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College of Education and Behavioral Studies

School of Psychology

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Chapter One

Essence of Psychology

1.1. What Is Psychology?

- Psychology
  - *Psyche*: "Mind"
  - *Logos*: "Knowledge" or "study"
- Definition**: The scientific study of behavior and mental processes**
  - **Behavior**: Overt; i.e., can be directly observed (crying)
  - **Mental Processes**: Covert; i.e., cannot be directly observed (remembering); private, internal
- **Science**
  - **Empirical evidence**: Information gathered from direct observation

Characteristics of science

- Skeptic: doubtful
- Rational: logical
  - Deductive: general to specific
  - Inductive: from specific to general (data → theory)
- Empirical
- Self-correcting:
- Parsimony: using limited words for explanation

1.2. Goals of Psychology

- **Description**: Naming and classifying various observable, measurable behaviors
- **Explanation**: The causes of behavior(s)
- **Prediction**: Forecasting behavior accurately
- **Control**: Altering conditions that influence behaviors
  - Positive Use: To control unwanted behaviors, (e.g., smoking, tantrums, etc.)
  - Negative Use: To control peoples' behaviors without their knowledge

Early schools of psychology

a) Structuralism

- *Aka* mental chemistry
- Deals with the basic structures of the mind
- Uses introspection as a method

b) Functionalism

- Introduced by William James
- Bases on Darwinian evolutionary theory
- Emphasizes on the **use of the mind**

c) Gestalt psychology

- Introduced by Wolfgang Kohler and Max Wertheimer
- Focus on the whole rather than studying the parts

A 13 C D

12 13 14 15

d) Behaviorism

- J.B. Watson
- B=f(E)
- Environment determines human behavior
- Environmental determinism
  - Determinism: everything is caused

Modern Schools of Thought

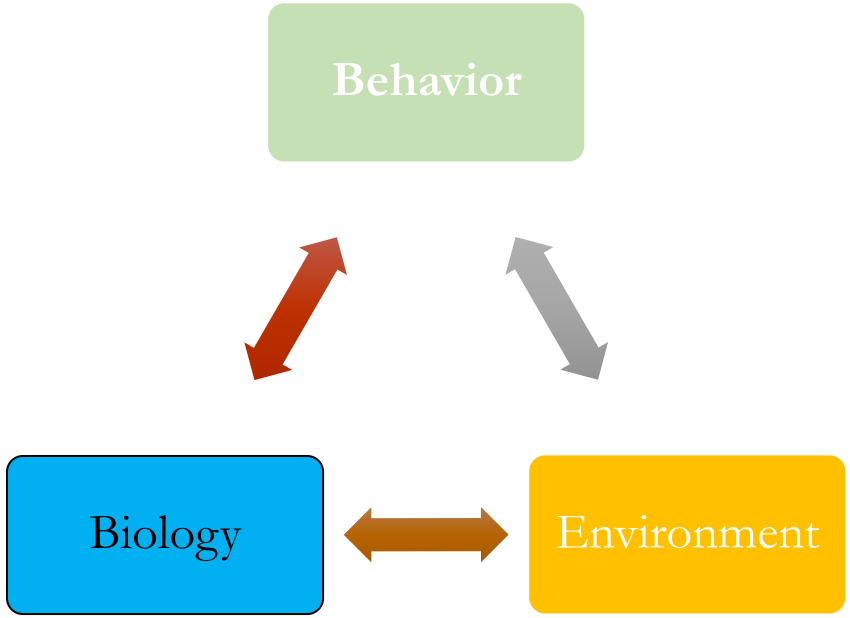
a) Psychoanalysis

- Sigmund Freud
- Behavior is a function of:
  - Early childhood experience
  - Unconscious mental processes

b) Biological perspective

- Behavior is determined by biological processes
  - Hormones
  - Genes
  - Neurotransmitters
  - Etc

  - The environment and biology interacts



c) Humanistic perspective

- Carl R. Rogers & Abraham Maslow
- Humans are born with natural capacities
- Humans are conscious
- Free will

d) Cognitive perspective

- Cognitive styles ➔ Behavior

e) Socio-cultural

- Many thoughts and behaviors are influenced by our culture.
- Psychologists need to be aware of the impact cultural diversity may have on our behaviors.
- What is acceptable in one culture might be unacceptable in another.

Psychology Today

- Biopsychology: Our behavior can be explained through physiological processes
  - Uses brain scans to gather data (CT, MRI, PET)
  - Looks at neurotransmitters
  - Treats psychological problems with medications
- Positive Psychology: Study of human strengths, virtues, and optimal behavior

Branches of psychology

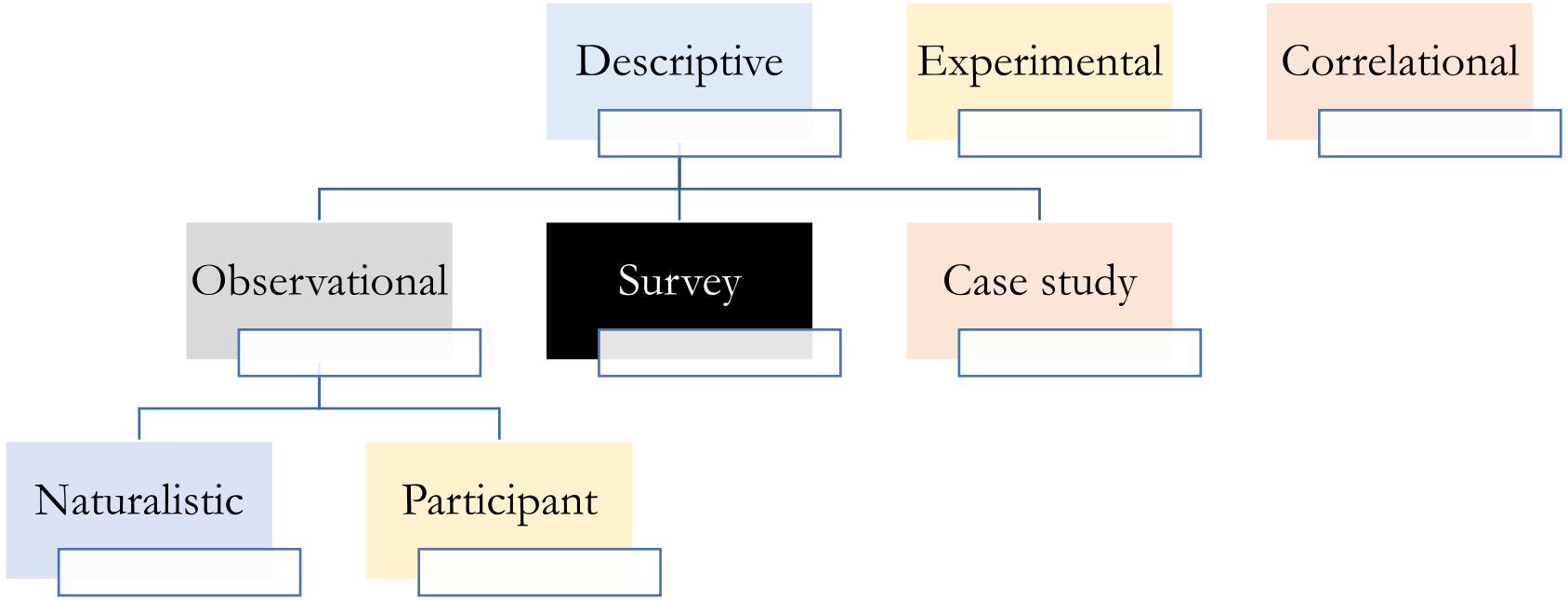
- Developmental
- Personality
- Social
- Counseling
- Clinical
- Educational
- Forensic
- Health
- Cross-cultural
- Industrial/organizational

1.2. Research in Psychology

Definition

- ***Scientific method*** - a process of testing ideas through systematic observations, experimentations, and statistical analysis
- ***Theory*** - is an integrated set of principles about observed facts that is intended to describe and explain some aspects of experience
- ***Hypotheses*** - is a tentative proposition about the relationship between two or more variables or phenomena

Types of Research



a. Naturalistic Observation

- Observing a person or an animal in the environment in which they live
- Problems
  - **Observer effect**: changes in a subject's behavior caused by an awareness of being observed
  - **Observer bias**: occurs when observers see what they expect to see or record only selected details
  - **Anthropomorphic error**: attributing human thoughts, feelings, or motives to animals

b. Participant observation

- Becoming part of the subjects to be studied

c. Case study (aka *Clinical Method*)

- Case study involves an in-depth investigation of a single subject (case)
- It provides tremendous amount of data
- However, it is not generalizable

d. The Survey Method

- Survey method involves data collection from a very large group of people
- Using public polling techniques to know attitudes, interests, opinions of people
- The problem
  - The sample may not be representative enough
  - Social desirability effect: Problem in research; a tendency to give "polite" or socially desirable answers

Instruments of survey

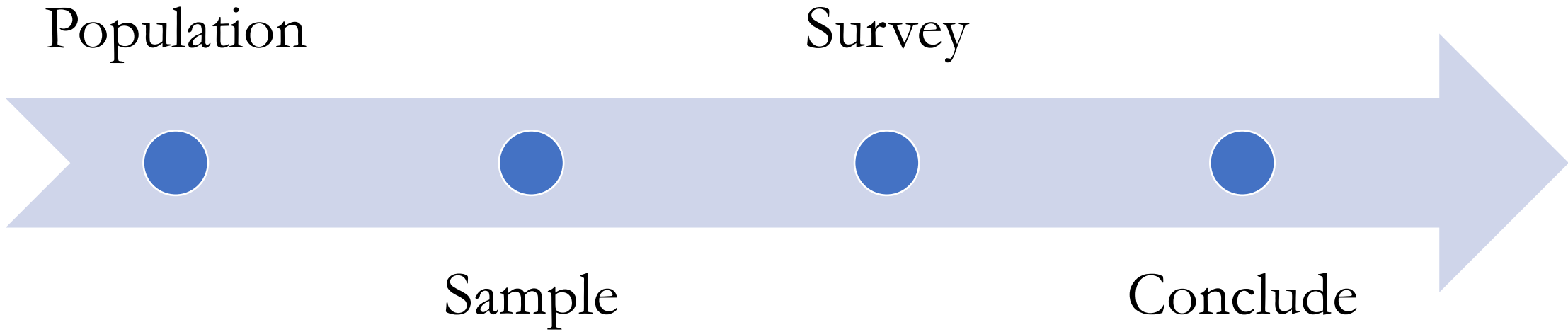
- Questionnaire (Self-constructed/ standardized scale)
- Interview
- Focus group discussions

Self-control scale

Gender: Male ☐ Female ☐
Religion: Christian ☐ Muslim ☐
Occupation: Teacher ☐ Merchant ☐ Farmer ☐
Religion: Muslim☐ Orthodox ☐ Catholic ☐ Protestant ☐

1=Not at all……5 Very much

Items	1	2	3	4	5
I have a hard time breaking bad habits					
I get distracted easily					
I say inappropriate things					
I refuse things that are bad for me					
I'm good at resisting temptations					


Population
Survey
Sample
Conclude

d. Correlational research

- Definition: Existence of a consistent, systematic relationship between two events, measures, or variables.
- Coefficient of Correlation: Statistic ranging from –1.00 to +1.00; the sign indicates the **direction** of the relationship.
  - Closer the statistic is to –1.00 or to +1.00, the stronger the relationship.
  - Correlation of 0.00 demonstrates no relationship between the variables.

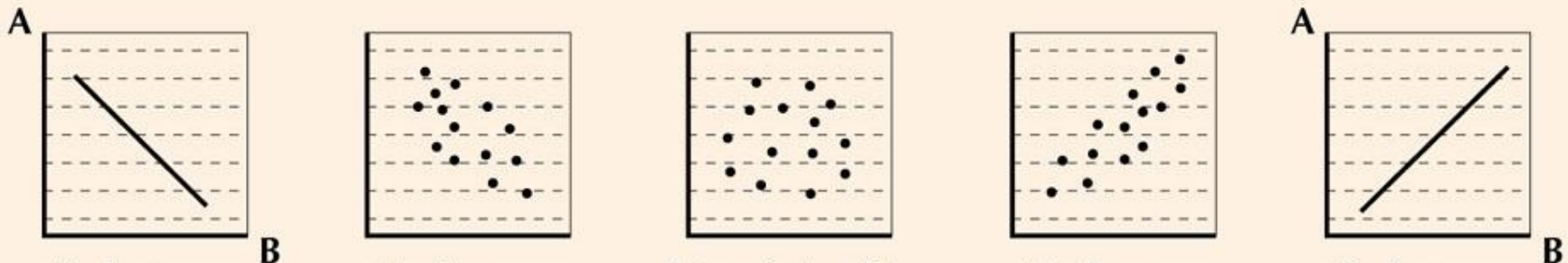
Correlations and Relationships (cont'd)

- **Positive Correlation**: Increases in one variable are matched by increases in the other variable.
- **Negative Correlation**: Increases in one variable are matched by decreases in the other variable.
- **Correlation does not demonstrate causation**: Just because two variables are related does NOT mean that one variable causes the other to occur.

Correlation

Strength of relationship

Perfect	Very large	Large	Medium	Small	Zero	Small	Medium	Large	Very large	Perfect
–1.00	–.75	–.50	–.30	–.10	0.0	+.10	+.30	+.50	+.75	+1.00



Perfect negative relationship

Medium negative relationship

No relationship

Medium positive relationship

Perfect positive relationship

d. Experiments

- To identify cause-and-effect relationships, we conduct experiments.
- A formal trial to confirm/disconfirm a hypothesis
  - ❖ Directly vary a condition you might think affects behavior
  - ❖ Create two or more groups of subjects, alike in all ways except the condition you are varying
  - ❖ Record whether varying the condition has any effect on behavior

Variables

- Definition: Any condition that can change and that might affect the outcome of an experiment
  - ❖**Independent Variable**: Condition(s) altered by the experimenter; experimenter sets their size, amount, or value. These are suspected causes for behavioral differences.
  - ❖**Dependent Variable**: Demonstrates results of the experiment. Condition is affected by independent variable.
  - ❖**Extraneous Variables**: Conditions that a researcher wants to prevent from affecting the outcomes of the experiment (e.g., number of hours slept before the experiment).

Figure 1.8

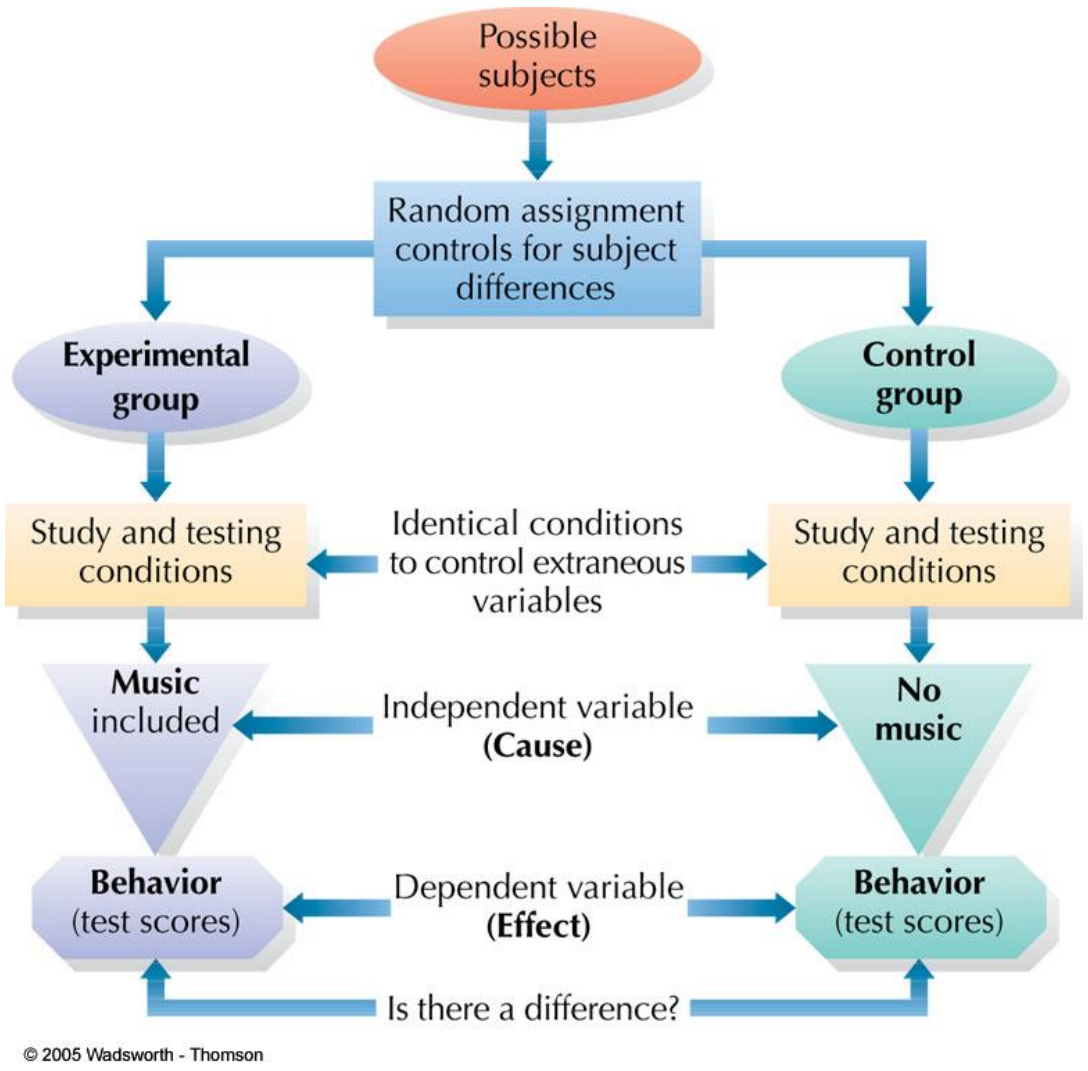


FIGURE 1.8 Elements of a simple psychological experiment to assess the effects of music during study on test scores.

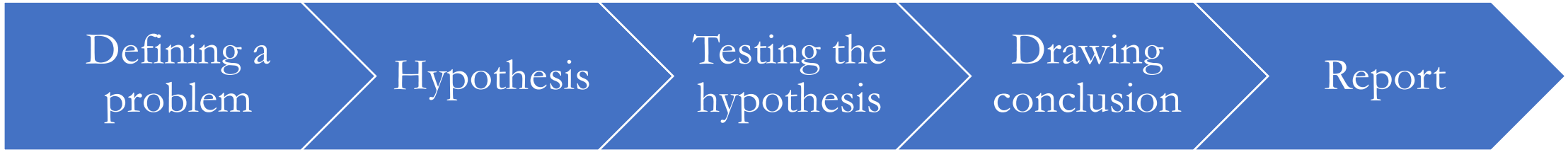
Groups

- **Experimental Group**: The group of subjects that gets the independent variable.
- **Control Group**: The group of subjects that does NOT get the independent variable.
- Random Assignment: Subject has an equal chance of being in either the experimental or control group.

- **Steps in experiment**
  1. Define problem (e.g. *the effect of stress on memory among AAU students*)
  2. Define the population
  3. Create experimental and control conditions
  4. Randomization: assign half of the subjects the expt'l and the other half to the control group
  5. Intervention: give IV to the EG
  6. Measurement: measure the DV
  7. Comparison

- Suppose Mr. Ahmed conducted an experiment to know the effect of coffee on sleeping. He gave 2 cups of coffee for “Group A” and 0 cup for “Group B”. Based on this case, what is the:
  - Control group
  - Experimental group
  - IV
  - DV
  - EV

The Scientific Method



Activity 1

1. Who is the father of psychology?
2. A school of psychology that believes the environment as a determinant factor to affect behavior _____
3. A researcher stated that positive social interaction has helped him to reduce the symptoms of depression. This goal is ____
4. A school of thought that focuses on the use of the mind _____
5. A branch of psychology that deals with the treatment of severe psychological problems _____
6. A branch of psychology that applies psychology to the legal context ____

Activity 2

1. Suppose a researcher gave you to fill a questionnaire on JJU's quality of education. This method is _____
2. The correlation of -0.82 is ___ (A. Weak B. Moderate C. Very strong)
3. A process by which study small group in detail _____
4. A researcher went to a school and acted as if he is one of the teachers in order to study them. This method is _____
5. Aresearcher wanted to study the effect of eating breakfast on students' memory. Group A students ate breakfast and gave no breakfast to group B. Then, what is:
    1. IV _____
    2. DV
    3. Extraneous variable (s) _____ _____
    4. Control group _____ 5. Experimental group _____

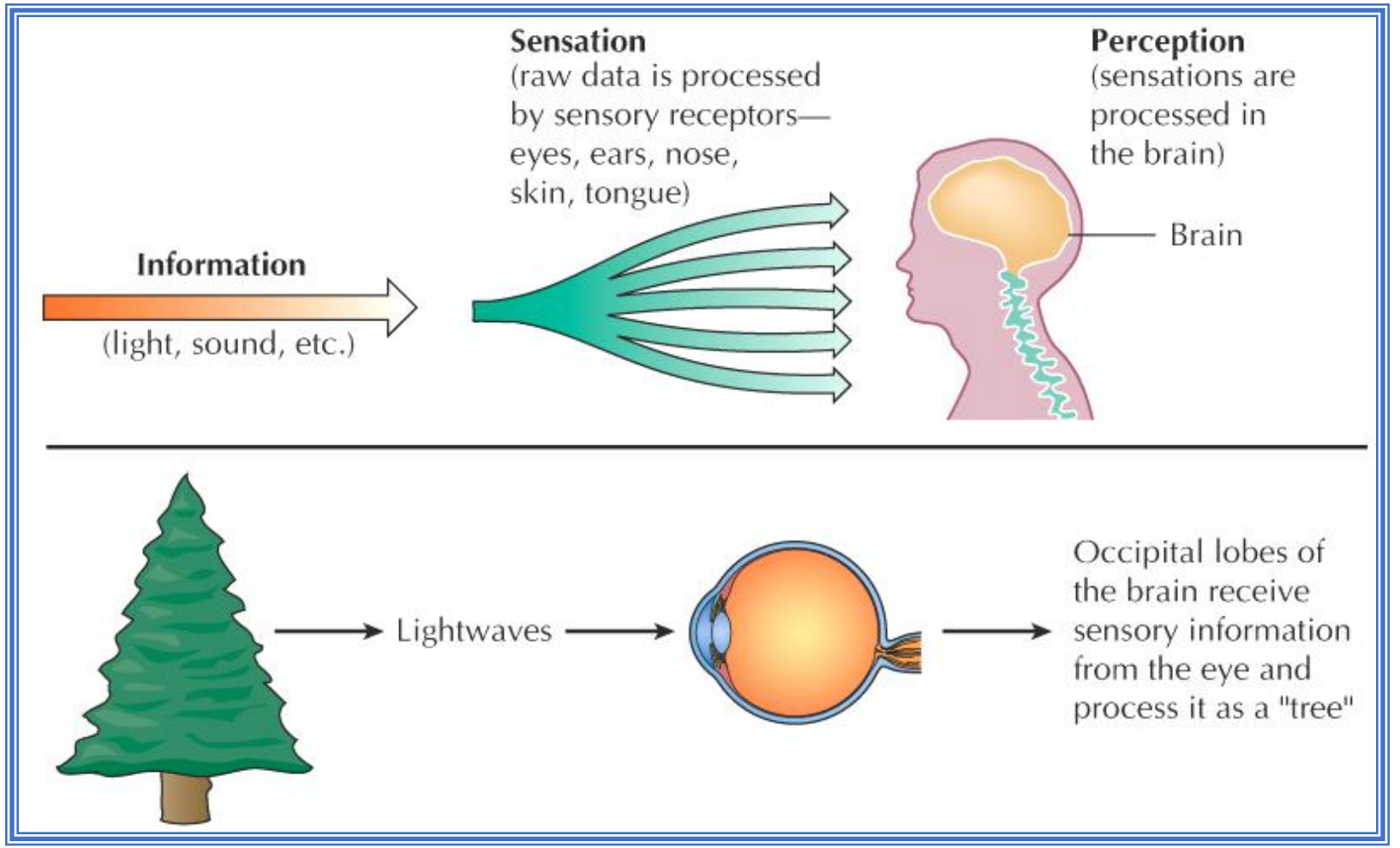
Chapter Two

Sensation & Perception

2·1· Introduction

- **Sensation:** process of detecting, converting, & transmitting raw sensory information from the external & internal environments to the brain
- **Stimulus** (*pl* stimuli): specific energy needed to stimulate sense organs.
  - *Distal stimulus*: the real object in the external world.
  - *Proximal stimulus*: representation of the physical reality in sensory receptors.
  - *Perceptual object*: mental representation of the physical reality.
- **Perception:** process of selecting, organizing, & interpreting sensory information into meaningful patterns

