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CHAPTER THREE

LEARNING AND THEORIES OF LEARNING

3.1. Definition, Characteristics and Principles of Learning

3.1.1. Definitions of learning

- *Learning* is a relatively permanent change in behavior occurring as a result of experience or practice.
- The above definition emphasizes four attributes of learning:

-Learning is a change in behavior.

-This change in behavior is relatively permanent

-This change in behavior is because of experience, or practice

- The learning is not directly observable but manifests in the activities of the individual

3.1.2. Characteristics of learning

- Learning is continuous modification of behavior throughout life.
- Learning is pervasive, it reaches into all aspects of human life.
- Learning involves the whole person, socially, emotionally & intellectually.
- Learning is often a change in the organization of experiences.
- Learning is responsive to incentives.
- Learning is an active process.
- Learning is purposeful.
- Learning depends on maturation, motivation and practice.
- Learning is multifaceted.

3.1.3. Principles of learning

Individuals learn best;

- When they are physically, mentally, & emotionally ready.
- When they have meaningful practice and exercise, and
- When it is accompanied by a pleasant or satisfying feeling
- Things learned first create a strong unforgettable impression.
- Things most recently learned are best remembered.
- The principle of intensity implies that a student will learn more from the real thing than from a substitute.
- Some abilities and skills that may help individuals to learn.
- Things freely learned are best learned - higher intellectual and moral advancement occur when learning is through freedom.

3.2. Factors Influencing Learning

- Motivation
- Maturation
- Health condition of the learner
- Psychological wellbeing of the learner
- Good learning conditions
- Background experiences
- Length of the working period
- Massed and distributed learning

Do learning materials, teaching styles, teaching methods, and medium of instruction affects learning like the factors listed above? Why?

3.3. Theories of Learning and their Applications

1. Behavioral Theory of Learning

- Behavioral theory of learning believes that learning occurs as a result of stimulus-response associations.
- Behavioral theories emphasize on observable behaviors, seek laws to govern all organisms, and provide explanations which focus on consequences.
- There are two major behavioral theories of learning. They are known as classical and operant conditioning.

1 A. Pavlov's Classical conditioning theory

- It is sometimes called learning through **association.**
- Classical conditioning focuses on the learning of making *involuntary emotional* or *physiological responses to stimuli that normally elicit no response. E.g.,* fear, increased heartbeat, salivation or sweating at the sight of a hyena.
- Through the process of classical conditioning, humans and animals can be trained to act **involuntarily** to a stimulus that previously had no effect - or a very different effect - on them.
- Classical conditioning involves conditioned reflexes. E.g., the production of saliva (conditioned reflex) in a response to food.
- In short, classical conditioning (sometimes called *substitution learning*) is a type of learning in which a neutral stimulus comes to bring about a response after it is paired with a stimulus that naturally brings about that response.

Basics of Classical Condition

To demonstrate classical conditioning, we must first identify stimuli and responses.

- **Neutral stimulus:** A stimulus that, before conditioning, does not naturally bring about the response of interest.
- **Unconditioned stimulus (UCS):** A stimulus that naturally brings a particular response without having been learned.
- **Unconditioned response (UCR):** A response that is natural and needs no training (e.g., salivation at the smell of food).
- **Conditioned stimulus (CS):** A once neutral stimulus that has been paired with an UCS to bring about a response formerly caused only by the UCS.
- **Conditioned response (CR):** A response to the CS.

Principles of Classical Condition

A. Stimulus generalization is a process in which stimuli that are similar to the original stimulus begin to produce the same responses. For example, a dog conditioned to salivate to a dinner bell (CS) might also salivate to a door bell, a telephone bell.

B. ***Stimulus discrimination*** is the ability to differentiate similar stimuli and responding only to a specific stimulus. E.g., the dog salivates only in response to the dinner bell instead of the doorbell or the telephone bell.

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C. Extinction

If a CS is repeatedly presented without presenting the UCS (meat), the CR will diminish and eventually stop occurring. This process is called **extinction.** But extinction only inhibits the CR, it does not eliminate it.

D. Spontaneous recovery is the reemergence of an extinguished conditioned response after a period of rest and with no further conditioning. For example, if the dog respond to the dinner bell after experience of extinction by salivating.

1 B. Operant/Instrumental conditioning

- ***Operant conditioning*** also called *Instrumental conditioning* is learning in which a voluntary response is strengthened or weakened, depending on its consequences.
- In operant conditioning, the organism's response operates or produces effects on the environment. These effects, in turn, influence, whether the response will occur again.
- Unlike in classical conditioning, operant conditioning applies to voluntary responses, in which an organism performs deliberately to produce a desirable outcome.

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According to Skinner, a response (operant) can lead to three types of consequences: (**a**) Neutral consequence (**b**) Reinforcement or (**c**) Punishment.

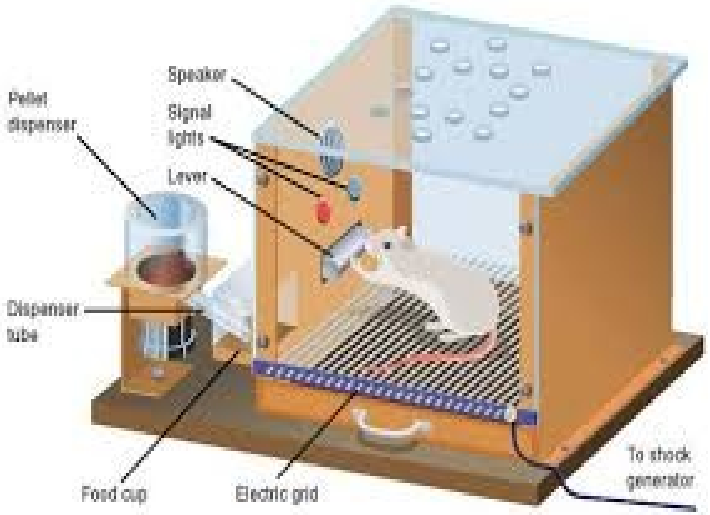
(a) A neutral Consequence that does not alter the response.

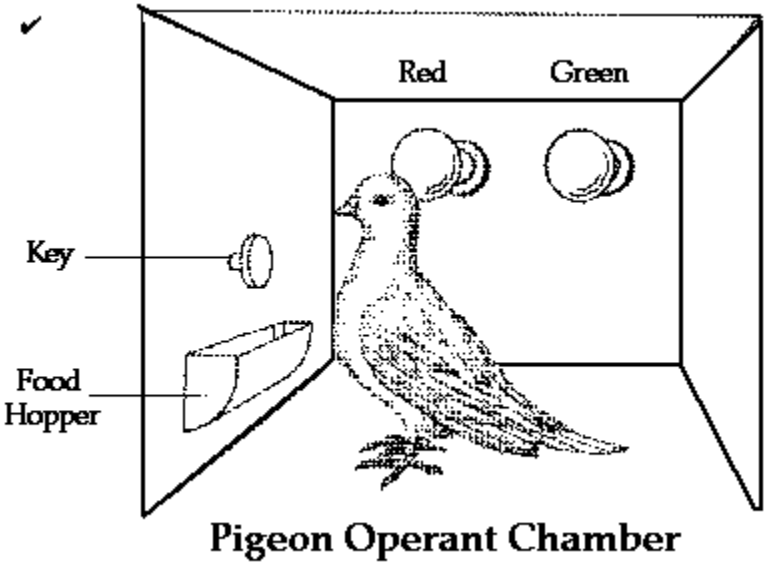
(b) A reinforcement strengthens the response. A reinforcer is any event that increases the re-occurance of a behaviour.

There are two basic types of reinforcers.

Primary reinforcers: Food, water, light, stroking of the skin, and a comfortable air temperature are naturally reinforcing because they satisfy biological needs. Primary reinforcers have the ability to strengthen a behavior without prior learning.

Secondary reinforcers: They reinforce behavior because of their prior association with primary reinforcing stimuli. Money, praise, applause, good grades, awards, and gold stars are common secondary reinforcers.





Pigeon Operant Chamber

Positive and Negative reinforcement

- Both primary and secondary reinforcers can be positive or negative.
- ***Positive reinforcement*** is the process whereby presentation of a stimulus makes behavior more likely to occur again.
- ***Negative reinforcement*** is the process whereby termination of an aversive stimulus makes behavior more likely to occur. The basic principle of negative reinforcement is that eliminating something aversive can itself be a reinforcer or a reward.
- For example, if someone nags you all the time to study, but stops nagging when you comply, your studying is likely to increase- because you will then avoid the nagging.

Negative reinforcement involves **escape** & **avoidance** learning.

- In **Escape learning** animals learn to make a response that terminates/stops a noxious, painful or unpleasant stimulus.
- In **Avoidance Learning,** which refers to learning to avoid a painful, noxious stimulus prior to exposure.

Schedules of reinforcement

- When a response is first acquired, learning is usually most rapid if the response is reinforced each time it occurs. This procedure is called **continuous reinforcement**.
- However, once a response has become reliable, it will be more resistant to extinction if it is rewarded on an ***intermittent (partial)*** schedule of reinforcement, which involves reinforcing only some responses, not all of them.

There are four types of partial/intermittent schedules.

1. **Fixed-ratio schedules:** Reinforcement occurs after a fixed number of responses. It produce high rate of responding. Employers use fixed ratio schedules to increase productivity.
2. **Variable-Ratio Schedule:** Reinforcement occurs after some varying number of responses. It produces extremely high steady rates of responding. The responses are more *resistant to extinction* than when a fixed ratio schedule is used.
3. **Fixed Interval Schedule:** A fixed interval schedule of reinforcement occurs only if a fixed amount of time has passed since the previous reinforcer.
4. **Variable Interval Schedule:** A variable interval schedule of reinforcement occurs only if variable amount of time has passed since the previous reinforcer.

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c) Punishment - is a stimulus that weakens the response or makes it less likely to recur.

- Punisher can be any aversive (unpleasant) stimuli that weaken responses or make them unlikely to recur.
- Like reinforcers, punishers can also be primary or secondary.
- Pain and extreme heat or cold are inherently punishing and are therefore known as **primary punishers**.
- Criticism, demerits, catcalls, scolding, fines, and bad grades are common **secondary punishers.**

Positive and negative punishment

- The positive-negative distinction can also be applied to punishment. Something unpleasant may occur following some behavior (positive punishment), or something pleasant may be removed (negative punishment).
- **The Pros and Cons of Punishment**
  Immediacy, consistency and intensity matter are important for *effectiveness* of punishment.
- **Immediacy** – When punishment follows immediately after the behavior to be punished.
- **Consistency**- when punishment is inconsistent the behavior being punished is intermittently reinforced and therefore becomes resistant to extinction.
- **Intensity**- In general terms severe punishments are more effective than mild ones. However, there are studies that indicate that even less intense punishments are effective provided that they are applied immediately and consistently.

When punishment fails?

- People often administer punishment inappropriately or mindlessly.
- The recipient of punishment often responds with anxiety, fear or rage.
- The effectiveness of punishment is often temporary, depending heavily on the presence of the punishing person or circumstances.
- Most behavior is hard to punish immediately.
- Punishment conveys little information. An action intended to punish may instead be reinforcing because it brings attention.

Shaping

Shaping is an operant conditioning procedure in which successive approximations of a desired response are reinforced.

In shaping you start by reinforcing a tendency in the right direction. Then you gradually require responses that are more and more similar to the final desired response.

The responses that you reinforce on the way to the final one are called successive approximations.

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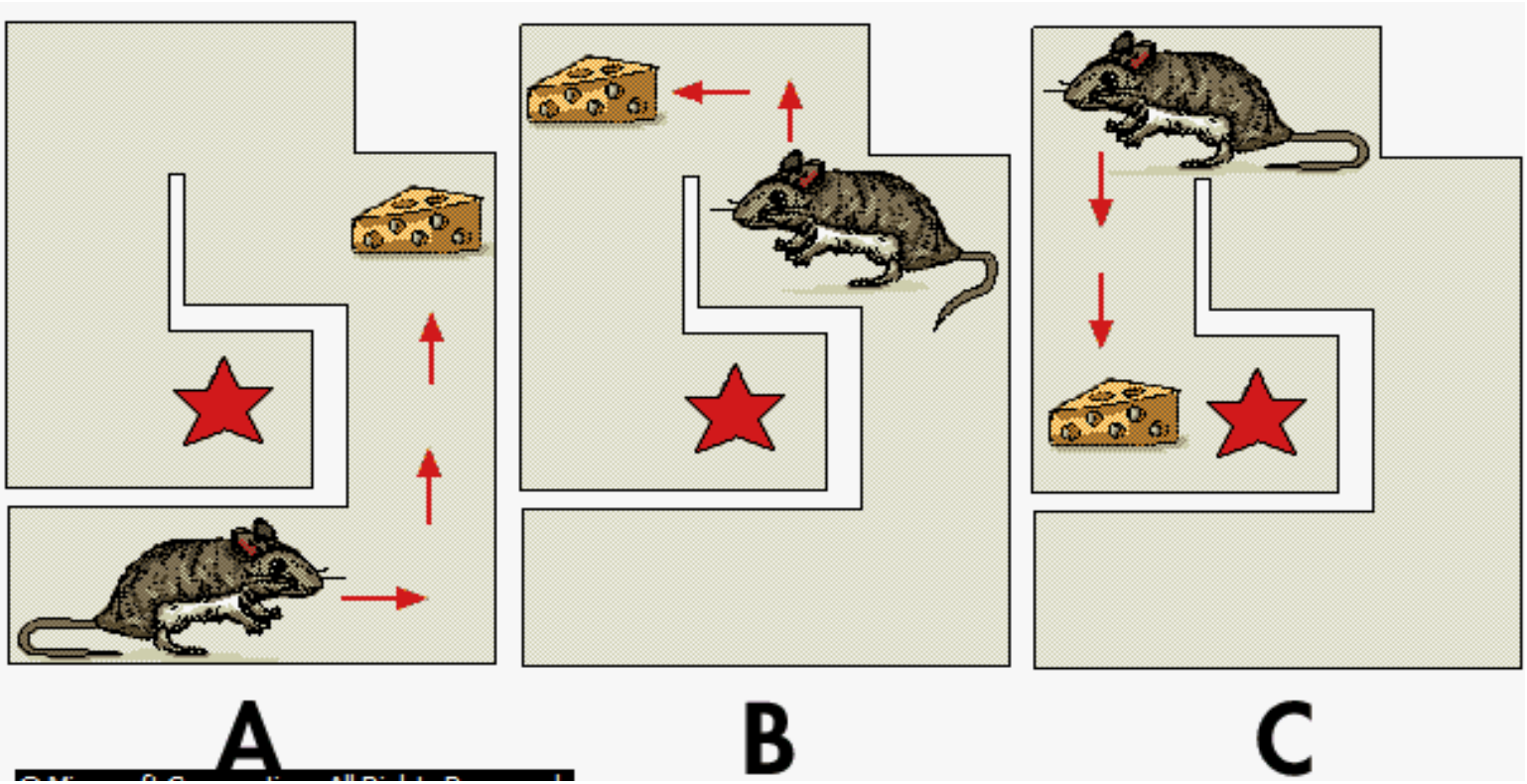


Skinner's process of Successive approximation and Shaping behavior by means of reinforcement and punishment.

