      * Safety
      * Belonging
      * Esteem
      * Self-actualisation
    - Criticisms:
      * Changes to hierarchy by circumstances
      * Self-actualisation does not universally convey Maslow’s observations
      * Unscientific
      * Ignores biology
* Social-cognitive theory
  + Bandura explained human behaviour as being the result of the interaction between…
    - Behaviours
    - Cognitive factors
    - Environmental factors
  + This interaction was dubbed “reciprocal determinism”
    - This relates back to Bandura’s ideas surrounding observational learning in that we observe the consequences of others’ behaviour and alter our behaviour accordingly
    - People’s own thoughts and beliefs about themselves also influence their behaviour
    - Bandura later developed this into his theory of “self-efficacy”
      * Self-efficacy: the degree to which you are sure of your own ability and capability to manage and to be effective in meeting the demands of particular situations
      * Made up of several processes:
        + Self-criticism
        + Self-praise
        + Evaluation of personal standards
        + Self-persuasion
        + Evaluation of attachment
        + Acceptance of challenges
      * When we succeed in mastering a task, our self-efficacy is enhanced
      * When we fail to manage or deal with a situation/task, our self-efficacy is undermined
  + Strengths:
    - Well-grounded in scientific research
    - Has been tested empirically
    - Widely applicable
  + Criticisms:
    - Unconscious mind not considered
    - Biology ignored
    - Emotion not factored
    - No account for mental disorders
    - Very laboratory bases – low ecological validity
* Cognitive-affective theory
  + Walter Mischel tried to reconcile within a single framework both trait and social-cognitive approaches to explain human behaviour
  + He considered this was necessary to account for apparent inconsistencies in personality in varying situations
  + E.g. a person may be shy/anxious in one situation and then confident/outgoing in another
  + Strengths:
    - Well-grounded in scientific research
    - Wide applicability
    - Robust theory
  + Criticisms:
    - Doesn’t place enough emphasis on biology
    - Difficult to define situations
    - Difficult to study the many complexities of interactions
    - Extreme positions can fail to take into account the complexity of the relationship between personality, behaviour and the situation