Sensation Vs. Perception



3·2· Sensation

2.2.1. Sensory Data Processing

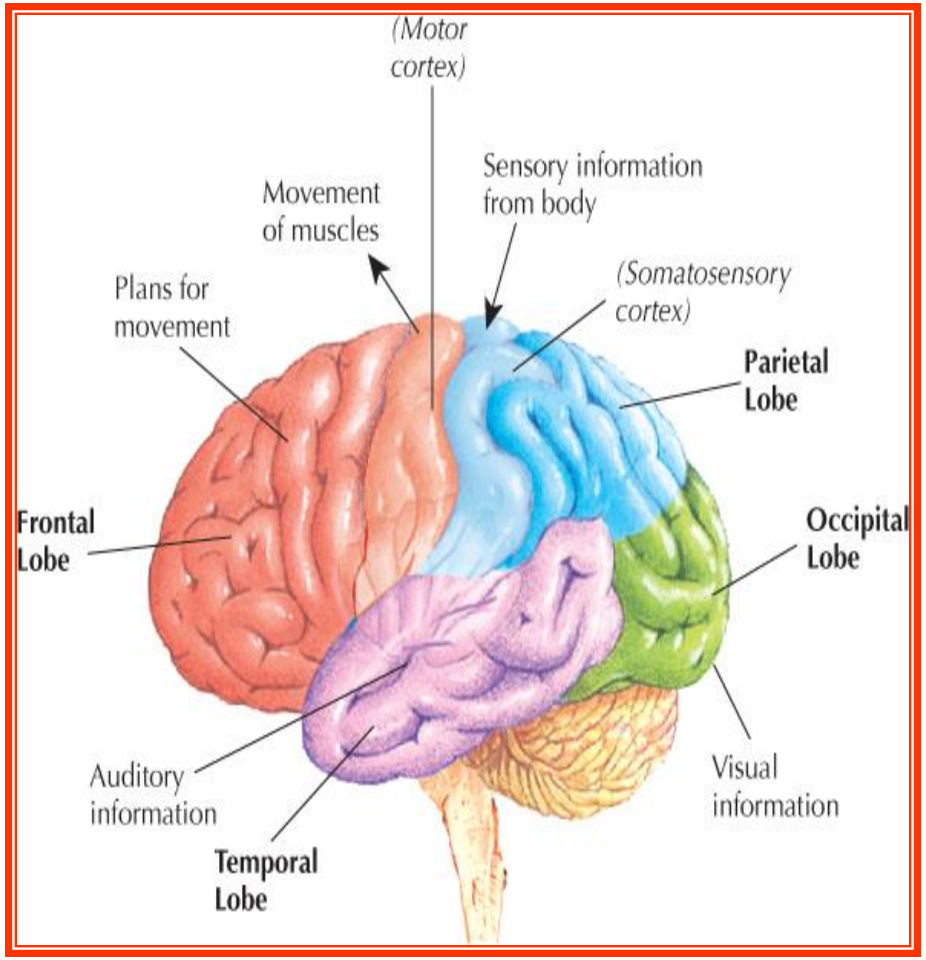
- **Processing:** Our five senses (vision, audition, etc.) have special receptors (e.g., eye's rods & cones), which detect & transmit sensory information

Sense	Stimulus	Receptors
Vision	Light waves	Light-sensitive rods and cones in eye's retina
Audition (hearing)	Sound waves	Pressure-sensitive hair cells in ear's cochlea
Olfaction (smell)	Molecules dissolved on nose's mucous membranes	Neurons in the nose's olfactory epithelium
Gustation (taste)	Molecules dissolved on tongue	Taste buds on tongue's surface
Body Senses	Variety of stimuli	Variety of receptors

***Four Forms of Sensory Data Processing*:**

1. **Sensory detection:** **e**yes, ears, other sense organs contain receptor cells that detect & process sensory information
2. **Transduction:** converts receptor's energy into neural impulses that are sent on to the brain
3. **Coding:** converting sensory inputs into different sensations
4. **Sensory Reduction:** filtering and analyzing incoming sensations before sending neural messages on to the cortex

- Neural impulses from sensory receptors in our eyes, ears, skin, & other sensory organs create neural messages sent to various areas of our brain.



2·2·2· Psychophysics and Signal Detection

- **Psychophysics**: studies the link between physical characteristics of stimuli and our sensory experience

- **Absolute Threshold**: smallest amount of a stimulus we can reliably detect 50% of the time.

- **Difference Threshold**: minimal difference needed to detect a stimulus change; also called the "*just noticeable difference*" (JND).

Weber's absolute threshold examples

ABSOLUTE THRESHOLDS FOR VARIOUS SENSES

Sense	Stimulus	Absolute Threshold
Vision	Light energy	A candle flame seen from 30 miles away on a clear, dark night
Hearing	Sound waves	The tick of a watch at 20 feet
Taste	Chemical substances that contact the tongue	One teaspoon of sugar in two gallons of water
Smell	Chemical substances that enter the nose	One drop of perfume spread throughout a six-room apartment
Touch	Movement of, or pressure on, the skin	A bee's wing falling on your cheek from a height of about half an inch

- ***Weber's law***: states that just noticeable difference (jnd) is proportional to the intensity of the original stimulus.

$$JND(k) = \Delta I / I \quad \text{or} \quad \Delta I = I \times k$$

Subliminal perception

- Subliminal perception: When we detect stimuli that are below our absolute threshold for conscious awareness.

- Subliminal (or below the threshold) message for one person, may be supraliminal (above the threshold) for another person.

- There is little or no evidence of *subliminal persuasion.*

Signal Detection Theory

- This theory states that detection of a stimuli depend on physical, psychological and environmental factors
- A A A

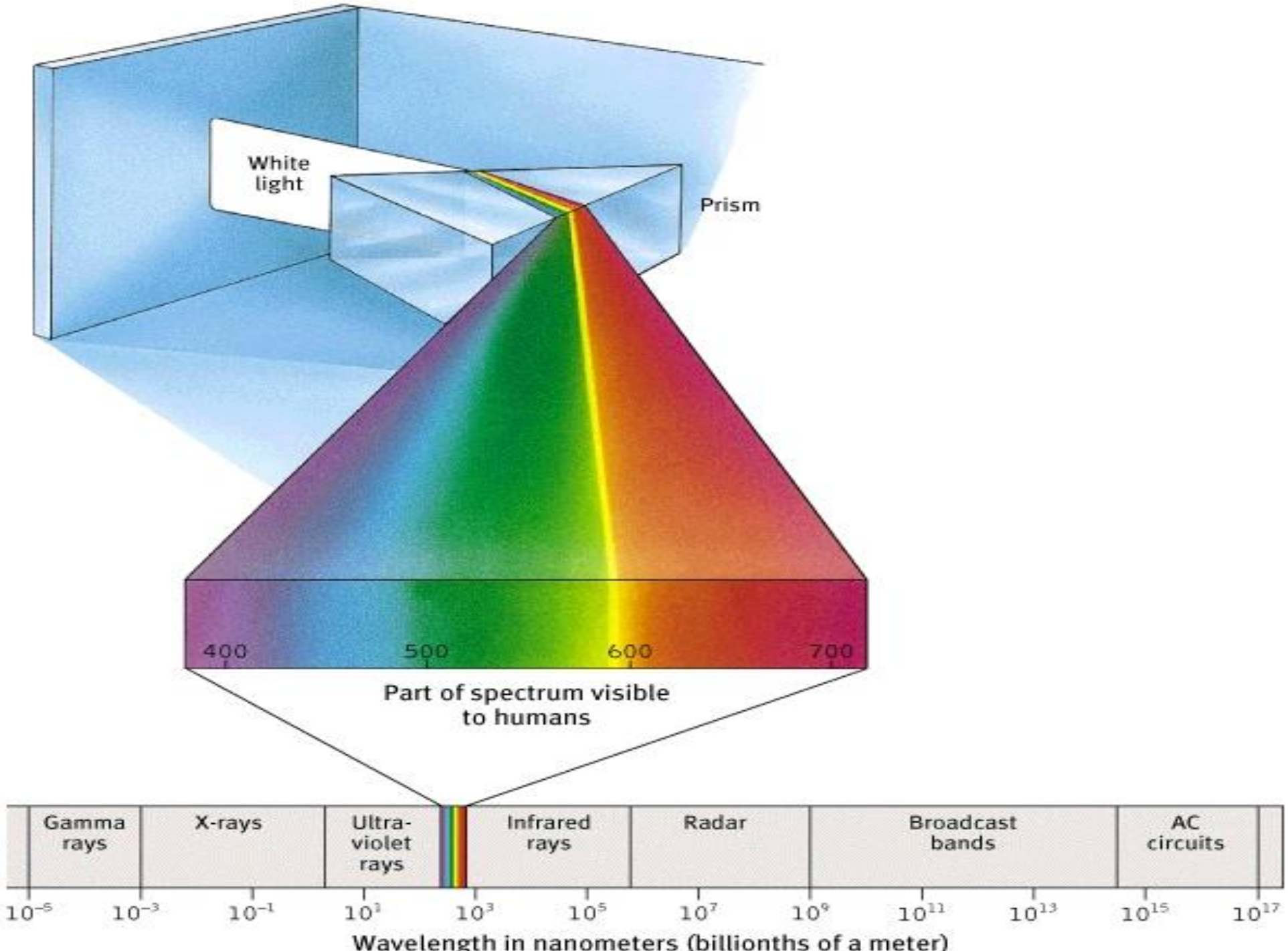
Understanding Sensation

- **Sensory Adaptation:** decreased sensitivity due to repeated or constant stimulation

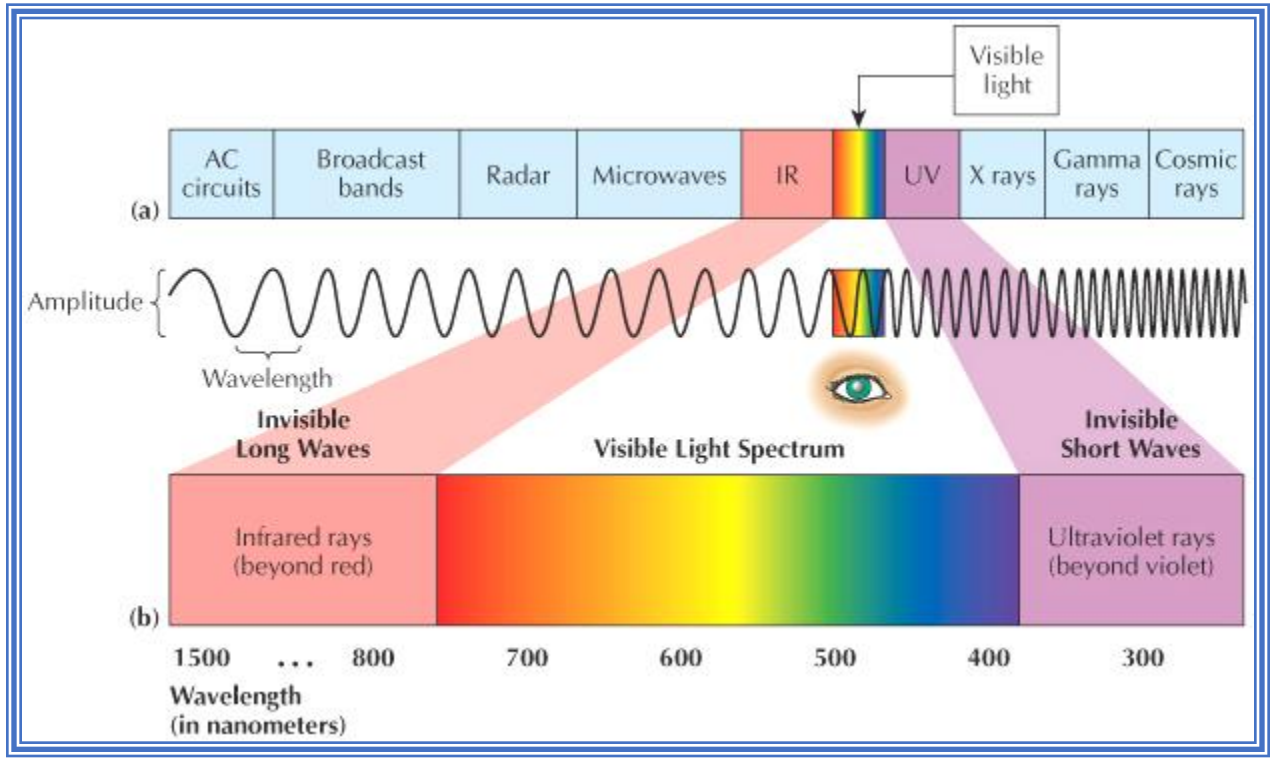
2.2.3. Vision

- Light is a form of electromagnetic energy that moves in waves.

- Various types of electromagnetic waves form the electromagnetic spectrum.

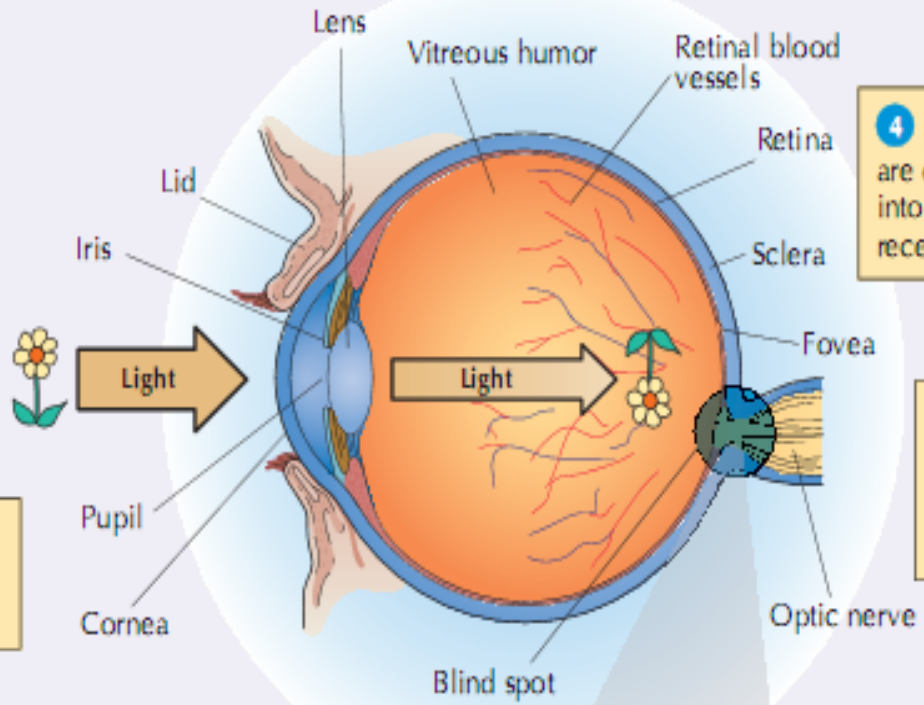

White light
Prism
400
500
600
700
Part of spectrum visible to humans
Gamma rays
X-rays
Ultra-violet rays
Infrared rays
Radar
Broadcast bands
AC circuits
10^{-5}
10^{-3}
10^{-1}
10^{1}
10^{3}
10^{5}
10^{7}
10^{9}
10^{11}
10^{13}
10^{15}
10^{17}
Wavelength in nanometers (billionths of a meter)

Electromagnetic Spectrum



How the Eye Sees

3 Behind the iris and pupil, the muscularly controlled lens focuses incoming light into an image on the light sensitive *retina*, located on the back surface of the fluid-filled eyeball. Note how the lens reverses the image from right to left and top to bottom when it is projected on to the retina. The brain later reverses the visual input into the final image that we perceive.



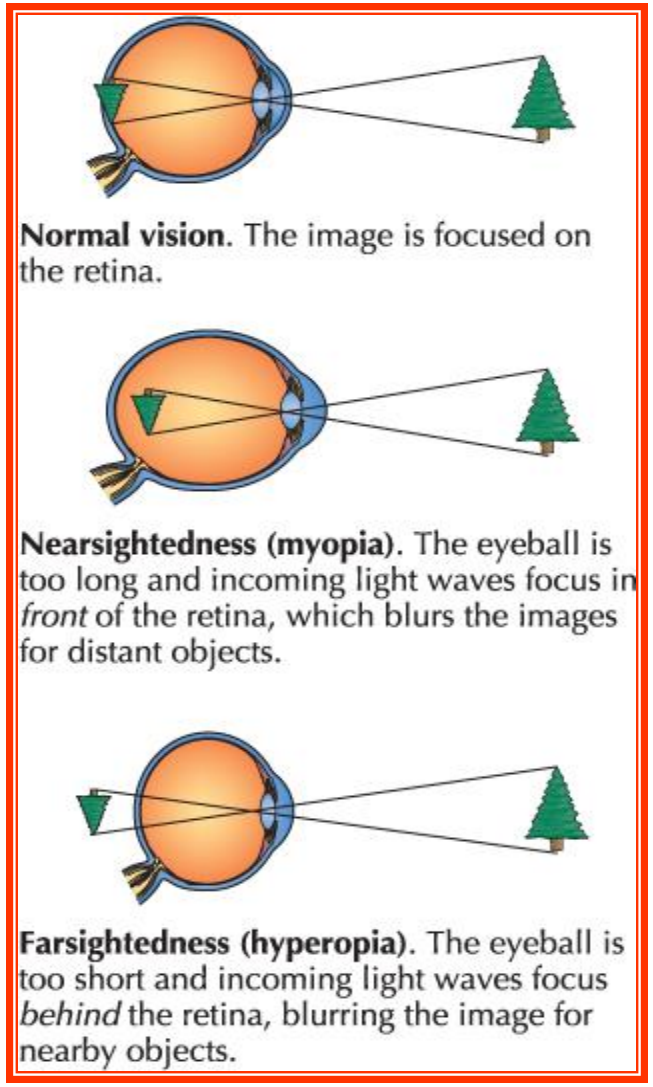
2 The light then passes through the *pupil*, a small adjustable opening. Muscles in the *iris* allow the *pupil* to dilate or constrict in response to light intensity or emotional factors.

4 In the **retina,** light waves are detected and transduced into neural signals by vision receptor cells (rods and cones).

1 Light first enters through the *cornea*, which helps focus incoming light rays.

5 The **fovea,** a tiny pit filled with cones, is responsible for our sharpest vision.

- Vision research helps explain how the shape of your eyeball creates two common visual problems
- **Nearsightedness: inability to see far objects.**
- **Farsightedness**.: inability to clearly see near objects.



Normal vision. The image is focused on the retina.

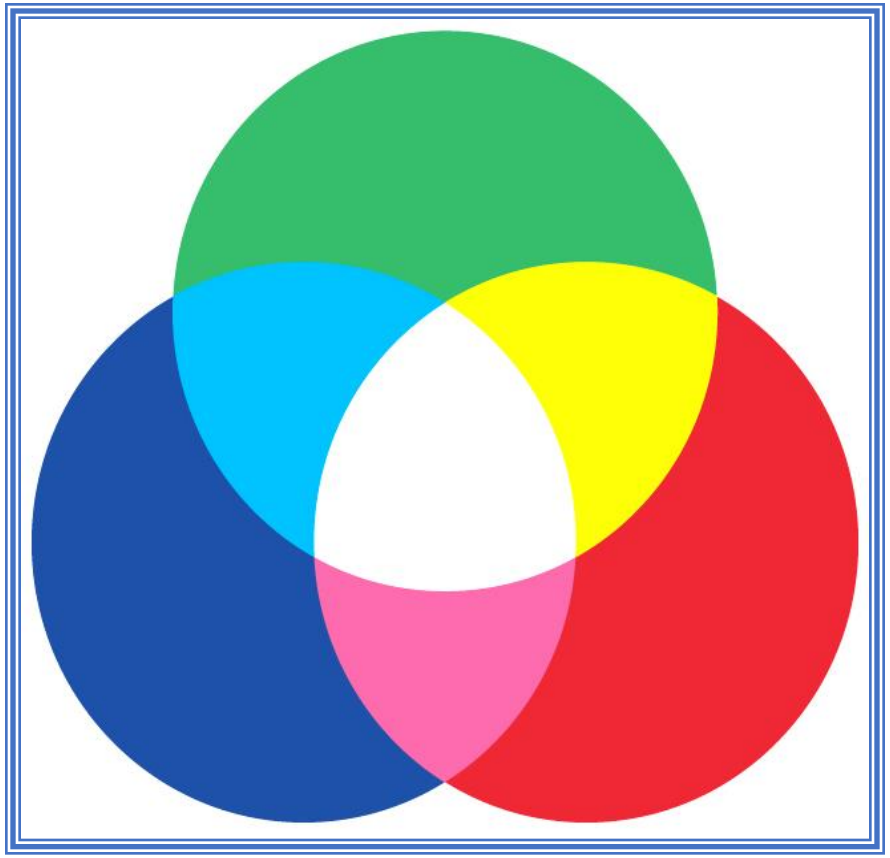
Nearsightedness (myopia). The eyeball is too long and incoming light waves focus in *front* of the retina, which blurs the images for distant objects.

Farsightedness (hyperopia). The eyeball is too short and incoming light waves focus *behind* the retina, blurring the image for nearby objects.