Application of the behavioral learning theories

- *Conditioning study behavior*
- *Conditioning and classroom behavior*
- *Managing Problem Behavior*
- *Dealing with anxieties through conditioning*
- *Conditioning group behavior*
- *Conditioning and Cognitive Processes*
- *Shaping Complex Behavior*

2. Social Learning Theory (Observational learning)

- According to Bandura, human learning consists of observational learning, which is learning by watching the behavior of another person, or *model*. It is also called a *social cognitive* learning.

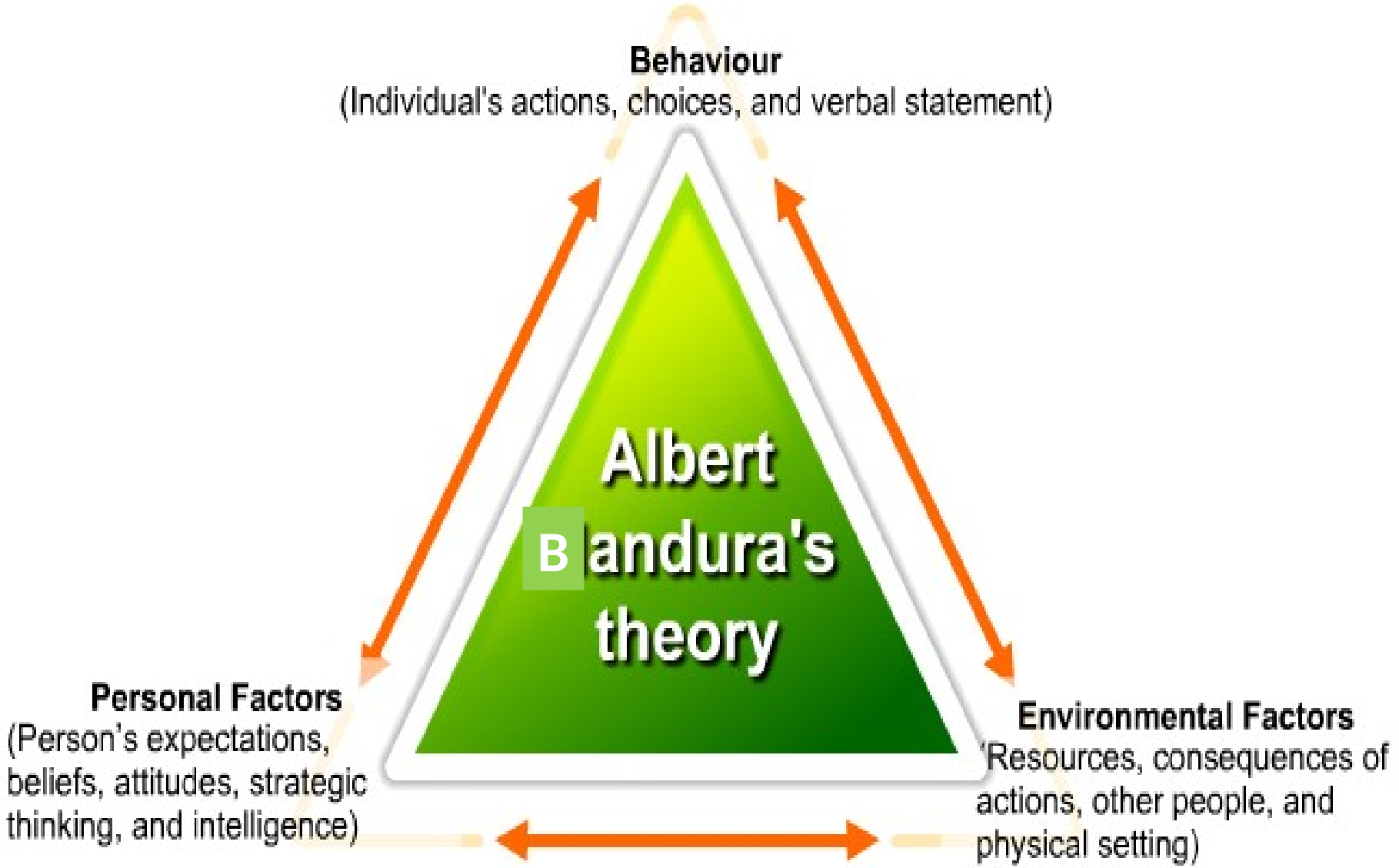
Bandura identifies three forms of reinforcement that can encourage observational learning. First, the observer may reproduce the behaviors of the model and receive *direct reinforcement*.

- Second, the reinforcement need not be direct - it may be *vicarious reinforcement* as well. The observer may see others reinforced for a particular behavior and increase his production.
- The final form of reinforcement is *self-reinforcement*, or controlling your reinforcers. In this sort of reinforcement the learner does not get external rewards but the students value and enjoy their growing competence.

Bandura’s Bobo Doll Experiment



Bandura's Social Cognitive Theory of Learning



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- Social cognitive theorists believe that in human beings, observational learning cannot be fully understood without taking into account the thought processes of the learner.
- Bandura mentions *four conditions* that are necessary before an individual can successfully model the behavior of someone else:

  1. *Attention*: the person must first pay attention to the model.

  2. *Retention*: remembering the behavior observed.

  3. *Motor reproduction*: replicating the action.

  4. *Motivation*: learners need a motivating factor *to demonstrate* what they have learned.

Implications of Social Learning Theory

1. Students often *learn* simply by *observing* other people.
2. *Describing* the *consequences* of behavior involve discussing with learners about the rewards and consequences of actions
3. Modeling provides an *alternative to shaping.* Instead of using shaping, it can *provide a faster*, more *efficient* means for teaching new behavior through the four essential conditions; attention, retention, motor reproduction, and motivation.
4. Teachers and parents must *model appropriate behaviors* and take care that they do not model inappropriate behaviors.
5. Teachers should *expose* students to a *variety* of other *models*.
6. Students must develop *self-efficacy to accomplish* school tasks.
7. Teachers should help students set *realistic expectations* for their academic accomplishments.
8. Self-regulation techniques provide an effective method for improving student behavior.

3. Cognitive Learning Theory

- Cognition refers to all the mental activities related with thinking, and knowing, activities which include perception and memory.
- In both CC&OC, the emphasis was on observable responses. However, because the knowledge that is inside people's head is not observable, it was not seriously considered.
- The emphasis on cognitive approach to learning is on the acquisition of information through interaction; not via R-S or S-R association and the ways of dealing with information.

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Both classical and operant conditionings have traditionally been explained by the principle of contiguity i.e. the close association of events in time and space.

Contiguity has been used to explain the association of a CS and UCS in classical conditioning and the association of a behavior and its consequences in operant conditioning.

In cognitive learning, learning occurs in the mind independent of any clearly defined association/consequence. It may take two forms:

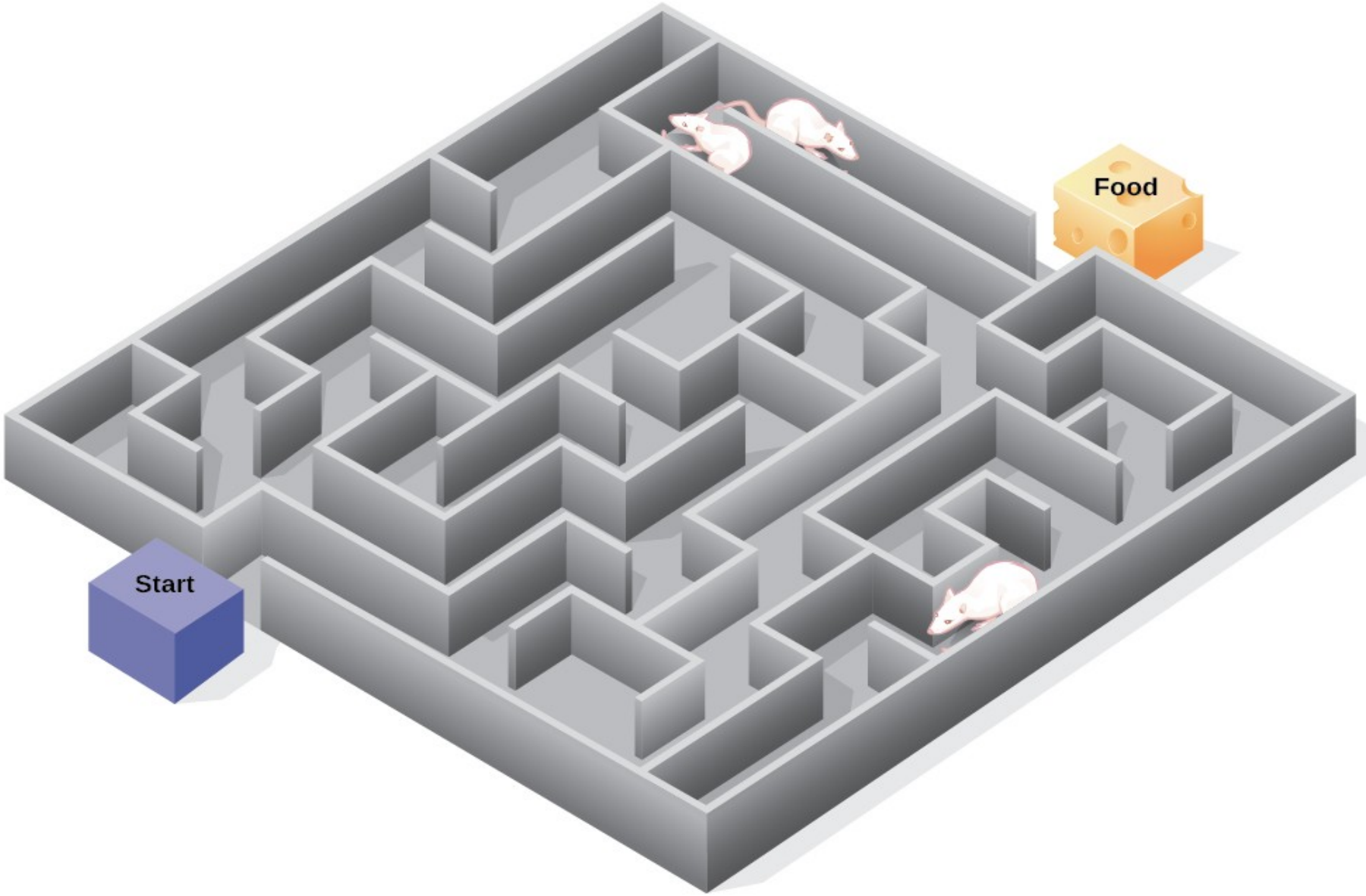
1. Latent learning
2. Insight learning (gestalt learning or perceptual learning)

For half a century, most American learning theories held that learning could be explained by specifying the behavioral —ABCs – **A**ntecedents (events preceding behavior), **B**ehaviors, and **C**onsequences

Latent Learning

- Latent learning is defined as learning that occurs in the absence of any obvious reinforcement or noticeable behavioral changes.
- Learning is said to be “latent,” or hidden, because it is not exhibited unless a reinforcement/condition of some kind is introduced to reveal it.
- In a classic experiment, Tolman and Honzic (1930) placed three rats in mazes and observed their behavior each day for more than two weeks.
- ‘Rat-A’ always found food at the end of the maze. ‘Rat-B’ never found food. ‘Rat-C’ found no food for ten days but then received food on the eleventh.

Tolman’s Experiment



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- ‘Rat-A’ quickly learned to head straight to the end of the maze without going blind alleys, whereas ‘Rat-B’ did not learn to go to the end.
- But, Rat-C was different. For ten days it appeared to follow no particular route. Then, on the eleventh day it quickly learned to run to the end of the maze. By the next day, Rat-C did the same, like Rat-A which had been rewarded from the beginning.
- Rat-C had demonstrated latent learning, learning that is not immediately expressed. A great deal of human learning also remains latent until circumstances allow or require it to be expressed.

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- **Insight Learning**
  It is a cognitive process whereby we reorganize our perception of a problem. It doesn't depend on conditioning of particular behaviors for its occurrence. Sometimes, for example, people even wake up from sleep with a solution to a problem that they had not been able to solve during the day.
- In a typical insight situation where a problem is posed, a period follows during which no apparent progress is made, and then the solution comes suddenly.
- What has been learned in insight learning can also be applied easily to other similar situations.
- Human beings who solve a problem insightfully usually experience a good feeling called an 'aha' experience.

Kohler’s insight Experiment on Chimps





UNIT 4

MEMORY AND FORGETTING

Chapter Overview

- The previous chapter (learning) and this chapter (memory) are closely related. The two terms often describe roughly the same processes.
- The term learning is often used to refer to processes involved in the initial acquisition or encoding of information, whereas the term memory more often refers to later storage and retrieval of information.
- Thus, psychologists often refer to the learning/memory process as a means of incorporating all facets of encoding, storage, and retrieval.

Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Define memory and forgetting.
- Describe the stages and memory structures proposed by theory of memory.
- Explain the processes that are at work in memory functions.
- Identify how learned materials are organized in the long term memory.
- State the factors underlying on the persistence, and loss of memory.
- Explain different theories of forgetting.

Introduction

- An important dimension of humans‘ intelligent life (or mind & behavior) that normally follows sensation & perception is **memory- a warehouse of our past life –events**

- Human memory, like memory in a computer, allows us to store information for later use.

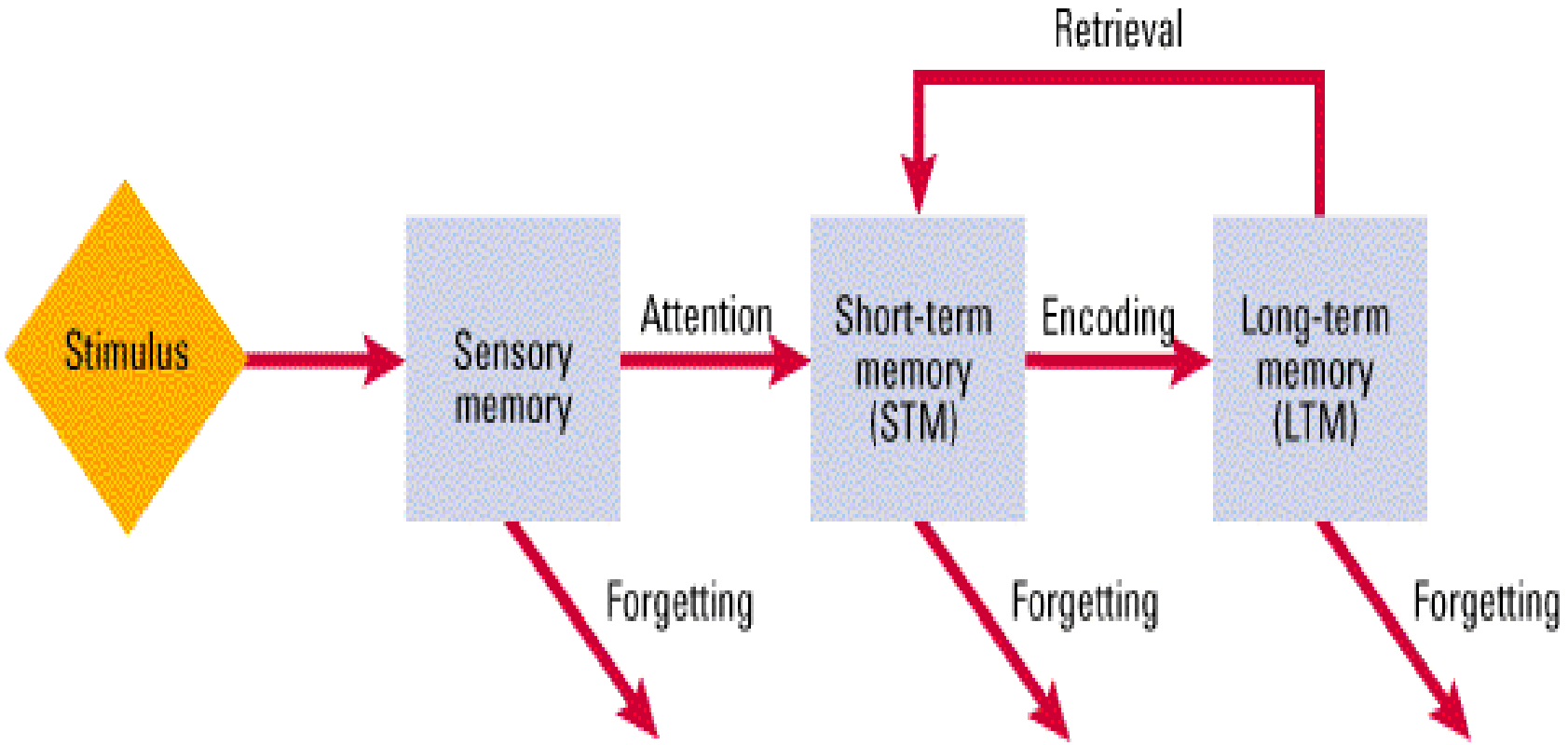
- In order to do this, however, both the computer & we need to master three processes involved in memory

Memory

Q. What is memory?

- the ability to retain or recall previous experience
- the process by which information is acquired, stored in the brain, & later retrieved
- it is a system by which the products of learning are stored for future use

Processes of Memory



Components /Stages/ of memory

Memory processes are the mental activities we perform to put information into memory, to keep it there, and to make use of it later.

