Year 12 Atar - Psychology Notes

# Biological: Week 1-4

## Structure and function of the nervous system:

## Central nervous system

* Consists of brain and spinal cord
* Brain 🡪 divided into the forebrain, cerebellum and brainstem

### Forebrain

* Location 🡪 uppermost part of
* Consists of 🡪 cerebrum, limbic system, thalamus + hypothalamus

### Cerebellum ‘little brain’

* Location 🡪 Below the cerebrum
* Consists of:
  + Nerve connections going to most sense organs + motor cortex
* Functions:
  + Motor control and body balance
    - Makes movements + actions coordinated and precise
    - Makes sure movement is at the right speed, direction and force
    - Movements = smooth not fast and jerky
  + Language + attention
  + Integrates input from sensory systems of other parts of the brain
* Damage 🡪 Ataxia – unsteady walking + shaky movements

### Brainstem

* Location 🡪 lowest part of the brain connecting with the brain + spinal cord
* Consists of 🡪 midbrain, pons, reticular system, medulla oblongata
* Functions:
  + Breathing + sleep patterns
  + Hunger + thirst
  + Blood pressure + heart rhythms + body temperature
  + Regulating the CNS
  + Sending main motor + sensory feeling to the face and neck

#### Midbrain

* Location 🡪 top of the brainstem
* Functions:
  + Relays messages via the thalamus to the rest of the forebrain
  + Important in vision + hearing + muscular movement
* Damage 🡪 degeneration = Parkinson’s disease, characterised by tremors

#### Pons

* Location 🡪 front of the brainstem
* Function 🡪 eye movement + chewing + facial expressions

#### Reticular system

* Consists of 🡪 neurons extending from the top to the bottom of the brainstem
* Function 🡪 sleep + arousal + attention
* Damage 🡪 Epilepsy – characterised by convulsions + seizures from reverberations

#### Medulla oblongata

* Location 🡪 lower half of the brainstem continuous with the spinal cord + links with pons
* Function 🡪 heart rate + breathing + blood pressure

### Cerebrum

* Function 🡪 controls motor + mental activity
* Associated mainly with the cerebral cortex
* Develops quickly during early childhood + becomes more convoluted and thicker with age
* Divides into the left + right hemisphere
  + Left 🡪 language processes
  + Right 🡪 visual imagery + emotions
* Contralateral 🡪 each hemisphere controls motor movements on the opposite side of the body

## Brain

* Consists of hindbrain + midbrain + forebrain

### Hindbrain

* Location 🡪 Base of brain near the back of the skull
* Consists of 🡪 brainstem + cerebellum
* Functions:
  + vital activities with no conscious control i.e. heart rate, breathing, sleeping and reflex actions
  + coordinating voluntary movement
* damage 🡪 walk like you’re drunk

### Midbrain

* location 🡪 top of the brainstem under the cerebral hemispheres
* functions:
  + receives messages from all senses except smell + sends them to higher brain regions dealing with hearing, seeing, tasting, touching
  + Receives replies it directs to places i.e. cerebellum

### Forebrain

* Most highly developed + largest part of the brain
* Function 🡪 major role in how we think + feel + behave
* Outer layer= cerebral cortex- wrinkled, soft, pinkish grey + 2 halves/ hemispheres separated by a deep groove
* Corpus callosum 🡪 thick band of fibres, sends messages from one hemisphere to another
* Left hemisphere function:
  + Gets sensory info. From right side of the body + controls movement on that side + vice versa.
  + Controls verbal functions- important in speaking, reading, writing and understanding language + in when we reason/ analyse + interpret info.
* Right hemisphere function:
  + Controls non-verbal activities i.e. drawing, doing jigsaw puzzles etc.…
  + Involved when doing spatial tasks i.e. following maps, recognising faces, finding ways through mazes

## Spinal cord

* Location 🡪 runs down from brainstem + major thoroughfare for messages between the brain and the rest of the body
* Consists of:
  + Efferent/ motor neurons 🡪 transmit info via. Impulses away from the brain
    - Motor nerves exit from ventral (abdominal) sides
  + Afferent/ sensory neurons 🡪 transmit info. via impulses towards the brain
    - Lead into the dorsal (back) side of each segment
* PNS originates in the 31 pairs of spinal nerves + 12 cranial that leave the brainstem at the top of the spinal cord
* Between the 2 sides= grey matter + surrounding it are neural pathways that characterise humans
* Most nerves combine both sensory + motor functions however there are functional differences in spinal nerves when they meet the cord splitting into the dorsal + ventral roots
* Cranial nerves
  + Carry sensory input from the skin or motor output to the muscles of the head/face
  + Carry sensory info. for vision + hearing + smell + balance
* Injury 🡪 depends where damage occurs
  + Paraplegia 🡪 lower part is paralysed
  + Quadriplegia 🡪 upper part is paralysed meaning full paralyses

## Peripheral nervous system

* Consists of nerves outside brain + spinal cord
* Functions:
  + Connects CNS to the rest of the body i.e. limbs, skin, muscles, organs
  + Serves as a communication pathway going back + forth between the brain and extremities
  + Communication = handled by different parts of PNS + subdivided into somatic and autonomic parts which is further subdivided into sympathetic + parasympathetic NS

### Somatic NS

* Function 🡪 monitoring bodily functions
* System of nerves communicating info. from sense organs🡪 CNS🡪 Muscles
* Receives sensory info. From organs i.e. skin, ears, eyes + communicates info. via sensory nerves to the CNS
* Carries messages from CNS along nerves to enable muscles to move voluntarily
* Sensations experienced
  + Involuntarily 🡪 wind blowing
  + Voluntarily 🡪 typing

### Autonomic NS

* Function 🡪 regulates involuntary functions
* System of nerves connected to the heart + glands + smooth muscles i.e. digestive and reproductive organs + tells brain what’s going on in these involuntary systems. Subdivided into the sympathetic + parasympathetic systems
* 2 systems – sympathetic + parasympathetic (work in opposite directions)

#### Sympathetic NS

* Function 🡪arouses the body to perform + act + react by activating bodily systems to react to threat, crisis or disaster - Manages body in times of stress
* Feelings 🡪 rapid heartbeats + Faster breathing + expanded lung capacity + dry mouth (salivation stops) + pupils dilate
* Changes= fight or flight response 🡪 Reactions enable you to increase amount of oxygen to the brain + muscles + increases field of vision. Helps you fight physically to face danger
* Impaired performance results in extreme, heightened arousal
* Long term arousal 🡪 mental problems + exhaustion

#### Parasympathetic NS

* Function 🡪 calms the body down to maintain + conserve energy (if previously aroused) + takes over for normal day- to – day living by maintaining normal bodily functions
* Feelings 🡪 heart rate goes down + breathe normally + salivate
* Assists with eating meals 🡪 process of eating i.e. salivation + stomach contractions

## Process of neural transmission:

## Structure of the neuron

* Brain = made up of nerve cells/ neurons + synapses which are connectors between these cells enabling messages to be transmitted from 1 neuron to another
* Features of neurons 🡪 cell body+ dendrites + axons
  + Cell body 🡪 contains nucleus controlling the maintenance + metabolic function of the cell. Energy needed for processes i.e. growth + repair is provided by the mitochondria in the cell body + dendrites
  + Dendrites 🡪 fine branches from the cell body that receive incoming info. From other neurons + transmit it to the cell body
  + Axons🡪transmit info. From the cell body to other neurons or cells in glands + muscles. In motor and sensory neurons the axon is surrounded by a fatty myelin sheath that protects it + assists it with speedy transmission of nerve impulses
* Signals between neurons occur at synapses

## Role of synapses

* With the development of the electron microscope scientists were able to differentiate individual cells + connections between them
* Historical belief 🡪 neural transmission occurred when an electrical impulse passed from one neuron to another through physical contact
* Models of synaptic transmission 🡪 rely on chemical balances in the cell + electrical transmission of impulses through the neuron
* Motor neurons that control muscle contractions have a cell body on one end, long axon in the middle + dendrites on the other end
* Sensory neurons have dendrites on both ends + are connected by a long axon with a cell body in the middle

## Role of neurotransmitters

* Neurotransmitter 🡪 chemicals that enable activity to travel across the synaptic gap between neurons
* Neurons 🡪 dopamine, serotonin, noradrenaline

### Dopamine

* Function 🡪 involved in learning + attention + pleasurable sensations
* Damage 🡪 degeneration causes Parkinson’s disease characterised by tremors, rigid movements + poor balance

### Serotonin

* Function 🡪 involved in sleep + mood
* Damage 🡪 deficit is linked to depression
* Prozac 🡪 increase the availability of serotonin in some brain regions

### Noradrenaline

* Function 🡪 helps body deal with danger/ threat + memory retrieval
* Damage 🡪 dysfunction = mental disorders especially depression
* Endorphins function:
  + Regulate our feelings + perceptions of pain
  + Body’s natural pain –killing drugs
  + Manufactured + released in stress
  + Released when you experience a ‘positive mood’ aka ‘high’ assoc. with running

## Roles of the four lobes of the cerebral cortex:

## The cerebral cortex

* Hemispheres = subdivided into 2 lobes defined by deep grooves (fissures) in the cortex + have separate functions
* Lobes 🡪 frontal, temporal, occipital and parietal

### Frontal lobe

* Consists of 🡪 primary motor cortex + brocas area
* Function 🡪 thinking, decision making, feeling, behaviour + a coordinating role as it coordinates many of the functions of other lobes + determines the behavioural response. It’s the final place for a lot of sensory info.

#### Primary motor cortex

* Functions:
  + Generates neural impulses that pass down to the spinal cord to plan + control the execution of movement
  + Control of voluntary body movements through control of skeletal muscles (those attached to our arms, legs, back and facial muscles)
* Location 🡪 the back (posterior) of frontal lobe
* Left side controls right sides body movement

#### Brocas area – Paul Broca

* Function 🡪 production of speech
* Location 🡪 left frontal lobe
* Damage ‘brocas aphasia’ 🡪 deficit in language production. Individual knows that they want to say but can’t get the words out. Reason for it is unknown + vary

### Parietal lobe

* Location 🡪 behind the frontal lobe + on top of the cortex
* Functions:
  + Bodily sensations i.e. touch + other skin sensations i.e. temp + pain + processes these bodily functions
  + Spatial awareness + some aspects of speech
* Damage:
  + Right hemisphere – loss of imagery + visualisation of spatial relationships + neglect of the left side space + left side of body
  + Left hemisphere – problems in maths + reading + writing
* Parietal association cortex 🡪 enables reading, writing and math problems

### Occipital lobe

* Location 🡪 directly behind + below the parietal lobe
* Functions:
  + Visual functions of the eye
  + Provides very quick responses to the visual environment
  + Visual perception + colour recognition
* Damage 🡪 visual problems i.e. full/partial blindness or word blindness (alexia+ agraphia). Not prone to damage due to its location
* Primary visual cortex 🡪 this region receives visual input from the retina of which are interpreted in this lobe

### Temporal lobe

* Location 🡪 base of cortex
* Functions:
  + Auditory perception – hearing, language, speech production
  + Memory
  + Receives info. from the ears + interprets the different sounds ears hear
* Consists of structures i.e. 🡪 limbic system, amygdala, hippocampus, Wernicke’s area

#### Wernicke’s area

* Function 🡪 speech production
* Damage ‘Wernicke’s aphasia’ 🡪 condition in which language comprehension is impaired while speech production remains normal therefore receptive language is impaired. Gets words out that don’t make sense

## Factors affecting behaviour, emotion + thought:

## Heredity- the role of genetics

* Heredity 🡪 plays a big role in the areas of physical growth+ development and intelligence
* Conception 🡪 sperm (man) penetrates the lining of an ovum/ egg (woman) and they each release their genetic material and form a new cell known as a zygote
* Zygote
  + Contains ‘recipe’ that directed the development of tis single cell into a human.
  + Info. is contained on 46 chromosomes, each of which contains thousands of genes (basic units of heredity)
* Chromosomes
  + Occur in matched pairs except on the 23rd pair i.e. the sex chromosomes (males – XY, females – XX)
  + Develops from a single cell through a process known as mitosis
* Mitosis 🡪 zygote divides into 2 cells, each of which also split etc.… just before each division, cell duplicates each set of chromosomes, move in opposite directions within the cell. As the cell divides, each new cell gets half the chromosomes.
* Meiosis🡪 chromosome pairs cross + break at 1 + points along their length, exchanging bits of genetic material therefore each chromosome is combined in different ways to the original one wen the cell splits, only one of the pair goes to each new cell = sperm/ egg that only has 2 3chromosomes. When sperm + egg unite the resulting zygote has the full set of 46 chromosomes
* Humans have germ cells which produce sperm + eggs
* Genes:
  + Guide how we develop physically, ensure some of our cells become brain cells + others become skin cells, bone cells etc.…
  + Regulate the production of pigment in our bodies i.e. eyes/ skin
  + Regulate pace + timing of development i.e. age which first teeth appear, growth spurts, puberty + menopause
* Environment 🡪 affects outcome for our development i.e. child may inherit tall trait however inadequate nutrition early in life = shortness
* Epigenetics
  + Study of the transmission of info. from 1 generation to the next through genetic inheritance that affect the traits of the offspring without alteration of the DNA or environmental factors
  + Molecular changes can be added to DNA + result in cellular changes causing i.e. cancer
  + Semen + intelligence= related therefore genetics influence drawing

## Hormones

* Hormones
  + Chemical messengers produced by endocrine glands
  + Travel through bloodstream + affect parts of the body i.e. brain therefore influencing interest in food etc... and influencing our moods + affecting our growth
  + Hormone messages = slower than NS

### Adrenal glands

* Adrenal hormones 🡪 adrenaline + noradrenaline aka epinephrine + norepinephrine
* Function 🡪 works with sympathetic NS to speed up bodily reactions to danger
* Prepare us to deal in emergencies by triggering ‘fight or flight’ response
* Effect
  + Muscle contraction, increased respiration, increased heart rate, deeper + faster breathing + pupil dilation
  + May continue to feel it later as its still in the bloodstream
  + Noradrenaline keeps us alert
  + Adrenaline = heightened in exercises “Adrenaline rush”
  + Act as neurotransmitters in the NS but have localised transmission function