Theories of Color Vision

- *Color vision* is a combination of *two* theories

1. **Trichromatic Theory**: color perception results from three types of cones in the retina, sensitive to either red, green, and blue



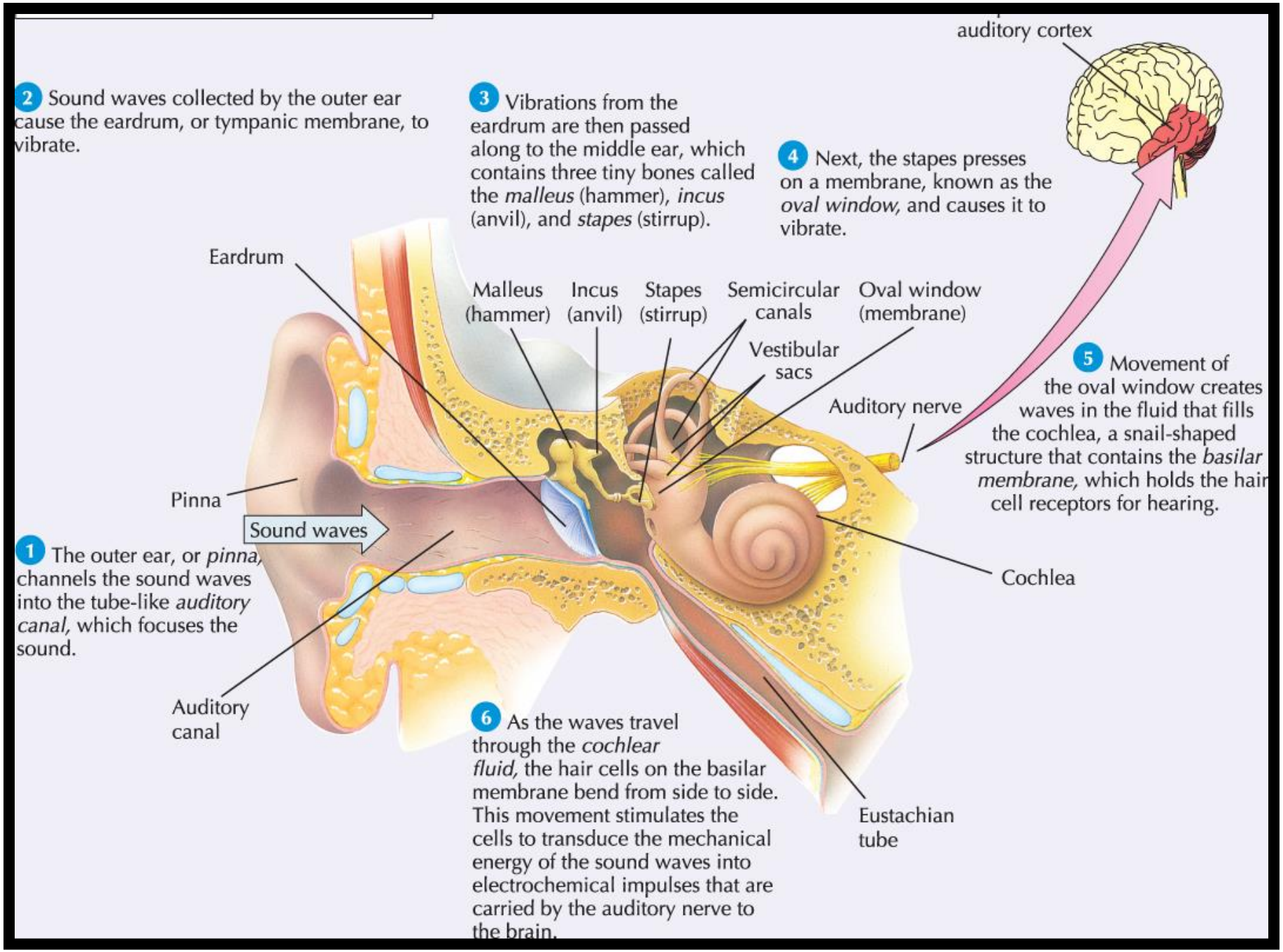
2. **Opponent-Process Theory**: two different receptors(cons) sensitive for opposite colors (blue-yellow, red-green, & black-white).

- The activation of one color suppresses the other complementary color.

2.2.4. Audition

- **Sound** results from movement of air molecules in a particular wave pattern.

- **Sound waves** vary in:
  - wavelength, which determines *pitch* (highness or lowness).
  - amplitude, which determines *loudness* (intensity of the sound).


auditory cortex
2 Sound waves collected by the outer ear cause the eardrum, or tympanic membrane, to vibrate.
3 Vibrations from the eardrum are then passed along to the middle ear, which contains three tiny bones called the *malleus* (hammer), *incus* (anvil), and *stapes* (stirrup).
4 Next, the stapes presses on a membrane, known as the *oval window,* and causes it to vibrate.
Eardrum
Malleus (hammer)
Incus (anvil)
Stapes (stirrup)
Semicircular canals
Oval window (membrane)
Vestibular sacs
Auditory nerve
5 Movement of the oval window creates waves in the fluid that fills the cochlea, a snail-shaped structure that contains the *basilar membrane,* which holds the hair cell receptors for hearing.
Pinna
Sound waves
1 The outer ear, or *pinna,* channels the sound waves into the tube-like *auditory canal,* which focuses the sound.
Cochlea
Auditory canal
6 As the waves travel through the *cochlear fluid,* the hair cells on the basilar membrane bend from side to side. This movement stimulates the cells to transduce the mechanical energy of the sound waves into electrochemical impulses that are carried by the auditory nerve to the brain.
Eustachian tube

Theories of Pitch Perception

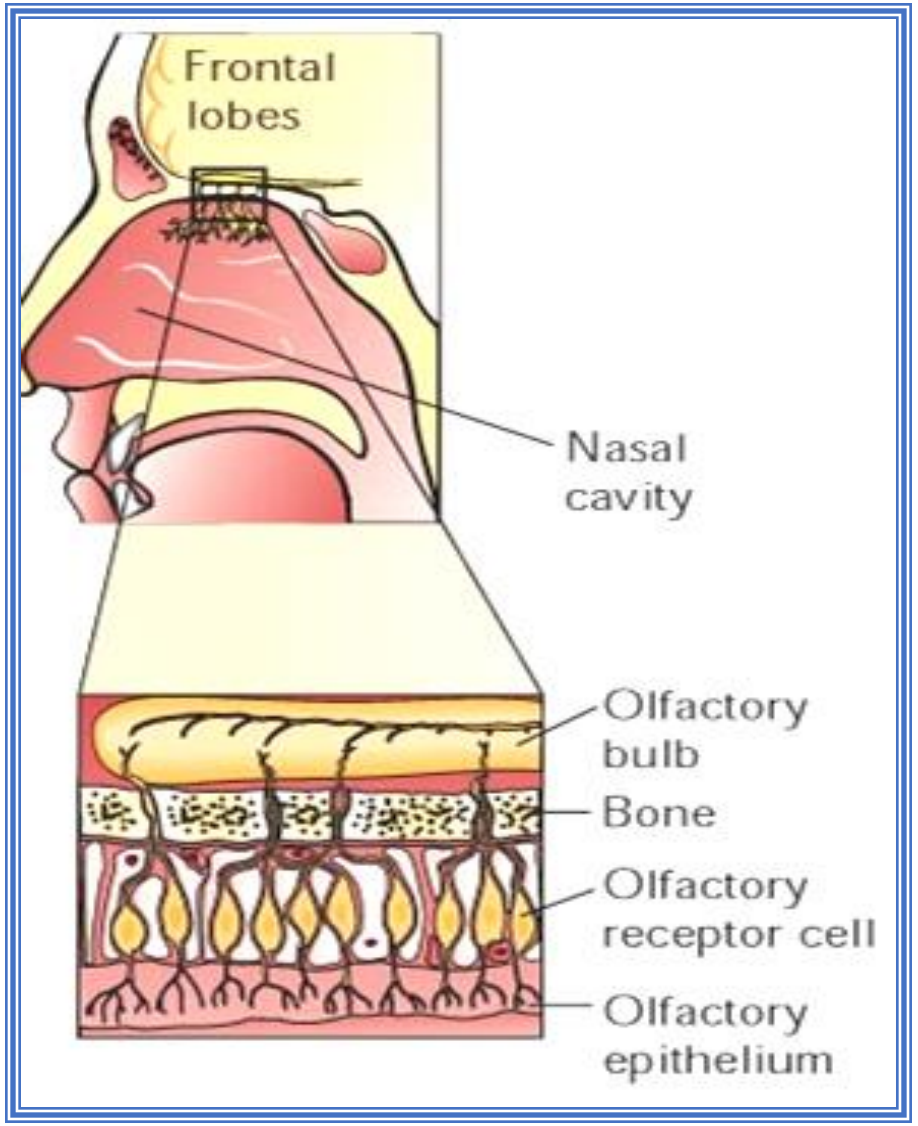
- **Place Theory**: pitch perception is linked to the particular spot on the cochlea's basilar membrane that is most stimulated.

- **Frequency Theory**: pitch perception occurs when nerve impulses sent to the brain match the frequency of the sound wave.

2.2.5. Olfaction

- **Olfaction**: sense of smell

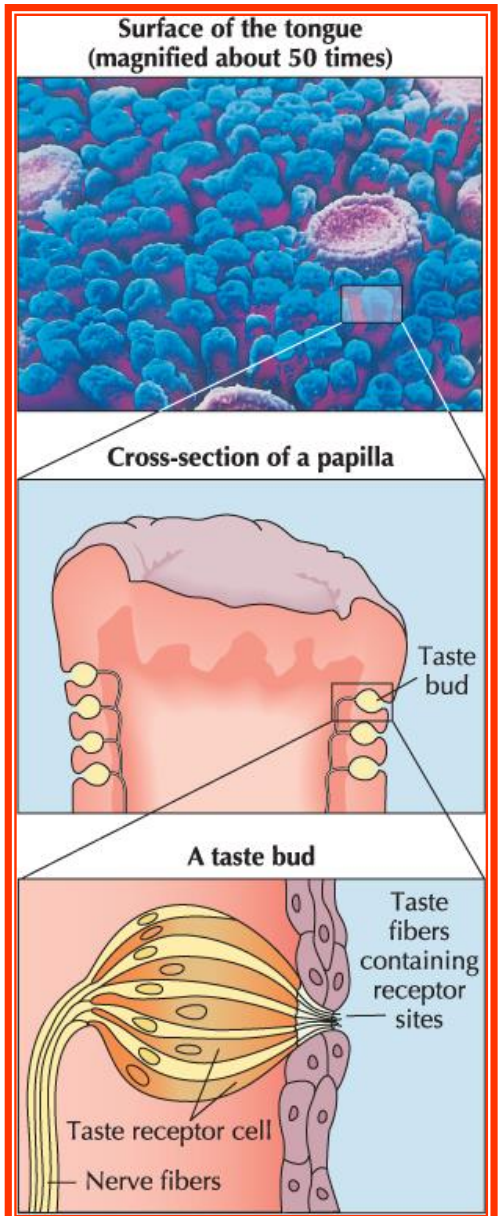
- Receptors for smell are embedded in the nasal membrane (the olfactory epithelium).



2.2.6. Gustation (Sense of Taste)



- Gustation refers to sense of taste responding to different chemicals.
- There are about 10,000 receptors for taste (taste buds), located in papillae on the surface of the tongue.



- The following are the basic tastes:
  - ✓Sweet (Sucrose)
  - ✓Bitter (quinine)
  - ✓Salty (Sodium chloride)
  - ✓Sour (HCL)

❑ People perceive salty tastes most rapidly and bitter tastes least rapidly.

❑ Women are more sensitive to taste (have more taste buds) compared to men.



2.2.7. Body Senses

- **A. Skin senses** involve three skin sensations-- touch (or pressure), temperature, & pain.
- Receptors for these sensations occur in various concentrations & depths in the skin.

- ***B. Vestibular sense*** (or sense of balance) involves the vestibular sacs & semicircular canals located within the inner ear.

C. Kinesthesia provides our brains with information about posture, orientation, and movement.

- Kinesthetic receptors are located in muscles, joints, and tendons.

2.3. Perception

- **Perception**: the set of processes by which we recognize, organize, and make sense of the sensations we receive from environmental stimuli. It is understanding and giving meaning to sensation.
- There are three processes in perception
  - Selection
  - Organization interpretation
  - Extra-sensory perception

I Coming home to am

My Sister Present Father Good

I am Coming to home

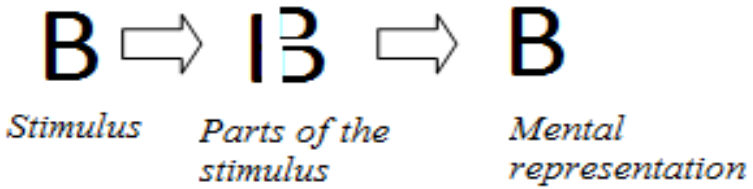
2.3.1. Selection

- There are three main processes in selection (choosing where to direct attention) involves:
  - **Selective attention**: filtering out and attending only to important sensory messages
    - **Cocktail-party phenomenon**
  - **Feature detectors:** specialized neurons that respond only to certain sensory information
  - **Habituation**: brain's tendency to ignore environmental factors that remain constant

Theoretical Approaches to Perception

1. *Direct Theories [Bottom-Up Approaches]*

- Claim that perception starts from "the bottom" (physical stimuli) then progress to the brain for higher-level cognitive processes.



This stimulus will be broken down into specific features by the brain to be perceived as a letter "B."

- Look at *Gibson's theory of direct perception*

2. Top-Down Approaches

State that information processing starts "at the top" with higher-level mental processes (based on experiences and expectations) and then work down.

- **Perceptual set:** Allport's term for predispositions and expectations in perception can serve as a best example of this approach.

Attention

- **Attention**: focusing on a limited range of stimuli or event.
- **Selective attention:** focusing on a specific aspect of experience while ignoring others.
- **Cocktail- party-phenomenon:** when you give attention to a person who calls your name in a crowded room.

Factors that increase attention

- Novelty
- Size
- Color
- Movement
- Interest
- Frequency

2.3.2. Perceptual organization

- The process of assembling perceptual data in order to make them meaningful.
- For example, organizing perceived colors and lines into objects
- Perceptual organization involves:
  - Shape perception
  - Perceptual constancy
  - Depth perception

A. Shape Perception

- Shape perception involves perceiving shapes, forms, and patterns.

a. Figure-Ground Relationship

- Perceiving the figure (the stimulus) from the left out surrounding (background)





b. Gestalt laws of perception

- Gestalt: a german word for pattern, form and configuration
- The laws are:
- ***The law of closure***: incomplete figures as a whole



- **Proximity:** objects that are near each other tend to be perceived as a unit

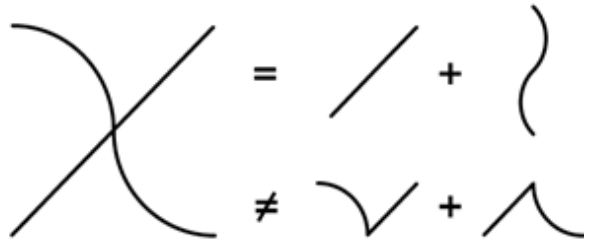
PPP PPP PPD

- **Similarity**: we tend to group similar items (in terms of color, shape, size) together

CCCCBBBDDD

D. Good continuation

perceiving patterns as continuing even though they are disrupted, or discontinued.



Continuity

(C)

- ***Common fate***: perceiving objects moving together as a group (coordinate movement).

- ***Law of Pragnanz*****:** the simplest organization, requiring the least cognitive effort, will emerge as the figure.

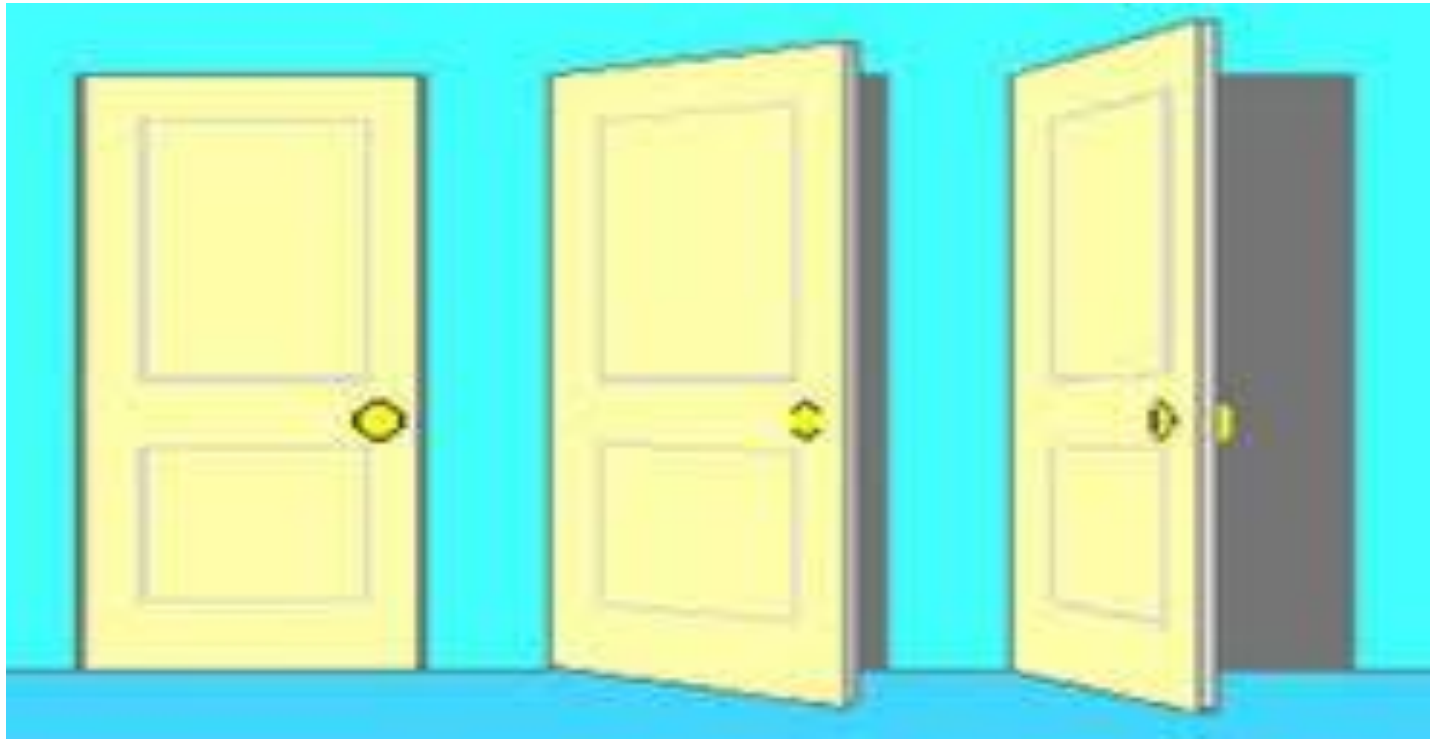


B. Perceptual Constancies

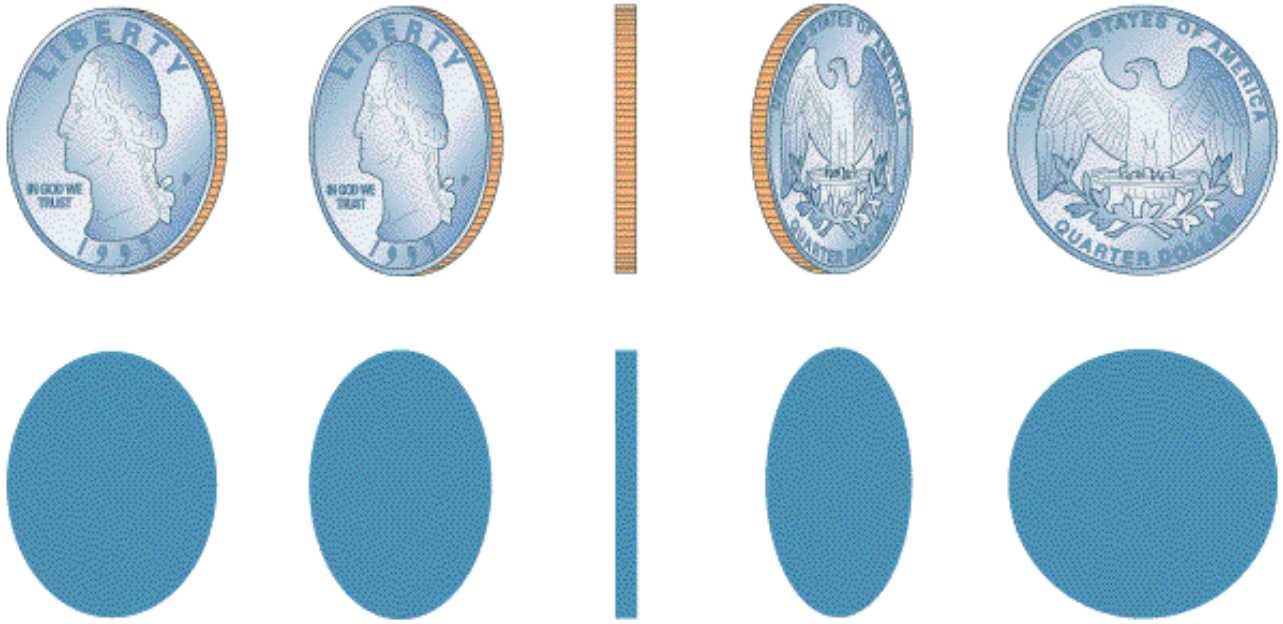
- **Perceptual Constancy:** perceiving the environment as remaining the same even in spite of changes in sensory input

- Four best-known constancies:
  - Size
  - Shape
  - Color
  - Brightness

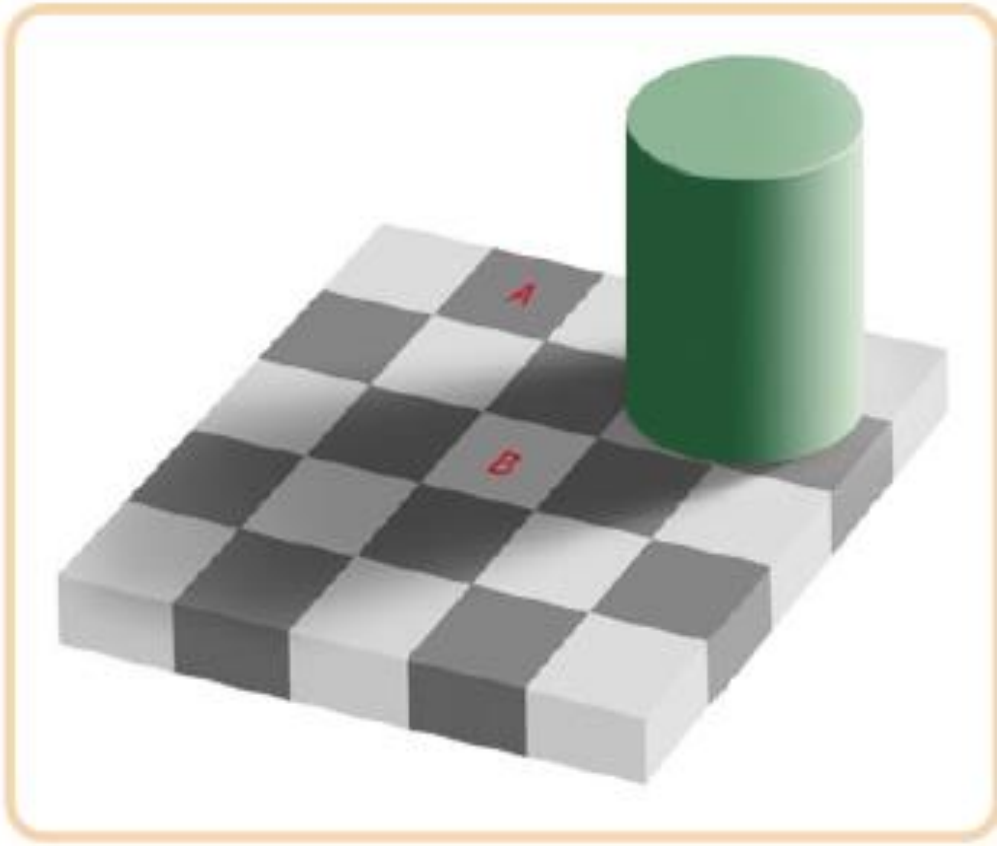
Shape constancy: the same perception in spite of the image on the retina.