# Social psychology

**THE INFLUENCE OF GROUPS ON BEHAVIOUR**

* Group polarisation: when individuals are in a group with others who hold similar attitudes or beliefs, discussion within the group tends to strengthen opinions
  + E.g. ISIS extremists
* Conformity
  + Conformity: a change in behaviour and attitude in response to group pressure
  + People conform because…
    - They want to fit in
    - Are scared of being rejected by the group
  + The change is behaviour is in response to real or imagine group pressure
  + Three types of conformity:
    - Compliance: group acceptance
    - Internalisation: genuine acceptance of group norms
    - Identification: group membership
  + Normative conformity:
    - Usually involves compliance
      * A person publicly accepts the group views but privately rejects them
    - Done to fit in and avoid rejection
  + Informational conformity:
    - Occurs when…
      * The person lacks knowledge and looks to the group for guidance
      * They’re in an ambiguous situation and socially compare their behaviour with the group
    - Usually involves internalisation
      * A person accepts the views of the group and adopts them personally
  + Resistance to conform comes from culture
    - Individualistic cultures are less likely to conform than collectivistic cultures because of their differing values
  + Solomon Asch’s study:
    - Visual judgement task on the length of lines
    - Stooges would deliberately choose the wrong answer in an attempt to get the participant to conform to their answers rather than selecting the obviously correct one
    - 75% of participants conformed at least once
    - 50% of participants conformed a minimum of six times
    - This type of conformity is compliance as the participant conforms while privately rejecting the group view.
  + Zimbardo’s prison study (Stanford prison experiment):
    - Aim: to investigate how readily people would conform to the roles of guard and prisoner in a role-playing exercise that simulated prison life
    - Findings:
      * Within a very short time both guards and prisoners were settling into their new roles
        + Guards adopting their roles quickly and easily
      * The guards began to harass prisoners and behave in a brutal/sadistic manner, apparently enjoying it
      * Over time the prisoners became more submissive, in turn enhancing the guards’ aggression and assertiveness
      * After day 6/14, the experiment was shut down as the prisoners were showing signs of emotional disorder
    - Conclusions:
      * People will readily conform to the social roles they’re expected to play (identification)
      * Deindividuation may explain the participants’ behaviour, especially the behaviour of the guards
        + Deindividuation: a state where one becomes so immersed in the norms of the group that they lose their sense of identity and personal responsibility
      * Learned helplessness could explain the prisoners’ submission to the guards
        + Learned helplessness: a condition in which a person suffers from a sense of powerlessness ,arising from a traumatic event of persistent failure to succeed
        + The prisoners were so traumatised by the guards that they gave up responding
* Obedience
  + Obedience: changing behaviour in response to instruction or direct request by an authority figure
  + Two states of obedience:
    - Autonomous: disobeying because one agrees with their own cause
      * E.g. Rosa Parks in the Montgomery bus boycott of 1955
    - Agentic: obeying and passing responsibility onto those of authority
      * E.g. war crimes such as the holocaust
      * The reasons people obey are called agentic binding factors:
        + Fear of seeming rude
        + Fear of increasing one’s own anxiety
  + Milgram’s electric shock experiment:
    - Pairs of men were allocated to roles of teacher (participant) or learner (actor)
    - The learners were required to learn lists of pairs of words
    - The teachers had to administer an electric shock each time an incorrect answer was given
    - The leaners were placed in room where the actual participants could not see them
    - The shocks administered increased as more incorrect answers were given
    - The teacher could hear the learner in pain but was pushed to continue by the experimenter overseeing the study
    - The shocks ranged from “slight shock” (15 volts) to the final two switches (435 and 450 volts) labelled “XXX”
    - Findings:
      * 26/40 teachers (participants) administered the highest level of shocks, even believing they were hurting someone else
      * At 300 volts, the learner ceased responding but only 5 participants refused to continue
    - Conclusions:
      * The main factor influencing such obedience can be summarised as:
        + Immediacy/proximity to the victim who was not seen, only heard
        + Proximity of the experimenter who was a white lab-coated Caucasian university professor situated at a desk in the same room
        + People obey because of…

Belief in legitimate authority

Commitment to successful achievement of the experiment

Lack of disobedient role models

* + - * + Conducting the experiment in social isolation meant that social norms/expected behaviours were not present
* Impact of the presence of others on individual behaviour
  + Social facilitation: improved performance on simple and well-rehearsed tasks due to the presence of others
    - E.g. a cyclist riding faster when racing against others rather than the clock
  + Social inhibition: reduced performance on complex or new tasks due to the presence of others
    - E.g. when work performance decreases with the presence of more co-workers

**THEORIES OF SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY**

* Attribution theory
  + Attribution: the process by which we explain others’ behaviours and unconsciously designate reasons/motivations behind actions, either related to personality (disposition) or environment (situation)
  + Attribution theory: a theory which supposes that people attempt to understand the behaviour of others by attributing feelings, beliefs and intentions to them
  + Two types of attributions:
    - Dispositional: inferring something about a person (attitude, personality, belief etc.) to explain a behaviour
    - Situational: concluding that some external cause (peer pressure, threats etc.) is responsible for the behaviour
    - Fundamental attribution error:
      * Heider, the originator of attribution theory, noted that we usually take an individual’s behaviour at face value and do not sufficiently consider the surrounding circumstances – we favour a dispositional attribution for the behaviour
    - We not only make attributions about the behaviour of others but about our own behaviour too
    - Self-serving bias:
      * It is suggested that we distort the facts and make situational attributions to maintain self-esteem
    - Covariation model:
      * Kelley’s covariation model considers that people making attributions use three types of information:
        + Consensus
        + Distinctiveness
        + Consistency

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| Consensus | Distinctiveness | Consistency | Causal attribution |
| LOW | LOW | HIGH | Person -distributional attribution |
| LOW | HIGH | LOW | Circumstance -situational attribution |
| HIGH | HIGH | HIGH | Stimulus -situational attribution |

* + - * E.g. Harry failed his maths exam
        + Person factors:

Whether Harry liked maths or not

Whether he was lazy

Whether he attended a party the night before the exam

* + - * + Circumstance factors:

Had he failed maths exams in the past or did he usually pass them?