### Thyroid gland

* Hormones 🡪 thyroxine
* Function 🡪 for brain + NS to develop properly
* Developed by the 4th month after conception
* Damage
  + Thyroxin deficiency- becomes intellectually deficient
  + Develop thyroxin after brain has developed= grow slowly

### Pituitary gland ‘master gland’

* Function 🡪 role in changes that occur at puberty, the time of sexual maturation
* Girls
  + Stimulates ovaries to produce more oestrogen
  + Growth spurt in girls, changes in uterus growth of hair
  + Women experience menopause in their late 40/50s meaning menstrual period stops + decline in the production of oestrogen
* Boys
  + Produce more testosterone in testes
  + Growth of penis, prostrate, voice changes + development of facial + body hair, growth spurt, growth of muscles + broadening of the back
  + Men have a small decrease in testosterone production
* Hormones
  + Triggers release of hormones from all other glands
  + Produces growth hormone- stimulates growth + development of body cells
* Function (GH) 🡪 normal growth + development released into bloodstream 60-90 min. after sleep
* Damage of GH 🡪 By adulthood they only reach 130 cm (Short)

## Psychoactive drugs

### Depressants

* Function 🡪 ‘downers’ that calm the activity of the NS + slows the body’s functions
* Example – alcohol + can be addictive

### Hallucinogens

* Functions:
  + change our perception + give us sensory images without input from the senses
  + mind-altering drugs that change perceptions
* example 🡪 natural origin i.e. marijuana or synthetic i.e. LSD (lysergic acid diethylamide)

#### Marijuana (mild hallucinogen)

* function 🡪 reduce inhibitions + increase sensitivity to sounds, colours, tastes and smells

#### LSD (lysergic acide diethylamide)

* function 🡪 ‘Trip’ can range from euphoria- intense, pleasant images to absolute terror + panic
* mood + expectation of user can affect nature of ‘trip’

#### Heroin

* what it is 🡪 narcotic/ opiate
* opiates
  + mimic endorphins- bodies painkillers
  + alter patients reactions to pain by reducing the brains perception of pain (morphine= used medically)
* feeling of euphoria followed by feelings of calmness + peacefulness
  + euphoria 🡪 increases mental alertness + self confidence
* withdrawal 🡪 unpleasant side effects i.e. fevers, cramps, gastro-intestinal problems

### Stimulants

* function 🡪 ‘uppers’ that excite the NS + arouse the body’s functions
* example 🡪 caffeine, nicotine, amphetamines, cocaine, ecstasy , ice
* Amphetamines:
  + suppresses appetite- used to be ‘diet pill’
  + function 🡪 elevates mood + produces sense of euphoria
* tolerance builds up quickly
* cocaine 🡪 causes form of psychosis with auditory hallucination + strange, paranoid ideas

#### Ecstasy

* + heightened emotions + connectedness
  + risk 🡪 dehydration + energetic dancing = overheating, increased blood pressure or death
  + deflated mood, memory loss + damage to the disease- fighting immune system
* research by Kylie Mccardle + colleagues (2004)
  + Individuals with a history of it have higher levels of depression than non-users + have difficulty storing info. In LTM + were easily distracted+ less efficient at focusing attention on complex tasks. A loss of mental flexibility + difficulty in switching between tasks

#### Methylamphetamine (ice/meth + powerful stimulant)

* functions:
  + very intense high (4-12 hours)
  + exhilaration, increased arousal + activity levels
  + feels more alert + awake + suppresses appetite
  + receptors flooded with monoamines (neurotransmitters) + can be destroyed and prolonged use leads to the user no longer feeling pleasure without further ice use
* damage
  + brain + mental health conditions i.e. memory loss, depression + psychosis
  + can affect social + Family relations and can lead to financial problems

# Research methods: Week 5-9

## Ethics in Psychology:

### Role of the experimenter

* must be objective to ensure the researcher has no effect on the behaviour being observed/ recorded or on the results
* experimenter effect (Rosnow + Rosenthal, 1977) 🡪 experimenters values + beliefs can influence the research process at any point
  + researchers acknowledge any expectations + potential biases + put in place strategies to minimise these as far as possible through physical + emotional distance from the study

### Participants’ rights

#### Privacy

* right of protection from unwanted intrusion by gov. or others into ones affairs
* Collection, storage + sharing of personal info.
* Privacy laws 🡪 protect personal info. given to medical practitioners
* Current privacy legislation ‘light touch’ 🡪 not strictly controlling + deals mainly with the collection, storage and use of personal info. + a person’s right to amend factual details if they’re wrong

#### Anonymity

* Protection of peoples identity through not disclosing their name
* Surveys 🡪 people often don’t write their name or any ID

#### Confidentiality

* Relationship between a professional i.e. psychologist + patient and refers to the degree of secrecy attached to the info. given
* These relationships are built on trust + depend on it
* Understanding info. given by patient won’t be disclosed to anyone else unless patient consents to that disclosure + under legal circumstances

#### Voluntary participation

* Participants must not be pressured/ coerced to participate
* Researchers can’t offer inducements i.e. tickets to encourage participation

#### Right to withdraw

* Participants have this right at any stage of the experiment
* Must be informed of right before they give consent
* Ethical issue 🡪 giving full info. about the nature of the study may affect their behaviour during it + affect the accuracy

### Informed consent

* Those taking part in the study should know why it’s being carried out + what’s expected
* If this compromises the study the researcher must ensure no distress is experiences + debrief
* If participants’ too young/ inable mentally then parent/guardian (legally responsible) must consent
* Must agree to participate on their own accord therefore no bribery or threats i.e. exclusion from a treatment program
* Must be informed they can withdraw at any time without penalty + will suffer no disadvantage + no reason is needed
* Participants must be advised of any consequences of withdrawal

### Deception in research

* Deception 🡪 researcher hiding the real reason of an experiment
* Used to reduce the likelihood participants will behave different
* Must make sure participant will not be stressed, distressed or embarrassed by the deception
* Must be debriefed 🡪 explain real reason of study + why deception was necessary
* Experimenter effect should be avoided

### Professional conduct

* Any psychological, medical or scientific work + must comply with the national statement of ethical conduct in human research 2007 + (psychologists) the Australian psychological society’s code of ethics. Both explain researchers must act according to agree upon principles for the ethical conduct of psychological research.
* Beneficence 🡪 the benefits to the person must outweigh any risks
  + Research must be submitted for approval + the benefits + risks need to be justified
  + Welfare of human participants must not be compromised

## Practical issues associated with planning + conducting research:

## Identify a research issue/ problem to investigate

* What topic/ question to study + explore
* Test or develop a theory or find answers to a practical problem

## Develop the exact research question/ hypothesis

* Working out of a specific question for your exploratory research or testing of a specific prediction (hypothesis)
* Hypothesis 🡪 making a prediction about the relationship between 2 variables that can be tested. This is based on previous work/ knowledgeable hunch

## Choose a research design/ method

* Process(s) used to collect data
* Experiment, observation, correlation, survey, interview, rating scales

## Collect data

* The gathering of evidence
* Through observation, questionnaire, interview, reaction times, responses etc.…

## Examine the evidence

* Data analysis + summarising
* Use of sample + complex statistical techniques to manipulate the numerical data obtained

## Interpret the results

* The meaning of the findings i.e. do they support hypothesis? Do they answer questions? Who do they apply to?

## Communicate the findings

* Reporting + explanation of the findings through writing (reports, journals etc.… ) or talking (conferences, interested parties)
* Theoretical implications + practical applications of research = known to others in the same area, public, interested parties

## Differences between sample + population data:

* Sample
  + Subset of the pop. of interest
  + Important feature is ensuring it accurately reflects the pop. of study
  + Must be carefully selected so any results can be generalised or applied to the pop.
  + Must reflect the characteristics of the pop. of interest
  + In studies with children, samples must reflect issues that may be important in the interpretation of the results i.e. age, gender, school
* Representative sample 🡪 size of the sample is taken into account if variables are to be studied. The same as the pop. from which its drawn
* Population 🡪 refers only to entire groups of research interest i.e. global, humans

## Research terminology:

* Experiments🡪 conducted to test whether one thing, or a variable influences or causes a change in another thing or variable e.g. does eating a lot of pizza (variable) cause a change in weight (variable)
* Non-experimental methods 🡪 involves observation + collection of data i.e. watching behaviours of others + recording it i.e. interviews, case studies
* Scientific methods 🡪 systematic approach to the planning, conducting + reporting of research in i.e. experiments. Researchers collect empirical evidence/ data to draw valid conclusions
* Non-scientific approach 🡪 not based on science + called pseudoscience as they have no scientific foundation i.e. astrology, religion, numerology

## Features of experimental research methods:

## Variables

* Independent variables🡪 the manipulated variable, experimenter can change it independently. Causes change in second variable (DV)
* Dependent variables 🡪 second variable, may change due to manipulation of the IV. Usually a numerical variable
* Uncontrolled variable🡪 Allowed to stay at random as it wouldn’t have any effects on the outcome

## Hypothesis

* Operational hypothesis🡪 those guiding current research, predicted answers to a proposed research question. Based on theory that provides the basis for the predicted answer
  + Null hypothesis 🡪 rarely used unless to show no differences, predicts there will be no change in the DV after manipulation of IV
* Test by way of experiment + can never be fully proved as something may occur/ intervene that affects the action of the IV

## Groups

* Experimental groups
  + Participants = allocated into 1 or 2 groups that need to be as similar as possible
  + Subjected to the manipulation of the IV
* Control groups
  + Not exposed to the IV
  + Provides a standard against which the behaviour of the experimental group can be compared in order to assess whether the IV has had an affect or caused a change in the DV

## Placebo effects - Placebo

* ‘dummy pill’ / harmless substance, pretend IV given
* Sometimes given to a control group blind to their status
* 2 groups = given a pill, one of which is of experimental interest to researchers + other is placebo. The effects of each pill can be measured in terms of health outcomes

## Experimenter effects

* Experimenters own personal variables as well as his/her expectations + behaviours that may be bias results due to inaccurate observation, recording or interpretation of the data, or simple bias in the way experiment is presented to the participants

## Reliability

* Reliable 🡪 good measures must be consistent within themselves + across time
* 2 ways we consider reliability 🡪 internal consistency + test-retest reliability
* Internal consistency
  + Split-half method 🡪 20 item scale measuring depression. Responses for the first 10 terms = consistent with responses to the 2nd 10 items
  + Test-retest reliability 🡪 Compares how people perform on a test once and on it later expecting consistency
* Measured in terms of correlation🡪 very high positive correlation is a score of 1 meaning there is perfect agreement between the 2 halves

## Validity

* Face validity🡪 most straightforward measure of validity “does this test measure what it claims”
* Construct validity 🡪 whether test items are in keeping with the constructs on which the test was based i.e. personality test would have items relating to the 3 constructs believed to make up personality – extraversion, neuroticism + psychoticism
* Concurrent validity 🡪 compare peoples performance on the scale were interested in with their performance on one that we already know a lot about. And look at the strength of the relationship between them which is frequently done when a new scale is being developed
* Predictive validity 🡪 extent to which it can predict other attributes/ behaviours thought to be related to the constructs tested. Usually interested in personality tests

## Longitudinal design

* Study the same group of people at different points in time i.e. months or years
* No concerns about the cohort effect
* Limitations:
  + People moving + unable to be traced
  + Participants dying
  + Practice effects 🡪 better due to task being repeated
  + Cross-generational problem 🡪children are drawn from 1 cohort and may have different experiences at each point of their lifespan i.e. grandparents + us

## Longitudinal- sequential design

* Combines features of the cross-sectional + longitudinal design
* Groups of participants are followed over time as in a longitudinal study however at each measurement point a new group is added that’s the same age as the first group at the first measurement point
* Let’s us look for changes in individuals across time, as in a longitudinal design + age differences in behaviour as in a cross-sectional design
* Checks for cohort effects
* Powerful however rarely used as its complex + expensive

## Cross – sectional design

* Takes into account age-related development changes by comparing children of different ages i.e. examine performances of 5,7,9 year olds
* Participants at each age level come from different cohorts
  + Cohort🡪 group of people the same age who have experienced the same cultural conditions + environmental events
  + Cohort effect 🡪 children in older groups may have been exposed to a particular educational program thus changing the way they reason (limitation)
* Frequently used due to being quick and easy

## Features of non-experimental (descriptive) research methods:

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Method** | **Description** | **Advantages** | **Disadvantages** |
| Case study | * An intensive study of an individual | * Provide the opportunity for detailed knowledge about a single ‘case’ or a small number of related ‘cases’ * Can study things otherwise impossible to study (e.g. brain damage) | * No fixed experimental design nor hypotheses that guide the research * Single subject may not be representative e.g. might be a fluke * Only describe behaviour; don’t tell us cause and effect or why |
| Surveys | * Feedback is collected from people * Can be done over the phone, face to face, online (using e.g. survey monkey) | * Provide quick answers about people’s attitudes to and preferences for various goods and services and are used so that the providers for those goods and services can plan their marketing strategies. * Can measure attitudes, motives and opinions; help providers for goods and services plan their marketing strategies * Can get a lot of data easily | * They can take too long * People are disinterested in completing them * Wording of this question can drastically affect results * Relies on honesty and reflection of participants * Small rate of return is not likely to be representative * Only describe behaviour; don’t tell us cause and effect or why |
| Correlation studies | * Look at the relationship between different variables * Generally used in cross-sectional studies looking at a number of variables at a single point in time * Can be used in prediction studies | * Don’t necessarily require the use of the particular statistical technique known as correlation that measures the direction and strength of the relationship between variables to be interpreted * Useful for predicting behaviour * Provides quantitative data about the strength of the relationship | * If there is a relationship between variables it’s not necessarily a casual (cause and effect) one * Only describe behaviour, do not tell us cause and effect (or “why?”) |
| Archival research | * Examination of old, usually written, material found in places like libraries, government buildings, law courts and universities * Used by historians and writers who re-analyse records to better understand events that happened in the past |  |  |
| Naturalistic observation |  | * Results have ecological (real world) significance | * Only describe behaviour, do not tell us cause and affect or why |
| **Experimentation** |  |  |  |
| Experiment |  | * Can be used to determine cause an effect relationships | * May lack ecological (real- world) significance * Ethical issues may limit possibilities |