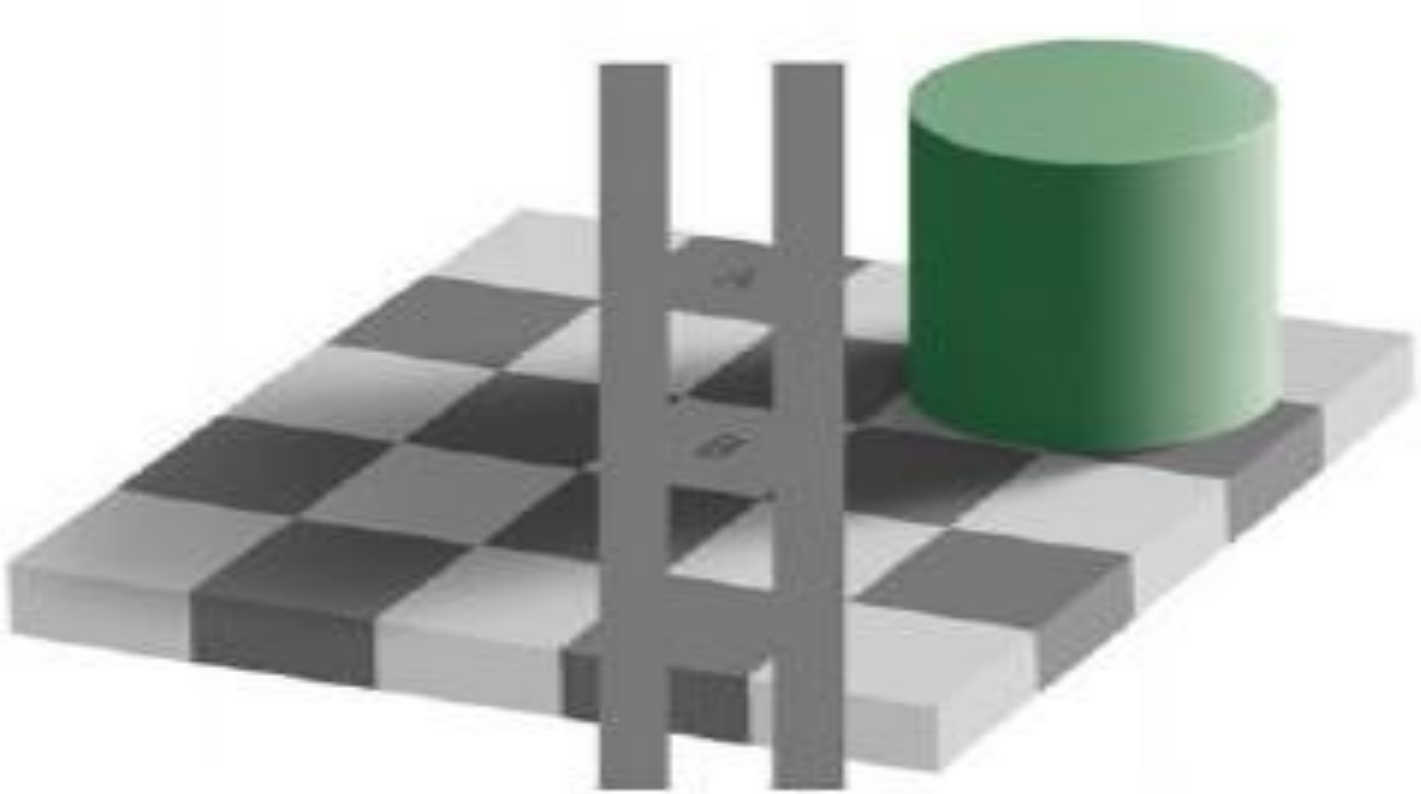
- Different shapes but the same perception

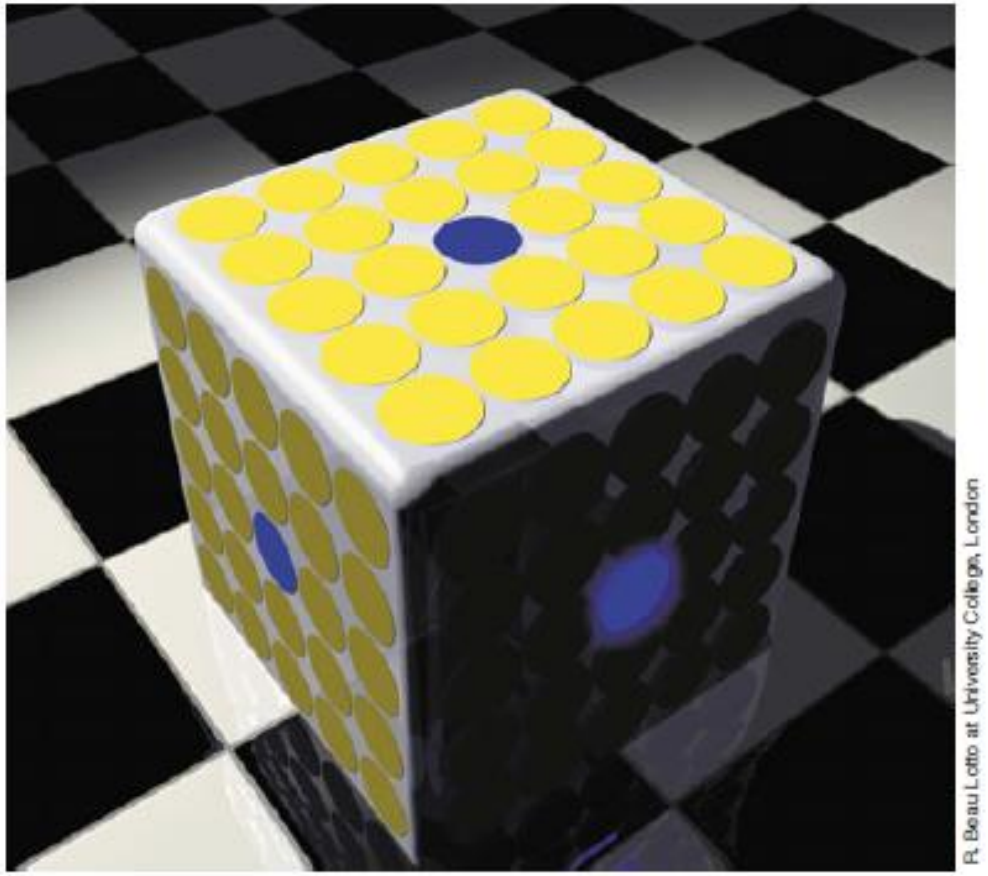


Color constancy



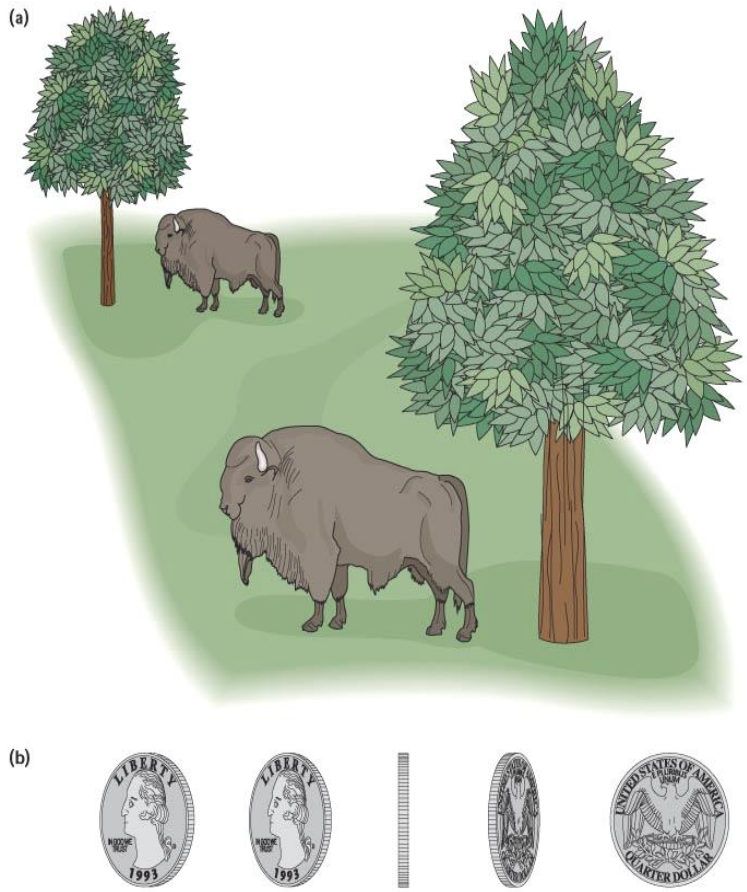
- Believe it or not both square “A” and “B” have the same color.
- *Relative luminance (* the amount of light an object reflects related to its surrounding) determines perceived brightness

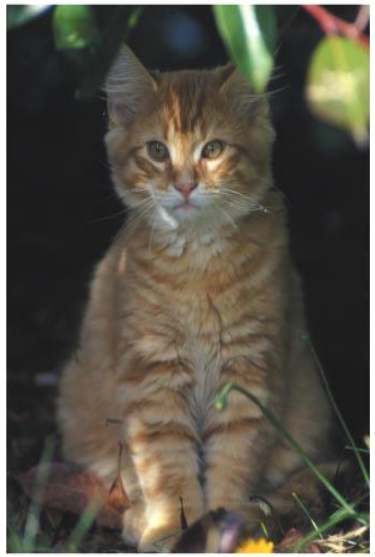




- These three blue colors are the same but they are influenced by the context.

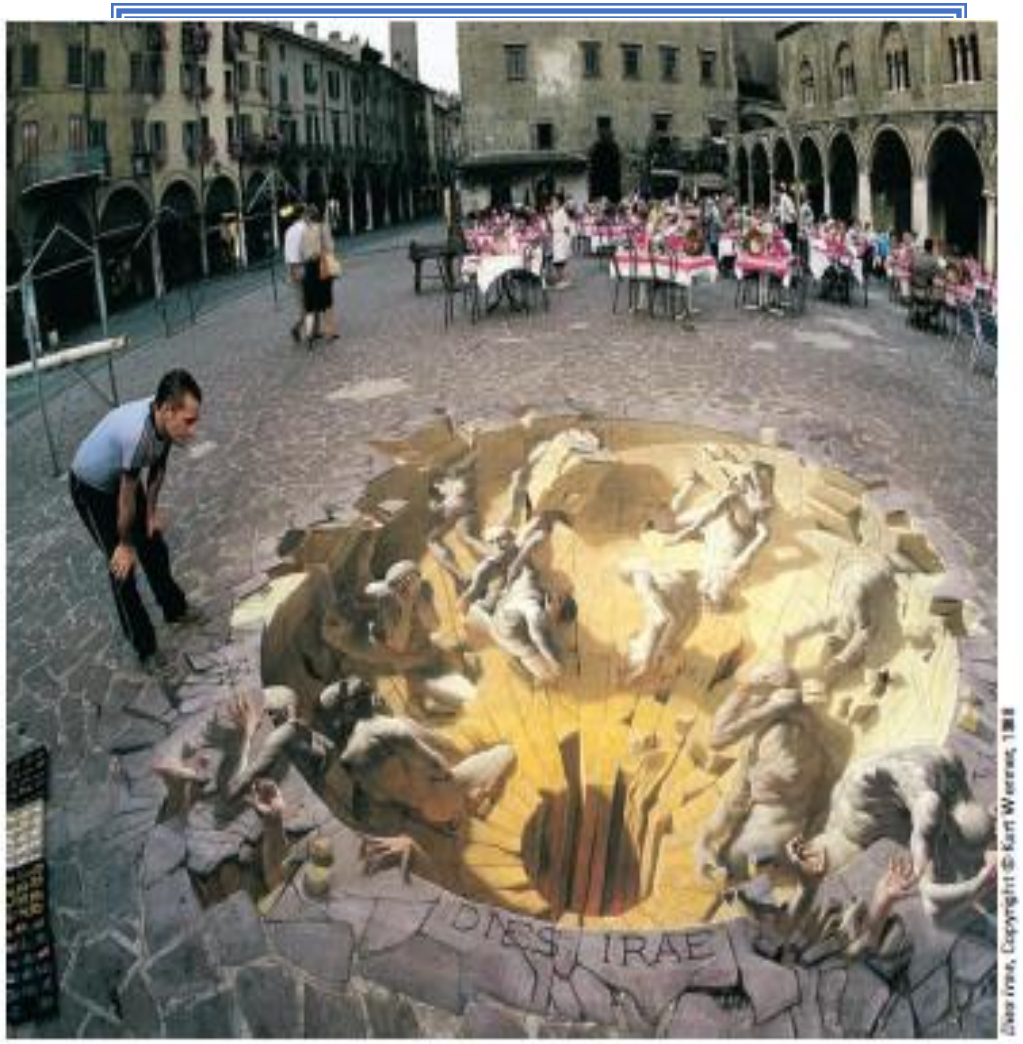
Can you label these examples of size, shape, color, & brightness constancies?





C. Depth Perception

- **Depth Perception**: ability to perceive three dimensional space and judge distance
- It involves binocular and monocular cues



Binocular cues

- **Binocular cues**: using information from both eyes for depth perception. Our eyes are about 2.5 inches apart and they receive different pictures
- Binocular depth cues involve:
  - **Retinal Disparity**: separation of the eyes causes different images to fall on each retina especially for near objects)
  - **Convergence**: when the eyes inward to point toward a nearby object)
  - **stereoscopic vision**: occurs when both images are merged into one,

Monocular cues

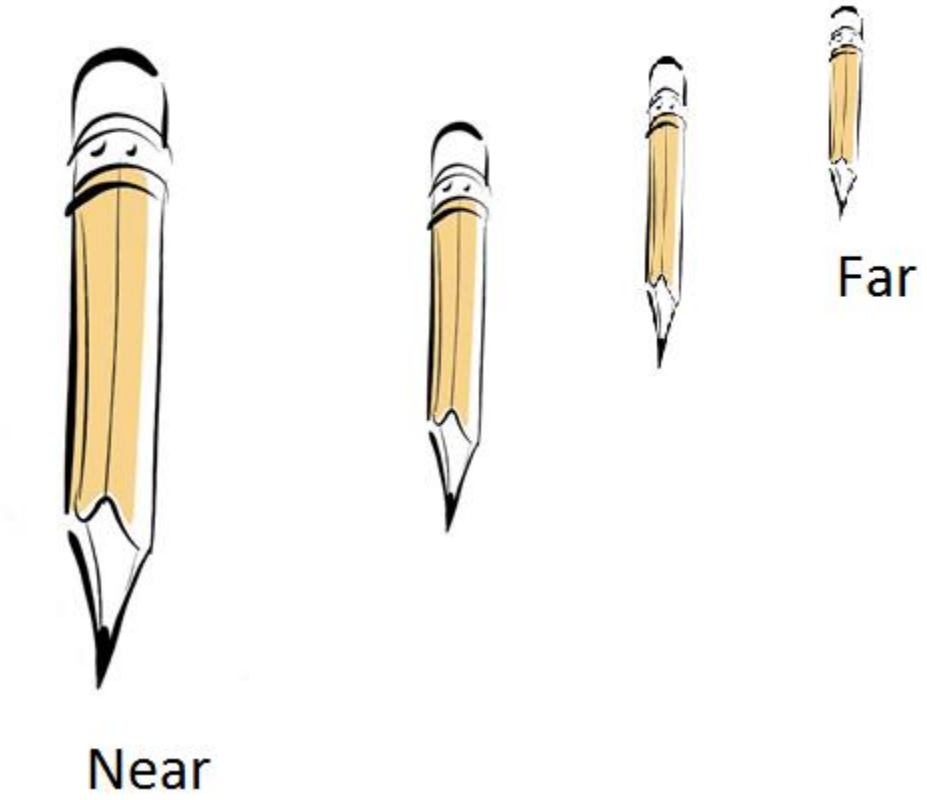
- Monocular cues help us to estimate depth and distance of 2D objects. They include:

1. Linear perspective
2. Interposition
3. Relative size
4. Texture gradient
5. Aerial perspective
6. Light & shadow
7. Relative height

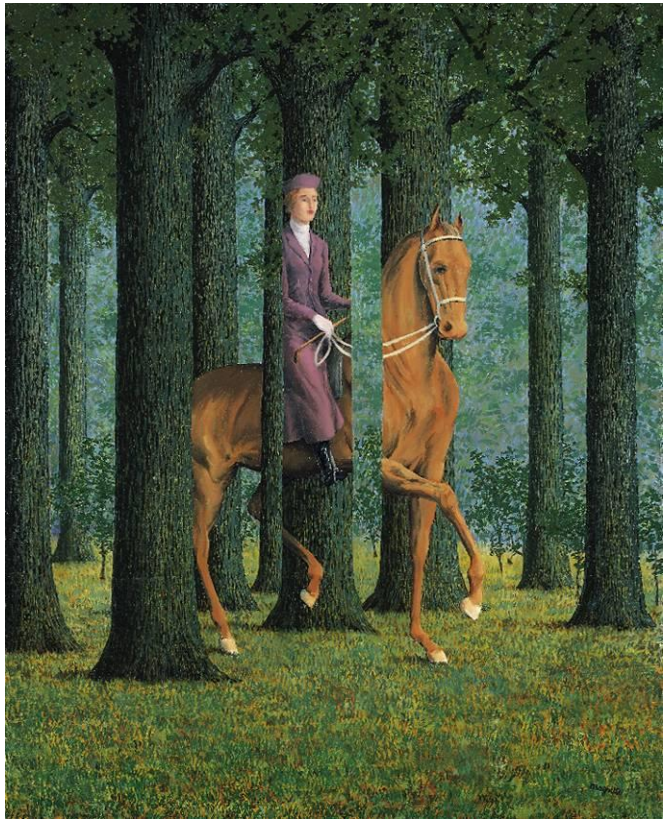


- Interposition: One object blocks another
- Linear perspective: Parallel lines converge in the distance
- Texture gradient: Texture of distant objects appears to be finer rather than coarser
- Shading: 3D objects cast shadows
- Aerial Perspective: Far objects are fuzzy
- Familiar size: Familiar objects that appear small are inferred to be distant
- Relative size: When looking at 2 objects of known similar size, the smaller is seen as further away
- Texture gradient: the coarseness decreases as we move away

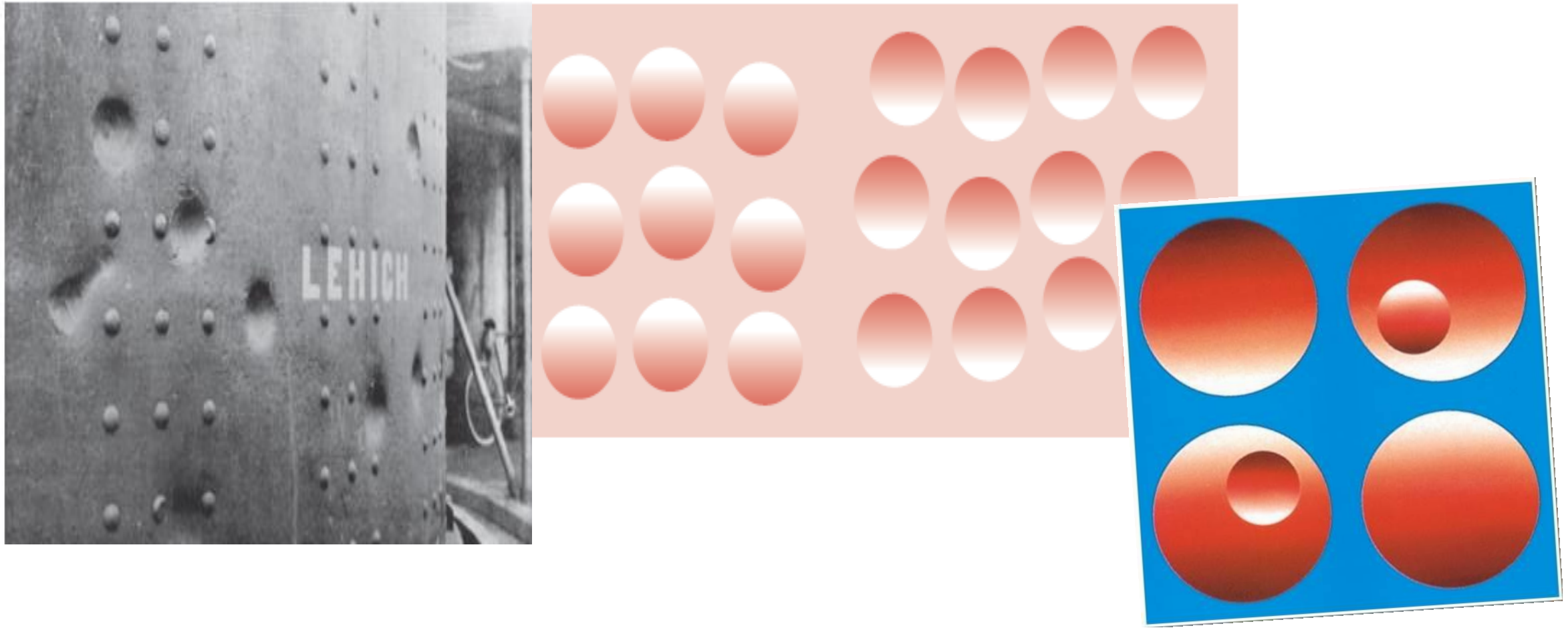
- *Relative Size*: objects of similar size, we perceive the one that casts a smaller retinal image to be farther away.



- Interposition/occlusion: objects that occlude (block) other objects tend to be perceived as closer.



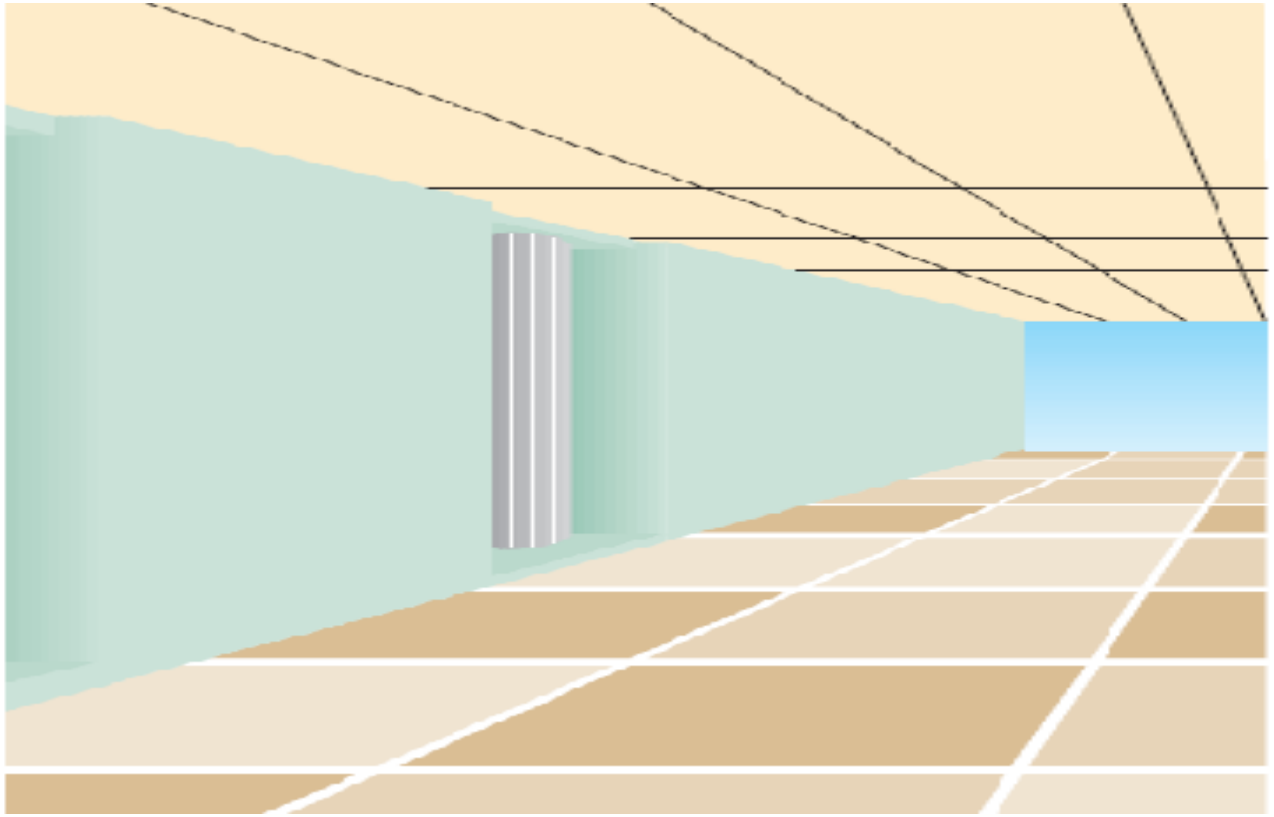
- Shadow: shadow and light will help in 3D perception



- **Motion parallax**: when far objects appear to move forward and near objects backward.