This involves three basic steps:

(A) Encoding or input or acquisition

- is the conversion of information, into a form that can be stored in memory
- gathering & representing information
- paying attention important during the acquisition stage

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(B) Storage

- is the retention /holding/ information in memory for later use
- the process of actually putting the coded information into the memory system
- **Effects of repetition** or **rehearsal**:- the old proverb —practice makes perfectll applies in many learning situations

e.g. speaking a language, writing a computer program, riding a bicycle, etc

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- **Effects of organization**:-involves arranging the material to be remembered into meaningful forms, symbols, or ideas that simplify & facilitate remembering them materials as required

e.g. chunking: involves combining two or more unit or bits of information into the smaller unit

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- **Effects of association**:- indicates the detection of relation between events

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(C) Retrieval

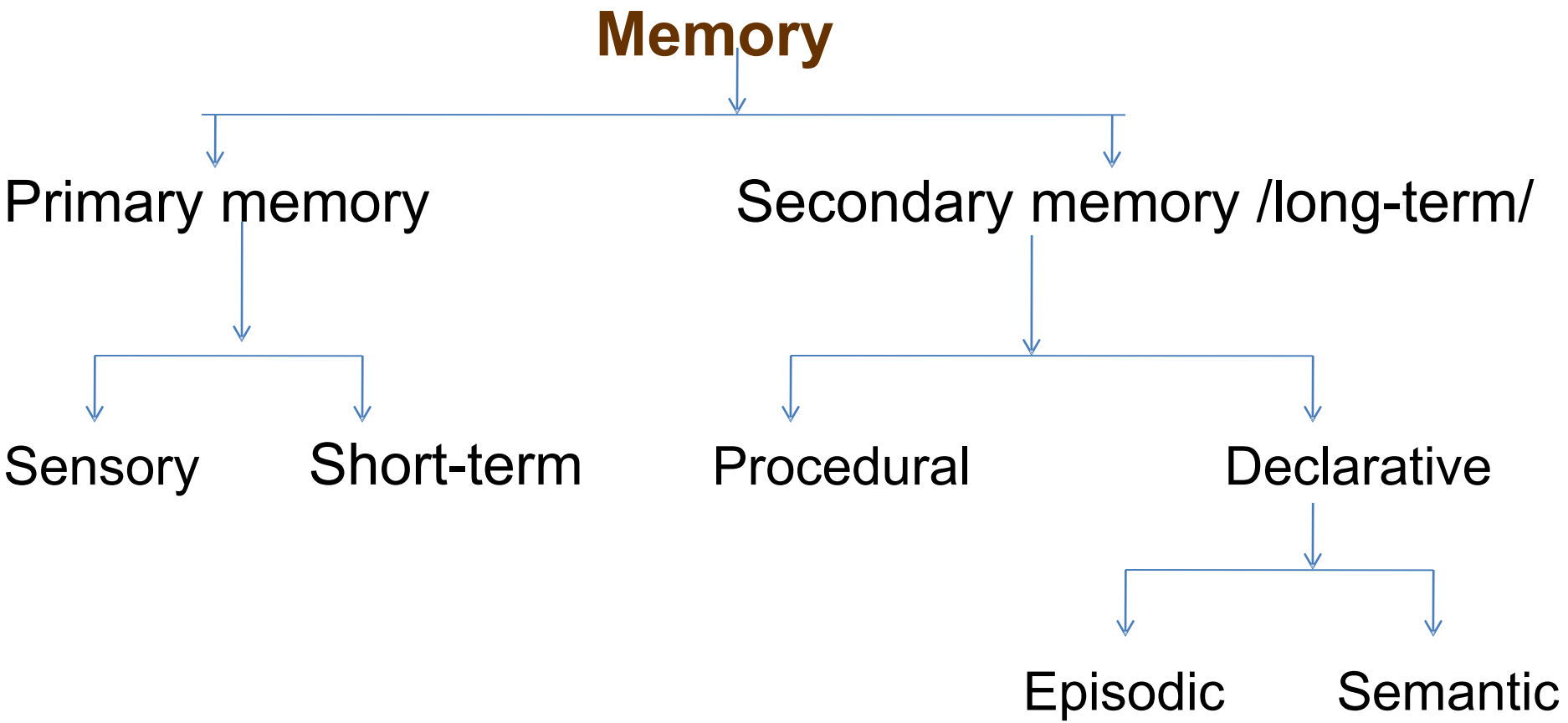
- recovering information from storage in memory
- getting at the information when needed
- information cues (an action or event that is a signal for some body to do some thing) are required to retrieve the information stored

Types of memory

- We have **an infinite varieties** of **memory** but these limitless varieties can be classified into certain types:

- **Primary & Secondary memory**
- **Sensory, Short-term & long-term memory**
- **Procedural & Declarative memory**
- **Episodic & Semantic memory**

Schematic representation of the hierarchical organization of memory



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- **William James** considered sensory memory, short-term memory & long-term memory as primary and secondary memory respectively

- **Sensory memory** /SM/ is a memory of sensory events such as sights, sounds & tastes, with no further processing or interpretation

- Sensory memories last for a brief period / few seconds/

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- **Short-term memory** /STM/ can store a few item of un rehearsed information for up to 30 seconds.
- It is also called **working memory**. Because we use the STM to think about information provided by either SM or LTM

- **Long-term memory**/LTM/ has a very large capacity and the capability to store information relatively permanently.

- here, there is an important of rehearsal or practice

Cont'd

- According to the influential memory researcher Endel Tulving, we store information in **two kinds** of **LTM**- Procedural & Declarative memory

- **Procedural memory** is memory of observable b/rs (skills). e.g. To learn how to play the piano

- **Declarative memory** is memory of non observable & mental experiences. e.g. remembering the route to school

Cont‘d

- **Semantic memory** is a form of declarative memory represents a person‘s knowledge of the world.

  E.g. knowing that Harar is east of A.A

- **Episodic memory** that makes possible the remembering of events from one‘s personal past.

Thus, we use the term **know** to describe **semantic memories** & the term **remember** when referring to **episodic memories**

Factors Affecting Memory

Eleven Factors that Influence Memory Process in Humans are as follows:

a. Ability to retain: This depends upon good memory traces left in the brain by past experiences.

b. Good health: A person with good health can retain the learnt material better than a person with poor health.

c. Age of the learner: Youngsters can remember better than the aged.

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d. Maturity: Very young children cannot retain and remember complex material.

e. Will to remember: Willingness to remember helps for better retention.

f. Intelligence: More intelligent person will have better memory than a dull person,

g. Interest: If a person has more interest, he will learn and retain better.

h. Over learning: Experiments have proved that over learning will lead to better memory.

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i. Speed of learning: Quicker learning leads to better retention,

j. Meaningfulness of the material: Meaningful materials remain in our memory for longer period than for nonsense material,

k. Sleep or rest: Sleep or rest immediately after learning strengthens connections in the brain and helps for clear memory.

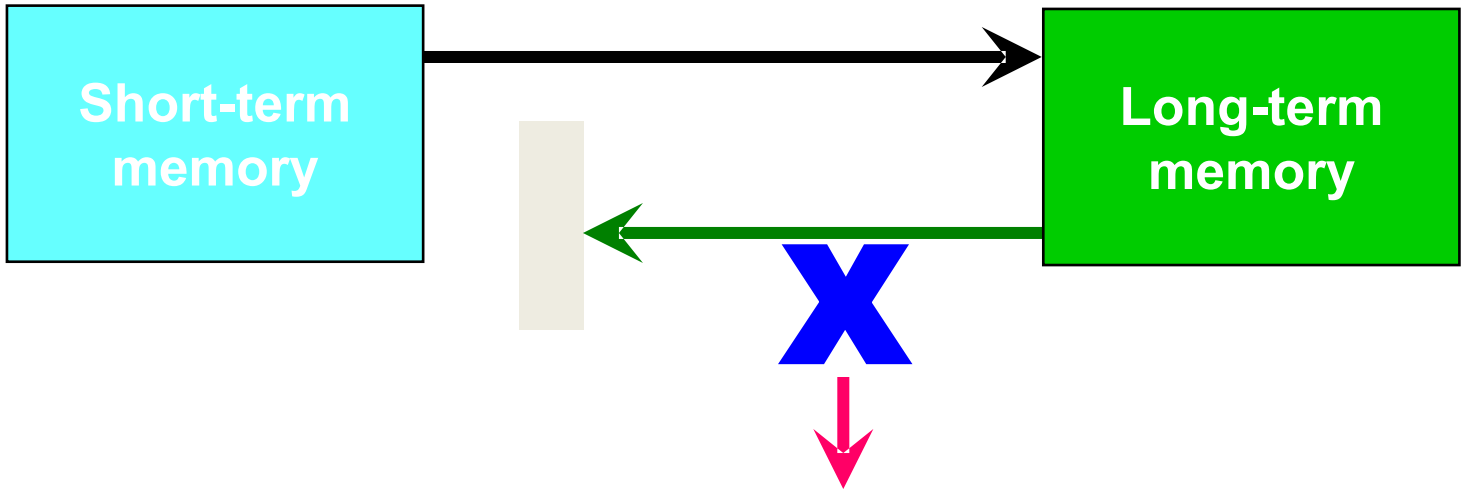
Forgetting

- It is the **inability** to **retrieve previously stored information in the brain**. Useful information that were stored in the brain may not be retrieved
- But forgetting also has an adaptive function by enabling the brain discard useless information that might impair the retrieval of useful information

Q. Why do we forget ?

Forgetting as retrieval failure

- Retrieval—process of accessing stored information
- Sometimes info IS encoded into LTM, but we can‘t retrieve it



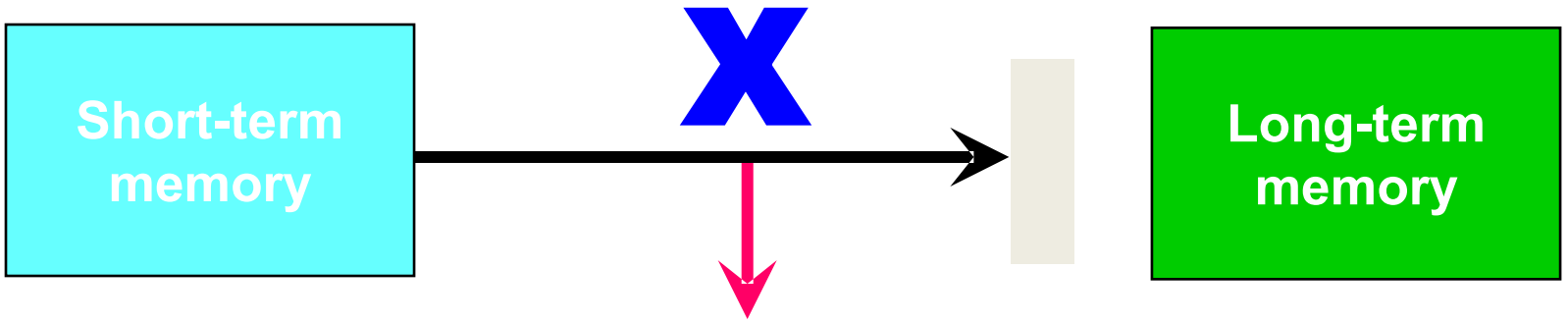
Forgetting Theories

- **Encoding failure**
- **Interference theories**
- **Motivated forgetting**
- **Decay theories**



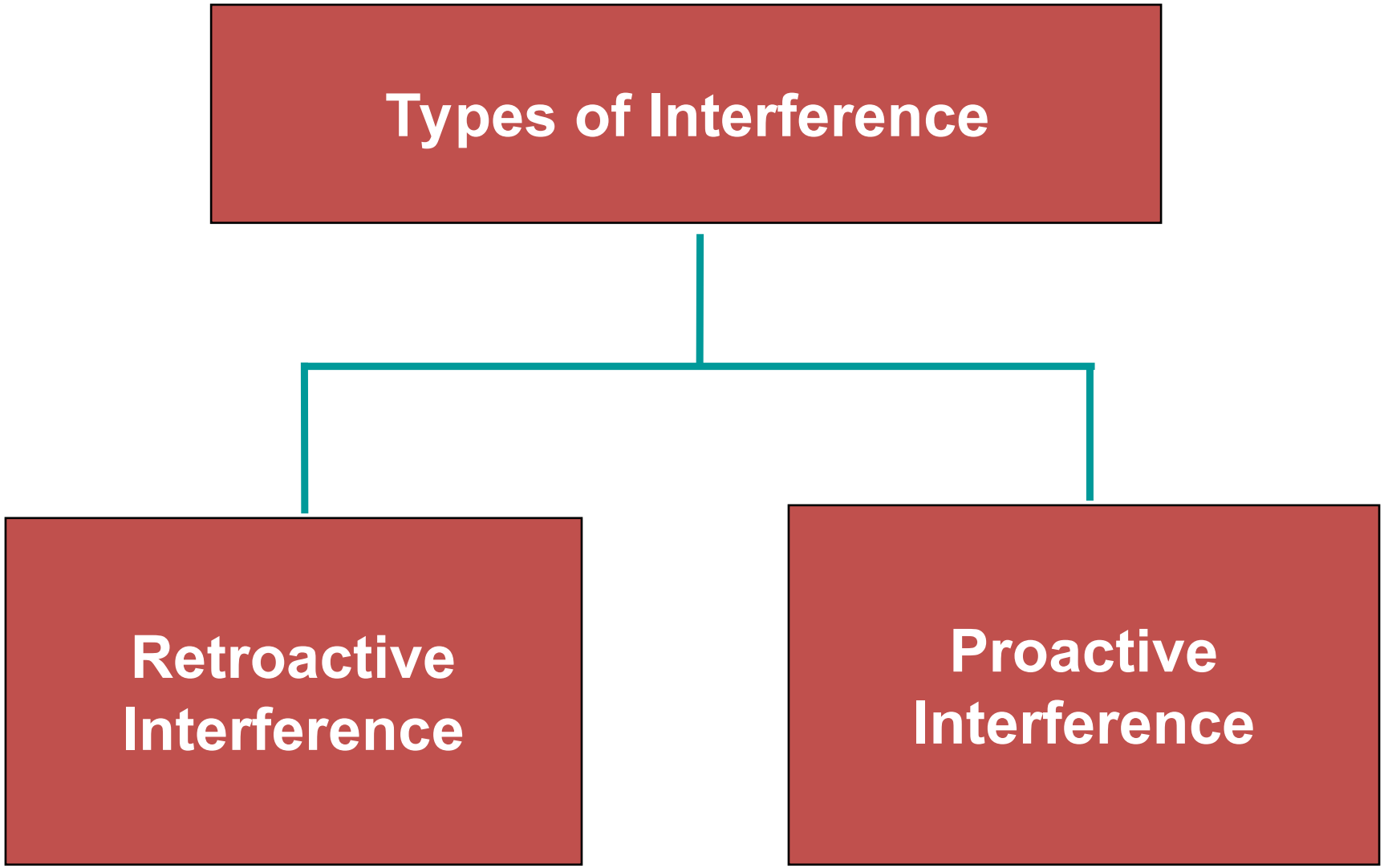
Forgetting as encoding failure

- Info never encoded into LTM



Interference Theories

- —Memories interfering with memories‖
- Forgetting NOT caused by mere passage of time
- Caused by one memory competing with or replacing another memory
- Two types of interference