* + - * + Stimulus factors:

Was the test particularly hard?

Did other people fail too?

* + - * + If Harry was hard-working, usually passed and others failed too, his failure would likely be attributed to the test being too difficult – stimulus (situational) attribution
* Cognitive dissonance theory:
  + Cognitive dissonance: a discrepancy between beliefs and attitudes (behaviours)
  + This dissonance makes the person uncomfortable and they attempt to reduce this y either changing the belief or attitude
  + Cognitive dissonance can be reduced to a point of congruence by:
    - Focusing on more supportive beliefs that justify attitude
    - Compensating with other attitudes
    - Higher value = justification
    - Lower value = dissonance, therefore change belief to reduce dissonance
  + Theory was proposed by Leon Festinger

# Culture and values

**SENSE OF COMMUNITY**

* Sense of community: a feeling that members have of belonging, a feeling that members matter to each other and to the group and a shared faith that members needs will be met through their commitment to be together
  + McMillan and Chavis proposed four criteria that had to be met for an individual to feel a sense of community
    - Membership: feeling of belonging or of sharing a sense of personal relatedness
      * Five attributes of membership:
        + Boundaries:

Language

Dress

Ritual

* + - * + Emotional safety:

Security

* + - * + Sense of belonging and identification:

“It’s my group”

* + - * + Personal investment:

Earned place because of investment

* + - * + Common symbol system:

Gesture

Flag

Logo

* + - Influence: a sense of mattering, of making a difference to a group and of the group mattering to its members
      * Those who acknowledge others’ opinions/needs are often more influential than those who try to dominate others and ignore their wishes
      * More likely to be attracted to a community where we feel more influential
      * There is a significant positive relationship between cohesiveness and a community’s influence on its members to conform
        + The pressure for conformity and uniformity comes from the needs of the individual and the community for consensual validation
        + Therefore conformity serves as a force for closeness as well as an indicator of cohesiveness
      * Bidirectional model:

BIDIRECTIONAL MODEL

* + - Integration and fulfilment of needs: feelings that the members’ needs will be met by the resources received through their membership in the group
      * McMillan and Chavis call this reinforcement
        + For a group to maintain a sense of togetherness, the individual-group relationship must be rewarding for its members
        + Reinforcers:

Status of being a member

Success brings members closer

Competence

We’re attracted to others whose competence can benefit us

* + - * + Once their basic needs are covered, people will do what serves their other needs
        + Shared values are very important as they bring people together in terms of their similar…

Needs

Goals

Priorities

* + - * + Shared values are an essential force for cohesive communities
    - Shared emotional connection: the commitment and beliefs that members have shared, and will share, a common history, common places, time together and similar experiences
      * This is based on shared history and it is important that everyone identifies with it
      * There are seven shared emotional connections:
        + Contact hypothesis: more interaction means more closeness
        + Quality of interaction: successful relationship creates greater bond
        + Closure to events: unresolved tasks inhibit group cohesiveness
        + Shared valent (strong) event hypothesis: the more important the shared event is to those involved, the grater the community bond

E.g. natural disaster

* + - * + Investment: your investment in the community will determine your general sense of community e.g. homeowners who have invested money in their property will feel the impact of any relevant events in that community
        + Effect of honour and humiliation on community members
        + Spiritual bond (community of spirit): present in all communities, it is sharing traditions and beliefs