- **Linear perspective**: parallel lines appear to converge as we move farther



D. Motion perception

- The vestibular system works to keep the visual system informed of the movements of your head.
- We see motion when an object is moving relative to the background.
- ***Local movement***: when certain objects move and others remain stationary
- ***Global movement***: when a person moves and everything in the visual field moves

Interpretation

- **Interpretation** (how the brain explains sensations) involves three major factors:

1. ***Perceptual Adaptation:*** brain adapts to changed environments
2. ***Perceptual Set:*** readiness to perceive in a particular manner, based on expectations
3. ***Frame of Reference*:** based on the context of the situation

2.3.5. Illusions

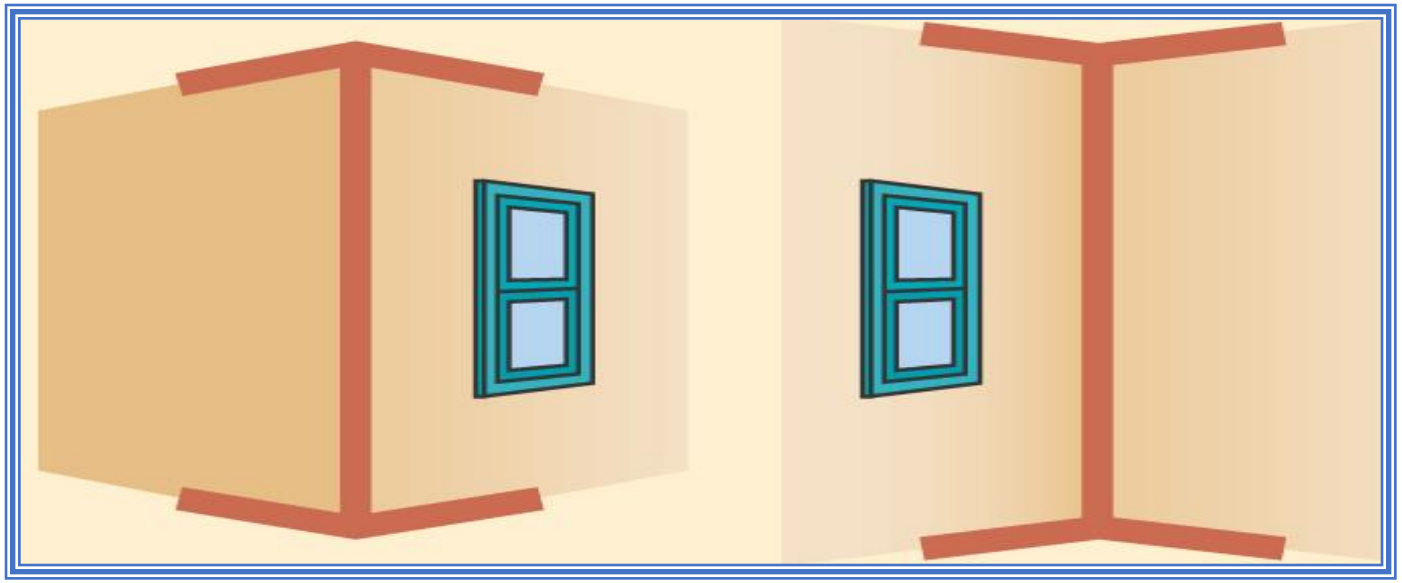
- **Illusion:** false or misleading perception that helps scientists study the processes of perception

Types of illusions

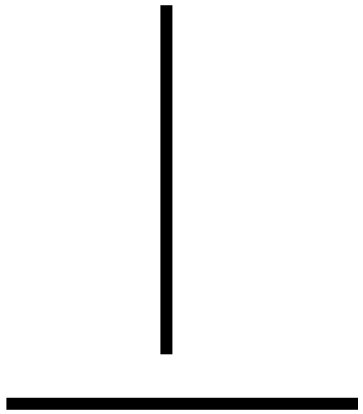
- *Distortions* (or *geometric illusions*): when we misperceive the stimuli
- *Ambiguous* (or *reversible*) *figures:* figures having two or more plausible interpretations
- *Paradoxical figures* (or *impossible objects*): paradoxical figures look ordinary enough at first, on closer inspection we realise they cannot exist in reality (hence 'paradoxical').
- *Fictions*: figures that create perceptions of non-existing things

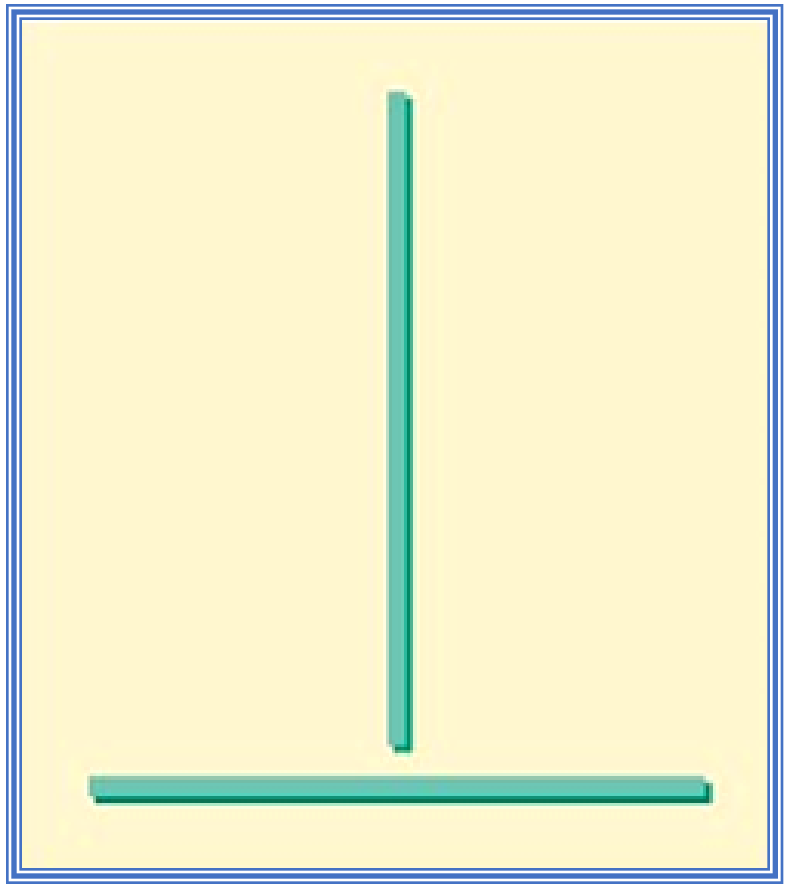
Illusions of Distortions

The Muller-Lyer Illusion Which vertical line is longer?

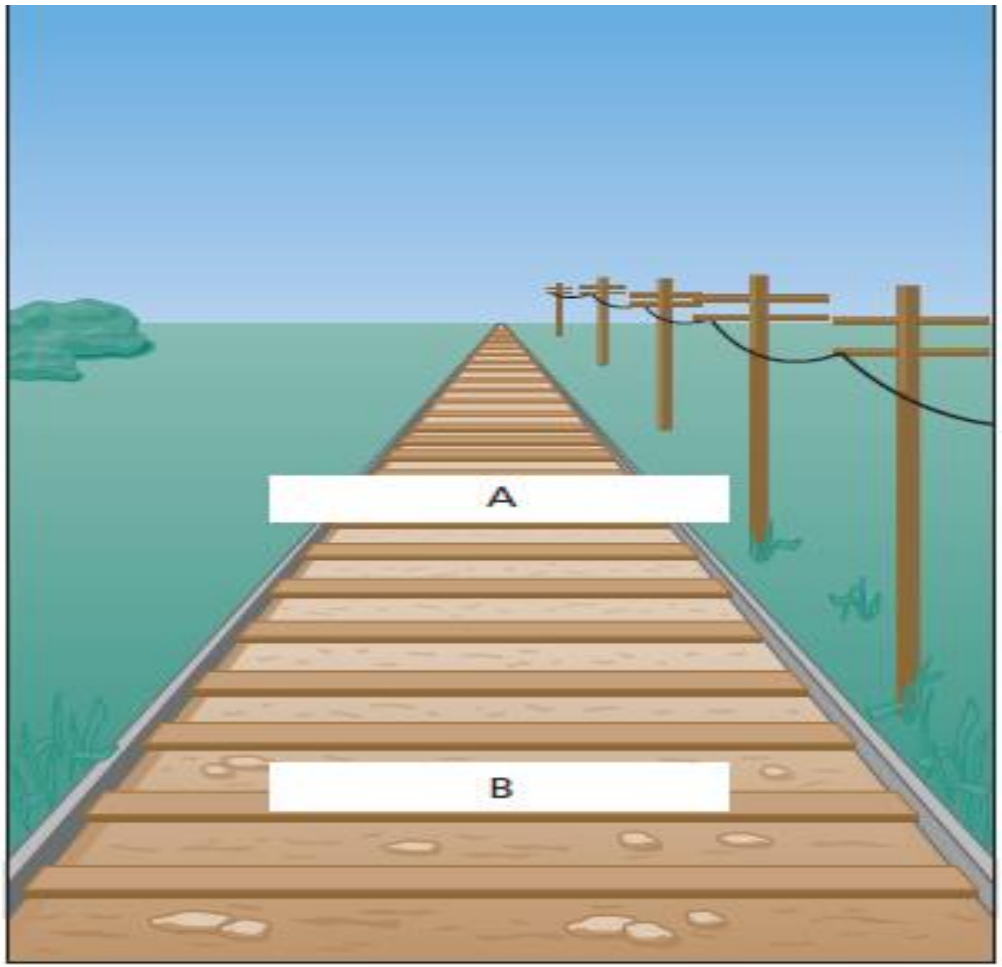


- The horizontal-vertical illusion Which line is longer?

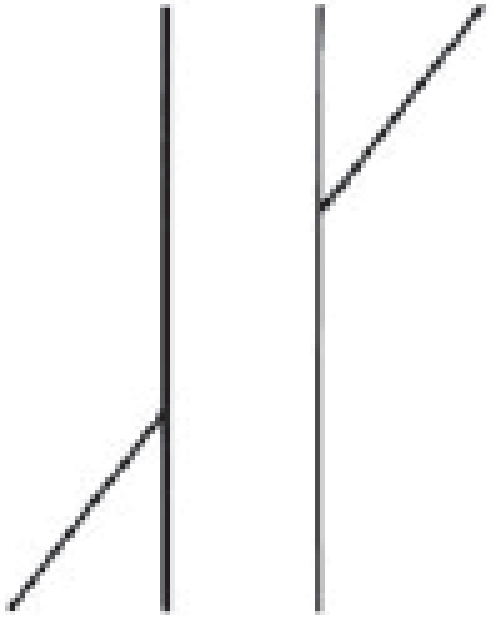




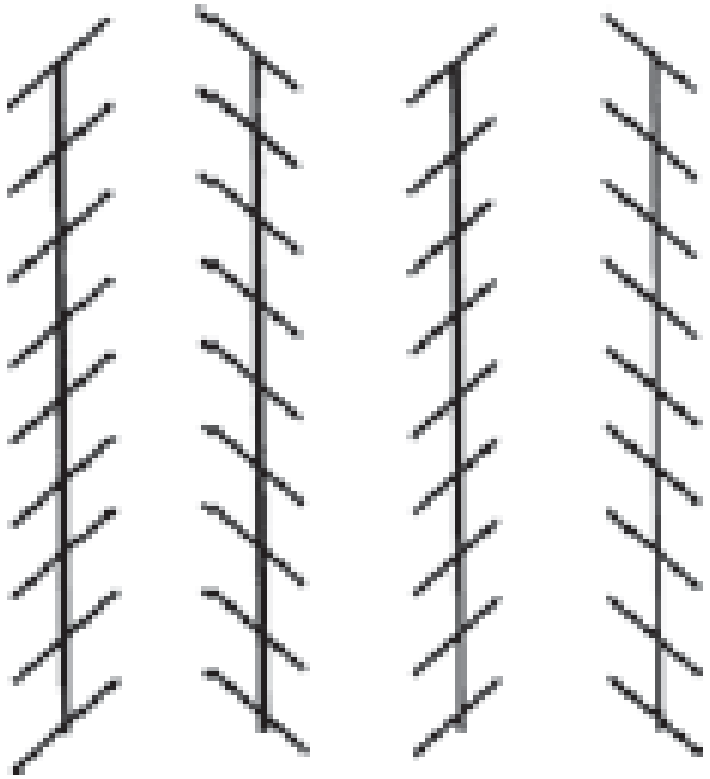
Pönzo illusion



Is the diagonal line straight or broken?



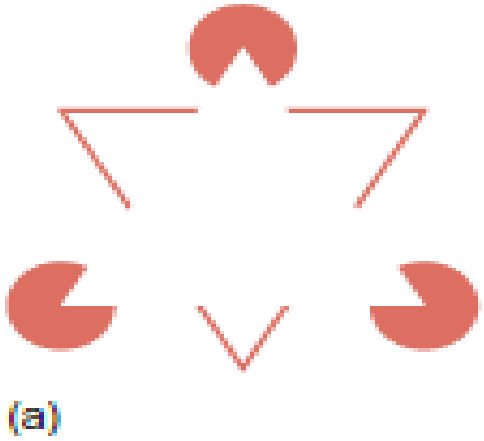
Poggendorf illusion



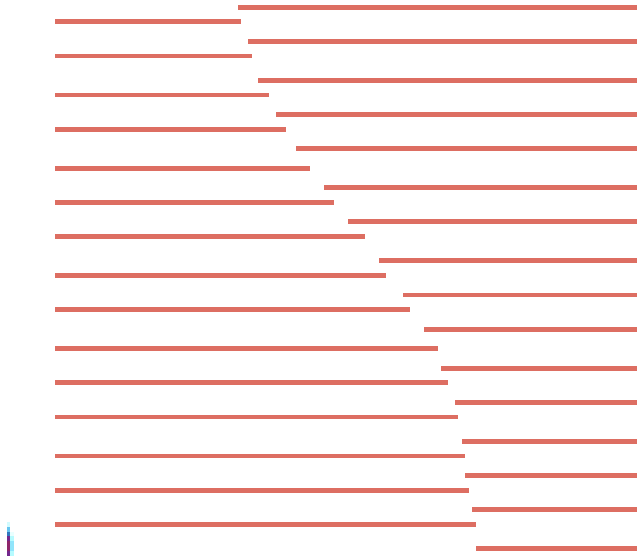
Zöllner illusion

Fictitious illusions

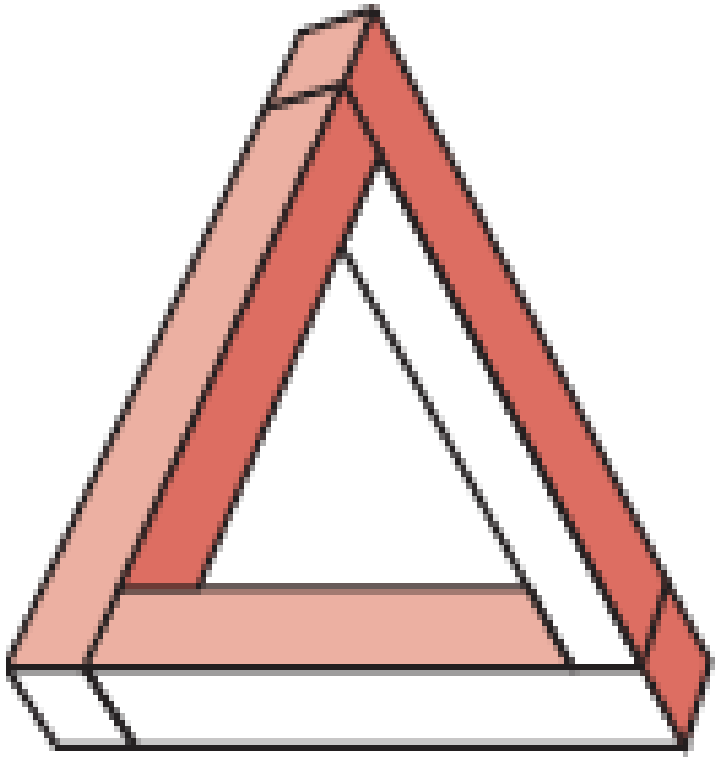
- The white triangle is false

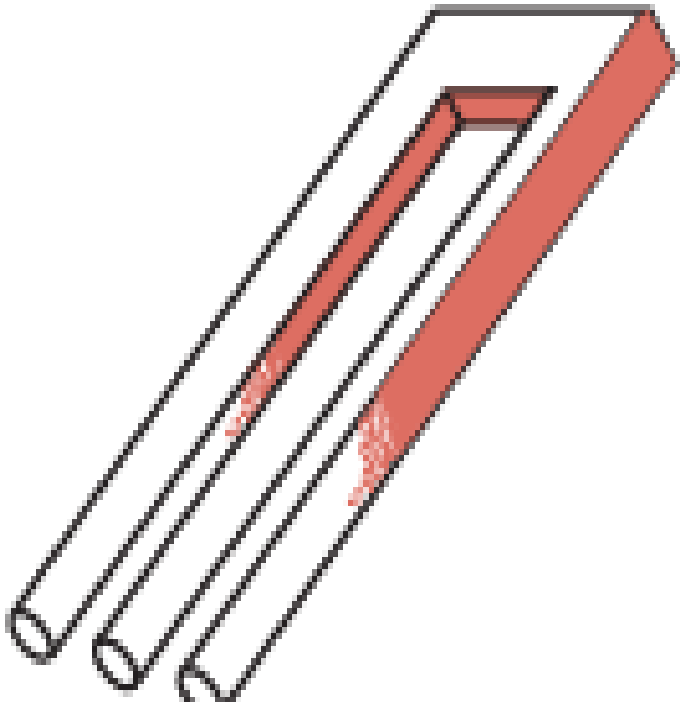


- The line is fictitious



Paradoxical figures







2.4. Extrasensory Perception (ESP)

- **Extrasensory Perception (ESP):** supposed "psychic" abilities that go beyond the known senses.
  - ***Telepathy***: mind to mind communication
  - ***Clairvoyance***: seeing without the eye
  - ***Precognition***: perceiving things/events before they happen
  - ***Psychokinesis*** (pk): moving things without touching them
- ESP research is criticized for its lack of experimental control & replicability.

Chapter Three
Learning

Definition

- Learning is a relatively permanent change in behavior due to experience
  - Permanence
  - Change
  - Experience

3.2. Learning Theories

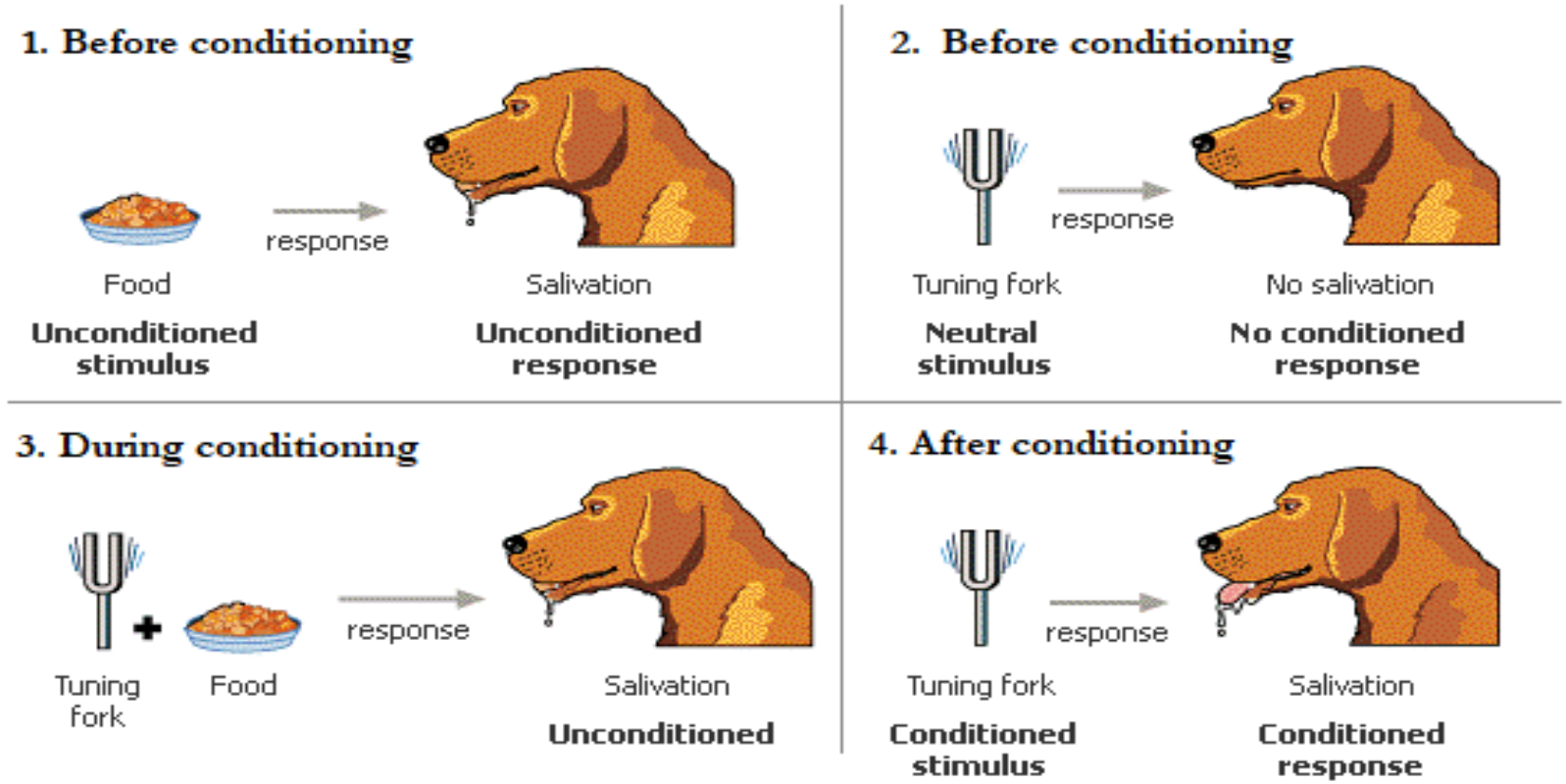
- Behavioral theories
  - Classical conditioning
  - Operant conditioning
- Cognitive approaches
- Social cognitive approach

1. Classical Conditioning

- Ivan Pavlov states that learning is a result of association
- Previously neutral stimulus starts to produce unlearned response after conditioning

Elements of Classical Conditioning

- ***Unconditioned stimulus (UCS)*:** natural stimulus that produces natural response
- ***Unconditioned response (UR)***: is natural response produced by the UCS
- **Conditioned stimulus (CS):** is previously neutral stimulus that eventually elicits conditioned response after being paired with the UCS.
- **Conditioned response (CR):** is learned response to the conditioned stimulus


1. Before conditioning
response
Food
Salivation
Unconditioned stimulus
Unconditioned response
2. Before conditioning
response
Tuning fork
No salivation
Neutral stimulus
No conditioned response
3. During conditioning
response
Tuning fork
Food
Salivation
Unconditioned
4. After conditioning
response
Tuning fork
Salivation
Conditioned stimulus
Conditioned response

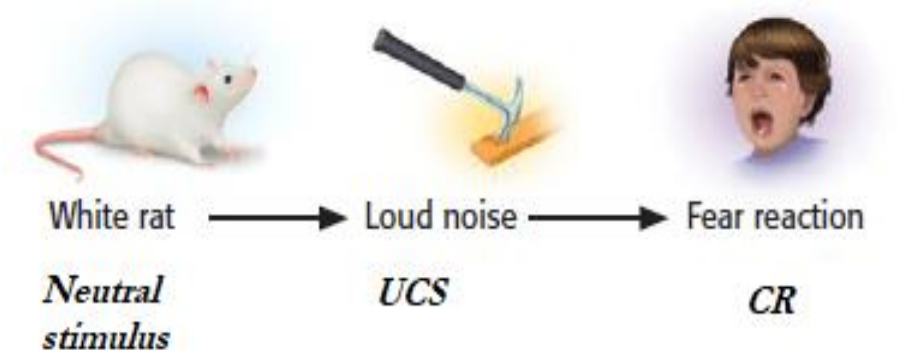
Principles of Classical Conditioning

- ***Acquisition:*** refers to is the initial learning stage of the stimulus-response link
- ***Stimulus generalization*****:** a process that occurs when new stimulus similar to the conditioned stimulus (e.g. bell) elicits similar response
- ***Stimulus discrimination*****:** the process of learning to differentiate among stimuli
- ***Extinction****:* is unlearning what is learned or the weakening of CR

$$Bell \ --> No\ food \rightarrow Extinction$$

- ***Spontaneous recovery****:* refers to the return of conditioned response because of the reappearance of previously extinguished UCS

Counter conditioning



White rabbit + Cookies→ No fear

Find the US, UR, NS, CS, CR in the following:



Your girl friend always uses the same shampoo. Soon, the smell of that shampoo makes you feel happy.