Types of Interference
Retroactive Interference
Proactive Interference

Retroactive Interference

- When a **NEW** memory interferes with remembering **OLD** information

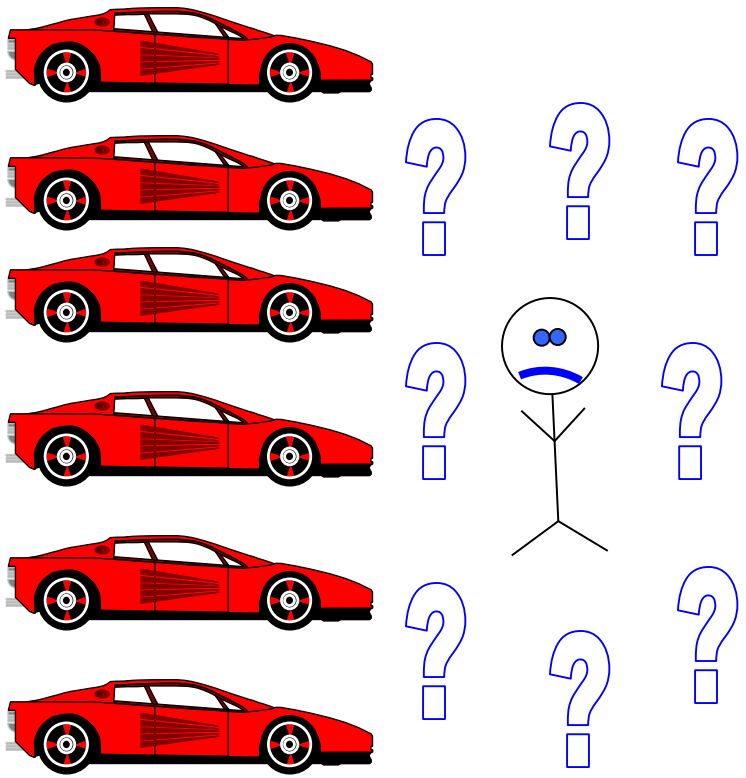
Example:- When new phone number interferes with ability to remember old phone number

- Learning a new language interferes with ability to remember old language

Proactive Interference

- Opposite of retroactive interference
- When an **OLD** memory interferes with remembering **NEW** information

- **Example**: Memories of where you parked your car on campus the past week interferes with ability find car today



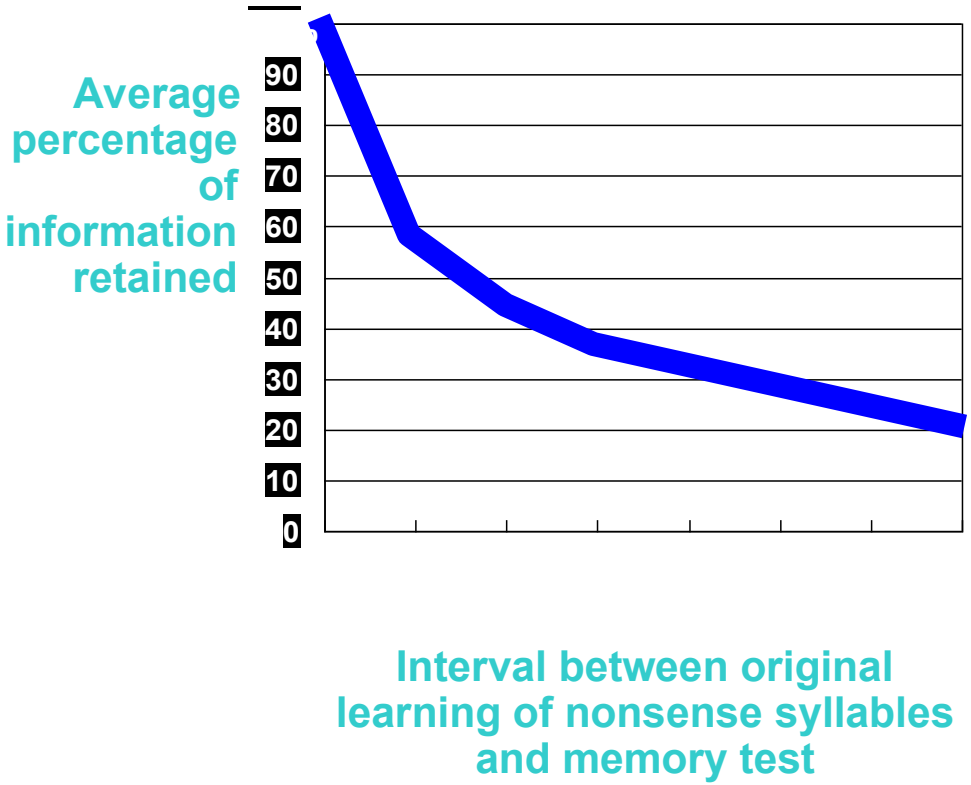
Motivated Forgetting

Undesired memory is held back from awareness

- **Suppression**—conscious forgetting
- **Repression**—unconscious forgetting (Freudian)

Decay Theories

- Memories fade away or decay gradually if unused
- Time plays critical role
- Ability to retrieve info declines with time after original encoding



Improving Memory

A better approach is to follow some general guidelines.

- **Pay Attention:** It seems obvious, but often we fail to remember because we never encoded the information in the first place. When you do have something to remember, you will do better if you encode it.
- **Encode information in more than one way:** The more elaborate the encoding of information, the more memorable it will be
- **Add meaning:** The more meaningful the material, the more likely it is to link up with information already in long-term memory.

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- **Take your time:** If possible, minimize interference by using study breaks for rest or recreation. Sleep is the ultimate way to reduce interference.
- **Over learn:** Studying information even after you think you already know it- is one of the best ways to ensure that you_ll remember it.
- **Monitor your learning:** By testing yourself frequently, rehearsing thoroughly, and reviewing periodically, you will have a better idea of how you are doing

- **Remember the Three R's:**
  - **Respect for self;**
  - **Respect for others;**
  - **Responsibility for all your actions**

End of UNIT 4

UNIT 6

PERSONALITY

Learning Objective

On completion of this unit, you should be able to:

- Define personality
- Identify the major theories of personality

DEFINITION OF PERSONALITY

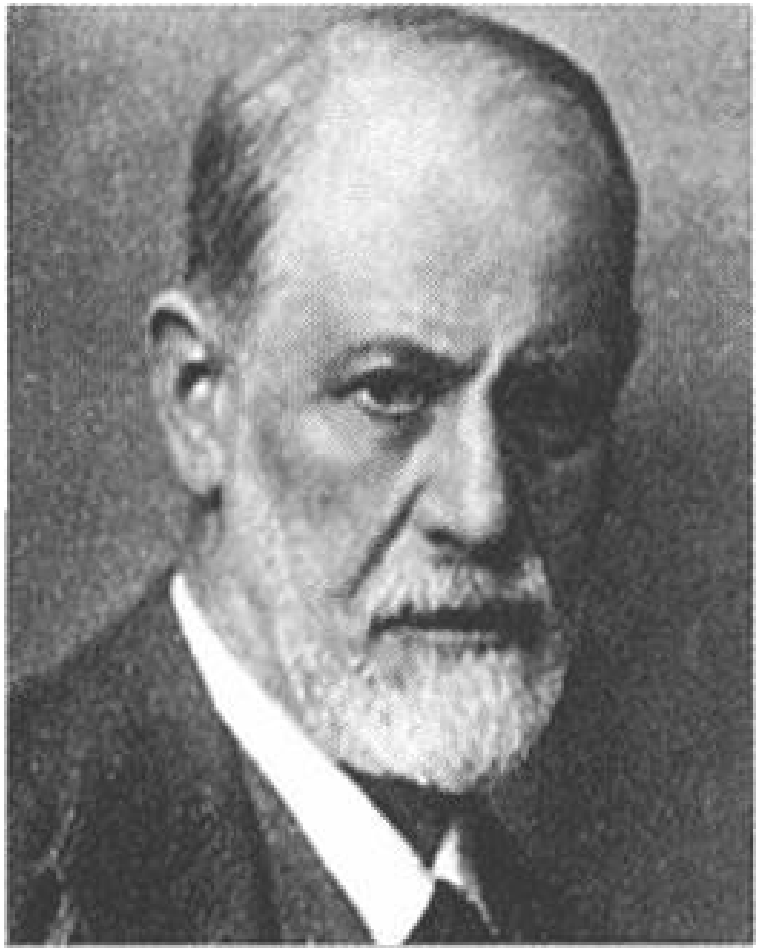
An individual's unique and relatively consistent patterns of thinking, feeling, and behaving

THEORIES OF PERSONALITY

- Attempt to describe and explain how people are similar, how they are different, and why every individual is unique
- There are theories that try to understand the concept of personality. Among the many, **psychoanalytic** and **type theories** are the major ones

Psychoanalytic Theory

- This theory was originated by **Sigmund Freud**
- It is a psychological model on the belief that **inner forces** over which the individual has little control motivate behavior



SIGMUND FREUD

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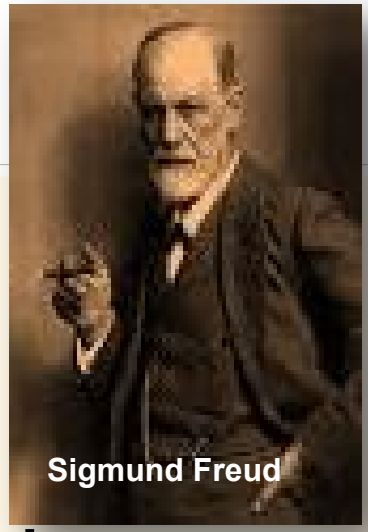
Sigmund Freud

Psychoanalysis has three main features /components/:

1. **A method of investigation of the mind (the unconscious mind) and the way one thinks;**

1. **A systematized set of theories about human behavior (Structure, Dynamics, and Psychosexual Stages);**

2. **A method of diagnosis, assessment and treatment of psychological or emotional illness (communicating with the unconscious and making the unconscious conscious).**

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- **There are four pillars to Freudian Psychoanalysis**

1. Topographic Approach of personality (Conscious vs. unconscious)
2. Structure of Personality (Id, Ego, & Superego)
3. Dynamics of Personality (Instincts, anxiety, and defense mechanism)
4. Psychosexual stages of development (oral, anal, phallic, latent, genital)

Topographic Approach

- The **mind** displays **three topographic regions**:
  - the **unconscious**,
  - **preconscious** or **subconscious** and
  - **conscious**.

1. The **unconscious** is largely unknown territory.

- this area refers to **thoughts and feelings that are repressed**.

cont'd

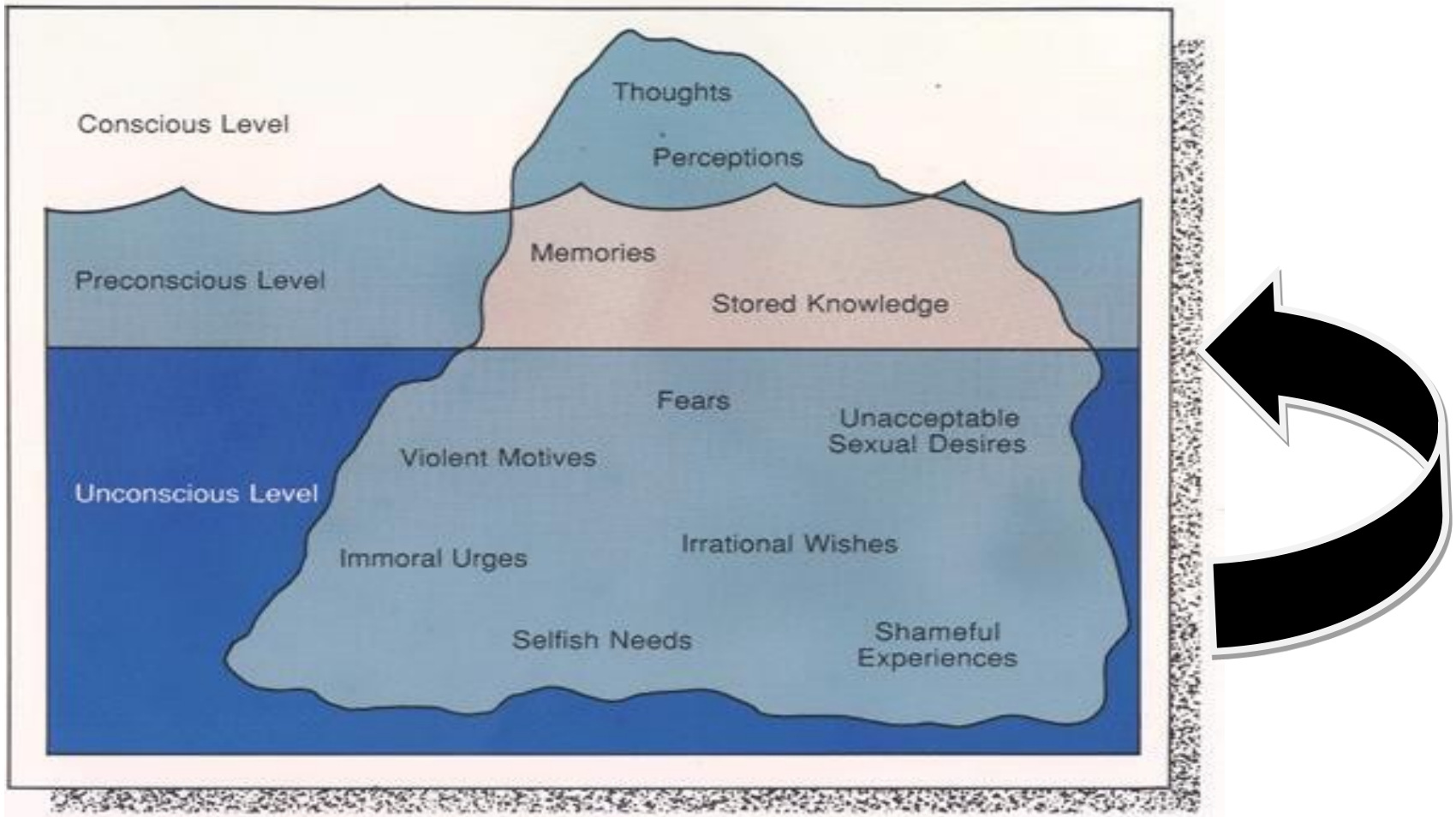
2.The **preconscious**

- this is also called the available memory & includes all memories, thoughts, experiences, feelings, sensations, etc. that are not at our focus of attention (awareness) at the moment but can be brought easily to awareness either spontaneously or with a minimum effort.