## Subjective quantitative measures in research- checklists + rating scales i.e. Likert scales:

* Rating scales have been developed for a range of abilities, attitudes, view + opinions
* Tests provide a scale in which an individual’s standing on an issue can be measured + commonly used for attitude measurement although same principles apply to the development of any rating scale
* Commonly have a number of items, single item can’t measure a person’s attitude towards something
* Range of statements are used to which a person rates their attitude + having set items means researcher can pull together the responses + build up a picture of that persons attitude meaning items have to be carefully composed so they relate to the attitude being measured and need to have the assignment of numbers to particular answers so meaningful conclusions can be reached
* Most common scale 🡪 Likert scale devised by Likert in the 1930s

## Likert scale

* Measures responses to a series of statements about an issue
* Each statement represents a positive or negative position with respect to the issue
* Respondents indicate the extent to which they support/ disagree with a statement
  + Range = strongly agree, agree, neutral, disagree, strongly disagree
  + Circle 1-5 1= strongly agree + 5= strongly disagree
* Researcher scores the answers + adds them up providing a measure of the strength of the attitude held by the respondent
* Half the items are stated in support of the issue + half against it + must take this into account when assigning the score for each response

## Behavioural variables in correlational studies

* Non- experimental methods investigation relationship between 2 + variables and degree and type of relationship
* Behavioural variables 🡪 pre-exist + cannot be varied as an IV
* Strength describes the relationship i.e. strong, moderate or weak
* If correlation coefficient = + 1 that indicates a very strong positive correlation and -1 is vice versa
* Bivariate correlation 🡪 only 2 variables
* Multivariate correlation 🡪 more than 2 variables

## Methods of displaying quantitative data:

* Frequency table 🡪 to get data i.e. row = person and column= responses
* Graph 🡪 bar chart/ histogram in which height of each bar is the frequency of each value in table
* Frequency polygon 🡪 place a single point for the total values at each age + draw line between points

## Sources of error in data + ways of reducing these:

* Types of error: 2 types🡪 Non-sampling errors and Sampling errors
* Random allocation 🡪 ensures each participant has an equal chance of being selected for experimental or control group
* Stratified random sampling 🡪 dividing the population into groups/ strata where each group has a particular characteristic i.e. males + females and its usual to have the numbers of each group reflecting the relative number of the population
* Proportionate sampling 🡪 different age or ethnic groups
* Disproportionate sampling 🡪 small, rare groups are oversampled to ensure there is at least some representation of the stratum which is seen in medical research
* Snowball sampling 🡪 researcher identifies particular individuals of interest ‘informants’ who are interviewed + then provide names of others of interest in the population who may consent to being interviewed for the study

## Participant sources of error

* Hawthorne effect 🡪 knowing they are part of a study leads them to change their behaviour
* Example 🡪 experiments designed to evaluate the effectiveness of drugs
  + Changes behaviours in members of the experimental group due to expectation of drug effects not necessarily because of the drugs
* Single- blind procedure 🡪 participants are given a placebo ‘neutral substance’ so they are unaware if they are getting the real deal or not and now any differences in the effects of the drug should be due to the drug itself rather than beliefs of the treatment
* Participants may be cooperative + behave in ways they wouldn’t normally due to expectation
* Participant may attempt to outwit the experimenter and behave in ways opposite of what they think is expected

## Experimenter sources of error

* Experimenter effect 🡪 Experimenters actions affect how the participants respond, especially if one group is treated differently from another
* Experimenter bias🡪 can appear when person measure the DV knows which group the participant is in
  + Verbal responses being interpreted in a particular way
  + Assistance given on tests etc.…
* Incorrect conclusions can be reached if experimenter bias occurs so for this reason experimenters use a double-blind procedure
* Double- blind procedure 🡪 neither participant of person collecting the data knows which group the participant is in meaning they’re both ‘blind’ to group membership
* Randomised controlled trials 🡪 ‘gold standard’ in research where participants are randomly allocated to the experimental group or control group however this causes ethical + practical issues

## Qualitative methods of data collection:

* Include self – report, interview + focus groups
* Interview= most common type and involve researcher asking a series of questions + receiving answers to those
* Types of interviews:
  + Structured 🡪 predetermined questions in a pre-set order with fixed wording
  + Semi-structured interview 🡪 predetermined questions however order of asking varies depending on circumstances + answers that are being elicited. Wording can be varied + explanations given if needed and questions can be omitted or added
  + Unstructured interview 🡪 conversation around the researcher’s general area of interest. Informal + casual but often in- depth
* Interview 🡪 open-ended questions typically focused on a particular area of interest
* Qualitative interviews are suitable in the following circumstances:
  + Study focuses on the meaning of a particular phenomenon to the participants
  + Prospective processes are to be introduced, in an organisation for example, and perceptions of possible change are needed
  + Study wishes to obtain historical perspective on a phenomenon
  + Exploratory work is required prior to an experimental study to ascertain the validity of the research
  + Qualitative data are required to validate the results of a quantitative study + help elucidate interpretation of the results (Robson, 2011)

## Objective quantitative measures in research

* Generally physiological measures
* Include things like brain waves, heart rate, body temp. + electrical conductivity of the skin
* Lie detector works using these measures

# Relational: Week 1-2

## Types of solutions to resolve conflict:

## Conflict

* Perception that 2 parties (individuals/groups) have incompatible goals, ideas/ behaviours even though this may not be the case thus resulting in conflict
* When an individual’s needs aren’t being met.
* When people are involved they become enmeshed in a social process that’s potentially destructive= bad results

## Solution

* Various methods used to try to resolve conflicts

## Imposed solution

* Dictated solutions🡪 Stronger party or third party imposes solution
* Example🡪 When a mother settles a dispute between brothers about who can use the family car on Saturday night
* Result🡪 One party winning + another being dissatisfied + underlying conflict staying unresolved

## Distributive solution

* Involves compromise/ mutual concessions
* Example🡪 Seen in industrial disputes where wages may be set at a level somewhere between what’s desired by employers and employees

## Integrative solution

* Win- win solution 🡪 both sides benefit from the decision reached
* More difficult than reaching compromise as it involves understanding both parties’ motives, values and goals + tries to ensure the motives of each party are addressed rather than focusing on explicit demands
* Example 🡪 Follett (1940, cited in Thompson & Hastie, 1990) Dispute between 2 sisters over an orange. The sisters agreed to compromise and cut the orange in half – a distributive solution. One sister drank the juice + threw the peel away whilst the other used the peel in a cake + threw the juice away when the integrative solution would’ve been for one sister to have all the juice and the other to have all the peel.

## Techniques for resolving conflict:

### Method of resolution

* When resolving conflict all parties have to communicate with each other otherwise they are seen as immature and this behaviour can lead to further consequences.
* If situation is explosive an intermediary i.e. counsellor or mediator is required.

## Mediation

* Whose involved 🡪 third parties to help settle conflict
* What it is:
  + Mediators help the parties in a dispute to focus on the issues + reach a voluntary solution, either distributive or integrative
  + In arbitration the third party has the right to hand down a decision after listening to both parties present their arguments. This leads to an imposed solution.
  + Mediators arrange times, venues and agendas for meetings so they do not add fuel to the conflict
* When is it used 🡪 When a solution has to be made + parties can’t do it on their own
* What factors are important for effective resolution 🡪 Mediators help parties see common ground + improve relationships between them + stop them getting themselves into untenable positions.

## Negotiation

* Whose involved 🡪 parties who have some shared + opposing interests i.e. countries trying to reach trade agreements or groups of friends deciding what movie to watch
* What it is🡪 Parties come together to try to reach an agreement
* When is it used 🡪When parties want to try to reach an agreement
* What factors are important for effective resolution 🡪Negotiators typically learned about the potential for joint gain during negotiations

## Counselling

* Whose involved🡪 families
* What it is:
  + One/ both parties work with a counsellor in an effort to develop skills to help them deal with the conflict/solve it directly
  + Counsellor will be trying to help their client(s) solve their own problems rather than provide them with solutions
  + Help improve the clients’ listening skills so they hear what the other party is saying
  + Will help clients develop assertiveness so they can express their opinions/ concerns clearly and forcefully without becoming aggressive.
* When it’s used 🡪 When relationships within families break down because of poor communication
* What factors are important for effective resolution🡪Helping the client solve their own problems rather than give them answers

### Mirror- image perceptions – in conflict

* Each party tends to form reciprocal/ distorted perceptions of the other that are very alike
* Behaviour is seen in a wide range of conflicts e.g. disagreements with siblings, family custody disputes, industrial wrangling and international disputes
* Describe ‘them’ in terms of incompetent, untrustworthy, evil, immoral
* Describe ‘we’ as a model of competence, integrity, virtue and high moral values
* These biased perceptions lead to an escalation in hostility when people assume that ‘our’ motives are positive + ‘their’ motives are negative
* Example about nuclear arms🡪 ‘We’ need them for self-protection + ‘they’ need them for ‘aggression’.
* Example about domestic disputes🡪 Mother may be convinced her son leaves his room messy ‘just to annoy me’ whilst the son is convinced his mother cleans it ‘just to irritate him’

## Socialisation processes observed within families

### Socialisation

* The values, beliefs and behaviours thought as important/ appropriate to function effectively as a member of society.
* Factors that affect our socialisation= agents of socialisation e.g. families, schools, media etc.…

### Attachment- Fletcher and Garton

* What it is:
  + Formation of a strong emotional tie between a mother/caregiver + her baby
  + Ainsworth, Cohen, Bowlby, Harlow 🡪 “ A relatively long enduring tie in which the partner is important as a unique individual and is inter-changeable with no-other”
* There is a sensitive period in which this bonding can occur + failure to establish this leads to poor socialisation + emotional development later on in life.
* Before the mid-20th century psychologists believed feeding was the primary cause of attachment between a mother + child (later debunked)

#### Harlow- rhesus monkey study

* Study suggest that warmth + touch (cuddly) was more important than feeding.
* Contact comfort🡪 what he called this essential close physical interaction of which is more important in developing attachment rather than feeding the child.
* Studies showed monkeys experienced great anxiety if their terry- cloth mother was removed

#### Attachments and relationships- strange situation

* Bowlby and Ainsworth supposed that caregivers who were:
  + Responsive to infant distress + demands = secure infant
  + Inconsistent responsiveness= ambivalent infants
  + A low level of response= avoidant infants

### Ainsworth (1971) findings

* There are three main attachment types:
  + Securely attached (70%)
  + Insecure- avoidant (20%)
  + Insecure- resistant (10%)
* Ainsworth saw the most important feature of a mothers behaviour as sensitivity
  + Sensitive mother🡪 constantly accessible + responds to baby’s needs as they arrived
  + Insensitive mother 🡪 interacts with the baby on her own terms + ignores the baby signals

|  |  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- | --- |
| **Classification of behaviour (strange situation)** | **Insecure attachment- avoidant (Type A)** | **Secure attachment (Type B)** | **Insecure attachment- resistant (Type C)** |
| Caregivers behaviour | May ignore infant | Sensitive | Ambivalent |
| Willingness to explore | High | High | Low |
| Anxiety towards stranger | Low | High | High |
| Separation anxiety | Indifferent | Some, easy to soothe | Distressed |
| Behaviour at reunion with caregiver | Avoid contact | Enthusiastic | Seeks and rejects |
| Behaviour at school | Behaviour problems, lack persistence in learning, bullies | Deal well with challenging situations, good at problem solving | Overly dependent on teachers for help and attention, lack confidence and self- esteem, socially withdrawn, victims |
| Adult romantic behaviour | Find it difficult to trust or depend on others completely | Find it easy to get close to others, comfortable depending on others and having others depend on them | Find others are reluctant to get as close as they would like- may scare others away |

### Criticisms of strange situation

* Culturally biased 🡪 created + tested in the USA
* May distort behaviour due to artificial situation
* Unethical 🡪 causes distress
* Is the classification valid? – main + Solomon (1986) added fourth attachment type called disorganised attachment

### Parenting styles

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Permissive   * Parental acceptance of children * Few rules/ guidelines for the children to follow with little control from parents * Activities: not closely monitored +   allowed to express themselves as they please   * Sometimes referred to as ‘indulgent parenting’ as the parents are non-directive + lenient | Authoritative   * Parents demands are reasonable * Make sure children understand the reason they set the rules * Example 🡪 be home by 10 because you have to wake up early * Responsive to children’s viewpoints * As children grow older they involve them in the decision-making process * Warm + responsive in their interactions however expect their children will follow the rules * Result🡪 mature, independent+ age- appropriate behaviours from their children |
| Authoritarian   * Demand obedience from children * Set many rules + few explanations for them * Example 🡪 be home by 10 just because * Use power/ withdrawal of love to enforce rules * Not interested in alternative viewpoints * Demanding+ strict + high expectations of compliance to parental rules | Uninvolved parenting   * Either rejected their children or are so overwhelmed by their stresses they have no time/ energy left for them * Don’t set limits/ enforce behaviour or show interest in their children * Its sometimes termed ‘neglectful parenting’ as it is ‘hands off’ |

# Communication: Week 2-7

### Definition:

* Transmission of a message from one person to another
* What is communicated depends on the content of the message + how it’s conveyed

## Communication styles

* Cultural +social aspects of language
* Depends on the culture we’re raised in + our socioeconomic background+ our gender
* Involves accents + vocabulary + grammar + the type of ideas we try to express
* Thought of as an attribute- something we have/ are
* Part of our self- image + something others make judgements about us from

## Impact of social background:

* Linguists now accept that language styles are simply differences in language use rather than one style being superior to another however prejudices against particular styles still exist

### Basil Bernstein (1971)

* British sociologist🡪 conducted a study of working + middle class children in the 1970’s
* Theory: Working class children
  + Disadvantaged in the school system by their ‘language code’ = language deficit as they could only use the inferior restricted code
  + This theory = major influence on education programs for young children in the US in the 60s- 70s with various projects e.g. head start being set up to help poor children overcome their educational disadvantage.