The door to your house squeaks loudly when you open it. Soon, your dog begins wagging its tail when the door squeaks.



The nurse says, “This won’t hurt a bit,” just before stabbing you with a needle. The next time you hear “This won’t hurt,” you cringe in fear.



You have a meal at a fast food restaurant that causes food poisoning. The next time you see a sign for that restaurant, you feel nauseated.

2. Operant Conditioning

- Acc to **B.F. Skinner** Operant conditioning states that learning is a result of **punishment and reinforcement**.
- **Thorndike's law of effect**: *behaviors followed by favorable consequences become more likely, and behaviors followed by unfavorable consequences become less likely*

Reinforcements and Punishments

- **Reinforcement**: any stimulus that increases the probability of behavior to be repeated
  - Reinforcement → ↑behavior
- **Punishment**: anything that reduces the probability of behavior to be repeated

e.g. beating reduces stealing

Reinforcement

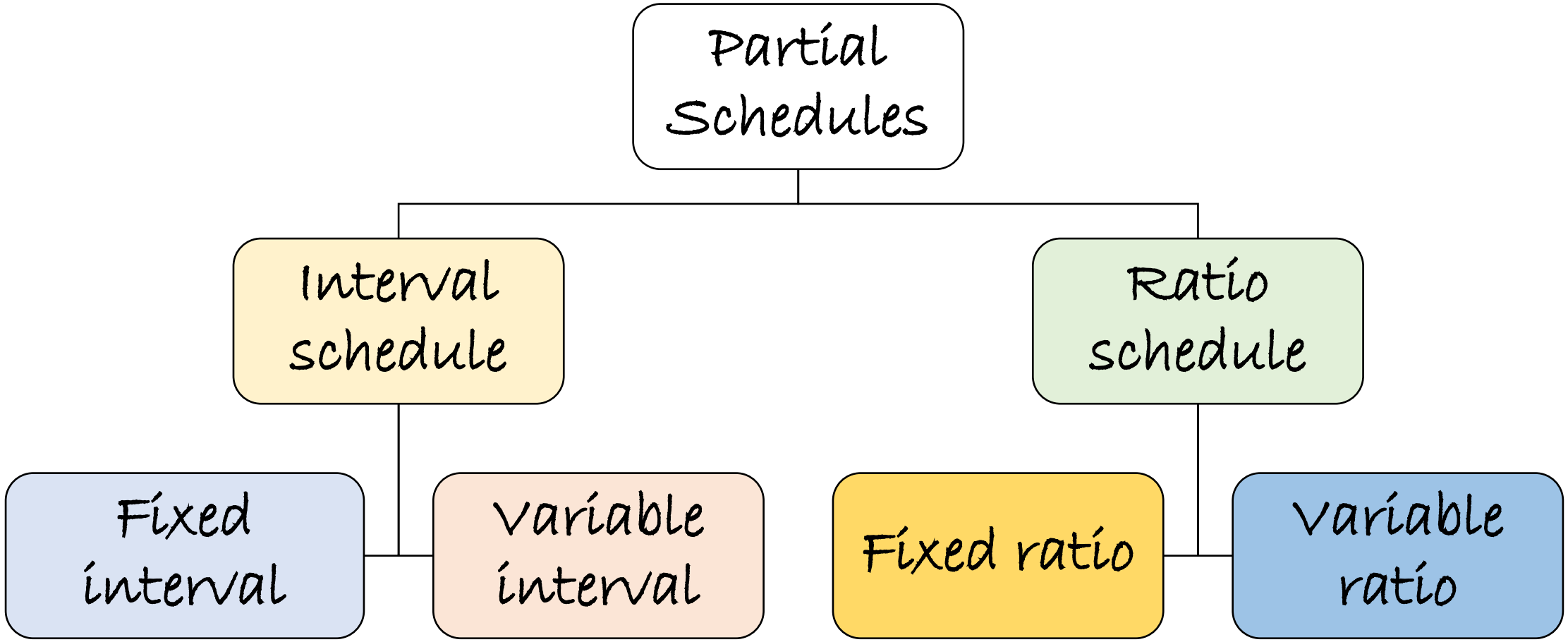
- ***Positive reinforcement***: the presence of reward to increase the frequency of desired behavior.

  Ex: Candy → Study

- ***Negative reinforcement***: when the frequency of a behavior increases because it is followed by a removal of an aversive (unpleasant) stimulus.

  Ex: Aspirin → headache

Schedules of reinforcement



- **Continuous**: rewarding every desirable behavior
- **Partial**: intermittent reward
  - ***Fixed interval :*** reinforcement is given for appropriate behavior after a fixed amount of time. Example: giving salary after every 30 days
  - ***Variable interval :*** reinforcement is given after a variable amount of time
  - ***Fixed ratio :*** is reinforcing a behavior after a set number of behaviors. Example: one bottle soft for 20 bottles of soft drink
  - ***Variable ratio :*** is a time table in which behaviors are rewarded on varying number basis

Matching Activity

A

1. Paid once a week
2. *P*atted on the back occasionally
3. Paid for every 10 units of work completed
4. *U*npredictably wining a lottery
5. Teacher gives 0.5 mark for each correct answer in a class

B

A. Fixed ratio
B. Fixed interval
C. Variable ratio
D. Variable interval
E. Continuous

Punishment

- Punishment refers to unpleasant or painful stimuli that decrease the probability that a behavior will occur again
  - ***Positive punishment***: when a behavior decreases following the application of unpleasant stimuli.

    Ex: Beating → ↓Misbehavior
  - ***Negative punishment***: refers to decreases the probability of a behavior to be repeated by removing pleasant stimuli.

    Ex: Reducing salary → ↓Absence

Positive (when stimulus is added)	Reinforcement Example: praising for good behavior Result: increase good behavior	Punishment Example: beating children when they cry Result: decreasing crying
Negative (When stimulus is removed)	Punishment Example: removal of a candy after misbehavior Result: decrease misbehavior	Reinforcement Example: terminating a headache by taking aspirin Result: increase behavior (taking aspirin)

Matching activity

A

1. A dog bites another aggressive dog
2. You mother reduces your work load when you study
3. You drink tea when you feel depressed
4. A teacher reduces 10 marks after cheating

B

A. Positive reinforcement
B. Negative reinforcement
C. Positive punishment
D. Negative punishment

4. Observational learning

- States that learning occurs by observing behavior of another person (called a role model)
- Albert Bandura stresses that knowledge and skills are acquired through imitation

Steps of observational learning

1. **Attention**: attending the model to learn (imitate) from the model
2. **Retention**: storing what we have imitated in memory to use later
3. **Reproduction**: reproducing (acting) what we have imitated from the model
4. **Motivation**: motivation (interest) to reproduce the act of the model

3. Cognitive approaches to learning

- Cognitive approaches focus on thought processes involved in learning

A) Latent learning and cognitive maps: is unintended and hidden learning that is not evident until reinforcement is presented

- **E.C Tolman** indicated that rats can learn cognitive maps of their environment, even in absence of reinforcement
- *Cognitive maps* (mental maps) can be learned learned because of repetition of the route
- Such knowledge will remain hidden until they get a reason or motivated to use it

B) Insight (aka *aha*) learning*:* sudden, unexpected recognition or learning

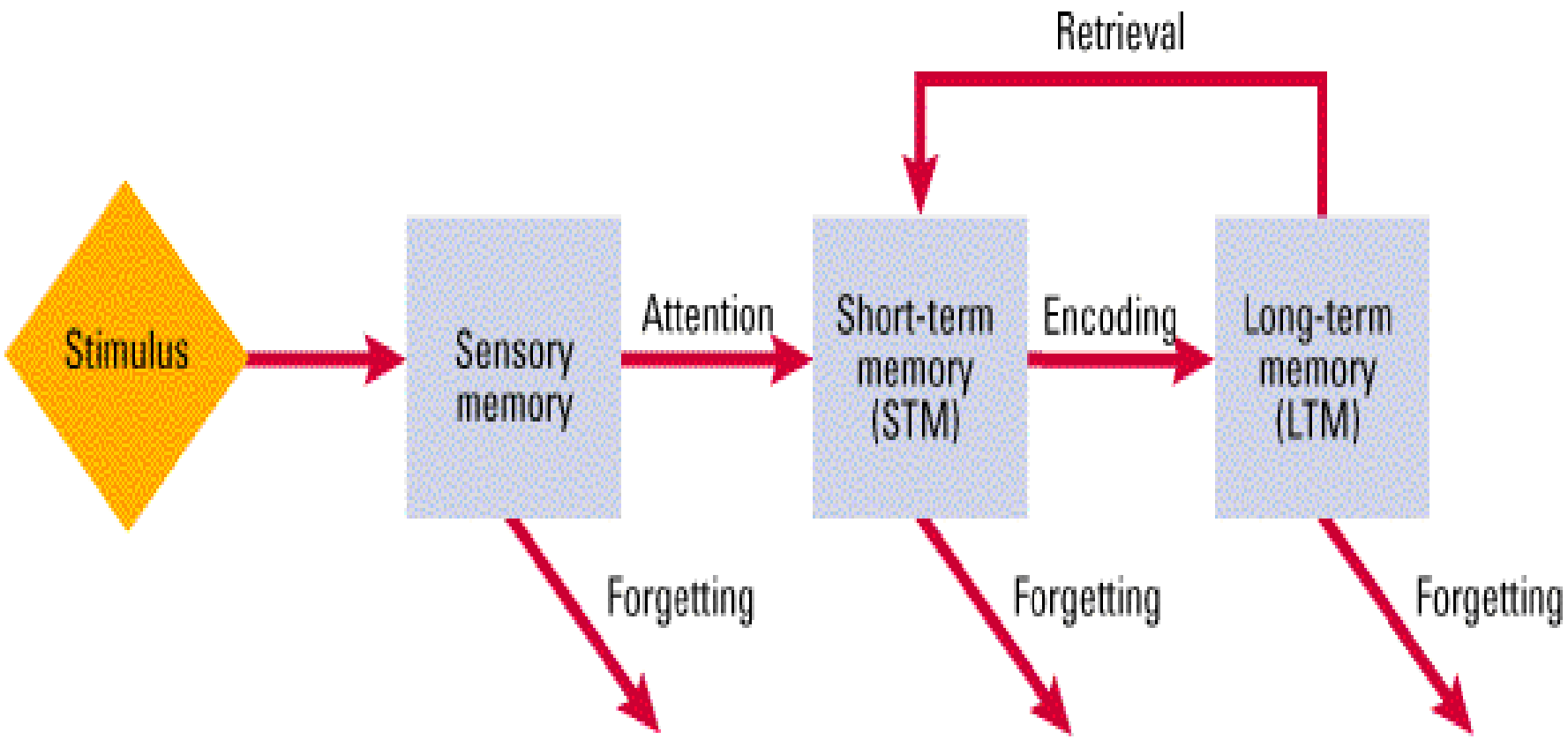
Wolfgang Kohler observed this among chimpanzees locked in a cage. In the cage, there were boxes, and a bunch of banana hanged out of their reach. They chimps tried to take the banana and failed for several times. Suddenly, they recognized the presence of the boxes and stacked them together to take down the bananas.

Chapter Four
Memory

Meaning and definition of memory

- Memory is retaining information for a long period
- Bridges between our past and our present
- The process of encoding, storage and retrieval
  - **Encoding**: taking in information
  - **Storage**: preserving information
  - **Retrieval**: using the preserved information

Memory process



The Three Stages of Memory

- Richard Atkinson and Richard Shiffrin (1968) stated that memory has three storages
  - Sensory memory (SM)
  - Short-term memory (STM)
  - Long-term memory (LTM)

Sensory memory (SM)

- The entry way to memory
- Information will be lost if not attended
- **Capacity:** contain all information reaching the sense for a brief time
- Contains:
  - **visual images** (Iconic memory)- lasts about a second
  - **Auditory images** (Echoic memory)- lasts for about two seconds

- **SM** –Attention ---> **STM ---Rehearsal ---> LTM**

Short-term Memory (STM)

- STM holds information for about 30 secs.
- Capacity: contains **7±2** chunks or items
  - **Chunks** are grouped information
- Retrieved information comes to STM to be processed
  - Thinking, reading, speaking, and problem solving is processed here
  - *Aka* **Working memory** (WM), active/primary/immediate memory
- **STM** ----**Rehearsal**---> **LTM**
  - **Maintenance rehearsal:** simple repetition
  - **Elaborative rehearsal:** associating new information to the already existing one

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- C
- R
- M
- X
- Q
- J
- A
- B
- T



Long-Term Memory (LTM)

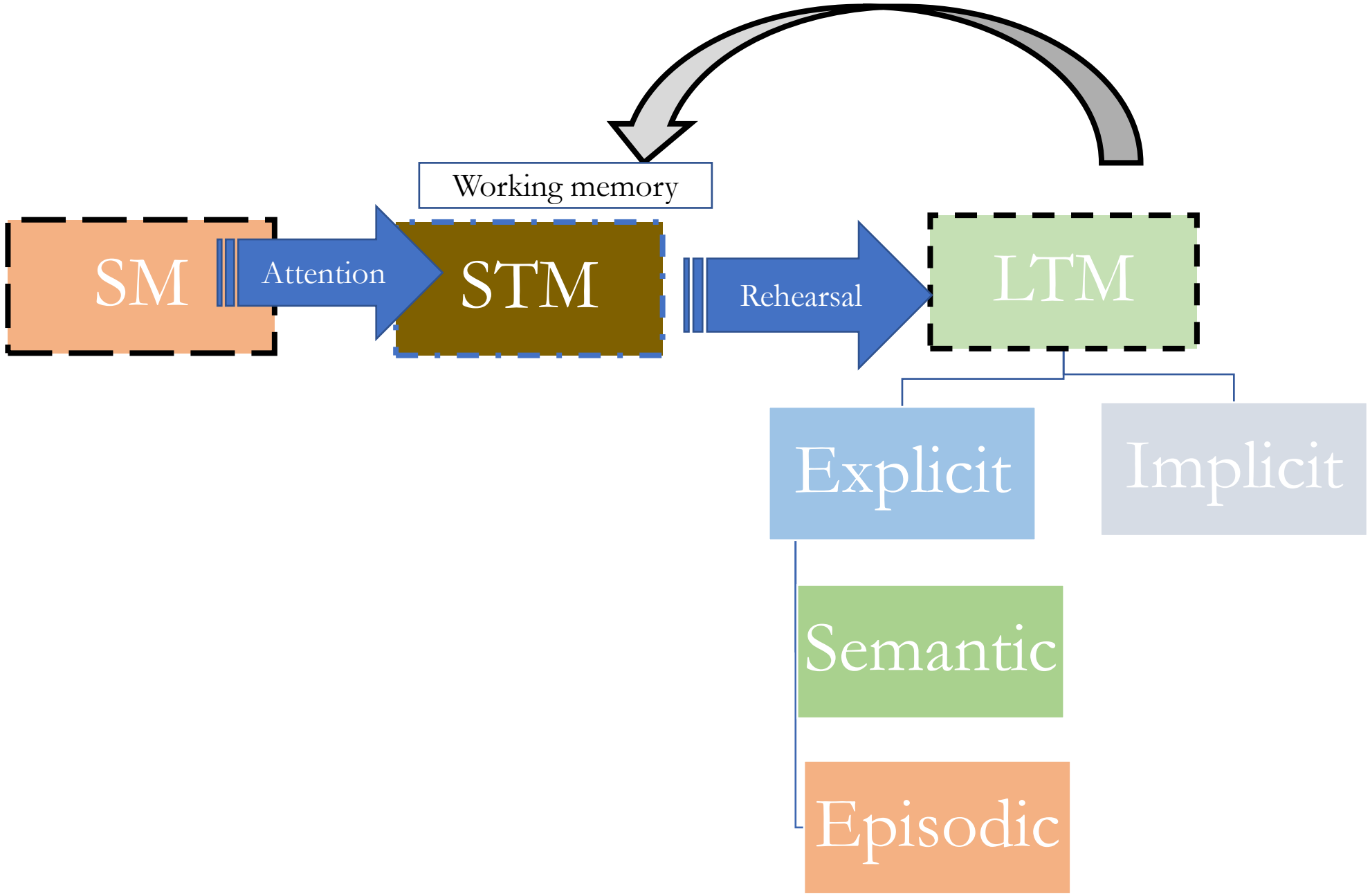
- Stores information for long period
- It has unlimited capacity
- LTM has
  - Declarative memory
  - Non-declarative memory

Declarative memory

- Involves conscious recollection of information
- It is divided into two:
  - **Semantic memory**: a store of general knowledge (e.g. meaning of words, facts, and principles)
  - **Episodic memory** *(aka* autobiographic memory)*:* memory for specific events and personal experiences

Non-declarative (Implicit) memory

- Aka *procedural memory*
- Doesn't require conscious recollection
- **Procedural memory**: memory for practical skills


Working memory
SM
Attention
STM
Rehearsal
LTM
Explicit
Implicit
Semantic
Episodic

Factors that Affects Memory

- **Serial positioning effect**: a tendency to remember things things listed at the beginning and the end (not at the middle)
  - **Primacy effect**: remembering information that are presented first
  - **Recency effect**: remembering most recent information
- **Emotion/mood dependent memory**

Forgetting

- Forgetting is the loss of information from the LTM
- Ebbinghaus's forgetting curve: rapid forgetting occurs in the first hours and then declines after nine hours

Theories of Forgetting

a) **Decay Theory:** as a time passes memory trace (engram) fades away
   - an actual physical change in the brain- occurs

b) **Interference:** one information blocks the recall of the other
   - **Proactive interference**: old information (e.g. grade 9 knowledge) blocks the recall of newer one (e.g. grade 12)
   - **Retroactive interference**: newer information blocks the recall of old info.

c) Motivated forgetting: hiding unwanted threatening memories from consciousness

d) Cue dependent forgetting: lacking retrieval cues

- ***Mood/state dependent***: memory retrieval should match the encoding mood
- ***Context dependent***: retrieval and encoding situation should match

Improving Memory

- Pay attention
- Over learn
- Use elaborative encoding
- Monitor/test yourself
- Take break

- Saves information for less than 5 secs
- Contain 5- 9 items
- Serves as a working memory

Chapter Five
Motivation & Emotions

5.1. Motivation

- The word **motivation** comes from the Latin word *mover*, which means *to move*
- Motivation is what moves people to do the things they do
- There are different types of motivation.
  - *Intrinsic motivation* is a type of motivation in which a person acts because the act itself is rewarding or satisfying
  - E*xtrinsic motivation* is a type of motivation in which individuals act because the action leads to an outcome that is external to a person (e.g. money)

5.1.1. Theories of motivation

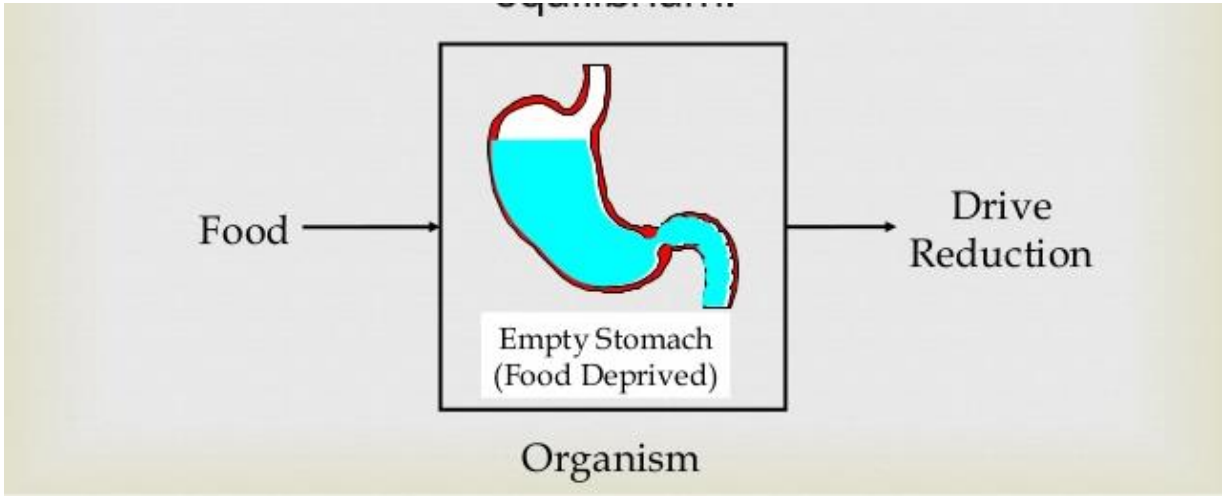
- Instinct theory
- Drive-reduction theory
- Arousal approach
- Incentive theory
- Cognitive Approaches
- Humanistic theory

a). Instinct theory

- Focuses on biological (hereditary determinants)
- This theory focuses on the biologically determined and innate patterns of both humans and animals behavior is called *instincts*
  - *E.g.* curiosity, flight (running away), pugnacity (aggressiveness), and acquisition (gathering possessions).

b) Drive-reduction theory

- Aka *pushing factors*
- Need → Drive → Behavior → Need reduction
- Homeostasis: body balance
- Primary needs
- Secondary needs



c) Arousal approach

- States that we need to maintain or increase excitement
- Each person tries to maintain a certain level of stimulation and activity
  - If our stimulation and activity levels become too high, we try to reduce them
  - If too low, we will try to increase them by seeking stimulation.
- Yerkes-Dodson law of arousal
  - Arousal & performance has inverted U pattern of r/p

d) Incentive theory

- Aka *pulling factor*
- States that motivation stems from the desire to attain external rewards, known as incentives
  - E.g. grades, money, affection, food, sex
- Drive and incentives may not be exclusive
  - E.g. we may be pushed by hunger and attracted by a delicious food