3.The **conscious** is a mental state that the organism (human being) is aware of but it does not play an essential role in dominating the person's deed

- it represents only a small portion of the mind.

PERS 5 Freud's View of the Human Mind: The Mental Iceberg



9 by Allyn and Bacon

Structure of Personality

- The **Id**, **Ego**, **Superego** structure of mind complements Freud's structural or topographical ("iceberg") model o the unconscious, pre-conscious, & conscious.
- The Ego and Superego play roles in each of the three levels of consciousness, but the Id is entirely played out in the Unconscious.
- The **Id**, the **Ego** and the **Superego** work together t produce all of our complex behaviors.

THE ID ("It")

1. Functions in the **irrational** and **emotional** part of the mind.
2. It is animalistic, selfish, instinctive, & biological.
3. The Id is the primitive mind. It contains all the basic needs and feelings.
4. It is the source for libido (psychic energy).
5. it has only one rule --> the "**pleasure principle**"

i.e. the id would satisfy its fundamental urges & avoid pain immediately as they arouse regardless of morals, rules, & realities of life.

Id too strong = bound up in self-gratification and uncaring to others

THE SUPEREGO ("Over-I")

1. The Superego is the last part of the mind to develop. It might be called the moral part of the mind.
2. The Superego becomes an embodiment of parental and societal values, enforces rules, strives for perfection, even though this perfection ideal may be quite far from reality or possibility.
3. Its power to enforce rules comes from its ability to create anxiety.
4. The Superego has two subsystems: **Ego Ideal** and **Conscience**.

5. **Ego Ideal** provides rules for good behavior, and standards of excellence towards which the Ego must strive.

6. The **Conscience** is the rules about what constitutes bad behavior. The Conscience is basically all those things that the child feels his or her parents will disapprove of or punish.

- ***Superego too strong = feels guilty all the time, may even have an insufferably saintly personality***

THE EGO: (“I”):

1. Functions with the **rational part of the mind**.
2. The Ego develops out of growing awareness that you can’t always get what you want.
3. The Ego relates to the **real world** and operates via the **“reality principle”.**
4. The Ego realizes the need for **compromise** and negotiates between the Id and the Superego.

cont'd

5. The Ego denies both **instant gratification** and **pious delaying** of gratification.

6. The term **ego-strength** is used to refer to how well the ego copes with these conflicting forces.

7. To undertake its work of planning, thinking and controlling the Id, the Ego uses some of the Id's libidinal energy in the form of **Defense Mechanisms**.

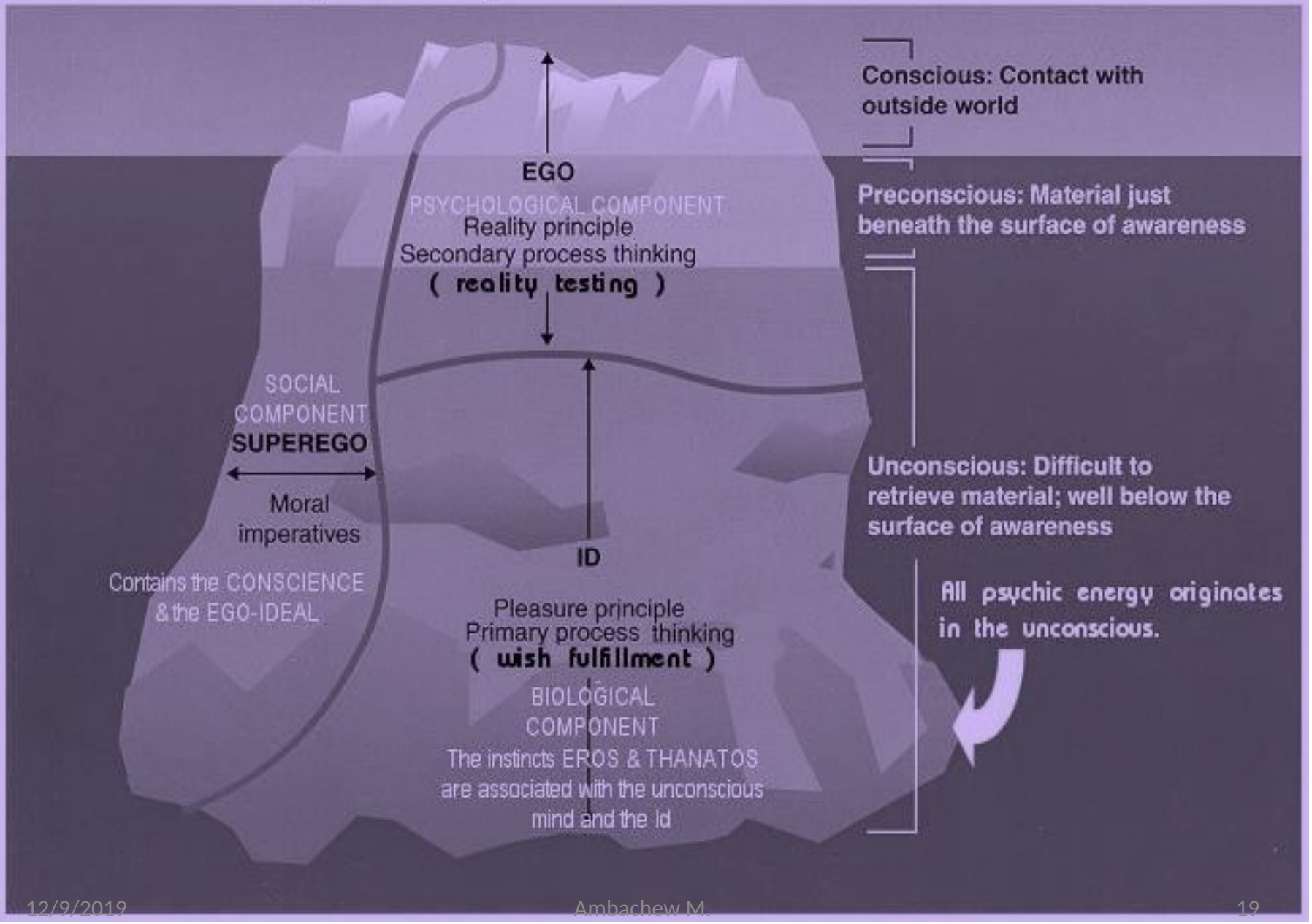
Ego too strong = extremely rational and efficient, but cold, boring and distant

Structure of personality	The dimension of personality it represents	When the need satisfaction is required	Principle it operates with
Id	Biological	Requires needs immediate satisfaction of needs	Pleasure principle
Ego	Psychological	Requires delay of satisfaction of id desires	Reality principle
Superego	Social	It totally forbids satisfaction of id desires	Moral principle / perfection/

Freud's theory of the personality



Freud's model of personality structure



Key terms in the structure of personality

Unconscious:	**Part of the mind of which we cannot be directly aware.**
Conscious:	**Part of the mind of which we are directly aware.**
Conscience:	**Our sense of right and wrong.**
Libido:	**Psychic energy used to fuel the instinctual drives of the Id.**
id:	**Seat of instincts, especially sexual (life) instincts and aggressive (death) instincts. fueled by a type of psychic energy called LIBIDO.**
Ego:	**Part of the mind that develops to deal with the demands of reality, as well as to mediate the demands of the id and the superego.**
Superego:	**Part of the mind that contains our sense of right and wrong and the ideals of behavior we aspire to. It is made up of two parts: the CONSCIENCE and the EGO IDEAL.**
Pleasure principle:	**The principle according to which the ID operates, seeking to obtain immediate gratification of its drives to obtain pleasure and avoid pain.**
Reality principle:	**The principle according to which the EGO operates, seeking safe, realistic ways to fulfill the demands of the id.**
Ego ideal:	**The thoughts and behaviors we aspire to.**
Morality principle:	**The principle according to which the SUPEREGO operates, seeking to avoid doing wrong and to produce behavior that coincides which the types of thoughts and behaviors we consider ideal.**

Dynamics of Personality

Instincts

- An instinct refers to organized and relatively complex pattern of behavior, which is a characteristic of a given species at certain times. It is unlearned & relatively inflexible.
- Freud classified instincts into two general headings: the life and death instincts.

- **Life instincts (Eros):** include all the forces, which serve to maintain vital life processes & assure propagation of the species.
- Life instinct is considered as the underlying source of all creative activities.

cont'd

- **Death instincts (Thanatos):** underlie all the manifestations of cruelty, aggression, suicide and murder. The death instinct is the source of all aggressive and hostile behavior.

- According to Freud, every individual has unconscious wish to die. Due to this he developed a famous dictum that says, " the final goal of life is death."

cont'd

- **Anxiety and Defense Mechanisms**
  - In Freudian theory **anxiety** is defined as unpleasant feelings of tension, distress, or worry experienced by individuals in reaction to unacceptable wishes and impulses
  - Based on the sources of threat **Freud proposed three types of anxieties**

cont'd

1. **Realistic anxiety**: refers to the fear of rea danger in the external world. i.e. objective anxiety

   e.g. accident, earthquake, thunder, exam, etc

2. **Neurotic anxiety**: is caused by the fear that instincts will get out of control and cause the person to do something for which he will be punished

- It results from the **id-ego conflict**
- Punishment by the **id**

cont'd

3. Moral anxiety: is caused when the ego is threatened from the superego due to active expression of immoral acts and when the superego responds with the feelings of guilt, shame and self- preservation

- It results from the conflict b/n the id & the superego
- Punishment by the **superego**
- To defend the personality of the individual from these anxieties, the **ego** develops **defense mechanisms**

cont'd

- **Defense Mechanisms** are techniques used by the **ego** to keep threatening situations out of consciousness and thereby to reduce anxiety

⇒ All defense mechanisms have two common characteristics

i. **They falsify, distort and deny the reality**

ii. They operate unconsciously

cont'd

- **The most common types of defense mechanisms used in our daily life are the following:**

1. **Repression:** pushing unacceptable impulses and thoughts from consciousness to the unconscious
   - It is a tendency to **forget** things or events that arouse anxiety

E.g. A person who accidentally struck another with his bat during a base ball game can no remember the accident .

cont'd

2. **Regression:** going back to earlier, primitive or childhood forms behaviors in times of crisis

E.g. An adolescent who is overwhelmed with fear, anger and growing sexual impulses might become clinging and begin thumb sucking or bed wetting.

3. **Sublimation:** is the channeling of unacceptable impulses into more acceptable outlets

E.g. A person with strong feelings of aggression may become a known football player.

cont'd

4. Compensation: substitution of an activity for a frustrated motives

- making up for one's deficiencies. By putting effort in to a similar area (direct compensation) or in to a different area (indirect compensation)

E.g. The boy who fails at games will study hard to get social recognition.

5. Projection: blaming someone else for one's own shortcomings

E.g. A man who is sexually attracted to a woman may say that she is attracted to him sexually.

cont'd

6. **Displacement:** redirecting one's own thoughts, feelings and impulses from more frustrating to a less frustrating object or person.

E.g. When a worker is angry at his boss, he may kick his wife or children.

7. **Rationalization:** giving fallacious reason for one's limitations.

E.g. Drinkers may say that we drink just to be sociable.

cont'd

8. **Reaction Formation:** expression of directly opposite motives or behavior to that of the real one that is found to be unacceptable

- i.e. saying the direct opposite of what one really feels
- In reaction formation, the anxiety producing intent

  I hate you is changed in to I love you

E.g. Mulu says " I do not want to play with Abebe, because I don't like him," when the true is that mulu likes Abebe a lot but she is afraid that Abebe does not want to play with her.

cont'd

9. Denial: is the refusal to accept reality and to act as if a painful event, thought or feeling did not exist

- It is an assertion that the information is incorrect

E.g. A person refuses to believe that a close relative has died

Psychosexual stages of personality development

- Freud felt that a person's unique character types develops in childhood from the nature of the interaction between the child and the parents.
- He considers childhood experiences so important that adult personality is shaped and crystallized by the end of the fifth year of life. Subsequent growth consiste for the most part of elaborating this structure.
- For this reason, Freud believes that the child is th father of the man.

Cont'd

- Freud's idea was that from birth on we have an innate tendency to seek pleasure, especially through physical stimulation & particularly through the stimulation of the parts of the body that are sensitive to touch. These are known as the erogenous zones: mouth, anus & genitals.
- Each body region assumes a greater importance at a different age. And so Freud formulated the theory of psychosexual stages of development.

Cont'd

- In each of development there is a conflict & must be satisfactorily resolved before the infant or the child moves on to the next stage.
- An individual may have difficulty of leaving a stage and going to the next due to fixation, which occurs as a result of frustration/under stimulation or over indulgence/over stimulation of the person's needs relevant to the psychosexual stage.

¬ According to Sigmund Freud, there are **five** stages of psychosexual stages of development.

1. **Oral** (0-18 months)
2. **Anal** (18 months - 3 1/2 years)
3. **Phallic** (3 1/2 years - 6 years)
4. **Latency** (6 years - puberty)
5. **Genital** (puberty - adulthood)

Oral stage: Birth - 18 months (approx.)

- The first stage of development in which the infant's mouth is the focal point of pleasure. During this stage, children suck & bite anything that will fit into their mouths.
- To Freud, this behavior suggested that the mouth was the primary site of a kind of sexual pleasure.

Cont'd

- If baby becomes fixated at this stage Freud felt that he or she would grow to be an **oral character.**
- Mostly these people are **extremely dependent** and **passive** people who want everything done for them

- Fixation at this stage results In being talkative, argumentative, smoker, drunker, eating much, etc.

Anal Stage: 18 months - 3.5 years (approx.)

- At this stage the primary source of pleasure shifts from the mouth to the anus. Children derive considerable pleasure from both retention & expulsion of feces. At this stage the emphasis is on toilet training.
- If fixation occurs at this stage, Freud suggested tha adults might show unusual rigidity, orderliness, punctuality, stinginess, retentiveness

Phallic Stage: 3.5 - 6 years (approx.)

- The erogenous zone at this stage is the genital area. Children develop feelings of love to their parents of the opposite sex and feelings of hatred towards the parents of the same sex.
- The male child loves his mother & wants to kill hi father and marry his mother. This situation is known as **Oedipus Complex**. However, after a time he will understand that his father is stronger than him and so he believes that his jealous father would remove hi penis.