#### Language codes - Bernstein

* 2 types of ‘codes’ / styles of language used + children adopt one depending on their social class
  + **Restricted code**- used by the working class
    - Conversation relied on preserving traditional roles + ways of interacting
  + **Elaborated code**- used by middle/ upper class
    - Those who wanted to develop ideas in relation to their personal experiences used both

#### Examples of different codes

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Restricted code | Elaborated code |
| * Short + simple sentences * Most info= conveyed non-verbally | * Complex + precise sentences |
| * Most meaning only makes sense if context is known * E.g. he put it over there | * Meaning = clear from the sentence alone * E.g. he put the spade in the shed |
| * Few descriptive words used | * More use is made of descriptive words |
| * Commands are used to gain compliance | * Explanations are used to gain compliance |
| * The ‘here and now’ is stressed | * Events in the past/ future are referred to |
| * Abstract ideas are rarely expressed | * Abstract ideas, future possibilities and so on are expressed easily and often |

### William Labov (1970) – contrasted Bernstein

* Study 🡪 Black children from New York who spoke Black English Vernacular (BEV) considered just as difficult + rule-governed as Standard English.
  + E.G. ‘He doesn’t known anything’ would be ‘He don’t know nothing’
* Theory 🡪 Should just be considered different not a deficit
* Several European languages used double negatives in the same way as BEV and was concerned that teachers were being told to not accept BEV as it was ‘useless for learning’.
  + “They are being taught to hear every natural utterance of the child as evidence of his mental inferiority. As linguists, we are unanimous in condemning this view as bad observation, bad theory and bad practice.”

## Communication styles

### Gender differences

* Deborah Tannen (1990)🡪 described styles considered to be typical of women and men

#### Women – rapport talk

* Based on establishing relationships (to connect) + developing understanding + negotiating differences
* Enjoy private conversation more than men which requires sharing experiences
* Indirect requests**-**  “would you mind closing the door”
* Confirmatory noises to indicate listening– ‘mmm’ + ‘yeah’
* Hedge 🡪 grammatical form commonly used to soften requests/ statements – “Please shut the door, if you don’t mind” (if you don’t mind= hedge).
  + Dallos 1996🡪 Used as strategic device rather than signs of powerlessness

#### Men- report talk

* used in public speaking to talk to get to a solution – not universally true
* When telling jokes/ stories or imparting info. they are comfortable with holding centre stage
* use talk as a way of gaining + holding attention of their audience+ negotiate and maintain status
* Direct requests **-** “ shut the door”
* Dallos (1996) – hedges are used by both men and women

#### Issues

* Friction between genders occur due to lack of understanding of differences in styles
* Women in couple counselling🡪 complain partners don’t listen or don’t talk to them anymore
  + Tannen🡪 if men + women simply understand the differences in each other’s reasons for talking problems can be avoided.
* Researches🡪 Attempted to look at differences in forms of expression used by men + women and link them to power differences between the sexes
* This kind of behaviour occurs when women are interacting with each other as well as when men and women are together.

## Features + Limitations of theories of language development:

### Socialist interactions theory- Jerome Bruner

* Language is used to mediate between emotional stimuli + a person’s response
* Research on the cognitive development of children (1966)🡪 Proposed 3 modes of representation:
  + Mode of representation 🡪 ways (format) in which the child manipulates information
  + 3 modes 🡪 enactive + iconic + symbolic

#### Enactive (Action- based) 0-1 years

* Learn through movement + action
* Appears first + involves witnessing action based info. and storing it in our memory e.g. in the form of movement
* Example🡪 infant shakes a rattle as if the movements themselves are expected to produce the accustomed sound
* Many adults perform a motor tasks (e.g. typing and sewing a shirt) difficult to describe in iconic (picture) or symbolic (Word) form

#### Iconic (image based) 1-6 years

* Learn through images + icons
* Information is stored in the mind visually in the form of images.
  + For some this is conscious; others say they don’t experience it
* Example 🡪 When people are learning a new subject it is often helpful to have diagrams/ illustrations to accompany any verbal information

### Symbolic (language based) 7+ years

* Learns through abstract symbols
* Develop lasts + information is stored in the form of a code/ symbol e.g. language
* Most adaptable form of representation as it’s flexible in that it can be manipulated, ordered, classified etc.… so the user isn’t constrained by actions/ images.
* Knowledge = stored primarily as words, math symbols or in other symbol systems
* Belief:
  + Childs cognitive structures mature with age
  + Result🡪 Child can think + organise material in increasingly complex ways
  + World experienced= product of our mind- what we perceive + think of as our world = constructed through our mind as a product of symbolic processes
* Children:
  + Naturally inquisitive + thirsty for knowledge and understanding.
  + Naturally adapts to environment and abstract thinking develops through action
  + Has to learn for itself by making sense of its own environment
* Theorised the language acquisition support systems (LASS) as response🡪 Collection of strategies that parents employ to facilitate their children’s acquisitions of language

#### LASS – in 4 steps

* Gaining attention – drawing the babies attention to a picture
* Query- asking the baby to identify the picture
* Label- telling the baby what the object is
* Feedback – responding to the babies utterances

#### LASS

* Scaffolding
  + Deliberate use of language at a level slightly beyond what children can comprehend
  + Children🡪 acquire complex language more quickly than they might on their own
* Infant- directed speech/ Motherese
  + Parents speak🡪 Higher pitch + stress important words +talk slower
  + Very young infants show clear preference for this. Gets infants attention + increases the chances of their understanding the message
* Expansion and recast
  + Expansion – when an adult takes a child utterance fixes + expands on its complexity
    - Example 🡪 “felix eated” + parent says “yes that’s right, felix ate his dinner”

### Criticisms

* Some writers + Noam Chomsky reject this model
  + Says language is an innate capacity of the mind, so general exposure will evoke the proper response and learning techniques
  + Innate desire + ability of a child to learn language will develop on its own as long as the child gets plenty of basically comprehensible input
  + Growth of language ability = dependent upon familiar words and phrases being mixed with unfamiliar terms
  + Believes there is an innate device part of the mental makeup of all humans that permits over time the automatic decoding of speech

### Nativist theory – Naom Chomsky

* Chomsky (1957) theory:
  + Argued language= product of an unlearned, biologically- based, internal mental structure
  + Suggested rules which underlie a language = too complex to be acquired by children in a few short years + some aspects of language must be innately specified
  + Assume certain grammatical concepts are common to all languages and are therefore innate
  + Children
    - biologically predisposed to learn a language
    - Equipped with a set of innate hypotheses guiding their attempts to learn the rules of a language 🡪 help reduce the complexity of learning a language
    - equipped with an innate mental structure 🡪 the language acquisition device (LAD) which makes learning easier

#### LAD

* Universal grammar 🡪 Set of features common to all languages
* An entire set of rules or linguistic parameters which specify all possible human languages
* Learning of grammar occurs when the LAD operates on speech to abstract out the linguistic parameters which underlie the particular language used in the child’s environment
  + Chomsky termed this process of determining the parameters or rules of one’s native language parameter setting
* Function of the brain specifically for learning language🡪 an innate biological function of humans
* Plays 2 roles in chomskyan theory:
  + Accounts for the striking similarities among human languages
  + Accounts for the speed, ease and regularity with which children learn their first language

### Criticism of nativist theory

* Linguists failed to specify the nature of universal grammar + speculated this may not be possible
* Grammars not learned as rapidly as one might expect if a great deal of innate knowledge is assumed
* Little neurological evidence to support the existence of a biologically- based LAD. There should be some pattern of damage that hinder our ability to learn a language.

### Features of persuasive communication

#### Persuasion

* Form of communication used every day e.g. convincing someone to buy something
* Involves trying to change beliefs, feelings or behaviour of another
* Whatever the specific purpose of our attempts at it we need to know what affects the listeners reactions to be successful
* Messages🡪Aim to provoke an emotional response + change our thinking and if our reactions are unfavourable we are unlikely to be persuaded

### Petty and Cacioppo (1986) - 2 routes to persuasion

##### Central – central route 🡪 evokes lasting agreement

* What it is 🡪 thoughtful consideration of the content of the message by the receiver as an active participant in the process of persuasion
* Occurs 🡪When receiver has motivation + ability to think about the message and its content
* Uses 🡪 facts + figures + reasoning
* Attitudes changed 🡪 Show greater temporal persistence, greater prediction of behaviour, greater resistance to counter persuasion than changes resulting from peripheral cues
* Disadvantage 🡪receivers don’t always have the motivation or ability to think about the content of the message especially if they’re disinterested

#### Peripheral – peripheral route 🡪 triggers temporary liking/ acceptance

* What it is🡪 Listener decides whether to agree with a message based on cues other than the content of the message e.g. may agree because the source appears to be an expert/ attractive. Works best for audiences neither analytical/ involved with the issue
* Receivers engaged in peripheral processing are more passive
* Uses 🡪images and emotions

### Source of message

* The source (person) who delivers the message🡪 Credible + attractive + relatable in some way + expertise in that area even without assessing the validity of their claim.
* Attributes for competence in speakers 🡪Being a high profile worker + fast talker + trustworthy
  + Listeners assume fast speakers are more intelligent + knowledgeable as long as they get the gist of the message.
  + Smith and Shaffer (1995) considered this is due to the fact that fast presentation makes it more difficult for listeners to evaluate the content properly
  + Politicians🡪 aware of trust + try to convince people opponents are untrustworthy

### Nature of the communication

* When people understand a message + respond favourably they are likely to be persuaded however simply being exposed does not necessarily meant that we understand it
* Research:
  + Indicates much persuasive info. is misunderstood although
  + Comprehension of printed ads. + Info = higher than for info. presented on tv which is why those using broadcast media for persuasion need to ‘keep it simple’

### Emotional responses

* Some ads. Make no appeal + aim straight for our emotions to make us feel good to buy the product or induce fear + arouse sufficient anxiety to convince us to attend to the message
* Research:
  + Good mood🡪 less likely to process info. Carefully + buy products on impulse + more likely to be convinced by a supposed expert.
  + People think rational when unhappy
* Fear 🡪 Some attempts at persuasion rely on inducing this i.e. parents, politicians
* Research:
  + Success 🡪 Must arouse sufficient anxiety to convince us to attend to the message but not too much anxiety
  + Too much anxiety 🡪Miss the message by becoming too emotional
  + High levels of fear🡪 Avoidance/ denial of the message. (stop us from processing the content properly)
    - Example 🡪 having unprotected sex = lead to aids which will kill you

### Characteristics of the audience

* The content/ persuasion style of messages depends on characteristics of the audience i.e. age, relationship to us, personality, level of education, culture etc.…
* We know this at an ‘intuitive’ level
* Individuals 🡪 differ in how carefully they evaluate arguments “pros” + “cons”
* High need for cognition 🡪 persuaded by strong arguments + unmoved by weak ones
* Low need for cognition 🡪 less likely to take the strength of an argument into account + are more swayed by factors i.e. expertise/ trustworthiness of source
* Advertisers 🡪 try to be aware of cultural differences in what people find persuasive
* Min-sum Kim and colleagues (1998):
  + Participants who valued interdependence (collectivist cultures) 🡪Use hint strategies + consider them more effective means of persuasion
  + Participants who valued independence (individualistic cultures)🡪 Consider direct statements to be the best way of making requests
  + Hypothesis 🡪Supported for “first attempt” requests however if confronted with non-compliance, all participants reported that they would be likely to resort to more direct requests for their second attempts.

# Cognition learning: Week 8-10

## Psychological concepts + processes associated with memory+ their relationship to behaviour

* Memory 🡪 involves paying attention to what you’re doing or see and converting that into a form that can be stored in the brain and retrieved when needed

## Multi store model of memory – Atkinson + Shiffrin, 1968

* Developed a model of memory known as the stage model which had 3 different stages 🡪 sensory memory, short-term memory and long-term memory
* Each is characterised by 3 differences
  + Capacity 🡪 how much info. can be stored
  + Duration 🡪how long can info. be stored
  + Function 🡪 what is done with the stored info.

## Sensory memory

* Memory retained for a very brief period i.e. less than 5 seconds
* Info. is encoded rapidly based on the physical properties of the stimulation often a sound/ fast visual image
* Stores all incoming sensory info in memory registers for the different senses
  + Iconic memory 🡪 visual memory i.e. faces, views
  + Echoic memory 🡪 auditory register holding sounds i.e. ringtones
* Storage is lost very quickly and important info is passed into short term memory
* Encoding 🡪 conversion of sensory info. into a form that can be processed by the brain
  + Encoded visually, acoustically or through meaning
* Storage 🡪 retention of the information
* Retrieval 🡪 recovery of info. stored in the brain

## Short term memory (working memory) 🡪 baddely and hitch 1974

* Information is stored for approx. 30 seconds
* Can be rehearsed for the transfer of info into longer term storage
* Information you are aware of + sometimes called working memory meaning thoughts, words + images are available for decision-making and problem-solving (preferred term for what used to be short term memory)
* Has limited capacity and original working memory developed by Baddley + Hitch 1974
  + Consists of 3 slave systems 🡪 phonological/ articulatory loop + visuo-spatial sketchpad + episodic buffer
  + Consists of one central executive 🡪 responsible for organising info. + coordinating the slave systems
* Phonological/ articulatory loop 🡪 stores + processes phonological info i.e. sounds of language and rehearses it silently
* Visuo-spatial sketchpad🡪 stores visual + spatial info. and constructs/ manipulates visual images including details of shape, colour, motion, pattern and position and represents mental maps
* Episodic buffer 🡪 linking info across domains to form integrated units of visual, spatial + verbal info with time such as the memory of a story/ movie and also links to LTM
* Millar (1956) 🡪 amount of unrelated material that can be stored in WM= between 5 and 9 pieces so magic number is 7+ or – 2
* Rehearsal 🡪 enables info. to be retained longer than usual + transfers material to LTM
  + Maintenance rehearsal 🡪 remembering something for immediate use e.g. number so we repeat it however don’t transfer it to LTM
  + Elaborative rehearsal 🡪 actively process + encode the info. Try to make material more meaningful so it can be stored + used later
* Another way to increase capacity is through ‘chunking’
* Chunking 🡪 material is combined into larger, meaningful groups and larger group is passed on patters/ regularities in the info being processed. i.e. numbers into 3 groups