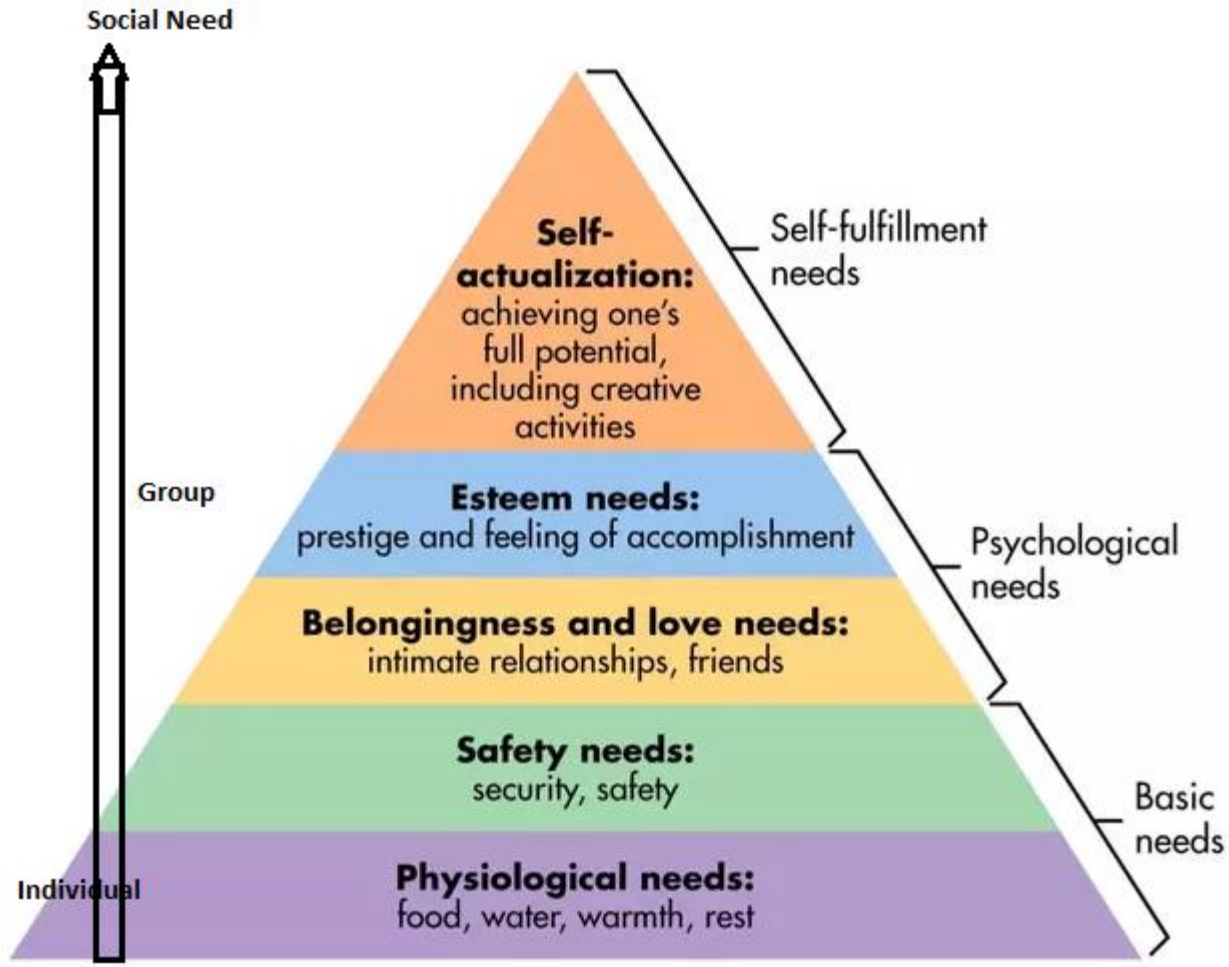


e) Approaches

- Motivation is a result of people‘s thoughts, beliefs, expectations, and goals
- Motivation can be intrinsic or extrinsic
  - Intrinsic motivation: bases on motivation from within a person (e.g. studying for the sake of personal enjoyment)
  - Extrinsic motivation: motivation rooted in factors external to a person (e.g. money, grade, food, etc)

f) Humanistic theory

- Bases on the work of Abraham Maslow
- States that humans motivation grows as as they satisfy their lower needs
- Humans are five motives


Social Need
Group
Individual
Self-actualization: achieving one's full potential, including creative activities
Esteem needs: prestige and feeling of accomplishment
Belongingness and love needs: intimate relationships, friends
Safety needs: security, safety
Physiological needs: food, water, warmth, rest
Self-fulfillment needs
Psychological needs
Basic needs

Conflict of motives and frustration

- **Approach-approach conflicts** - when we must choose only one of the two desirable activities. Example, going to a movie or a concert
- **Avoidance-avoidance conflicts** - when we must select one of two undesirable alternatives (e.g. choosing between the dead sea or the devil)
- **Approach-avoidance conflicts** - happen when a particular event or activity has both attractive and unattractive features (e.g. choosing to marry a rich but unattractive girl)
- **Multiple approach-avoidance conflicts** - exist when two or more alternatives each have both positive and negative features (e.g. marriage)

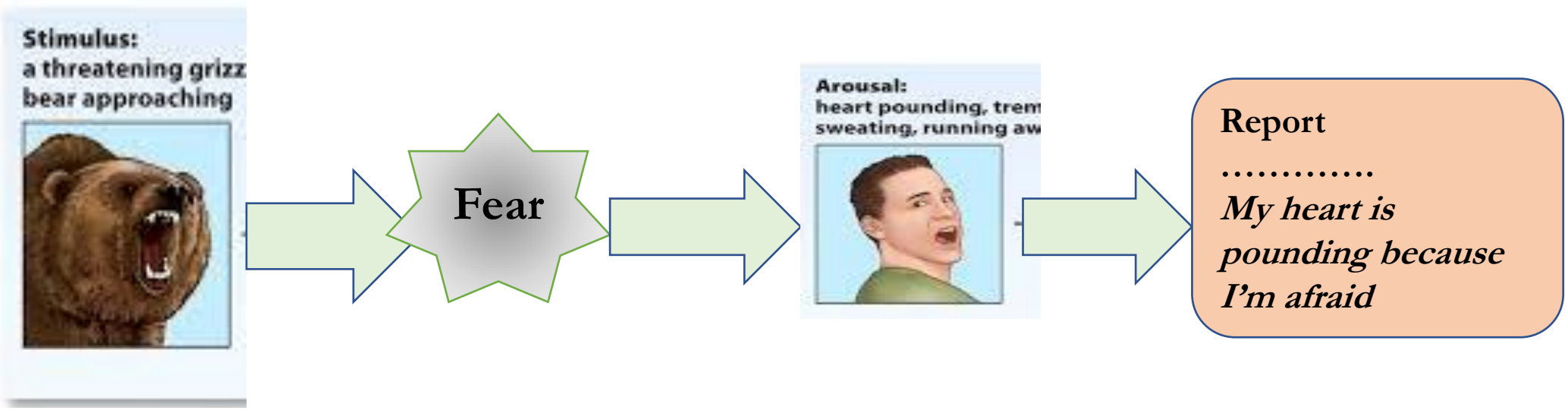
5.2. Emotion

- **Emotion** : feeling aspect of consciousness, characterized by certain physical arousal, certain behavior that reveals the feeling to the outside world, and an inner awareness of feelings.
- Three elements of emotion:
  - *Physiological reaction (arousal)*
  - *behavior*
  - *Subjective experience*

Identifications of the 6 Basic Emotions

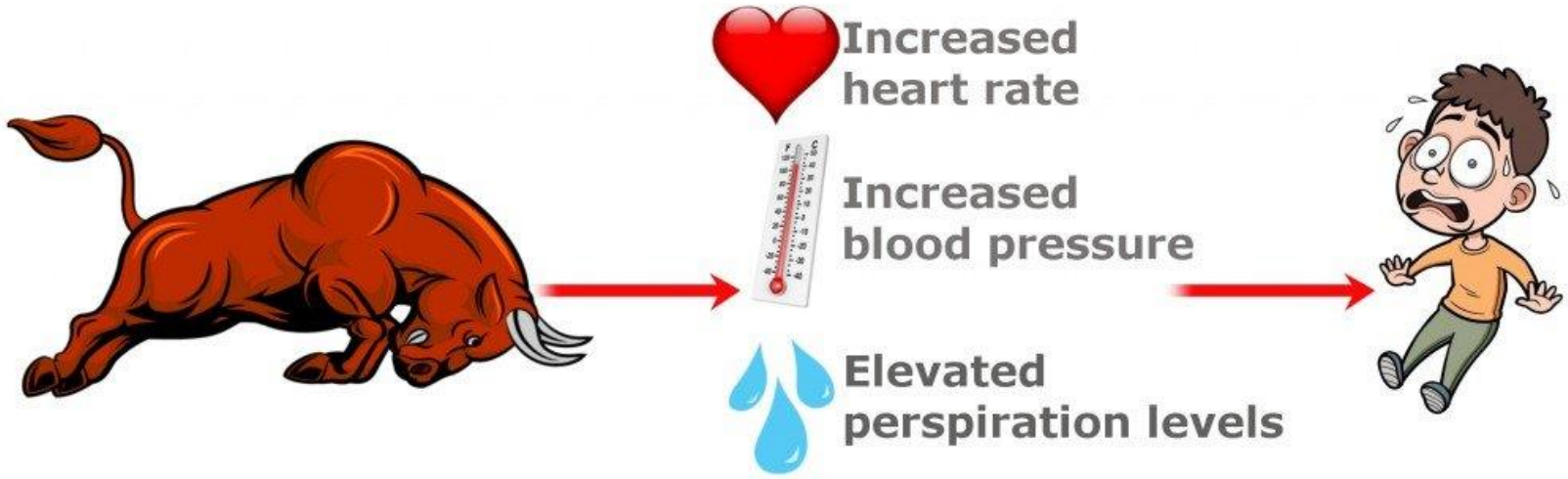


a) Common sense



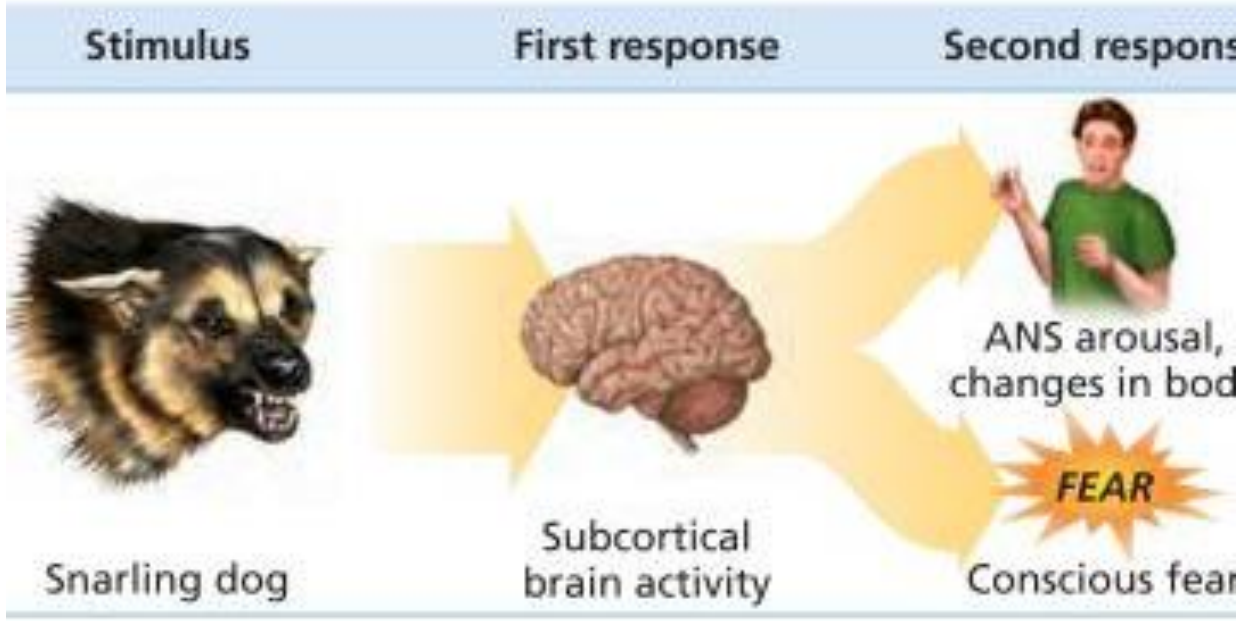
b) James–Lange Theory

- According to the James–Lange theory of emotion, emotions arise from physiological arousal.



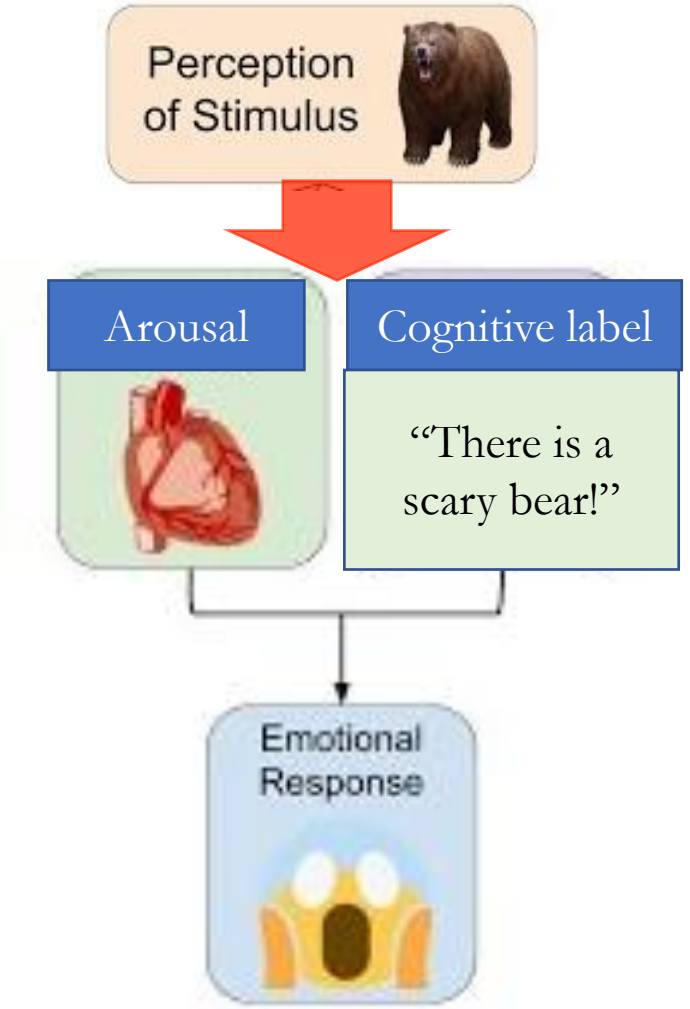
c) Cannon–Bard Theory of Emotion

- Physiological arousal and emotional experience occur simultaneously but independently.



d) Schachter–Singer Theory of Emotion (Two-Factor Theory)

- The Schachter–Singer theory views emotion as the result of the interaction between two factors: physiological arousal and cognition



Schachter-Singer Two-factor Theory

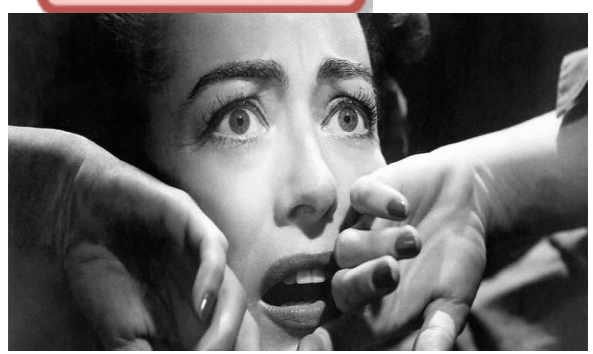


Heart pounding, trembling, sweating, running away

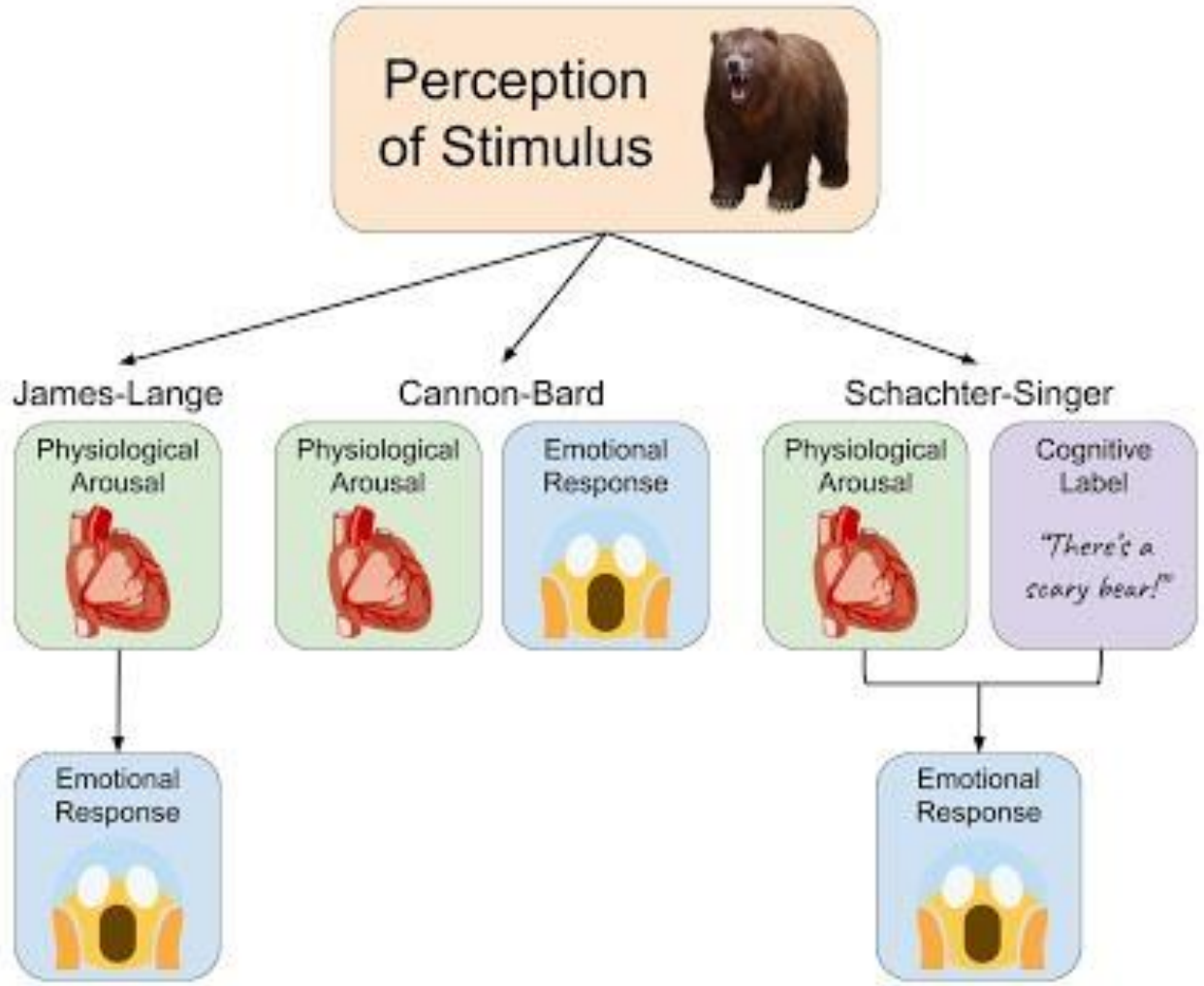
+

Shout like: "That is a scary lion, I am afraid "

Fear



Comparison of Emotion Theories



Chapter Six
Personality

Meaning of Personality

- The word ***personality*** is derived from a Greek and Latin root word "persona", which refers to the theatrical masks worn by Greek actors
- *Personality is defined as unique pattern of enduring thoughts, feelings, and actions that characterize a person*
- Personality should not be confused with:
  - **Character**: value judgments made about a person's morals or ethical behavior;
  - **Temperament**: inborn enduring characteristics (e.g. irritability or adaptability)
  - However, both character and temperament are vital personalities.

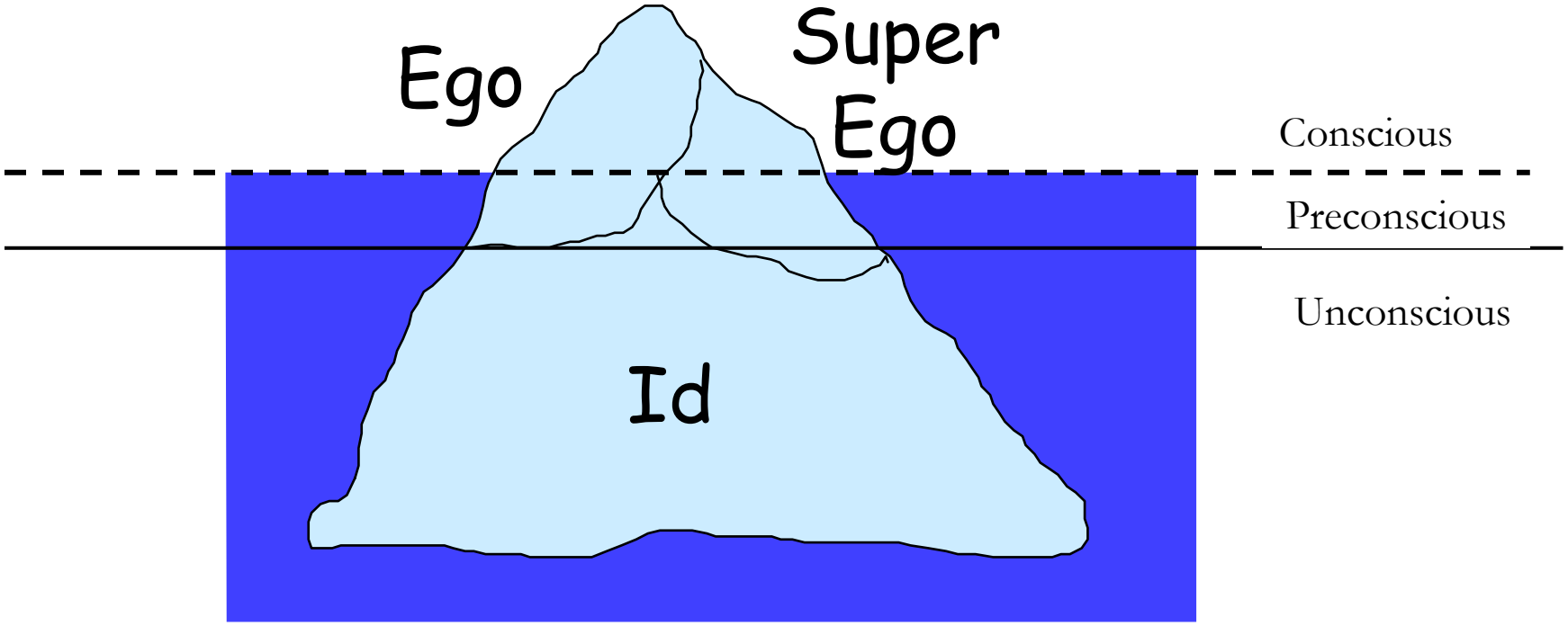
Theories of Personality

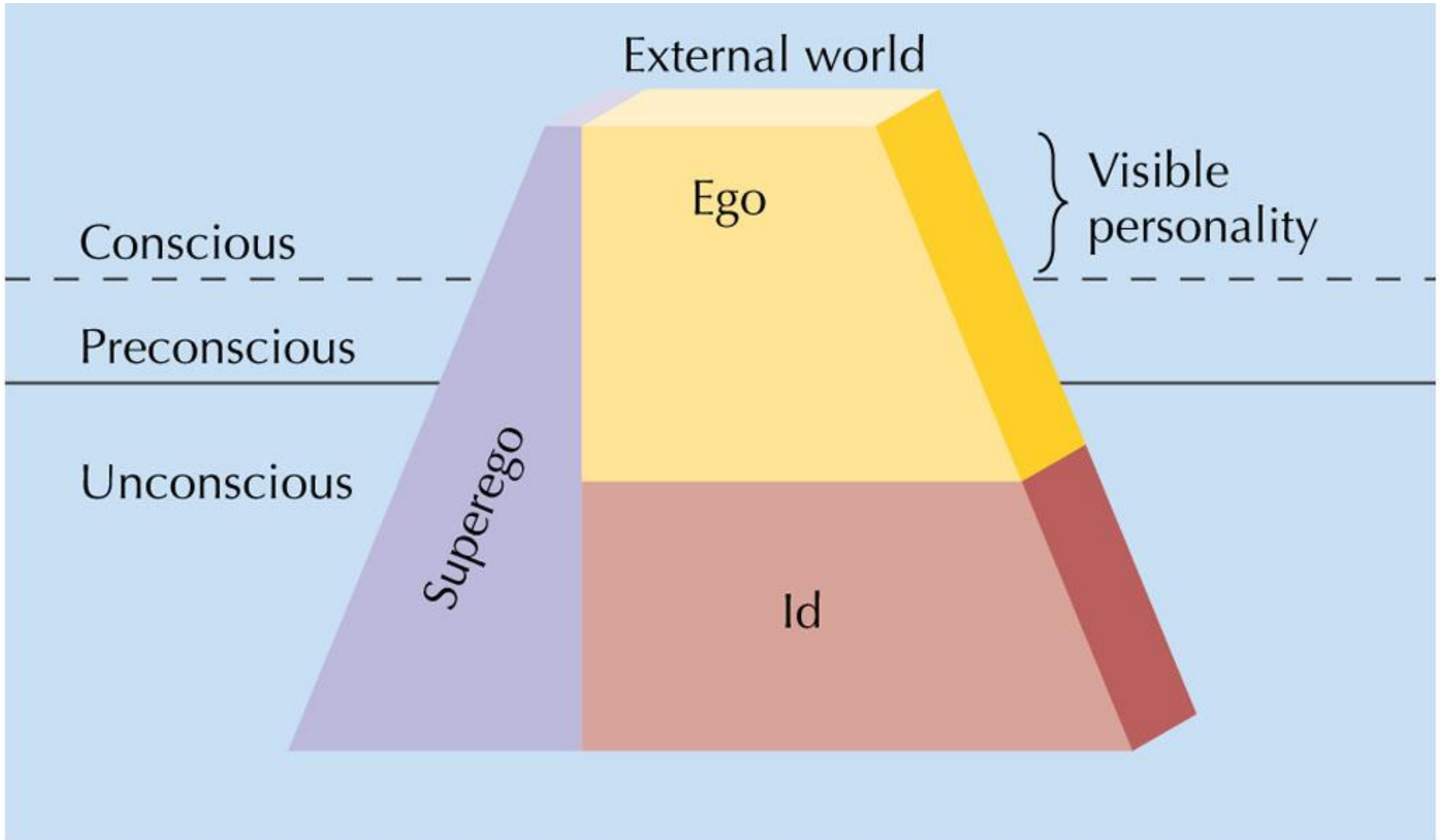
- The psychoanalytic theory of personality
- The trait theory of personality
- Humanistic theory of personality