Cont'd

- This results the feelings of **castration anxiety** to the child.
- By the same situation, the female child develops the feelings of love to her father hatred towards her mother, which is known as **Electra Complex**. She understands that she had a protruding organ once in the past, but castrated by her mother as a means of punishment. She develops what is known as **penis envy.**

Cont'd

- Finally, as the superego develops the feelings of children change. They resolve Electra and Oedipus complex leave the children blocked from failing in love with his or her own age.

LatencyStage:6 years to puberty (approx.)

- It is a period between phallic stage and puberty during which there is little or no manifest interest in sex.

Cont'd

- According to Freud, sexuality during latency is sublimated into the process of becoming socialized (i.e. friendships of the same age and gender and other activities like schooling, sport, etc.)

Genital stage: post puberty

- It is the final psychosexual stage which is marked by mature sexual behavior.

Type Theories

- Types include groups of traits on which people can be classified
- Type theories focus on people's personal characteristics. They classify people in to types.
- There are different ways of grouping people into types.

Some of type theory are the following

1. Humoral theory of Hippocrates

- This type theory was proposed by Hippocrates about 400 B.C.

- **He grouped people into four temperament types**

A. **Sanguine**: cheerful, vigorous and confidently optimistic people

cont'd

B. **Melancholic**: pertaining to a type of temperament associated with depressed, morose & pessimistic people

C. **Choleric**: a type of temperament with a low threshold for outbursts of anger or rage. - Hot-tempered

D. **Phlegmatic**: characterized by sluggish, slow-moving, calm & unexcitable

cont'd

2. Sheldon's body type

- Sheldon's body type is also called **Somato type theory.**
- According to Sheldon the soma (body) of a person can be classified into three types: **endomorphy**, **mesomorphy & ectomorphy**

- He called these somato types. He argue that these somato types determine the personality of an individual

Body Type	Physical Characteristics	Personality Type	Personality Characteristics
Ectomorphy	**Thin & frail physique**	**Cerebrotonia**	**Non-adventurous, unamiable, does not withstand pain easily**
Mesomorphy	**Muscular & strong**	**Somatotonia**	**Bold, assertive, aggressive, very energetic, adventurous, withstands pain easily**
Endomorphy	**Soft, rounded physique**	**Viscerotonia**	**Relaxed, fond of food, inclined to eat too much, apprehensive, insecure, amiable, sleeps well, conforms to social convention**

3Jung's Extrovert Versus Introvert personality

- Jung has divided personality into two main types:

A. The extroverts:- are people who share characteristics such as outgoing, mobile, friendly, talkative, exuberant, and inclined towards direct action

cont'd

- Extrovert people are quiet social, and they take interest in other people. They are insensitive to social criticism, & not easily offended or embarrassed
- They magnify their success and ignore their failures. They show much love to the external world, physical & social objects. Life for these people is less emotional

cont'd

B. The introverts: are people who share characteristics such as shyness, social withdrawal, a tendency not to talk much, indecisive, socially sensitive, feel offended easily, magnify their failure too much, self critical, & prefer thinking and planning than action

cont'd

4. Type A and Type B personality

- Personality characteristics can be classified as:
- **Type A persons:**
  - are hard-driving and competent
  - live under constant pressure
  - seek recognition and advancement
  - when put under stressful conditions they can not control, however, they are likely to become hostile impatient, anxious, and disorganized

cont'd

- **Type B persons:**
  - are easy going
  - noncompetitive
  - placid
  - unflappable
  - weather stress easily

“ Read more books and watch less TV ”


Thank You

Unit 5

Motivation & Emotion

11/12/2019 Ambachew M.

Chapter Overview

- This chapter introduces the concepts of motivation and emotion.
- In so doing, the chapter focuses on the definition and types of motivation, theories of motivation, conflict of motives, definition, and elements of emotion, and theories of emotion.

Learning outcomes

After successful completion of this chapter, you are expected to:

- Define what motivation is
- Identify the two types of motivation
- compare the different theories of motivation
- Explain the different types of conflicts of motives
- Define what emotion is
- Discuss the three elements of emotion
- Discuss the different theories of emotion

MOTIVATION

Definition of motivation

- **Motivation** comes from latin word – **„mover"** which means **movement**
- **Motivation** is a term referring to the driving and pulling forces which results in persistent behavior directed to a certain goal
- It is a general term referring to the regulation of need satisfying and goal seeking behavior

CONT'D

- From the different ways of defining motivation, we can see about motivation that:
  - **It is a force of deriving, initiating**
  - **It derives to a definite goal**
  - **Towards fulfilling the goal**
  - **Is directional**

MOTIVATIONAL CYCLE

- is part of every normal human being. We start from one motivation, after we pass through the necessary tasks, we get to the motivation
- motivation never terminates as long as human being live
- In order to have one motivational cycle, we have to pass through **three stages**:
- **Motivation state**
  - at this stage the person realizes that she/he is in need of something; she/he is lacking that thing.
  - this is equivalent to **setting a goal** i.e. deficit

CONT'D

- **Behavioral arousal**
  - is the process of **energizing** and **readiness**
  - this is time for determination
  - goal-directed behavior
- **Behavioral towards activity**
  - is almost **a practical action**
  - need satisfaction

THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

1. Instinct theory of motivation

- is the result of an inborn pattern of behavior that is biologically determined
- it holds that we are born to be motivated

2. Drive theories (Push theories of motivation)

- is a theory which assumes that when an **internal driving state** is aroused, the individual is pushed to engage in behavior which will lead to a goal that reduces the intensity of the driving state
- Shortage --- Need--- Drive--- Equilibrium

CONTʻD

3. Incentive theory of motivation

- it is also known as **“pull” theory of motivation**
- an **external stimulus** which pulls an organism/individual towards a goal

e.g.- A child may study hard to get rewards from parents, teachers.

4. Optimal- level theories

- is general. They are also called **“just right theories”**
- the individual tries to attain the optimal level of arousal i.e., if our arousal is high, we try to cool down or if arousal is low we try to raise it up.

CONT'D

5. Hierarchy theory or Humanistic approaches to motivation

- The hierarchy of needs is one of the best-known theories of motivation
- Created by psychologist Abraham Maslow, the hierarchy is often displayed as **a pyramid**, with the most basic needs at the bottom and more complex needs at the peak

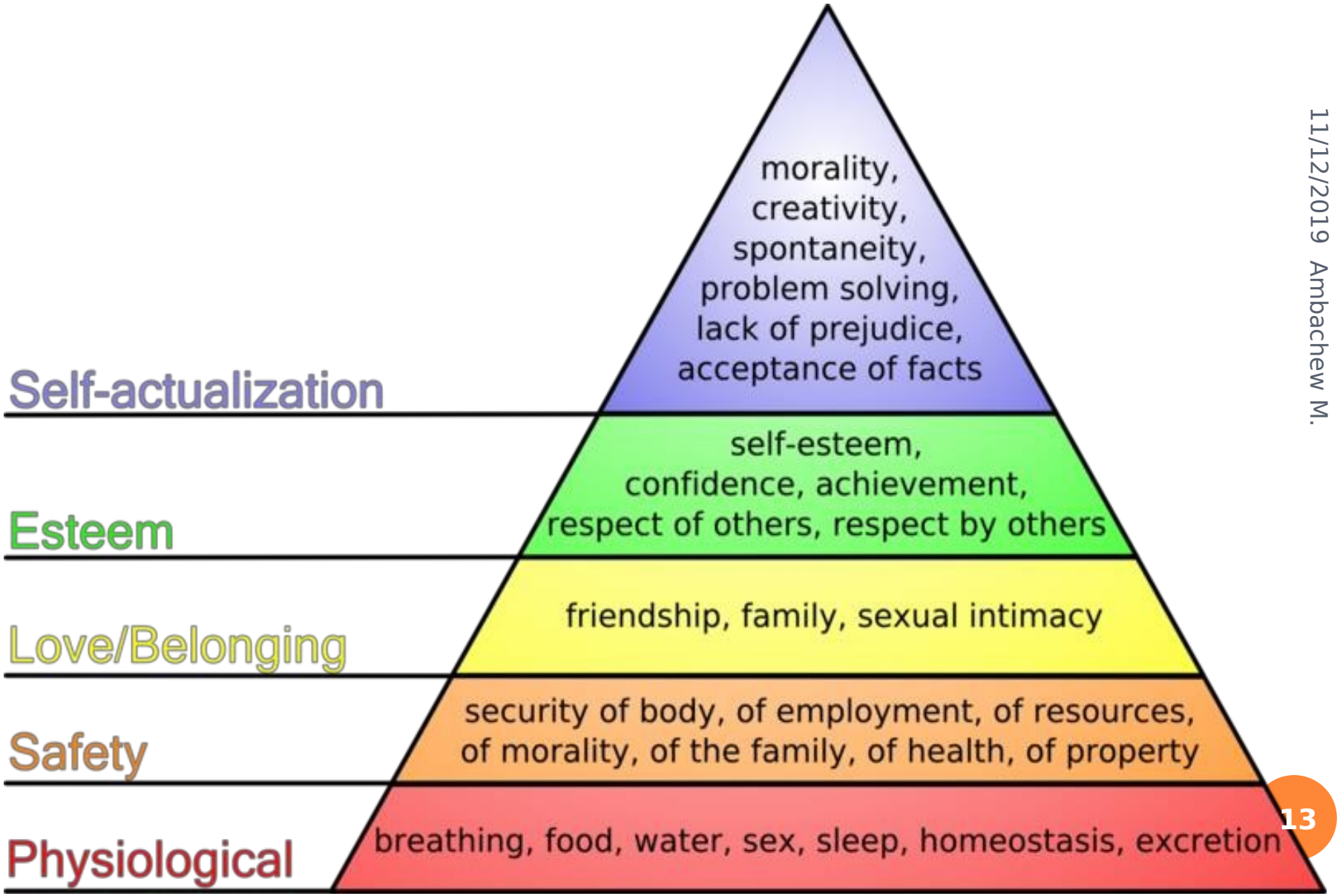
- The **four lowest-level needs** are what Maslow referred to as **D-needs** (or **deficiency needs**)

CONT'D

- These needs are due to a lack of something and need to be satisfied in order to avoid unpleasant feelings and to move on to higher level needs

- The **uppermost needs** in the hierarchy are referred to **B-needs** (**being needs** or **growth needs**) and involve the desire to grow as an individual and fulfill one's own potential

Maslow‟s Hierarchy of Needs



CONT'D

i. Physiological need

- refers to the need for physical survival and the basic & the lower order need which include (hunger, food, water, need for sleep, etc)

ii. Safety need

- refers to the desire to live as comfortable
- it is a need for security & stability

e.g. financial, health, & social security

iii. Need for love & belongingness

- refers to a desire to have a place in one family or social group (reference group)

e.g. a need to have friends, a need to have marriage partner, a need for affection etc

CONT'D

iv. Esteem need- include two sub-group

a) need for self-respect:- which includes desire for achievement, desire for competence, desire for confidence & desire for personal strength etc.

- In this case an individual to know that s/he is a worth while person

b) esteem from others:- this include need for appritation, need for prestige, need for fame, need for recognition, need for attention, etc.

-In this case the need is to be appriated by others for what a person does i.e. to get attention by others

CONT'D

V. Need for Self-actualization /Self- Fulfillment/

- the need to fulfill the best in a person realizing the highest potential.
- it refers to the desire to realize one's full potential

e.g. The desire to be what one can become. A kind of person that one wants to become

TYPES (CLASSIFICATION OF MOTIVES)

I. Primary motives

- are all motives that are related to biological satisfaction

e.g. hunger, thirst, need for oxygen, sleep, etc.

II. Secondary motives

- are **too many** in **type**
- they can be further divided in to:
- **Unlearned general motives**
- refer to motives generating from general points of **interest**

e.g. motive for body activity, motive for perceiving the world, motive for exploration

CONT'D

- **Learned motives**
  - refer to motives generated because of learning or experience

e.g. motive to have car, degree, clean cloth, birth control, etc.

- **Social motives**
  - involving not only the subject, but **other group of people** such as **society**, **family**, **friends**, (motive for status, and motive for approval…)

MOTIVATIONAL PROBLEMS : FRUSTRATION & CONFLICT

- **Frustration** is an obstructing circumstance that block interfere with goal directed activity and the state of annoyance because of the obstructed goal.
- Therefore frustration is **two** things together-

  1. Hindrance of motivation (goal satisfaction)
  2. Disappointment because of the goal obstruction

CONT'D

- Frustration is in general a person's actual or imagined:

i. diversion from a goal

ii. blocking of goal-directed b/r, or

iii. loss of an already achieved goal

SOURCES OF FRUSTRATION

- **Environmental frustration**- this is when any physical object or physical person in the environment hinders the satisfaction of the goal

e.g. - a person during in a car accident he may not achieve goal

- If a student who wants to achieve a good grade due to his instructor (may get 'D' or 'F')

- **Personal frustration**- is when personal awareness, self indignity, lack of personal talent, personal fault, etc. blocks the satisfaction of goal and causes disappointment

e.g.- If a person gets 'F' due to lack of his knowledge

CONT'D

- **Conflicting motives-** is caused by the very contradictory nature of the goals. So, however hard the persons tries, s/he will never be in apposition to score a goal.
- refers to frustration resulted from being unable (satisfy all the goals) to achieve **incompatible goals**
- the expression on one motive interferes with the expression of another motives
- This kind of contradiction happens mostly between two goals, sometimes one goal with two situations

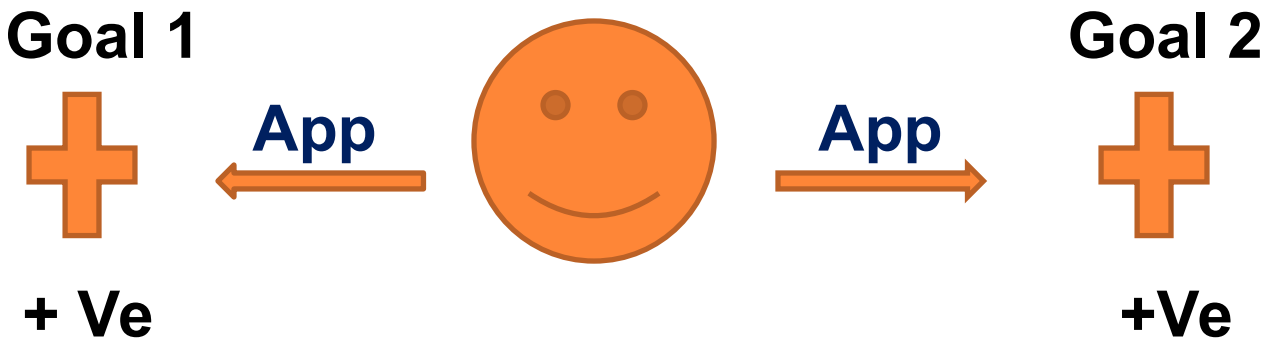
CONT'D

- **It has the following variations**

I. Approach-Approach conflict

- there is two goals, having equal value to the person
- both goals are positive (i.e. the person wants to have them). Both are in contradiction
- they are inseparable - had they been separable, they weren't contradictory;
- the person can have one first and satisfy the other next. But unfortunately, both are not possible to be achieved at the same time. The person must miss one in order to get the other