## Long term memory

* Permanent store of info + very large to retain all info we encounter and remember
* Info storage of 30+ seconds 🡪 forever
* Can decay over time 🡪 naturally fades, especially if not used/ retrieved often
* Info. can be interfered with both during storage + retrieval where associations become confused over time
* Info moves from WM to LTM through physical changes in the neurons + neural networks to make the associations and hence the storage permanent
* 2 types of LTM 🡪 Procedural memory + declarative memory

#### Procedural memory

* Stores the way you do things i.e. remembering how to ride a bike or write
* Sometimes called implicit memory because it’s not a conscious memory process + refers to the learning of motor skills
* Requires little effort to retrieve + retrieval takes place automatically
* Difficult to describe procedures to others as they’re so well learned

#### Declarative memory / explicit memory

* The ‘what’ of memory allowing you to ‘declare’ how things are or what you remember
* Requires conscious effort for retrieval
* 2 types 🡪 episodic memory + semantic memory
* Episodic memory 🡪 memory for past personal events + internal representation of your own interpretation of an experience in your life. Refers to a specific event i.e. birth of sibling + linked to particular feelings/ sensations at the particular time
* Semantic memory 🡪 knowledge of facts+ info. Based on understanding and interpretation. Often spoken/ written material storing mental representations of the world

## Recall, recognition, relearning

* Recall 🡪 asks to retrieve info from memory without any prompts/ cues
* Recognition 🡪 identifying the info from a number of alternatives (easier than recall)
* Relearning 🡪involves a person relearning info. Previously learned more quickly the second time as some info. has been retained

## Forgetting

* Forgetting 🡪 failure to retrieve info that has been previously stored or use it as required
* Memory problems affect many people as they age or is characteristic of some illnesses i.e. Alzheimer’s disease
* Retrieval failure
  + Inability to retrieve a certain piece of info.
  + Successful retrieval requires cues acting as mental reminders i.e. mental images/ associations + questions or prompts from others or sights or sounds
  + Cues cause a search to be activated, transferring likely info. from LTM to WM
* interference
  + forgetting is a result of retrieval difficulties due to competing, similar information being stored
  + Info. is not lost from storage however cannot be successfully retrieved as it gets mixed up with other info
* retroactive interference 🡪new info interferes retroactively with old info
* proactive interference 🡪 information previously learned interfere with new learning
* Motivated forgetting 🡪 inability to retrieve info. because there’s an advantage to not remembering –self-protection defence
* decay🡪 fading away of memory over time however some thought long faded can be retrieved by the sight of a view/ face of music or smell
* amnesia 🡪 organic theories of forgetting assume this occurs because of brain damage i.e. blow to the head, misuse of alcohol/ drugs, ageing, brain surgery and damage to different areas can lead to different forms of memory loss

## Enhancing retrieval of info + improving memory

* the use of improved organisation of memory
* paying closer attention to the material to be remembered
* having experience with the information to be remembered
* using the information to be remembered
* rehearsing the material to be remembered as it transfers from WM 🡪 LTM
* use of mnemonics/ memory aid tricks
* takes place best when contextual cues are used to trigger memories
* emotional state while learning can also affect your ability to retrieve info + material learned in one mood state is likely to be better remembered under conditions of the same mood state

## Theories + Processes of learning:

Key: Pavlov

NS🡪 Neutral stimulus (has no effect yet)

CS🡪 Conditioned stimulus (e.g. bell)

UCS🡪 Unconditioned stimulus (e.g. food)

CR🡪 Conditioned response (e.g. salivation due to bell)

UCR🡪 Unconditioned response (salivation due to food and bell)

### Learning

* Lasting change in the way an organism responds based on its experience
* 3 assumptions of learning theories
  + Responses- learned rather than innate
  + Adaptive
  + Experiments uncover the laws of learning

### Conditioning (learning)

* Focus of behaviourism (learning approach, behavioural psychology)
* Behaviourism proposes that we learn + are conditioned in 2 ways
  + Associating one thing with another thing🡪 classical conditioning
  + By the consequences of what we do 🡪 operant conditioning

## Classical conditioning

* Occurs🡪 when we learn 2 things happen together (associate them with each other)
* Links an existing, normally reflex (involuntary) action with a new stimulus. We build an association between a neutral stimulus (conditioned stimulus) + an existing unconditioned stimulus
  + E.g. food elicits salvation or air puffs elicit eye blink
* Order of presentation elicit different responses:
  + Forward/delayed conditioning 🡪 Neutral stimulus = presented before UCS (Still present with UCS) e.g. bell is presented first but remains while food is (Pavlov)
  + Trace conditioning 🡪 Neutral stimulus= presented before UCS but stop before its presented
  + Simultaneous conditioning 🡪 Neutral stimulus and UCS presented the same time
  + Backwards conditioning 🡪 Neutral stimulus presented after UCS
* Extinction 🡪 Weakening of conditioning evident when CS is presented repeatedly without the UCS
  + E.g. the CS (bell) presented without the UCS (food), the CR (salivation) declines/ stops over time
* Spontaneous recovery 🡪 Response extinguished for a long time suddenly reappears
* Stimulus generalisation 🡪 if stimulus is incredibly similar to another new one it can trigger the CR
  + E.g. a bell at a lower tone than the original one = same response
* Conditioned taste aversion 🡪 If a flavour is followed by illness, animals avoid the flavour in the future

### Ivan Pavlov (Russian physiologist, 1849-1936)

* Study 🡪 How a stimulus (bell) = associated with a bodily response (salivation) in dogs
* Basics of his experiment:
  + Dogs normally only salivate before eating
  + Pavlov sounded a metronome (bell) at the same time as feeding the dogs repeatedly
  + Over time just the sound of metronome made the dogs salivate
  + Conclusion 🡪 Dogs learned (were conditioned) to link (associate) the sound of the bell with “food is coming” + salivate (reflex)

## Operant conditioning (instrumental conditioning) - skinners box

* Thorndike 🡪 Behaviour an animal makes + consequence of that which determines how likely it will do that behaviour again
* Law of effect 🡪 repeat desired rewarded responses + drop punished ones
* Consequence🡪 positive (pleasant) or negative (unpleasant)
* There are 2 laws:
  + Law of reinforcement🡪 positive reward/ reinforcement (e.g. food/ praise) increases the chance of learning a behaviour
  + Law of contiguity 🡪 behaviour and consequence (e.g. reward) must happen close enough together in time for learning to occur
* Example: Dog taps the door with his paw + you open the door. This is pleasant for him as he wants to spend time with you so he learns to do this in the future.

## Theories and processes of learning:

## Social/ Observational learning – Albert Bandura

* Learn through observing behaviours of others + repeating them (begins early in life)
* Albert Bandura and his Bobo Doll experiment- Observational learning + operant conditioning= social learning theory:
  + Children imitate aggressive behaviour towards doll modelled by an adult.
  + Modelling 🡪 Behaviour is more likely when reinforced
  + Learning= through observation + sensorial experience
* Positive observational learning 🡪 prosocial (positive, helpful) models may have prosocial effect
* Television + observational learning 🡪 gentile et al (2004) show children in elementary school who are exposed to violent television, videos/ video games express increased aggression

## The observational learning process

* Attentional processes 🡪 Must develop the cognitive processes to pay attention to a model- more developed processes allow for better attention
* Retention processes (go over it mentally)🡪 Must remember aspects of the behaviour to imitate it later
* Production processes 🡪 taking memories of others behaviour and performing it yourself. Receive feedback on accuracy of behaviour (important in mastering skills e.g. driving)
* Incentive and motivational processes 🡪 with incentives, observation more quickly becomes action, pay more attention, retain more information. Incentive to learn influenced by anticipated reinforcements

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| Strengths | Limitations |
| Takes into account the cognitive processes involved in learning | Doesn’t fully explain individual differences 🡪 what may be perceived to be reinforcement for one person, may not be for another |
| Theorists use both experimental + non-experimental methods of research e.g. Banduras use of the experimental and observational method when investigating gender differences in aggression | Doesn’t account for all behaviour e.g. if we learn by observing others, how is people become criminals when having no association to one or observing it |
| Applied to many areas of psych + has provided effective explanations of behaviour, e.g. acquisition of gender roles |  |

#### Identification

* Through it children come to believe they have the same characteristics as the model
* identify with a nurturing + competent model = children feel pleased + proud
* identify with an Inadequate model = children are unhappy+ insecure
* 4 interrelated processes to strengthen identification:
  + Children want to be like model
  + Believe they’re like model
  + Experience emotions like those of the model
  + Act like the model

## Modelling

* Vicarious reinforcement 🡪 learn through observing consequences of behaviours of others. More likely to imitate reinforced behaviours
* Vicarious punishment 🡪 likely not to imitate behaviours that are punished
* Disinhibition🡪 weakening of inhibition through exposure to model
* Factors influencing modelling: Impact tendency to imitate
  + Characteristics of models: similarity, age, sex, status, prestige, simple vs. complex behaviour
  + Characteristics of observers: low self-confidence, self-esteem, reinforcement for imitation

## Techniques for modifying behaviour:

## Behaviour modification

* Application of classical + operant conditioning techniques to human behaviour + learning
* Uses reinforcements + punishments to modify/ change unwanted behaviours + strengthen desirable ones
* Sometimes called behavioural therapy as it treats psychological problems i.e. fears/ phobias

## Token economies

* Artificial systems of reward+ reinforcement where symbolic markers i.e. coloured counters/ fake money= used to reward behaviour and alter undesirable ones
* Markers= exchanged for secondary reinforcer i.e. DVD
* Used 🡪 hospitals, prisons, classrooms
* More effective than simple reinforcement as patient cannot become “full” i.e. of chocolate + can accumulate the points over time
* Penalty 🡪 tokens are not withdrawn however unpleasant consequence occurs and slow accumulation= secondary goals not being attained
* Criticism🡪 difficult maintaining improvement in behaviour once person leaves institution
* Successful scheme 🡪 Alcoholics anonymous
  + Behavioural contract 🡪 not to drink is set as a mutually agreed – upon standard of behaviour
  + Acts as a reinforcer for members of the group + can be effective to maintain abstinence

## Systematic desensitisation

* Application of classical conditioning to treat fears + phobias in humans
* Fears/ phobias= undesirable behaviours + replaced by productive/ desirable behaviours
* Fear response= replaced with relaxed response
* Therapy 🡪 practise relaxation techniques with a psychologist
* Psychologist 🡪 finds extent of problem, source of problem + how much it interferes daily
* Process:
  + Drawing up list of most fear provoking situation 🡪 least
  + Graded exposure 🡪 Psychologist gradually introduces these from least to most fearful during therapy
  + Person is first taught to relax until she/he is comfortable to proceed to next situation

## Cognitive behaviour therapy

* Based on premise that cognitions (thoughts) influence feelings + behaviours and subsequently behaviours + emotions influence thoughts
* Used by 🡪 therapists, psychologists , psychiatrists, counsellors
* Procedure 🡪 helps client identify unhelpful thoughts, feelings/ emotions causing distress/ distraction to everyday living
  + Behaviour therapy 🡪 helps to change behaviour through behaviour modification, relaxation + other techniques
  + Cognitive therapy 🡪 theory that distressing emotions + behaviours are a result of maladaptive thinking
    - Replace dysfunctional thoughts with ones that can be managed
    - Treats depressive + anxiety disorder, PTSD, compulsive disorder, substance use disorders, adjustment disorders, childhood behavioural disorders etc.…
    - Limited success treating schizophrenia
    - Cost- effective 🡪 benefits outweigh the costs relative to other treatments

## Positive + Negative reinforcement + Punishment

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **Type of consequence** | **Description** | **Example** |
| Positive reinforcement | **Increases** chance of the behaviour occurring again by providing a **pleasant** consequence | **Receiving** a **reward** e.g. food after pressing a lever |
| Negative reinforcement | **Increases** the chance of behaviour occurring again by **removing** (escape from) an **unpleasant** consequence | Moving away from an electric shock |
| Secondary reinforcement | Primary reinforcers (rewards) are linked with secondary reinforces | Food= primary  Mother= secondary for providing it |
| Punishment | **Decreases** the chance of behaviour occurring again by providing an **unpleasant** consequence. 2 types: **positive** and **negative** | **Positive punishment** provides a **negative consequence** by **giving something** e.g. an electric shock  **Negative punishment** provides a **negative consequence** by **removing something** e.g. food (ISSUES) |

### Limitations

* Ethical issues 🡪 Experiments use animals
* May not generalise 🡪 Just a few species so findings may not generalise to others
* May not be ecologically valid 🡪 Studied in laboratories
* Animals= learning unnatural behaviours they wouldn’t in the wild e.g. pressing a lever
* Does not take cognitive factors into account
* Does not consider other forms of learning e.g. observational

### Strengths

* Explains🡪 wide range of phenomena e.g. learning language + phobias
* Practical applications 🡪 when training animals
* Examines learning in controlled experiments in the laboratory so findings are easily replicated
* Enables animals to behave efficiently in their environment e.g. best foraging strategies in birds when they are most likely to find food and return to these areas to constantly check for more

### Difficulties in punishment + reinforcement

* Learners may not understand which behaviour is being punished
* May fear the punisher rather than learn an association between the action + punishment
* May undo existing rewards for a bad behaviour
* Using punishment when the punisher is angry
* Vengeful aggression may lead to future aggression
* Timing of reinforcer following response 🡪 delay= slower learning

### Schedules of reinforcement

* **Continuous reinforcement** 🡪 Reward given after every response e.g. rat = food every press
* **Partial reinforcement 🡪** Reward given only some responses + better in conditioning a behaviour than continuous reinforcement as the lack of it occasionally is normal + will repeat behaviour until they get the reinforcement
  + **Fixed ratio schedule 🡪** reward after certain number of responses e.g. every 8 times
  + **Variable ratio schedule🡪** reward after certain number of responses on average. E.g. after 8 presses on average so sometimes on the 6th or 10th press
  + **Fixed interval schedule 🡪** reward following first response after a certain interval of time e.g. food for lever press every 5 minutes
  + **Variable interval schedule 🡪** as fixed interval but on average e.g. food reward every 2 minutes, sometimes 2.5 or 1.5
* Extinction 🡪 behaviour is extinguished (unlearned) if the response is not reinforced. The behaviour stops as the animal learns it has no consequences
  + Partial reinforcement leads to slower extinction