E.g. Black communities’ music, dance, food and speech

* + - The youth gang:
      * Alienated youngsters
      * Shared experiences
      * Territorial and symbolic boundaries
      * Strong pressure on members to conform
      * Their statuses and victories enhance bonding
      * Rules are based on shared values and need met by the gang
      * Gang membership gives individuals influence over their environment which they would not have otherwise
    - The kibbutz
      * Communal settlement
      * After World War II and the formation of Israel, the kibbutzim became primary holder of norms and values
      * Many Jews were displaced from their homes in Europe and made great personal sacrifices to establish a new viable community
      * This gave them a sense of security that they were among people who care
      * Shared caring and a sense of belonging supported strong boundaries and personal investment
      * This pioneering spirit, away from the capitalistic and individualistic areas, kept communities cohesive for a number of years
      * Support by the state was important and the state used it as a main socialiser into the newly established state
      * However, once Israel became stronger, support waned and kibbutzim started to fall
      * Those who survived developed a management structure with an unequal power
      * Unequal power resulted in status differences between the old and new members
      * Initially the members were “anti-family” (more communal upbringing of children) but this later changed
      * There were changes in the members’ wealth
      * Community survived because abundance meant that the community was secure
      * Individual members were able to pursue their own needs and interests
      * Because of the organisational success and internal/external changes, cohesive bond loosened
      * Social, rather than idealistic, ties were stronger
      * In spite of all these changes, the kibbutz survived because of tradition
      * Members’ shared history is the basis of the emotional bond

**IMPACT OF SIGNIFICANT EVENTS ON INDIVIDUALS AND COMMUNITIES**

* Positive responses:
  + Kobasa thought that personality differences could account for different responses to stress
    - Stress: a state of mental/emotional strain or tension resulting from adverse or demanding circumstances
  + She believed this difference in personality was due to the presence/lack of the element of hardiness
    - The concept of hardiness is made up of three individual elements:
      * Control: you can influence what happens to you (internal locus of control)
      * Commitment: sense of purpose and involvement in the world around you
      * Challenge: there are changes and we see them as challenges
        + Hardy people don’t seek security but look for growth and change
      * This concept was linked to resilience
        + Resilience: the capacity to act positively in the fact of difficult or frightening circumstances
        + There are four qualities of a resilient person:

The capacity for making the most of small windows of opportunity

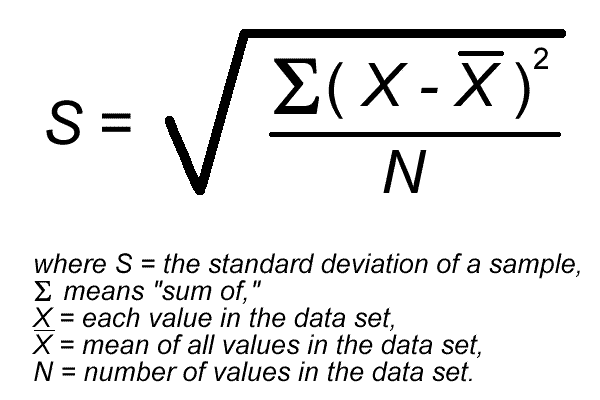
Having a deep-rooted faith in systems of meaning

Heaving a healthy social support network

Having a wide comfort zone

* + Factors contributing to stress:
    - Predictability:
      * Expecting the event to occur
    - Controllability
      * Control over the event
    - Experiencing threat of loss
      * The impact the event has on you
  + Factors in coping with stress:
    - Sense of community
    - Understanding of the event
* Negative responses:
  + Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD):
    - Physical symptoms:
      * Disturbed sleep
      * Nightmares
      * Exhaustion
      * Restlessness
      * Headaches
    - Cognitive symptoms:
      * Poor concentration
      * Disturbances to attention and memory
      * Flashbacks
      * Intrusive thoughts
      * Disorientation
    - Emotional symptoms:
      * Fear
      * Avoidance
      * Anxiety and panic
      * Depression
      * Guilt
      * Withdrawal
* Impact of negative events on community wellbeing
  + Vulnerable groups:
    - More at risk of negative responses to negative events
  + Community resilience:
    - If people live in a competent community and have a sense of community, the community is considered to be resilient
    - The effects of community resilience on outcomes following a disaster are not direct
    - The competence of a community and individuals’ feelings of attachment to their community lead them to having an increased sense of self-efficacy and social networks
    - These, in turn, lead to reduced stress and increased growth