1. The psychoanalytic theory of personality

- Sigmund Freud introduced this theory
- Personality is formed within ourselves, arising from basic inborn needs, drives, and characteristics
- People are in constant conflict between their biological urges (drives) and the need to tame them
- The theory explains:
  - Personality structures
  - Anxiety and defense mechanisms

Structures of personality




External world
Ego
Visible personality
Conscious
Preconscious
Unconscious
Superego
Id

Id

- The first and most primitive part of the personality that exists at birth
- It is completely unconscious amoral part of the personality driven by pleasure principle, immediate satisfaction of needs with no regard for the consequences
- Id is source of libido, the instinctual energy responsible for basic biological drives (e.g. hunger, thirst, sex, aggression)
  - Eros: life instinct
  - Thanatos: death instinct
- When libidinal energy is high, it is unpleasant for the person, so the goal is to reduce libido by fulfilling the drive

- **The ego**, from the Latin word "I"
- It mostly conscious and rational/logical
- The executive director
- The ego works on the reality principle
  - Satisfy the demands of the id and reduce libido in an acceptable way

- **Superego**: (also Latin, meaning "over the self") develops as a preschool-aged child learns the rules, customs, and expectations of society
- Moralistic principle
- There are two parts to the superego: the
  - Ego ideal: dictates the ideal or correct and acceptable behavior
  - Conscience: makes people pride when they do the right thing and guilt or moral anxiety when they do the wrong

Psychosexual stages of development

1. **Oral stage**: pleasure centers around the mouth (e.g. sucking)
2. **Anal stage**: the pleasure center shifts to the anus
3. **Phallic stage:** pleasure centers around the genital
4. **Latency stage**: repressed sexual feeling
5. **Genital stage**: matured sexual desire and activity

Psychosexual stages of development

Stage (approximate ages)	Sexual Interests at This Stage	Effects of Fixation
Oral stage (birth to 1 year)	Sucking, swallowing, biting	Lasting concerns with dependence and independence; pleasure from eating, drinking, and other oral activities
Anal stage (1 to 3 years)	Expelling feces, retaining feces	Orderliness, stinginess, stubbornness
Phallic stage (3 to 5 or 6 years)	Touching penis or clitoris; Oedipus complex	Difficulty feeling closeness. Males: fear of castration Females: penis envy
Latency period (5 or 6 to puberty)	Sexual interests suppressed	—
Genital stage (puberty onward)	Sexual contact with other people	—

Stage	Age [Yrs]	Erogenous zone	Sexual interest	Fixation
1. Oral Stage	0-1	The mouth	Biting, sucking, swallowing	Eating, drinking, substance use, and issues of dependence on/independence from others
2. Anal Stage	1-3	Anus	Stimulation of the anus Anal expulsion/retention	Orderly, stinginess Extravagant, wastefulness messiness
3. Phallic stage	3-5	Penis/Clitoris	• Touching sex organs • ***Oedipus complex***: attraction of males to mothers • ***Electra complex***: females attraction to fathers • Castration anxiety • Penis envy	
4. Latency period	5-puberty		Suppressed	

The Oral Stage (10-1)

- The infant derives intense pleasure from stimulation of the mouth, (e.g. breastfeeding and biting)
- *Oral fixation: related to eating, drinking, substance use, and issues of dependence on/independence from others*

- **The Anal Stage** (About 1 to 3 years old)
  - Pleasure comes from stimulation of the anal (toilet training)
  - *Anal fixation: extreme stinginess or need to maintain strict order. Sometimes the opposite is true, and the person is very wasteful and messy*

  Phallic Stage
  - The child derives intense psychosexual pleasure from stimulation of the genitals, and becomes attracted to the opposite-sex parent
  - *Phallic fixation might involve fear of being castrated (in boys) or "penis envy" in girls*
- **The Latent Period** (6-12/14)
  - The child in this period suppresses his or her psychosexual interest. Children in this age group tend to play mostly with same sex peers
  - There is some evidence that the "latent period" is a cultural artifact. Children in some non-industrialized societies do not experience a period of "latency

- **The Genital Stage** (15 and above)
  - The individual in this period has a strong sexual interest in other people. If he or she has completed the other stages successfully, primary psychosexual satisfaction will be gained from sexual intercourse
  - *The individual who is fixated in an early period of development has little libido left for this stage*

Anxiety and Defense Mechanisms

- There is continuous battle among the id, the ego, and the superego
  - **Realistic anxiety:** caused by naturally threatening events or objects (e.g. snake, exam, etc.)
  - **Neurotic Anxiety**: caused by id impulses that the ego can barely control
  - **Moral Anxiety**: comes from threats of punishment from the superego
- The conflict is managed by ego through its defense mechanisms
- Defense mechanisms are unconscious tactics to cope up with anxieties

Defense mechanism	Description	Example
Repression	Hiding unwanted and threatening wishes and thoughts from the memory	A woman may totally forget that she was raped as child
Denial	Refusal to acknowledge the existence of threatening realities	I person with cancer may claim that will never die
Regression	Returning to childhood behaviors	Biting nail or crying in stressful situation
Rationalization	Giving acceptable reason for unacceptable behavior or wish	I am poor because I was sharing my resources to others
Displacement	Substituting a more threatening stimulus with a less threatening one	You may kick a door when you are angry with your teacher
Projection	Attributing ones own unwanted wishes or behavior onto someone else	It is not my fault the teacher did not know the correct answer
Reaction formation	Showing a behavior that is opposite to ones' own true wishes and desires	E.g. A one may may say "I love you" to a person he detests
Sublimation	Channeling unacceptable wishes and desires to socially acceptable	e.g. A person with aggressive drive may become a butcher

2. The trait theory of personality

- Consider personality as a combination of stable internal characteristics that people display consistently over time and across situations.
- The trait approach to personality makes three main assumptions:
  - Personality traits are relatively stable predictable overtime
  - Personality traits are relatively stable across situations
  - People differ in how much of a particular personality trait they possess; no two people are exactly alike on all traits. The result is an endless variety of unique personalities
- The Big-5 approach is a best example for trait approach
- Each dimension have high and low version

The Big-5 (OCEAN)

- **Openness:** willingness to try new things and be open to new experiences
- **Conscientiousness:** characterized by organization, carefulness orderliness and motivation
- **Extraversion**: extraverts are outgoing and sociable, whereas introverts are more solitary and dislike being the center of attention
- **Agreeableness:** easygoing, friendly and pleasant personality
- **Neuroticism** refers to emotional instability, worry, anxiousness, and moodiness

3. Humanistic theory

- Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow focused on unique and creative aspect of individuals
- Humanistic approaches to personality emphasize people‘s inherent goodness and free will
- People a have a tendency to move toward higher levels of functioning
  - not controlled by internal/external forces

Carl R. Roger

- Rogers believed that human beings strive for fulfillment, **self-actualizing tendency**
- An important tool in human self-actualization is the development of an image of oneself or the **self-concept**. The self-concept is based on what people are told by others and how the sense of **self** is reflected in the words and actions of important people in one‘s life, such as parents, siblings, coworkers, friends, and teachers.

A. self-concept

- **Real and Ideal Self -** Two important components of the The **real self:** one‘s actual perception of characteristics, traits, and abilities
- The **ideal self:** the perception of what one should be or would like to be (comes often from significant others such as parents)
- A healthy and competent persons’ actual self and the ideal self are very closer
- Mismatch between the real and ideal selves, anxiety and neurotic behavior can be the result

B. Unconditional Positive Regard-

- Positive is vital to people‘s ability to cope with stress and to strive to achieve self-actualization
- **Positive regard:**, affection, love, and respect that comes from the significant others (parents, admired adults, friends, and teachers)
  - **Unconditioned positive regard**: warmth, love and respect without any precondition
    - Help to be able to explore fully all that they can achieve and become
  - **Conditional positive regard**

CHAPTER SEVEN
PSYCHOLOGICAL DISORDERS & TREATMENTS

- Prepare a summary note on abnormal behavior and their treatments
  - Anxieties
  - Mood disorders
  - Psychotic disorders (e.g. schizophrenia)
  - Personality disorders
  - Etc…

  - Treatments
    - Psychoanalysis
    - Client centered therapy
    - Etc

Definition of Psychological Disorders

- People who exhibit abnormal patterns of feelings, thinking and behavior most likely suffer from some kind of psychological disorders.
- By the way what are the criteria used for determining that person has a psychological problem /disorder?
- We generally have three main criteria:

1. **Abnormality, Deviation from social norm**
2. **Maladaptiveness**
3. **Personal Distress.**

1.Abnormality /Social and cultural unacceptability

- No universally accepted definition of mental illness or a abnormality exists.
- In general, the definition of mental illness depends on a society's norms, or rules of behavior.
- Behaviors that violate these norms are considered signs of deviance or, in some cases, of mental illness.
- The context in which „abnormal" behavior occurs must be considered before deciding that it is symptomatic of psychological disorders.

2. Maladaptiveness/ Impairment

- Maladaptive behavior in one way or another creates a social, personal and occupational problem on those who exhibit the behaviors.
- It is the reduction of the individual's normal level of performance or functioning, i.e., washing hand before you eat is normal or adaptive functioning, but washing your hands 100 times a day is impaired or maladaptive functioning.

- These behaviors seriously disrupt the day-to-day activities of individuals that can increase the problem more.

3. Personal Distress

- Our subjective feelings of anxiety, stress, tension and other unpleasant emotions determine whether we have a psychological disorder
- These negative emotional state arise either by the problem itself or by events that happen on us
- Generally, abnormal behavior is a behavior that is deviant, maladaptive, or personally distressful.

- There is no one and universally accepted definition of psychological disorder.
- Components of the widely accepted standard definitions are:
  - ✓ Persistent emotional problem and suffering;
  - ✓ Behaving in a way that is disturbing to others;
  - ✓ Failing to perform ordinary day to day activities (at home, school, work place)
  - ✓ Being irrational thinker or excessively lacking in self control.

1. The Biological Perspective or Medical model

- hormonal imbalance, chemical deficiency or an injury on part of the body cause mental illness and abnormal behavior.

- The working of chemicals in the brain, called neurotransmitters, may contribute to many psychological disorders.

- For example, over activity of the neurotransmitter dopamine, perhaps caused by an overabundance of certain dopamine receptors in the brain, has been linked to the bizarre symptoms of schizophrenia.

Cont.

2. Psychological Perspectives

A. Psycho analytic perspective

- Abnormal behavior, is caused by the ego's (which mediates between the id and reality), inability to manage the conflict between the opposing demands of the id (a pool of biological urges)and the superego (which represent society's moral standards).

- Especially important is the individuals' failure to manage the conflicting of id's sexual impulses during childhood, and society's sexual morality to resolve the earlier childhood emotional conflicts that determine how to behave and think later.

Cont.

B. Learning perspective

- Most mental and emotional disorders arise from inadequate or inappropriate learning.
- People acquire abnormal behaviors through various kinds of learning
- According to this view, people who exhibit abnormal behavior either are victims of faulty learning or have failed to learn appropriate patterns of thinking and acting.

C. Cognitive perspective

- The quality of our internal dialogue and peoples way of thinking either builds ourselves up or tear ourselves down and has profound effect on our mental health.
- expectancies, self efficacy, self control, beliefs about one self are important in the appearance of abnormal behavior in an individual.
- Our environmental and cultural experiences in our life play a major role in the formation of our thinking style.

Cont.

D. The socio-culture perspective

- This perspective assumes that mental illness would result from such social problems as poverty, poor nutrition, inadequate housing, crime, and discrimination.
- The primary evidence in support of this view is the generally higher rate of mental disorders among the lowest socioeconomic classes. (**Example. schizophrenia and** alcoholism)

E. **Humanistic Perspectives:**

- These perspectives emphasize a capacity for growth, freedom to choose ones own destiny, and positive personal qualities.
- A psychological disorder reflects an inability to fulfill one's potential likely arising from the pressure of the society to conform others' expectations and values. A person with psychological disorder is likely to have a low self-concept because he/she has experienced excessive criticisms and negative circumstances

Psychological Disorder

- **A psychological disorder is a condition characterized by abnormal thoughts, feelings, and behaviors.**
- **Psychopathology is the study of psychological disorders, including their symptoms, etiology (i.e., their causes), and treatment.**
- **In this connection, there are many types of psychological disorders, but here in this section we will try to see only types of mood disorder, anxiety disorder and personality disorder.**

Cont.

MOOD DISORDERS

- Mood disorders are psychological disorders in which there is a primary disturbance of mood from depressed to elevated feelings causing disruption to life activities.
- In addition to type and subtype of mood, these disorders also vary in intensity and severity.

1. In **addition to type and subtype of mood, these disorders also vary in intensity and severity hopelessness and thoughts of suicide.**

Cont.

2. **Dysthymia is** often considered a lesser, but more persistent form of depression.

Many of the symptoms are similar except to a lesser degree. Also, dysthymia, as opposed to Major Depression is steadier rather than periods of normal feelings and extreme lows.

Cont.

3. **Bipolar Disorder (**previously known as Manic-Depression) is characterized by periods of extreme highs (called mania) and extreme lows as in Major Depression. Bipolar Disorder is subtyped either I (extreme or hypermanic episodes) or II (moderate or hypomanic episodes).
4. **Cyclothymia:** Like Dysthymia and Major Depression, Cyclothymia is considered a lesser form of Bipolar Disorder**.**

2. Anxiety Disorders

- Anxiety is a normal reaction to stress and can be beneficial in some situations. It can alert us to dangers and help us prepare and pay attention.
- A mild to moderate amount of anxiety is normal and even beneficial, too little anxiety or too much anxiety can cause problems.
- Anxiety is emotional state in which people feel uneasy, apprehensive, or fearful.
- The physical symptoms of anxiety include fidgeting, muscle tension, sleeping problems, and headaches.
- Higher levels of anxiety may produce such symptoms as rapid heartbeat, sweating, increased blood pressure, nausea, and dizziness. .

Cont.

Anxiety disorders

Types: 1) Panic disorder

2) Phobic disorders

3) Generalized anxiety disorder

4) Obsessive compulsive disorder

5) Post traumatic stress Disorder

Cont.

Panic disorder

- Refers to an anxiety disorder marked by the recurrent, sudden onset of intense apprehension or terror.
- People with panic disorder experience “panic attacks” this is similar to heart attack.
- To call panic attack it must at least four of the following symptoms present.
- Shortness of breath
- Hyperventilation (breathing very fast)
- Dizziness (unable to stand properly)
- Choking (obstacle to breath)
- Heart palpitations (very fast of heart beat)
- Chest disorder
- Stomach disorder
- Feeling of helpless
- Trembling (shaking) etc.

Cont.

Phobic Disorders

- A phobia is an excessive, enduring fear of clearly defined objects or situations that interferes with a person's normal functioning.
- Although they know their fear is irrational, people with phobias always try to avoid the source of their fear. Common phobias include
- **Common phobia types and stimuli in the environment**
- **Phobia types** **Feared objects or situation**
- Agoraphobia……marketplace, public place
- Acrophobia…… High place
- Claustrophobia…… Enclosed places
- Ergasiophobia……Work
- Gramophobia…… Marriage

Cont.

- Haphephobia..... Being touched
- Hematophobia..... Blood
- Monophobia..... Being alone
- Ocholophobia..... Crowds
- Xenophobia..... Strangers
- Ophidiophobia..... Fear of snakes

Cont.

Obsessive – Compulsive disorder (OCD)

- An anxiety disorder; the individual has anxiety provoking thoughts that will not go away (obsessive) and or urges to perform repetitive, ritualistic behaviors to prevent or produce some future situation (compulsion).
- **Obsessions-** are intrusive and recurring thoughts, impulses, and image that come to the mind and appear irrational and uncontrollable to the individual.

- **Compulsion-** is a repetitive behavior or mental act that the person feels driven to perform in order to reduce the distress caused by obsessive thought or obsession leads to compulsion.

- **Common Obsessions are:** obsession of contamination, doubt, aggression, etc.
- **Common Compulsions are:** washing, cleaning, counting, putting items in order, checking, assurance, hoarding, etc.

Cont.

Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD)

- Post-traumatic stress disorder sometimes occurs after people experience traumatic or catastrophic events, such as physical or sexual assaults, natural disasters, accidents, and wars.
- People with this disorder relive or remember the traumatic event through recurrent dreams or intrusive memories called flashbacks.
- They avoid things or places associated with the trauma and may feel emotionally detached or estranged or isolated from others.
- Other symptoms may include difficulty sleeping, irritability, and trouble concentrating.
- Generally, people develop this disorder within one to three months.

Generalized Anxiety Disorder (GAD)

- People with generalized anxiety disorder worry excessively about routine events or circumstances in their lives.
- Their worries often relate to finances, family, personal health, and relationships with others.
- People with this disorder have: restless, being easily fatigue, concentration difficulty, irritability, muscle tension, sleeps disturbance, etc. of these at least three symptoms should be seen to call generalized anxiety disorder.
- To receive a diagnosis of this disorder, individuals must have experienced its symptoms for at least six months.

3. PERSONALITY DISORDERS (Sociopaths or psychopaths).

- A personality disorder is a type of mental disorder in which you have a rigid and unhealthy pattern of thinking, functioning and behaving.

- A person with a personality disorder has trouble perceiving and relating to situations and people.

- Thus, Personality Disorders are characterized by an enduring pattern of thinking, feeling, and behaving which is significantly different from the person's culture and results in negative consequences.

- This pattern must be longstanding and inflexible for a diagnosis to be made

Cont.

There are around nine types of personality disorders, all of which result in significant distress and/or negative consequences within the individual:

1) **Paranoid** (includes a pattern of distrust and suspiciousness).
2) **Schizoid** (pattern of detachment from social norms and a restriction of emotions).
3) **Schizotypal** (pattern of discomfort in close relationships and eccentric thoughts and behaviors).
4) **Antisocial** (pattern of disregard for the rights of others, including violation of these rights and the failure to feel empathy).

Cont.

5. **Borderline** (pattern of instability in personal relationships, including frequent bouts of clinginess and affection and anger and resentment, often cycling between these two extremes rapidly).
6. H**istrionic** (pattern of excessive emotional behavior and attention seeking).
7. **Narcissistic** (pattern of grandiosity, exaggerated self-worth, and need for admiration).
8. **Avoidant** (pattern of feelings of social inadequacies, low self-esteem, and hypersensitivity to criticism).
9. **Obsessive-Compulsiv**e (pattern of obsessive cleanliness, perfection, and control).

Treatment Techniques

- Treatment of mental illnesses can take various forms.
- They can include medication, talk therapy, a combination of both, and can last only one session or take many years to complete.
- Many different types of treatment are available, but most agree that the core components of psychotherapy remain the same.
- Psychotherapy consists of the following:

1. A positive, healthy relationship between a client or patient and a trained psychotherapist
2. Recognizable mental health issues, whether diagnosable or not
3. Agreement on the basic goals of treatment
4. Working together as a team to achieve these goals

Treatment Approaches

- **When providing psychotherapy, there are several issues to be considered.**
- **Empathy.** It is a requirement for a successful practitioner to be able to understand his or her client's feelings, thoughts, and behaviors.
- **Being nonjudgmental -** Everybody makes mistakes, everybody does stuff they aren't proud of. If your therapist judges you, then you don't feel safe talking about similar issues again.

A. Biological Therapies

- Biological therapies are treatments to reduce or eliminate the symptoms of psychological disorders by altering the way an individual's body function.
- Drug therapy, Electroconvulsive therapy, and psychosurgery are the most common forms of biological (or biomedical) therapies.

B. Psychotherapies

- Psychotherapy is the process used by mental health professionals (psychologists, psychiatrists, etc) to help individuals recognize, define, and overcome their psychological and interpersonal difficulties and improve their adjustment.
- The four main approaches to psychotherapy are: psychodynamic, humanistic, behavior, and cognitive therapies.

Cont.

1. **Psychodynamic Therapies**: To discover content of unconscious mind, psychoanalytic therapists often use the following therapeutic techniques: **Free association , Catharsis, Dream analysis etc.**
2. **Humanistic Therapies:** The humanistic therapies are unique in their emphasis on the person's self healing capacities emphasize conscious rather than unconscious thoughts, the present rather than the past, and grow and self-fulfillment rather than illness
3. **Behavior Therapies** Behavior therapies use principles of learning to reduce or eliminate maladaptive behavior.

❖ Systematic desensitization, flooding; Aversive therapy

1. **Cognitive Therapies** or **Cognitive restructuring**, a general concept for changing pattern of thought that is presumed to be causing maladaptive behavior or emotion, is central to cognitive therapies.

Cont.

❑ Treatment Modalities

1. one-on-one (Individual) Treatment
2. Group Treatment
3. Family Treatment
4. Couple Treatment


THANKS