CONT'D



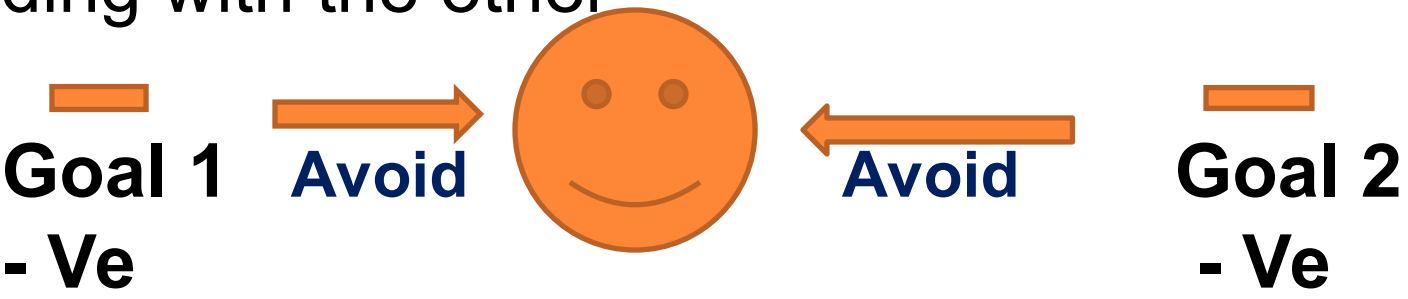
e.g.- Getting good job & getting admission to graduate school

- He wants to attend class at the same time performs his duty

CONT'D

II. Avoidance-Avoidance conflict

- the goals are negative (i.e. the person wants to avoid them) and they can not be avoided at the same time.
- when going away from one goal, the person is colliding with the other



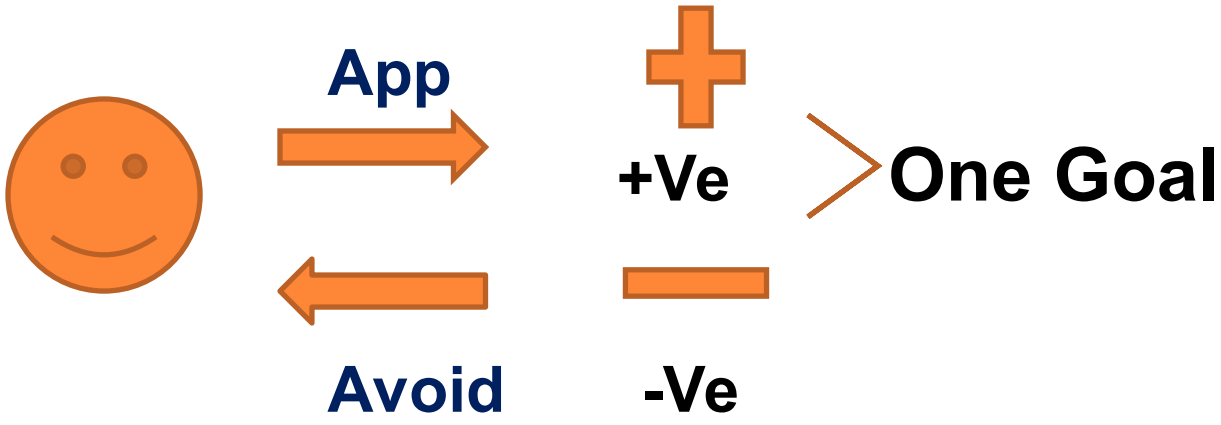
e.g.- A student is afraid he might fail in the exam and is tempted to copy. But, he might be caught and disqualified if he were to copy

CONTꞋD

III. Approach-Avoidance conflict

- there is **one goal.** But it has two situations with in it
- as the person goes away from the negative, s/he misses the positive.
- when the person goes for the positive, s/he collides with the negative
- this conflict is **more difficult** than the other two

CONT'D



e.g.- A woman wishes to marry but fears sexual relations

- You may want to go to the dentist but may fear the pain of the drill

EMOTION

Definition of Emotion

- Emotion is a state of being which creates pleasant or unpleasant, mild or intense effect on the effectiveness of experiences.
- It is the subjective feeling state which can influence perception, thinking.
- It is an irrational feeling; e.g. liking or disliking someone or something with out any reason.

Function of emotion

- **It prepares a person for action**:
  - effective responses to various situations.
  e.g. emotional arousal (fear) to angry dog

- **It shapes future behavior**:
  -teaches the person to avoid unpleasant emotions

- **Help people to regulate social interaction**:
  - the emotions are communicated through our verbal and non verbal behaviors

Dimension of Emotion

Emotion has three dimensions

1. **Intensity**: the strength or weakness of the emotion
2. **Type**: anger, fear, pleasure, anxiety, etc
3. **Tendency towards activity**: means actual behavior or how the individual will react

Components of Emotion

Physiological component

- it occurs mainly through the action of autonomic nervous system which regulates the activity of glands, smooth muscles, & blood vessels

- the autonomic nervous system is responsible for the highly emotional or flight response which is largely modulated by the release of adrenal hormone that radiate through out the body

CONT'D

Cognitive component

- people's cognitive appraisals of events in their lives are key determinants of the emotions they experience
- this includes different feelings such as fear, anger, surprise, happiness etc.

CONT'D

Behavioral component

- an action due to emotion

i.e. outward signs that an emotion is occurring

- discloses it self in three ways:

  - Physiological change

  - Physical expression

  - Psychosomatic reaction

Behavioral component of emotion

Physiological change	Physical expression	Psychosomatic reaction
– are those changes that take place inside the body because of biochemical change (hormonal, enzymes, blood circulation, etc.)	– is outwardly seen unlike the physiological. – it is mostly done either verbally or by movement of part of the body. – it has three forms • Vocal expression- the change of the pitch of voice •Posture & gesture- movement of different parts of the body • Facial expression- is an out ward manifestation of internal feeling in our face like frown, smile, etc.	a) Alarm reaction/Fight or flight response/ - the person starts to show his emotion indicating that there is danger to come or that something is going to be wrong b) Resistance/Adaptation/ - reaction to reject the danger, repelling c) Exhaustion - is the final stage-every thing is up. - the individual gives up the attempt, either winning the situation or being defeated

11/12/2019 Amaechi M.

THEORIES OF EMOTION

I. James- Lang Theory of Emotion

- In this theory, a stimulus of some sort (for example, the large snarling dog) produces a physiological reaction.
- This reaction, which is the arousal of the —fight-or-flightll sympathetic nervous system (wanting to run), produces bodily sensations such as increased heart rate, dry mouth, and rapid breathing.
- emotions are created by awareness of specific patterns of peripheral (autonomic) responses.

CONT'D

II. Cannon-Bard theory of emotion

- stated that the brain generates direct experiences of emotion.
- Physiologists Walter Cannon and (1927) and Philip Bard (1934) theorized that the emotion and the physiological arousal occur more or less at the same time.
- The fear and the bodily reactions are, therefore, experienced at the same time-not one after the other.

I am afraid and running and aroused

III. Schechter-Singer and Cognitive Arousal Theory

- The early theories talked about the emotion and the physical reaction, but what about the mental interpretation of those components?
- In their **cognitive arousal theory**, Schechter-Singer (1962) proposed that two things have to happen before emotion occurs: the physical arousal and labeling of the arousal base on cues from the surrounding environment. These two things happen at the same time, resulting in the labeling of the emotion.

SELF- CHECK ACTIVITY

1. “ Motivation for human beings is like a fuel for a car ” ? Explain
2. Discuss the effect of motivation on human behavior
3. How can you motive a person for an activity?



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Chapter 2
sensation and perception

Chapter overview

- Psychological life begins with the activity of knowing what is happening around
- Sensation and perception are the first important dimensions of this intelligent life
- They are starting points for all of our other psychological processes

- They supply the data for use of
  - ✓ learning and remembering
  - ✓ thinking and problem solving
  - ✓ communicating with others, and
  - ✓ experiencing emotions and
  - ✓ being aware of yourself
- Without access to the environment through sensation and perception, ***we would be like a person in a coma devoid of any thoughts or feelings***

The meanings of sensation and perception

- Psychologists have traditionally differentiated between sensation and perception
- **Sensation** is the process whereby **stimulation** of receptor cells in the eyes, ears, nose, mouth, and surface of the skin **sends nerve impulses to the brain**
- Sensations are closely tied to **what is happening** in the sensory systems themselves

The meanings of sensation and perception

- Color, brightness, the pitch of tone or a bitter taste are examples of sensations
- The starting of point of sensations is a stimulus
- A form of energy (**such as light waves or sound waves**) that can affect sensory organs (such as the eye or the ear)
- **Sensation** is therefore the process that detects the stimulus from one‘s body or from the environment

How different is sensation from perception?

- More than sensations perceptual processes are constantly at work to modify sensory input into what are actually experiences
- Perception is the process that organizes sensations into meaningful patterns
- It is the process whereby the brain interprets sensations, giving them order and meaning

- Thus, hearing sounds and seeing colors is largely a sensory process, but forming a melody and detecting patterns and shapes is largely a perceptual process

The sensory laws

Sensory thresholds and sensory adaption

- There are certain sensory laws that explain how sensation works.
- Sensory threshold and sensory adaptation are the two general laws of sensation

- Sensory threshold is the minimum point of intensity a sound can be detected.
- There are two laws of sensory threshold: *The law of absolute threshold* and *the law of difference threshold*.

The absolute threshold

- The minimum amount of stimulation a person can detect is called the absolute threshold

The difference threshold

- In addition to detecting the presence of a stimulus, you also detect changes in the intensity of a stimulus
- The minimum amount of change that can be detected is called difference threshold
- ***For example, a cup of coffee would require a certain amount of additional sugar before you could detect an increase in its sweetness***
- Similarly, you would have to **increase the intensity** of the sound from your tape recorder a certain amount before you could detect a change in its volume
- Like the **absolute threshold**, the **difference threshold** for a particular sensory experience varies from person to person and from occasion to occasion.

Sensory Adaptation

- if a stimulus remains constant in intensity, you will gradually stop noticing it.
- *For example, after diving into a swimming pool, you might shiver. Yet a few minutes later you might invite someone to join you saying, —The water is fine.*
- Sensory adaptation lets you detect potentially important change in your environment while
- ignoring unchanging aspects of it

- **Sensory adatation = habituation: is the tendency to ignore a stimulus that occurs continuously in the same way**
- **Habituationis is the decrease in response to a stimulus that occurs after repeated presentations of the same stimulus.**

Perception

- Since we have its meaning before, let us see its procedures
- **Selectivity of perception**, from perception, depth perception, perceptual constancy, and perceptual illusion

Selectivity of perception: Attention

- any given time, your sense organ is bombarded by many stimuli
- Yet you perceive a few of them.
- **Attention** is therefore the term given to the **perceptual process** that ***selects certain inputs*** for inclusion in your **conscious experience**, or **awareness**, at any given time, ignoring others

What does this selectivity of perception imply?

- The selectivity of perception implies, among other things, that our field of experience is divided into what is known as: **Focus‖ and Margin**
- Events or stimuli that you perceive clearly are the focus of your experience and other items or stimuli that you perceive dimly or vaguely are in the margin of your attention.
- You may be aware of items in the marginal field but only vaguely or partially

- Paying attention is in general a function of two factors: factors external to the perceiver and factors internal to the perceiver
- External factors refer to factors that are generall y found in the objects or stimuli to be perceived
- Some of the external characteristics of objects that determine whether you are going to attend them or not are size and intensity, repetition, novelty (or newness), and movement

- **Repetition** is the second factor
- You are more likely to attend to stimuli that repeatedly or
- frequently occur in your perceptual field.
- A misspelled word is more likely to be detected if it occurs many times in a paragraph than when it occurs only once or twice

- **Repetition is, then, attention getting**
- *That is, by the way, why slogans, advertisings, and announcement are repeated continuously to audiences and spectators*
- **The other external factor in attention getting is movement**
- **Moving objects tend to get your attention more than non-moving or stagnant objects**

Psychological factors to attention

- Psychologists have identified two important psychological factors:
  - ✓Set or expectancy and
  - ✓motives or needs.
- **Set refers** to the idea that you may be —ready and —Primed for certain kinds of sensory input
- **Set, or expectancy**, therefore,

- Motives and needs are the second psychological factors influencing you as an observer.
- *There are differences between you and your friend in what you select to perceive as a result of differences in your motives and needs*

- ***You and your friend attend to and organize the sensory input in ways that match your respective needs.***
- ***People who are hungry, thirst, or sexually aroused are likely to pay attention to events in the***

From perception

- sensations provide the raw materials that are to be ***organized into meaningful patterns, shapes, forms, and concepts or ideas*** or **form perception**

- The meaningful shapes or patterns or ideas that are made out of meaningless sensations refer to **form perception**
- To perceive forms (**meaningful shapes or patterns**), need to distinguish a figure (**an object**) from its ground (**or its surrounding**)

Figure-Ground Perception

- **Figure-ground perception is the perception of objects and forms of everyday experience as standing out from a background.**

- The ability to distinguish an object from its general background is basic to all form perception
- And gestalt psychologists stress that form perception in an active, rather than a passive, process like selectivity of

Contours in Form Perception

- **You are able to separate forms from the general ground only because you can perceive contours. Contours are formed whenever a marked difference occurs in the brightness or color of the background**

- **For instance, if you look at a piece of paper that varies continuously in brightness from white at one border to black at the opposite border, you will perceive no contour**

- **In perceiving the division at the place where the brightness gradient changes abruptly, you have perceived a contour**
- **In general, contours give shape to the objects in our visual world because they mark one object off from another or they mark an object off from the general ground.**

Organization in form Perception

- **When several objects are present in the visual field, we tend to perceive them as organized into patterns or groupings.**
- **The Gestalt psychologists studied such organization intensively in the early part of this century**
- **They emphasized that organized perceptual experience has properties, which cannot be predicated from a simple analysis of the components.**
- **In other words, Gestalt psychologist said —the whole is more than the sum of its parts.‖**

- Organization in perception partially explains our perception of complex patterns as unitary forms, or objects

Laws of perceptual organization

1. Proximity or nearness

- **The laws of proximity says that items which are close together in space or time tend to be perceived as belonging together or forming an organized group.**

2. Similarity

- **Most people see one triangle formed by the dots with its apex at the top and another triangle formed by the rings with its apex at the bottom. They perceive triangle because similar items such as, the rings and the dots, tend to be organized together.**

3. Continuation

- **the tendency to perceive a line that starts in one way as continuing in the same way.**

Depth perception

- If we live in a two-dimensional world, form perception would be sufficient
- ***But because we live in a three-dimensional world, we have evolved depth perception-the ability to judge the distance of objects***
- ***Depth perception: is the ability to view the world in three dimensions and to perceive distance.***
- Given that images on the retina are two dimensional, how can we perceive depth?