# Research methods

* Steps in research
  + Identify the research problem
  + Formulate a hypothesis
  + Design the method
  + Collect the data
  + Analyse the data
  + Interpret the results
  + Report the findings
* Variable: any condition that can change
* Independent variable: a condition that an experimenter systematically manipulates
* Dependent variable: that which is measured in an experiment
* Operationalise: state what each variable is and how it will be measured
* Hypothesis: a testable predication about the direction of the interaction between independent and depended variables and also includes the population from which the sample is drawn
  + E.g. adolescent males who have inadequate amounts of sleep will have lower memory abilities than people who have adequate sleep
* Operational hypothesis: a testable prediction that explains exactly how the variables will be measured and manipulated, as well as the population from which the sample is drawn. Therefore it is a workable, testable and repeatable hypothesis
  + E.g. adolescent males who sleep for less than six hours per night will be more likely to have lower memory abilities, as measured by a score on a comprehension test, than adolescent males who sleep for more than six hours per night
* Participants: the people used in an experiment
* Population: the entire group of people belonging to a particular category; the larger group of research interest from which a sample is to be drawn
* Sample: the group of participants in a research study and is a subsection of the population in question
* Random allocation: the assignment of participants to each experimental condition in an unpredictable fashion to reduce bias
* Experimental group: the group exposed to the independent variable
* Control group: the group where the independent variable is absent
* Extraneous variable: any variable other than the independent variable that causes a change in the results and therefore has an unwanted effect on the experiment
* Confounding variable: a type of extraneous variable that has a confounding effect on the dependent variable and its effects on the results may be confused with that of the independent variable; confounding variables are systematically occurring
* Non-standardised procedures: an extraneous variable that occurs when there is a difference in the way in which experimental conditions are delivered or administered to the participants
* Standardise: when a psychological test and all its associated procedures and conditions are the same each time a test is administered
* Artificiality: an extraneous variable whereby the unnatural environment in which an experiment is conducted impacts on participants’ behaviour
* Placebo: a fake or false treatment, used to that no participants know whether they’re being exposed to the experimental condition
* Placebo effect: when there is a change in a participant’s behaviour due to their expectation about the treatment
* Single-blind procedure: when the participants do not know whether they’ve been allocated to the control of experimental group
* Experimenter effect: unintentional change in participants’ behaviour, and hence results, due to the presence of an experimenter
* Double-blind procedure: neither the participants nor the experimenter know which participants have been assigned to the control and experimental groups
* Opportunistic sampling: selecting participants based on the researcher’s access to them or their availability
* Random sampling: selecting participants and ensuring every member of a population has an equal chance of being selected for the sample being used in the study
* Stratified sampling: breaking the population into strata based on characteristics they share and randomly selecting participants from each strata in the same proportions that they appear in the population
* Independent-measures: one group of participants for each condition, randomly allocated
* Repeated-measures: all participants are exposed to both control and experimental conditions
* Matched-pairs: pairing each participant based on a certain characteristic that they share
* Participant variables: individual differences in personal characteristics of research participants that, if not controlled, can confound the results of the experiment
* Order effects: a change in results due to the sequence in which two tasks are completed
* Counterbalancing: dividing the group of participants in half and arranging the order of the conditions so that each condition occurs equally as often in each position; counteracts the order effects of repeated-measures design
* Case study: a detailed study on a single person or small group of people
* Longitudinal study: repeated observations on the same group of participants
* Observational study: an individual observing another individual/group of people in their natural environment and recording observations about the behaviour they witness
* Observer bias: where the observer’s expectations, past experiences, motives and/or other personal factors interfere with the accuracy of their observations
* Cross-sectional study: where a researcher seeks to investigate two or more samples of participants at a particular point in time
* Self-reports: when individuals are asked to report on their own thoughts, emotions and beliefs by answering a series of questions on a particular topic
* Data: observable facts that researchers systematically collect
* Empirical evidence: information psychologists gain from direct observation and measurement
* Primary data: data sourced from fieldwork or experimentation
* Secondary data: data obtained through secondary sources such as other people’s journals or articles
* Subjective data: collected through observations of behaviour or information based on participants’ self-reports
  + Difficult to statistically analyse
  + Biased
* Objective data: collected under controlled conditions; often numerical and can be statistically analysed
  + Doesn’t provide reasoning behind information
* Qualitative data: changes in the quality of behaviour; often expressed in words
  + Difficult to categorise and statistically analyse
* Quantitative data: numbers or categories
  + Easily statistically analysed
* Descriptive statistics: statistics used to summarise, organise and describe data obtained from research
* Measures of central tendency: a calculation that shows how typical scores, or a majority of scores, fall in a data set
  + Mean: average score of a data set
    - Uses all available data
    - Easily calculated
  + Mode: the most commonly occurring score
    - Relatively unaffected by outliers
  + Median: the middle score of a data set
    - Relatively unaffected by outliers
* Spread of scores: variability of how data is spread
  + Range: the difference between highest and lowest values of a group of scores
  + Standard deviation: how far each individual piece of data differs from the mean
    - Low standard deviation means scores are clustered around the mean
    - High standard deviation indicates high variability
* Inferential statistics: statistics that allow an experimenter to make inferences/conclusions about data
* Statistical significance: a value used to indicate whether differences between the mean scores in sets of data for groups being studied are due to manipulation of the independent variable or chance
  + A p-value of ≤0.05 means something is statistically significant
* P-value: the probability level that results are due to chance only
* Correlation coefficient: a number describing the strength and direction of the relationship between different variables
  + Between -1 and +1
* Validity: the extent to which the results of a study reflect what the measurement instrument says it measures
* Population validity: whether results can be generalised to a group of people
* Ecological validity: degree to which observed behaviours reflect the behaviours that occur in natural settings
* Reliability: the extent to which an assessment tool measures what it is supposed to measure, consistently, each time it is used
* Internal validity: the approximate truth about inferences regarding causal relationships
* External validity: the extent to which results obtained from a study sample can be generalised to the population of interest
* Conclusion: a decision or judgement about the research results
* Generalisation: applying research findings to the wider population
* Ethics: moral principles and codes of conduct
* Confidentiality: the right of people to have information that is disclosed in a professional relationship kept within that relationship
* Voluntary participation: participants willingly decide to take part in the experiment
* Withdrawal rights: the right of the participant to cease their involvement in an experiment/withdraw their results from a study without negative consequences or pressure to continue
* Informed consent: permission given by the participant to take part in research, assessment or treatment, aware of why and what is involved
* Deception: failure to explain to participants the true nature of the experiment prior to their involvement in it
  + Used when giving participant information beforehand about the study could influence their behaviour and interfere with accuracy of results due to demand characteristics
* Demand characteristics: when participants change their behaviour to fit/satisfy perceived demands of the experimenter/study
* Debriefing: where participants are informed of the study’s true nature after its conclusion
  + The researcher must correct any mistaken attitudes/beliefs and explain all deception relating to the experiment
  + Participants must also have the opportunity to gain access to information about the study and counselling, as required