# Developmental: Week 1-3

## Stages + characteristics of developmental theories

## Piagets theory of cognitive development

* Cognitive development
  + Developmental psychology 🡪 how humans develop + change over time
  + Across a life span 🡪 continuous (gradual) or discontinuous (stages)
  + Direct result of maturation (ageing) + environment
    - Child = older through interactions with others 🡪 understanding becomes more complex

### Jean Piaget (1896- 1980)

* Interest 🡪 with the acquisition of knowledge
  + Children have schemas🡪 mental structure giving a model for what happens = organised patterns of thought/ behaviour
  + CD= modification of intellectual schemas as the child seeks understanding of its world
  + Developed 4 stages to his theory 🡪 sensori motor, pre-operational, concrete operational, formal operational

#### Assimilation and accommodation

* Cognitive schemas developed by child must be able to handle new info./ situations
  + Assimilation 🡪 interpreting new info. In light of an old schema
  + Accommodation 🡪 old schemas are modified to fit new situation e.g. not all 4 legged creatures are horses.
* Equilibrium 🡪 when assimilation and accommodation are balanced so neither is over dominant

### Issues in cognitive development

* Object permanence 🡪 realisation (child) object continues to exist even when not seen
* Egocentrism 🡪 child understand the world to have only their view thus can’t see other POV’s
* Conservation 🡪 basic properties of an object are constant even if the object changes shape (V= same even though SA= different)

### Stages

#### Sensori- motor stage (0-2 years)

* Learns to coordinate his/ her sensory input with motor actions exploring the environment
* Object permanence is learnt here
* Babies take in the world by looking, hearing, touching, mouthing and grasping

#### Pre- operational stage (2-6/7)

* Childs thoughts= symbolic + represent their world through images+ words
* Do not have the skill of reversibility 🡪 don’t understand quantity/ volume to know the number has not changed despite it’s changed appearance
* Egocentric in this stage 🡪 theory of mind= pre-schoolers develop the ability the understand another’s mental state when they begin forming a theory of mind

#### Concrete operational stage (7-11)

* Grasp conservation problems + mentally pour liquids back/ forth into glasses of different shapes conserving their quantities.
* Able to transform math functions e.g. if 4+8= 12 12-4= 8 🡪 easily do-able
* Acquire internally consistent (adult) logic but only in concrete situations such as problem solving
* Able to conserve and may be able to use reversibility
* Able to solve seriation problems e.g. placing objects in order of a defining feature

#### Formal operational stage (11 onwards)

* Reasoning ability expands from concrete thinking to abstract thinking
* Symbols + imagination/ visualisation = used systematically
* Ability to reason logically about hypothetical process and events that may have no basis in reality
  + Hypothetico- deductive reasoning 🡪formal operational ability to think hypothetically
  + Thinking like a scientist – inductive reasoning 🡪 thinking where hypothesis are generated and then systematically tested in experiments

### Criticisms

* Underestimated the importance of knowledge 🡪 gagne claims complex skills can be acquired easily once simpler prerequisite skills have been learned. Development = based on learning continuous not discontinuous
* Underestimated the abilty of children 🡪 tasks= methodologically flawed
* Underestimated the impact of culture 🡪 piagets tasks are culturally biased and schooling and literacy affect rate of development
* Demand characteristics 🡪 children may have wanted to please experimenter thus changing their behaviour
* Social setting 🡪 ignored the effect of the social setting upon a child e.g. the way adults use language and gesture

#### Applying theories to education – Piaget

* Readiness 🡪 child needs to be ready + reach a level of maturation before other skills can be gained
* Discovery learning 🡪 activities planned to allow learners to experience assimilate and accommodate language thus allowing them to discover themselves
* Role of teacher 🡪 act as a facilitator not instructor

### Strengths

* Work has added to understanding of child development
* Theory is highly detailed and covers a wide range of different topics
* Strongly influential in education particularly from the 1950’s onwards

### Weakness

* Very narrow focus
* Individual differences – ignored in the theory
* Influence of culture was not explored
* Methodological weakness
* Bower and Wishart (1972) demonstrate object permanence earlier
* Demand characteristics may account for some of Piagets results (Donaldson 1978) argued asking the same questions more than once in a conservation task may put a child under pressure to answer in a particular way.

## Lawrence Kohlberg (1927- 1987) – theory of moral development

* Morality theory 🡪Universal sequence to the development of morality + stages begin early in childhood
* Moral dilemmas 🡪 Value of human life, property, meaning of social rules + laws, value of honesty, importance of upholding contractual agreements with others

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| Stages: | Moral focus: | Description |
| Stage 1🡪 Preconventional | * Punishment + obedience * Egocentric | * Doesn’t recognise different POV’s   - Confuses perspective of authority with one’s own  e.g. Heinz shouldn’t steal because he will go to prison  children under the age of 7 |
| Stage 2🡪 preconventional | * Individual * Instrumental * Concrete | * Aware of different interests + that those may conflict   e.g. should steal because he’ll be happier even if he goes to prison |
| Stage 3🡪 Conventional | * Mutual interpersonal expectations * Conformity + relationships | * Following rules * Living up to the expectations of others + maintaining trust * Gratitude * Respect + loyalty   e.g. Should steal because his wife expects it |
| Stage 4🡪 Conventional | * Social system * Maintenance of one’s conscience | * Doing ones duty * Taking the view of the system * Obeying laws * Upholding social order   e.g. shouldn’t steal because law prohibits stealing |
| Stage 5🡪 Post conventional | * Rights * Social contract | * Assessing + integrating basic rights, values + legal contracts * Law as social contracts   e.g. steal because everyone has a right to live regardless of law  don’t steal because doctor deserves compensation |
| Stage 6 🡪 Post conventional | * Universal ethical principles * Moral point of view | * Commitment to the universal principles of justice * Respect for others   e.g. Steal because saving a life is a more fundamental value than property rights of another person  don’t steal because it violates rules of honesty + respect |

### Criticisms

* Only male participants in original research
* Choice of dilemmas led to develop a very western, male- oriented view of moral development
* Richard Schweder 🡪 Research methods led him to 'impose stage classifications upon informants from other cultures that both distort the meaning of what they have to say fail to take account of implicit structures in their views of their own social order'  
  e.g. Hindu man stealing = sin even to save life
* Carol Gilligan (1982):
  + Women reached stage 3 + men reached 4 due to the different socialisation of girls than boys = different values rather than males being more morally advanced
  + males --> socialised to be independent + achievement individuals which rules + laws are designed to resolve leading to adopting a morality of justice (stage 4)
  + girls --> socially responsible for nurturing which led them to develop a morality of care (Stage 3)
    - 3 levels of reasoning:
      * 1🡪 Self- interest 🡪Women justified their responses solely in terms of their own needs + wishes
    - 2 🡪 Self- sacrifice🡪 Women at this level argued in terms of the rights of others referring to the wishes of the partner/ unborn child
    - 3 🡪 care as a universal obligation🡪 Tried to reach a balance between care of others + personal wellbeing. ‘The decision has got to be, first of all, something that the woman can live with … or at least try to live with and it must be based on where she is at and the other significant people in her life are at.’
* Criticisms of Gilligan🡪 Durikin 1995 🡪 Kohlberg’s techniques don’t show sex differences and where they do they’re not always in favour of males

## Erikson’s stage theory of identity

* Theory of identity

🡪 Child grows + works out similarities/ differences of others.

🡪Describes normal conflicts + resolutions to move on to the next stage

* Unsuccessful resolution🡪 children, adolescents + adults become ‘stuck’ at a stage and abnormal personality development = failure to resolve a crisis at an early stage
* Sense of identity 🡪 enduring personality characteristics
* Erik Erikson 🡪 theorist describe this as the development of identity which is a series of continual challenges that have to be met by the individual to move on to the next phase of life + lifelong search
* Biggest hurdle in identity 🡪 during adolescence ‘ who am I’
* Identity formation 🡪 continuous challenge, dominant crises characterising various phases of life (infancy 🡪 old age)

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| Stage | Crisis | Description |
| 1—Infancy (0-1) | Trust vs. mistrust | Infants= dependent on others for food, warmth, love + must trust others for these  Outcome (success)🡪 if needs= met consistently + responsively they secure attachment to parent/ caregiver+ learn to trust  Outcome (Failure) 🡪 mistrust of their world |
| 2 – toddler (0-3) | Autonomy vs. shame + doubt | Learn to walk, talk, feed themselves, use a toilet therefore they’re autonomous+ less dependent on others  Outcome (success) 🡪 self-confidence, self-control+ mistakes = easily fixed/ corrected  Outcome (Failure) 🡪 overprotection/ disapproval from parents= shame + doubt in ability to be independent |
| 3 – early childhood (3-6) | Initiative vs. guilt | Childs social + motor skills = highly developed + dilemma is to balance the wish to achieve more and take more responsibility when accepting parental control and discipline without guilt |
| 4- middle childhood (6-12) | Industry vs. inferiority | Industry= competence at school meanwhile. Relationships with peers + friends increase.  Outcome (success) children rewarded for achievement at school = sense of competence + mastery  Outcome (Failure) feeling of inferiority |
| 5—adolescence (12-18) | Identity vs. role confusion | To answer the question ‘ who am I’ successfully an adolescent must integrate all resolutions earlier to achieve a sense of identity incorporating all the elements of self  Outcome (failure) role confusion, indecision, avoidance of commitment |
| 6—early adulthood (18-40) | Intimacy vs. isolation | Achievement of intimacy with another person = important  Outcome (failure)= incapable of forming an intimate relationship and thus sinks into isolation |
| 7—middle adulthood (40-65) | Generativity vs. stagnation | Focus= work+ maintenance of family relationships  Outcome (success) = sense of accomplishment + leaving a legacy for the future  Outcome (failure) = self- centeredness + stagnation |
| 8—late adulthood (65+) | Integrity vs. despair | Towards the end of life theirs time to reflect on one’s contribution + view it as positive, satisfactory, disappointing or unsatisfactory  Outcome (success) = if life= fulfilled, can view death with a sense of integrity  Outcome (Failure) unfulfilled, view death with despair + fear |

# Personality: Week 3-5

* Personality 🡪 characteristic ways which a person thinks, feels + behaves; makes people who they are
* People with ‘lots of personality’ = friendly + outgoing
* Personality is more than temperament 🡪 physical + hereditary parts of personality e.g. sensitivity, emotion + irritability
* Problems in later life can be traced to difficult temperament in infancy
* Self-report measure known as the Q-sort
  + Stack of card with printed statements e.g. “I try hard to please others”
  + Arrange cards twice
    - 1st time 🡪 self-image; arrange card from most like to least like you
    - 2nd time 🡪 ideal self; arrange cards from what you would most like to least like to be
  + Person well-adjusted personality arranges cards similarly
  + Criticism of cards 🡪 patient has to be honest + open with psychologist
* Personality type 🡪 people who have the same cluster of characteristics

## Features + Limitations of Contemporary personality theories

### Trait theories – McCrae + costa

* Personality traits 🡪 stable forms of behaviour people display in any + every situation
* Traits= inferred from behaviour + expect people to behave in similar ways in different circumstances + can predict future behaviour
* McCrae + Costa (1999) thought there were 5 dimensions known as the ‘Big 5’ (extraversion, neuroticism, openness to experience agreeableness + conscientiousness)
* Michael + Ashton and Lee Kibeom added a 6th factor/ dimension (honesty- humility)
* Each theory tries to describe/ explain possible combinations of characteristics + how they predict behaviour

The big 5 factors in personality:

|  |  |
| --- | --- |
| **Trait dimension** | **End points of dimension (low🡪 high)** |
| 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 (emotional instability) | Calm- anxious  Secure- insecure  Unemotional- emotional  Vulnerable – hardy |

### Consistency + continuity of traits

* Once adulthood is reached personality = largely stable
* Helle Pullmann + colleagues (2006) conducted longitudinal research over 2 years with Estonian adolescents 12-18 years old to look at aspects of personality stability
  + Rank order stability 🡪 does a person who scores high/low on a trait compared with peers remain high/ low relative to peers, even if the whole group changes
  + Mean-level consistency 🡪 changes in mean scores on each trait for each age group over time
  + Individual continuity 🡪 do personality traits of participants remain stable over time
* Using the NEO five-factorial inventory, a measure of the big 5 personality traits it was found mean- levels of personality traits were similar to adults and only modest change was found compared to different age groups in 3 dimensions and no change in the other 2
  + Level of openness increased and levels of agreeableness + conscientiousness decreased between the ages of 12 and 18
* Mean- level stability
  + Occurs because most of the group remains stable and when some of the group change in one direction and others in another
  + 80% of individuals in each age group reported their personality traits in a consistent manner over 2 years indicating a very low mean-level of personality change should be taken at face value
  + Adolescents are very similar to young adults in stability of their personality traits at an individual level
* Rank-order stability
  + The degree to which the relative ordering of individuals on each of the 5 trait dimensions were maintained over time
  + By 16 adolescents reached rank-order stability of young adults
  + Although stability levels were lower for younger adolescents they were still high
  + If a person started high on extraversion relative to the group they usually stayed high
* Walter Mischel (1984) found
  + Conscientiousness in college students could only be predicted with a moderate degree of success as those conscientious on one occasion e.g. showing up on time were not always later e.g. handing assignments in on time.
  + Scores on personality tests only mildly predicted behaviour however it’s unfair to expect personality traits to predict behaviour on every specific occasions as other factors come into play.
  + When behaviour is averaged over several occasions likely the person who scores high will act in a more conscientious way than ones who score low.