**PROS AND CONS OF STUDY TYPES**

* Experimental method:
  + Pros:
    - By holding variables constant, one can establish a cause-effect relationship between the independent and dependent variables
    - Force pace of research
    - Generates qualitative data that can be analysed using inferential statistics
    - High generalisability
  + Cons:
    - Over-representation
    - Observer effects
    - Often inappropriate of unethical
* Laboratory experiments:
  + Pros:
    - High replicability
    - Better measurement and quality equipment
    - Better control over variables
  + Cons:
    - Lacks ecological validity
    - Biased results
    - Ethical problems
    - Dehumanising
* Observational studies (non-experimental):
  + Pros:
    - High ecological validity
    - Rich in data
    - Less influence from demand characteristics
    - Used where difficult or unethical to manipulate variables
    - Generates hypotheses for further research
  + Cons:
    - Lack of control over variables
    - Difficult to conclude cause-effect
    - Observer bias
    - Low replicability
    - Ethical problems
* Questionnaires (non-experimental):
  + Pros:
    - Simple
    - Cheap
    - Quick
    - High replicability
    - Less influence from interpersonal variables
  + Cons:
    - Wording effect
    - Poor designs generate poor results
    - Low response rates
    - Researcher effects and bias
* Case studies (non-experimental):
  + Pros:
    - Suggest hypotheses for further study
    - Rich descriptive information/data
  + Cons:
    - Difficult to establish cause-effect
    - Often reliant on subjective interpretations