### Humanistic theory (1960s, US)

* Provided a distinct contrast with the psychodynamic + learning theories common at the time
* Theory 🡪 people are born good + try to reach their potential through their lives
  + Personality results from people striving to reach their potential
* Maslow + rogers (psychologists) made big contributions to this theoretical approach

#### Carl Rogers (1902-1987)

* People= born good with potential for enormous growth
* Important people in our lives help us grow by providing genuineness + acceptance + empathy
* Unconditional positive regard 🡪Person who is genuine and open with us + doesn’t put on a front + is accepting is prepared to take us as we are; we don’t have to change to be valued
  + Empathy🡪 shown when people try to see the world from our perspective + understand how we feel
  + Conditions 🡪 need to be experienced to feel free to make changes we want to make in ourselves to grow + self-actualise
* Central to theory was concept of self/ personal identity
  + Well-adjusted personality 🡪 good match between ideal self (person we’d like to be)+ self-image (person we think we are) + true self (person we really are)
  + Anxiety + stress = result of great gap between these
* Criticism
  + Vagueness of some concepts e.g. self-actualisation
  + Maslow’s description of self-actualised people (his heroes) are simply a list of his values Others might value different characteristics
  + Overly optimistic + fails to take into account human capacity for evil (both need to be recognized if we are to be realistic)
    - Rogers replied🡪Never known an individual who, when provided with the conditions needed for growth, had chosen the cruel/ destructive path.

### Abraham Maslow (1908-1970) Humanistic theory

* Considered we all have a hierarchy of needs
  + Basic needs🡪 food, water, sex + shelter before we try to meet higher- level needs
  + Very top of the hierarchy 🡪 self-actualisation, the dive towards growth, self-expression, creativity + achievement of ones highest unique potential
* People who are self-actualised are rare + characteristics are self-accepting, highly self-aware, private, independent, creative + able to enjoy life
* 3 levels of needs in the hierarchy:
  + Psychological needs 🡪 food, water, warmth, sleep
  + Safety 🡪 feel safe + secure.
    - The intermediary psychological needs🡪 needs of belongingness + love, establishment of friendships + intimate relationships
    - Esteem needs 🡪 achieved through accomplishment + recognition of success
  + Self- fulfilment needs 🡪 achieved when a person reaches self- actualisation (full use of ones talents, capacities + potential)

#### Personality and health

* Meyer Friedman + his colleagues🡪 2 personality types A+B
* Type A characteristics:
  + Ambitious, competitive, pushy, highly-motivated, busy + impatient, easily irritated/ frustrated and become very angry
  + Respond quicker + stronger to stress= increased blood pressure + heart rate causing more wear + tear on the cardiovascular system = heart attacks
  + Less healthy eating habits + involved in more accidents + drink more alcohol.
* Type B characteristics:
  + Easy going, low levels of time-urgency, competitiveness + hostility
* Type C characteristics:
  + Passive, bland, helpless + appeasing + Temoshok + Dreher (1992) further developed this theory -- bottled up emotions weakened a person’s immune system = prone to cancer

### Social cognitive theory

* Personality🡪 on its own doesn’t determine behaviour only influences it
* Behaviour 🡪 occurs in contexts i.e. home, school and work + this context can’t be ignored
* 2 psychologists are Bandura + Mischel

#### Bandura (1977-1986)

* Human behaviour🡪 Result of the interaction between behaviours, cognitive factors + environmental factors = reciprocal determinism
* Reciprocal determinism🡪 each factor influences the other factors and is influenced by the other factors
* Environmental influences are important but so are conscious, self-generated goals/ standards that influence our thoughts, feelings and actions
* Classroom learning:
  + Theory 🡪 Learning = shaped by factors in the environment, especially reinforcements that students + their peers experiences however students’ own thoughts + beliefs about themselves and their interpretation of what goes on in the classroom would also influence their behaviour.
  + Student🡪 believes bad at math= no questions asked for fear of ridicule
  + Self-efficacy 🡪 degree to which you are sure of your own ability + capability to manage/ be effective in meeting the demands of particular situations

# Social: 5-7

## The influence of groups on behaviour:

### Impact of the presence of others on individual behaviour

* Norman Triplett (1898) 🡪 Cyclists= faster racing against each other than against the clock.
* Social facilitation 🡪 Boost in performance due to presence of others
* Social inhibition 🡪 With complex tasks, presence of others as observers/people doing the same task = worse performance i.e. impedes performance
* Yerkes and Dodson (1908):
  + People generally perform best at moderate levels of arousal.
  + Performance drops off when they are not sufficiently aroused/ over aroused
  + When relationship is plotted on a graph it looks like an upside down U
  + Optimal level of arousal for best performance varies depending on the task
    - Simple/ well-learned tasks🡪high level of arousal
    - Difficult/ new learned tasks🡪 Perform better at low arousal levels

### Diffusion of responsibility

* New York 1964🡪 Murder of Genovese whilst walking home. Attacked by knife screaming very loudly and a lot of people heard however no one phoned the police
* Bystander effect 🡪 more people present in an emergency, less likely each person helps
* Diffusion of responsibility 🡪 if a person is alone, he / she accepts responsibility however if there are multiple people each assumes the other will do something and he/ she doesn’t need to take responsibility.

### Social influence

* Social influence🡪 Changing our behaviours in response to other people
* Platow et al., 2005 🡪 influence of the groups to which we belong = stronger if we identify
* Peers 🡪 Important to us + can influence us greatly. These are people who interact with us on fairly equal terms + have similar status (similar age + interests)
* Peer groups 🡪 Have their own social norms e.g. style of dress, music, attitudes towards alcohol, sex before marriage and bullying + may have slang terms/ expressions not understood by others outside the group
  + Influence🡪 Starts to increase around middle childhood + continues until middle adolescence. Starts to decline as the influence of close friends increases
* Peer pressure
  + social influence from peers + has a negative connotation as people mean pressure to think, feel or behave in certain ways whether wanted or not
  + Belief 🡪 Peers try to exert pressure in the opposite direction to parents
    - True in superficial areas e.g. dress +taste in music
    - False as parents/peer groups often agree in more important areas e.g. decisions in education + careers and in judgements about what is ‘right’ or ‘wrong’ behaviour
  + Not all people react in the same way to peer pressure
    - ‘Fringe’ members of the groups / less standing = more influenced by peer pressure then those who have higher standing as they try to gain favour with other members of the group by acting the way they think the group would approve of (Kalplan, 2004)

### Group polarisation

* Group polarisation 🡪 when individuals in groups hold similar attitudes/ beliefs, discussion within the group tends to strengthen opinions
* Students low in racial prejudice 🡪 talked about racial issues, attitudes= more accepting
* Students high in racial prejudice 🡪 talked about racial issues, attitudes= more prejudiced
* Terrorist’s🡪 members such as those in ISIS whose beliefs become stronger + firmly entrenched as a result of discussion with like-minded people. (Clark McCauley)

### Conformity

* Conformity 🡪 changing behaviour in response to group pressure. People will assume the behaviour of others in any particular social group without explicitly being told how to act
* Internalisation 🡪 people conform because they want to be right + think others are more knowledgeable/ right or because they want others to like them
* Normative social influence 🡪 conforming to group standards to be part of a group + accepted (Few people like standing out + looking different from others around them)
* Compliance 🡪 Conforming to avoid conflict
* Identification 🡪 Conforming to be part of a group so they conform to opinions not their own
* Society requires some conformity to exist so norms/ standards can be established + agreed upon otherwise behaviour= unpredictable
* Children 🡪 socialised into group norms and expected behaviours in different situations
* Parents/ teachers🡪 teach children what is expected + these authority figures reflect the social context and relevant group and social/ cultural norms
* Informational social influence 🡪 Individuals take cues on how to behave watching people around us – conforming due to strange situations e.g. with people we don’t know well
* Factors that influence the extent to which we are likely to conform to group pressure:
  + Group size🡪 conformity increases with group size up to a group of 4. More has little influence
  + Degree of unanimity 🡪 when others are unanimous (agree completely) it’s difficult to stand out. If 1 person disagreed conformity reduced greatly therefore strengthening resistance
* Rod Bond & Peter smith (1996) cultural differences in conformity:
  + Highest levels 🡪 collectivist cultures- achieving group goals= highly valued
  + Lowest levels 🡪 individualist cultures- achieving personal goals = highly valued

#### Solomon Asch, 1955

* Experiment🡪 Simple visual task in groups of 8-10 ‘participants’ around a table with 2 cards. One card had set of 3 lines of different lengths+ other had a single line.
  + First few trials 🡪 everyone agreed which line was the same length as the standard giving the correct answer
  + Later trials 🡪 confederates all agreed on the answer that was incorrect
* 75% of participants agreed with confederated on at least 1 trial and 50% did on 6 or more
* ¼ of participants stuck with the evidence of their senses

#### Not the same as obedience

* Occurs in the absence of direct/ observable command from authority figure
* Denied rather than used as an excuse for behaviour

#### Philip Zimbardo, 1970s

* Study🡪 Effects of being either a prisoner or a prison guard
  + Recruited 70 young male uni students through newspaper ad to participate in a prison experiment for 2 weeks. Selected 24 healthy, average men with no psychological problems. Half of these were randomly assigned as prisoners/ guards
  + Prison🡪basement of the Stanford university psychology building complete with cells, security doors + drab surroundings.
  + Guard🡪 uniforms, dark glasses, whistles, handcuffs and truncheons + instructed to enforce the rules
  + Prisoners🡪 stripped, sprayed for lice, issued with smocks with numbers on them + share a small cell with 2 other inmates.
* Over time:
  + Guards🡪increasingly brutal in treatment of the prisoners, humiliating them + subjecting ringleaders to solitary confinement.
  + Prisoners🡪 dejected + dehumanised and 4 had to be released over the first 4 days as a result of severe negative reactions i.e. crying, hysteria, rage + severe body rash
* Experiment🡪 concluded in 6 days
* Result🡪Assigned roles had become reality for those involved + Zimbardo was concerned that even he was becoming the prison superintendent and was more concerned for the security of his ‘prison’ rather than for the study participants
* Conclusion 🡪 social roles influence behaviour in more complex ways than realized. The behaviour in prisons of guards/ prisoners was not simply a function of prisoners being criminals as they were not in this instance but the social environment of the prison and the roles of the participants influenced the way both the guards and prisoners behaved

### Obedience

* Changing behaviour in situations where obedience is expected e.g. when an authority figure orders something, there is the explicit expectation to obey or face negative consequences
* Some individuals🡪 Resist group influence + committed individual holding a minority view can eventually sway majorities e.g. nelson Mandela, MLK
* Resisting obedience:
  + Minimising the agentic state 🡪 reminding people their personal responsibility
  + Disobedient models 🡪 observing others disobeying the authority figure
  + Education/ experience/ knowledge of results 🡪 those aware of study + knowing the process of obedience helps resistance
  + Moral reasoning 🡪 as morality develops so does awareness of consequences of actions and we are more ready to disobey authority than to compromise our own principles

#### Stanley Milgram, 1963

* Study:
  + Range of men from all types of classes = given a payment for showing up + told they could leave at any time.
  + Teacher + learner (with heart problems) and learner had to learn of a list of words
  + Wrong answers= electric shocks from teacher that getting stronger to 450 volts.
* Result 🡪 Teacher would administer the shocks even hearing the groans as the experimenter said “ the experiment requires you to continue”
* Main factors influencing obedience:
  + Immediacy/ proximity to the victim not seen. Where the teacher could see the learner obedience dropped
  + Immediacy/ proximity of the experimenter. Removing them from same room as teacher reduced obedience
  + Authority of experimenter. Experimenter was a white lab-coated Caucasian university professor. Conducting experiment in a non-university setting also reduced the levels of obedience
  + Ecological validity 🡪 believed experiment was real even though it was a deception
* Conclusion of experiment – people obey authority because:
  + Legitimate authority 🡪 those perceived to be are usually obeyed. Obedience= rewarded + disobedience= punished
  + Passivity 🡪 obeying legitimate authority is preferable to confronting it
  + Lack of disobedient role models 🡪 conducting this in social isolation meant social norms/ expected behaviours were not present
  + Denial personal responsibility 🡪 experimenter assured teachers they were not personally responsible for the distress of the learner+ were acting on orders
  + Milgram’s agency theory:
    - Autonomous level 🡪 behaviour = voluntary; people = aware of their decisions and consequences of it
    - Agentic level 🡪 people see themselves as agents of another and will blindly accept orders as they are not personally responsible for their actions
  + Authoritarian personality 🡪 some people have it and are highly likely to be both obedient and prejudiced
  + Role of buffers 🡪 the teacher was buffered (protected) from seeing the learner
  + Credibility 🡪 at Yale so its important + participant has moral obligation to continue
  + Slippery slope 🡪 in increasing the shocks if they stopped they would have to admit what they did previously was wrong.

#### Criticisms of Milgram

* Ethical issues – milgrams experiment was unethical because:
  + Distress 🡪 should have been aware of the distress the study would cause + should’ve stopped.
    - Argued level of distress couldn’t have been anticipated + there was no long term problems/ regret in taking part in the study
  + Deception 🡪 lied about the experiment
    - Argued this was a necessary trade-off between costs + benefits
  + Informed consent 🡪 not given to participants and not all understood the true nature of the study.
    - Argued they were debriefed
  + Unrepresentative sample 🡪 consisted of male Americans
    - Similar results were found irrespective of culture + gender.
  + Right to withdraw 🡪 participants didn’t feel free to leave
    - They were allowed to and would be paid regardless

# Culture and Values: Week 7-9

## Theories of social psychology:

## Attribution theory – Fritz Heider

* Attribution theory 🡪 Explains how people infer the reason behind the behaviour of others
* Internal/ dispositional attribution 🡪 infer something about a person e.g. attitude, personality etc.… as responsible for their behaviour
* External/ situational attribution 🡪 infer some external cause is responsible for their behaviour e.g. peer pressure, threats
* Also make attributions about our own behaviour
  + Dispositional 🡪 bought the bag because I needed it
  + Situational 🡪 bought the bag because the shop assistant pressured me into it
* Fundamental attribution error 🡪 Favour dispositional attribution for behaviour
* Jones + harris (1967) 🡪Strong support for attribution bias
* Crick + dodge (1994) 🡪 studied aggressive behaviour
  + Reactive aggression 🡪 angry response to frustration/ provocation
  + Proactive aggression 🡪 deliberate attempt to get a desired goal
  + Children showing reactive aggression = likely to show attribution bias + interpret situations as hostile when no hostility was intended
  + Example 🡪 2 children running around a corner bump into each other, based on previous experiences one developed a hostile attribution bias + thinks the other is a nasty person who deliberately tried to hurt them so they push the other kid as a response
* De Michele + colleagues (1998): self-serving bias 🡪 We distort facts+ make situational attributions to maintain self-esteem e.g. shopping situation we place blame on the shop assistant thus protecting our self-esteem

#### Kelley’s theory of casual attribution (1973)

* people making attributions using 3 types of info: persons, time + entities
* Experiment: Harry failed his maths exam
  + Person factors: whether harry liked math, whether he was lazy, whether he attended a party the night before the exam etc...
  + Time factors: had he failed maths test in the past or usually passed them
  + Entities (other relevant info.): was it a hard exam, if we knew harry was hard-working + competent and he usually passed maybe this one was just really hard
  + Distinctiveness 🡪 does your friend only complain about hairdresser or other service providers she uses
  + Consensus 🡪 does everyone complain about hairdresser
  + Consistency 🡪 does your friend always complain about her hairdresser or is this an isolated situation
* Criticisms:
  + Theory doesn’t explain 🡪 Why prior beliefs about info e.g. stereotypes affect the intake of info. about possible competing causes of behaviour and events
  + Theory doesn’t explain 🡪 why some people prefer simple casual explanations over ones that take into account all of the person, time + entity info.

## Cognitive dissonance theory

* Leon festinger (1975) 🡪 relationship between cognitions (beliefs/ attitudes) + behaviour
* Cognitive dissonance 🡪 People experience discomfort/ psychological tension when they become aware they hold 2 beliefs that conflict or they behave in ways that are inconsistent with their beliefs.
* Cognition 🡪 thoughts
* Effort justification 🡪 developing new attitude to justify contradiction between attitude and behaviour

### Reducing dissonance

* 1 🡪 changing belief/ attitude or behaviour so they’re more consistent with one another
* 2 🡪 acquire new info. (justifications) that supports our behaviour
* 3 🡪 decide inconsistency doesn’t matter aka attitudes + behaviours in question are not important so inconsistencies between them aren’t
* Example: Smoker 🡪 believes smoking is bad for his health
  + Changing belief/ attitude 🡪 decides evidence against smoking being a health hazard is flawed/ inconclusive
  + Changing behaviour 🡪 joins QUIT program
  + Result 🡪 reduce the dissonance between belief + behaviour
* Attitude change= greatest when there are no compensating reasons for the change
* Experiment by Festinger + Carl smith (1959, in Atkinson et al., 1996) in which college students participated in a series of dull tasks
  + Half🡪 paid $1 to tell the next participants tasks were fun= rated enjoyment high
  + Half 🡪 paid $20 to tell the next participants tasks were fun = rated enjoyment low
  + Those paid a small amount convinced themselves they enjoyed it so they didn’t need to be payed however those paid more had a compensating reason for changing their belief e.g. I got paid to do it and I didn’t want to therefore it wasn’t enjoyable “I was doing my job”

### Strengths + limitations of cognitive dissonance

* Strengths
  + Theoretical explanation
  + Prediction + control in applied settings
* Limitations
  + Difficult to disprove because of breadth
  + Breadth also decreases prediction + control
  + Hard to use when trying to reinforce currently held attitudes
  + Findings that support this theory can also support self- perception theory

### Examples:

|  |  |  |
| --- | --- | --- |
| **First cognition** | **Second cognition** | **Reasoning** |
| Stealing is bad | Stealing | Convinces herself she needs it |
| Don’t waste money | Buys expensive car | It won’t break down |
| Junk food is unhealthy | Eats unhealthily | Will burn it off later |

## Impact of significant events on individuals + communities:

#### Stress

* Defined 🡪 expected human response to challenging/ dangerous situations. Normal part of life + can be positive/ negative
* Traumatic stress 🡪 life threatening/ violent situations can trigger acute stress reaction but most people recover over time. A minority of people lead to having PTSD
* Triggers the ‘fight-or-flight’ response preparing the body to take action against danger
* Causes: circumstances causing it
  + Circumstances or our own attitudes/ expectations 🡪 stressors
  + Major life events 🡪 negative (death, divorce) or positive (marriage, having a child)
  + Routine stress 🡪 related to demands of everyday life + normal responsibilities e.g. work, parenting, financial issues
  + Family issues, personal health issues, trying to maintain a healthy lifestyle, concern for the health of others, issues in the workplace
* If stress is greater than our ability to cope = physical + mental health issues + cause problems with relationships and work
* Ways to manage stress 🡪 Identifying triggers, Relaxation techniques, Lifestyle changes, Seeking support from others + advice from counsellors/ health professionals
* Monitoring stress 🡪 identify triggers that make you stressed, notice warning signs
  + Changing the stressor 🡪 some can be changed e.g. work hours or duties
  + Exercising 🡪 can relieve tension, relax the mind + reduce anxiety
  + Relaxing 🡪 deep breathing exercises, muscle relaxation exercises, yoga
  + Spend time with family/ friends 🡪 talking + solving conflicts can help
  + Look after your health 🡪 maintain a healthy diet, get enough sleep, avoid drugs
  + Do things you enjoy 🡪 if unable to manages stress alone seek a counsellor
* Effects of stress on behaviour 🡪 overeating/undereating, angry outbursts, relationship problems, alcohol smoking or drug abuse, avoiding people

## Positive responses to negative events

* Kobasa (1979) 🡪 Personality differences could account for different responses to stress
* Study:
  + 600 executives + managers completed 2 questionnaires (personality+ stressful events/ illness experienced in past 3 years)
  + Divided respondents into 2 groups, one scoring above average for illnesses and other scoring below average
  + Number of stressful events experienced by both groups was high however when comparing the high stress/ high illness group with the high stress/ low illness group she found the latter group
    - Saw change as a challenge
    - Felt more in control of their lives
    - Had a sense of direction in both their work + personal lives
  + She described this group as having a ‘hardy’ personality
  + Criticism 🡪 possible illness was the cause not the result of the personality characteristics
* Longitudinal study (kobasa et al., 1982)
  + Those identified at the start of the 2 years as having a ‘hardy’ personality were less likely to become ill
* Qualities in ‘hardy’ types are some characteristics identified with the concept of resilience Other qualities seen in the resilient power are:
  + The capacity for making the most of small windows of opportunity
  + Having a deep-rooted faith in a system of meaning
  + Having a healthy social support network
  + Having a wide comfort zone
* Research🡪 resilience can be trained to some extent.

#### Community resilience

* Community competence 🡪 used to explain resilience in a community. Are ones that are able to identify needs + issues + work cooperatively to carry out plans and achieve goals
* If people live in a competent community + have a sense of community (Strong sense of belonging/ attachment to their community) then community = resilient
* Effects of community resilience on outcomes following a disaster= not direct
* WA researchers Julie Ann Pooley (2006) + colleagues found that the competence of a community + individuals’ feelings of attachment to their community led them having an increased sense of self- efficacy + social networks = leading to reduces stress + increased growth

## Post-traumatic growth

* Defined 🡪 Positive psychological change experienced as a result of adversity + other challenges in order to rise to a higher level of functioning
* Effects of PTG:
  + Relationships are enhanced in some way 🡪 people value friends/ family more, feel an increased sense of compassion for others + long for more intimate relationships
  + People change their views of themselves in some way 🡪 developing in wisdom, personal strength, gratitude, greater acceptance of their vulnerabilities + limitations
  + People describe changes in their life philosophy 🡪 fresh appreciation for each new day + re-evaluating their understanding of what really matter in life, becoming less materialistic + more able to live in the present
* Criticisms:
  + Just because someone perceives they are better off doesn’t mean they are
  + Difficult to separate the perception we are better + actuality that we are as its extremely difficult to know how someone is doing before a trauma occurs
  + Perceiving growth is a way of coping with the event itself. It’s a “motivated positive illusion” whose purpose is to protect us from the possibility we may have been damaged.
    - Coping strategy is ineffective as people who perceive growth tend to do worse over the short and long term compared to people who don’t e.g. soldiers reporting posttraumatic growth in 5 months after returning home saw an increase in ptsd symptoms at 15 months

## Negative responses

## Posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD)

* PTSD🡪 clinically significant condition with symptoms lasting more than 1 month after exposure to a trauma that causes significant distress or impairment in social, occupational or other important areas of functioning.
* When it occurs 🡪 after someone is exposed to a traumatic event +can have a delayed onset with individuals experiencing symptoms years later due to a specific incident triggering this reaction
* When can trauma exposure occur🡪 Through directly experiencing the event, witnessing it or learning the details of events that happened to others
* Common reactions following trauma:
  + Physical symptoms: disturbed sleep, nightmares, exhaustion, restlessness, headaches
  + Cognitive symptoms: poor concentration, disturbances to attention + memory, flashbacks, intrusive thoughts, disorientation
  + Emotional symptoms: fear, avoidance, anxiety + panic, depression, guilt, withdrawal + fearfulness
  + Young children may regress in behaviour e.g. bed wetting, thumb sucking loss in trust in adults who failed to protect them from event
* How PTSD may be diagnosed:
  + Person meets specific criteria that include past experience of actual/ perceived threats to life, violence or serious injury
  + Presence of distressing symptoms e.g. reliving a traumatic event through nightmares, flashbacks, recurring memories
  + Fixating/ constantly thinking about the event
  + Avoiding situations/ people (stimuli) that remind you of event
  + Negative thoughts/ emotions
  + Constantly feeling jittery, nervous or ‘ on edge’
  + Changes in reactions + responses to stimuli associated with event e.g. angry outbursts without provocation, problems with concentration + sleep disturbance
* PTSD behaviours indicating professional intervention is needed
  + Drinking/ smoking more to reduce anxiety or anger
  + Aggressive or nervous driving- service members who experienced combat can be especially nervous driving under overpasses and past litter on the roadside
  + Wary of crowds – showing reluctance to go to movie theatres, crowded stores
  + Avoiding combat – related news or getting angry at reports
* Treatment 🡪 combination of psychotherapy + drug therapy

## Event characteristics contributing to stress

Predictability 🡪 Unpredictable events are more stressful + have longer lasting impact

Controllability 🡪 Having no control over events is a major source of stress in victims

Experience threat or loss 🡪 many find positive events i.e. Olympic Games as stressful as it involved many changes + unknowns that may be perceived as threatening

# Sense of community as defined by McMillan + Chavis 1986

* Defined 🡪 a feeling that members have of belonging + mattering to one another and to the group + shared faith that members’ needs will be met through their commitment to be together
* Proposed 4 criteria to be met for an individual to feel a sense of community
  + Relate to membership, influence, integration and fulfilment of needs + shared emotional connection
  + Interact to assist the formation + maintenance of communities
  + Model can be used by creators + planners of groups/programs to assist in promoting high-quality interaction in a community
  + McMillan helped create a SOC index to measure “sense of community” in neighbourhoods

### Membership

* Defined 🡪 Provides a feeling of belonging/ being part of something bigger than yourself+ Establishes boundaries that divide those who do and don’t belong
* 5 elements of membership:
  + Boundaries 🡪 Marked things i.e. language, dress + ritual
  + Emotional safety 🡪 security; willingness to allow others to know one feels
  + A sense of belonging + identification🡪expectation/ faith that I will belong; acceptance by the community
  + Personal investment🡪 cognitive dissonance
  + A common symbol system 🡪 Name, logo, flag, holidays, language
* Groups🡪 often use dress, rituals + language (in-group slang, professional jargon) to indicate who is a member
* Pranks 🡪 performed on new students/ recruits= initiation into group membership
* Boundaries 🡪 can be important for neighbourhood communities. Provide a sense of safety by separating ‘us’ from ‘them’ and indicating who can be trusted

### Influence

* While people are more attracted to a community in which they have influence, community cohesiveness requires members to be prepared to conform
* People who acknowledge others opinions + needs= more influential than simply dominating others and ignoring their wishes
* Members of group must feel empowered to have influence over what the group does
* Group cohesiveness depends on the group having some influence over group members

### Integration + fulfilment of needs

* Membership of the group must be rewarding e.g. rewarding aspect
  + Status 🡪 group success brings members closer
* Members need to know each other’s strengths + weaknesses; roles + tasks need to be assigned and members must make sure crucial tasks are not left undone and they are not competing for resources or status
* Needs 🡪 ‘survival’ e.g. food, water + what is desired and valued (wants) must be met
* Members are rewarded for their participation (Called person-environment fit)
* An acknowledged interdependence with others + a willingness to maintain this interdependence by going along with or doing things for the group which foster it
* Leaders in education + business 🡪 tried to foster cooperation + found a way of achieving this is to make rewards for the individual dependent on outcomes of the group
* Aronson + colleagues 1978 🡪 students in cooperative classrooms who work together to achieve group goals + receive marks on the basis of class product learn better than students in competitive/ individualistic classrooms
* Employers 🡪 provided bonuses to employees when group production target are met

### Shared emotional connection

* The definitive element for true community
* Contact 🡪 greater personal interaction ensures members become close
* Quality of interaction + importance of shared events + spiritual bond
* Closure to evets🡪 Ambiguous or unresolved tasks inhibit groups cohesiveness
* Investment 🡪 community becomes more important to someone who has invested time + energy into it
* Honor/ humiliation 🡪 reward strengthens sense of community, humiliation inhibits it
* The feeling we have of being connected to another person through a common emotional response to a shared activity/ event e.g. shared history
* History= forged from being together over a period of time + quality/ importance of the interaction

Example of sense of community

* Someone puts up announcement on bulletin board about the formation of an intramural dormitory basketball team
* People attend organizational meeting as strangers out of their individual needs 🡪 integration + fulfilment of needs
* Team is bound by place of residence 🡪 membership boundaries are set
* Spends time together practicing 🡪 contact hypothesis
* Play a game and win 🡪 successful shared valent event
* Whilst playing members exert energy on behalf of team 🡪 personal investment in the group
* More wins= more recognition 🡪 gaining honour + status for being members
* Matching shirts + shoes 🡪 common symbols
* Person convincing the common symbols 🡪 influence