- Depth perception depends on the use **binocular cues and monocular cues**
- there are two kinds of binocular cues: **retinal disparity and convergence.**
- The two kinds of binocular cues require the interaction of both eyes

Explanation

- The ability to view the world in three dimensions and to perceive distance—a skill known as depth perception—is due largely to the fact that we have two eyes. Because there is a certain distance between the eyes, a slightly different image reaches each retina. The brain integrates the two images into one composite view, but it also recognizes the difference in images and uses it to estimate the distance of an object from us. The difference in the images seen by the left eye and the right eye is known **as binocular disparity**

- Retinal disparity is, the degree of difference between the image of an object that are focused on the two retinas.
- The closer the object, the greater is the retinal disparity.
- The second binocular cue to depth is **convergenc**e, the degree to which the eyes turn inward to focus on an object
- Hold a forefinger vertically in front of your face and move it toward your nose.
- Binocular cues require two eyes, whereas **monocular cues** require only one.
- This means that even people who have lost sight in one eye may still have good depth perception
- One monocular is **accommodation,** which is the change in the shape of the lens that lets you focus the image of an object on the retina

CHAPTER Three

LEARNING AND THEORIES OF LEARNING

Definition, Characteristics and Principles of Learning

- **Definitions of learning**
- *Learning is a relatively permanent change in behavior occurring as a result of experience or practice*

Characteristics of Learning

- Learning is continuous modification of behavior throughout life
- Learning is pervasive; it reaches into all aspects of human life.
- Learning involves the whole person, socially, emotionally &intellectually.
- Learning is often a change in the organization of experiences.
- Learning is responsive to incentives
- Learning is an active process
- Learning is purposeful
- Learning depends on maturation, motivation and practice.
- Learning is multifaceted

Factors Influencing Learning

- **Motivation**
- **Maturation**
- **Health condition**
- **Psychological wellbeing: anxiety, fear, seslf-confidence,**
- **Good working conditions**

Theories of Learning and their Applications

There three major theories of learning

1. Behaviorist theory: Pavlov, Skinner, Thordike,

2. Social learning: Albert Bandura

3. Cognitive learning: Jean Piaget,

Behavioral Theory of Learning

- Learning from stimulus-response associations
- It emphasizes observable behaviors (think back the definition of psych)
- Focuses on consequences
- Behaviorists differ on the role of reinforcement in learning: thus,

There are two major behavioral theories of learning

1. **Classical** Conditioning: **formulated by Evan Pavlove**
2. **Operant** Conditioning: **formulated Burrhus Frederic (B.F.) Skinner**

Classical conditioning theory

- Classical conditioning focuses on the learning of involuntary emotional or physiological responses to stimuli that normally elicit no response
- e.g. fear, increased heartbeat, salivation or sweating
- Classical conditioning is a type of learning in which a neutral stimulus comes to bring about a

Classical conditioning (Contd.)

Basics of Classical Condition

1. **Neutral stimulus:** A stimulus that, before conditioning, does not naturally bring about the response of interest
2. **Unconditioned stimulus (UCS):** A stimulus that naturally brings about a particular response without having been learned.
3. **Unconditioned response (UCR):** A response that is natural and needs no training (e.g., salivation at the smell of food).

Basics …..

4. Conditioned stimulus (CS): neutral stimulus that paired with an unconditioned stimulus to bring about a response similar with the unconditioned stimulu

5. Conditioned response (CR): A response that follows a previously neutral stimulus

Classical conditioning (Contd.)

Hence, the theory of classical conditioning represents a process in which a neutral stimulus, by pairing with a natural stimulus, acquires all the characteristics of natural stimulus

It is also called *substitution learning* b/c it involves substituting a neutral stimulus in place of natural stimulus

Let us consider Pavlov's experiment (Summary)

Summary of classical conditioning procedure

A. Before conditioning

Food **(UCS)**

Salivation **(UCR)**

Bell **(NS)**

No salivation

B. During conditioning

Bell + food

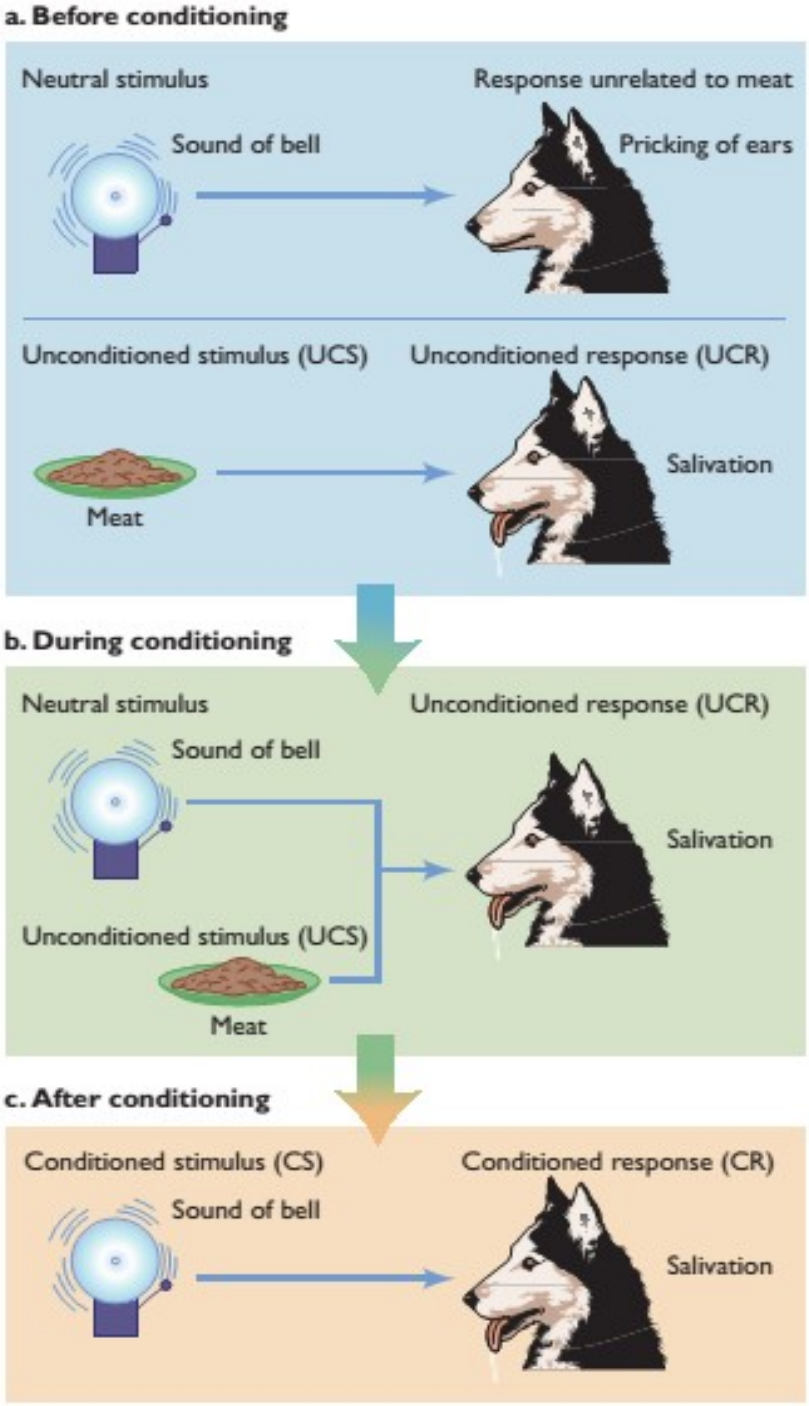
Salivation

NS + UCS

UCR

C. After conditioning

Bell


a. Before conditioning
Neutral stimulus
Sound of bell
Response unrelated to meat
Pricking of ears
Unconditioned stimulus (UCS)
Meat
Unconditioned response (UCR)
Salivation
b. During conditioning
Neutral stimulus
Sound of bell
Unconditioned stimulus (UCS)
Meat
Unconditioned response (UCR)
Salivation
c. After conditioning
Conditioned stimulus (CS)
Sound of bell
Conditioned response (CR)
Salivation

Principles of Classical Condition

1. **Extinction:** presenting the ***CS*** repeatedly without the ***UCS*** (meat), the ***CR*** will diminish and eventually stop

2. ***Spontaneous recovery*** is the reemergence of an extinguished conditioned response after extinction

3. Stimulus generalization: is a process in which, after a stimulus has been conditioned to produce a particular response, stimuli that are similar to the original stimulus begin to produce the same responses

- **Stimulus generalization happens when an organism learns a response to one stimulus and applies it to another similar stimulus**
- **Even though the stimuli may be different, the familiarity that accompanies the initial learning can be applied to other stimuli as well**

- **Stimulus generalization enables organisms to take previous learning and apply it to new, but similar, situations.**
- **The ability to utilize previous learning keeps the organism from having to start over in the learning process.**
- **Generalizations can be less effective when the stimulus has an element of newness unassociated with the familiarit**

For example,

When a person learns to drive a car, this training can be generalized to driving most other cars. If the initial training was on an automatic transmission, though, and now the driver must drive a manual transmission, generalization of the prior skills is limited. The respondent must then use stimulus discrimination to distinguish between the familiar and the new information, and make the appropriate adjustments to generalize the new learning.

- ***Stimulus discrimination*** is the process of distinguishing two similar stimuli; the ability to differentiate between stimuli

Note that:

- **Extinction** would prove to be a useful psychological finding to treat ***phobias and other irrational fears***.

the following summary can help make the relationships between stimuli and responses easier to understand and remember:

- **Conditioned=learned.**
- **Unconditioned=not learned**.
- **An unconditioned stimulus leads to an unconditioned response**.
- **Unconditioned stimulus–unconditioned response pairings are unlearned and untrained.**
- During conditioning, a previously neutral stimulus is transformed into the conditioned stimulus.
- A conditioned stimulus leads to a conditioned response, and a conditioned stimulus–conditioned response pairing is a consequence of learning and training.
- An unconditioned response and a conditioned response are similar (such as salivation in Pavlov's experiment), but the unconditioned response occurs naturally, whereas the conditioned response is learned

Operant/Instrumental conditioning

- **Operant conditioning: Learning in which a voluntary response is strengthened or weakened, depending on its favorable or unfavorable consequences.**
- **Operant conditioning states that learning occurs as a result of the rewards and punishments the subject receives in response to a particular behavior.**
- **If the result of the behavior is a reward, the same behavior is likely to be repeated**
- **If the result is a punishment, the behavior is less likely to be repeated.**

- It states that ***learning occurs as a result of voluntary*** responses that are **operatingon the environment**
- These **behavioral responses** are either **strengthened** (more likely to recur) or **weakened** (less likely to recur) depending on whether the **consequences** of the response are **favorable** or **unfavorable**.

- **Unlike classical conditioning (which depends on the biological responses) operant conditioning applies to voluntary responses (which an organism deliberately performs in order to achieve a desired outcome)**
- **In operant a behavior operates on the environment in ways that produce consequences**

Example

If a person is playing the piano, that person is operating on the environment (the keys on the piano) in such a way as to produce music. **The quality of the music and comments from listeners are the consequences** that condition the person's operant performance at the piano. Well-played music elicits social approval that reinforces the skills needed

Operant…..

- ***Operant conditioning*** is learning in which a voluntary response is strengthened or weakened, depending on its favorable or unfavorable consequences
- **It is a form of association learning in which the consequences of behavior produce changes in the probability of the behavior's occurrence**
- **Also known as instrumental conditioning because it is instrumental in changing the environment and producing consequences**
- In operant conditioning, the organism's response operates on the environment and the environment, in turn, operates the organism's response

BASIC OPERATIONS

As Skinner‘s analysis, a response (operant) can lead to three types of consequences

1) A neutral consequence **2)** A reinforcement or **3**) punishment

1. **A neutral Consequence** that does not alter the response
2. **A reinforcement** that strengthens the response by a **reinforcer**

BASIC OPERATIONS ……

1. Reinforcement

- **A reinforcer is any event that increases the probability that the behavior that precedes it will be repeated**
- **Reinforcers are the prime movers of operant conditionin**
- **Reinforcers that follow an operant behavior increase the likelihood (reoccurance) a similar response (behavior) in the future**

There are two basic types of reinforcers

- **Primary reinforcers: Food, water, light, stroking of the skin, and a comfortable air temperature**
- **Secondary Reinforcers: . Money, praise, applause, good grades, awards, and gold stars**

BASIC OPERATIONS ….

- Both primary and secondary reinforcers can be **positive or negative**
  - ✓ ***Positive reinforcement*** is the process whereby presentation of a stimulus makes behavior more likely to occur again
  - ✓ A positive reinforcer is a stimulus added to the environment that brings about an increase in a preceding response.

For instance*, if food, water, money, praise, or any number of other stimuli follow a particular response, it is very likely that this response will occur again in the future*.

  - ✓ Positive reinforcement can be given in natural or artificial ways.
  - ✓ Unnatural praise and artificial rewards are not very effective in reinforcing behavior

- ***Negative reinforcement*** is the process whereby elimination of an aversive stimulus makes behavior more likely to occur
- A negative reinforcer refers to an unpleasant stimulus whose removal from the environment leads to an increase in the probability that a preceding response will occur again in the future.
- The two main classes of behavior produced by negative reinforcement are escape and avoidance.
- Escape responses are those operants that allow a person to get away from aversive stimuli after the stimuli are present.

- ***Avoidance responses*** are those operants that allow a person to prevent the occurrence of aversive stimuli beforethe aversive stimuli appear.
- In other words, ***escape involves reacting after*** an aversive event is present.
- ***Avoidance involves proacting,or taking preventative*** steps before an aversive event arises.
- People ***react to getting a splinter*** in their finger by pulling it out; they proact by putting on gloves before handling rough wood.
- ***Escape behaviors*** are usually **learned** before ***avoidance behaviors***

Examples:

1. *For e.g., if someone nags you all the time to study, but stops nagging when you comply, your studying is likely to increase- e.g.* ***escape learning,*** **avoidance** ***learning***
2. *An example of* ***escaping*** *could involve a married couple who repeatedly find themselves in verbal arguments with each other. They react by trying to escape the aversive situation through marital counseling.*
3. *Other couples who see their friends having marital troubles may* **proact by** *working on improving their communication and resolving differences before problems arise, thereby avoiding some arguments and possible long-term damage to their marriage.*

Generally,

- Better to understand as:
- There are two kinds of reinforcement: **positive and negative**
- To reinforce means to **strengthen**;
- thus, both positive and negative reinforcement **strengthen behavior**
- *i.e. Both increase the likelihood that a subject will repeat the behavior in the future.*
- ***The critical difference between the two is that positive reinforcement occurs with the addition of a reinforcing stimulus. Negative reinforcement consists of removing an aversive stimulus***.

2. Punihment

- **When an operant behavior is followed by a response that reduces the frequency of a similar response in the future, that stimulus is called punishment**
- **If a person receives a significant fine after driving through a red light, the punishment is likely to reduce the tendency to speed through red lights in the future**
- **Punishment produces the fastest reduction of the behavior when it is strong, immediate, and not opposed by reinforcement.**

- There are two types of punishment: **positive punishment and negative punishment**, just as there are both **positive and negative reinforcement**.
- In both cases, the term **“positive”** refers to something that is **added**, whereas **“negative”** implies something that is **removed**.

Explanation: “positve” & “negative”

- The terms **“positive”** and **“negative”** indicate whether **punishment** occurs with the **onset** **or** **termination** of the stimulus that follows ***the operant***.
- “**Positive**” indicates **onset,** and “**negative**” indicates **termination**

- **Positive punishment** occurs when the **onset** of an **aversive** stimulus ***suppresses behavior***.
- For instance, if you spill hot coffee on your hand while carrying a cup to a nearby table, the onset of an aversive stimulus (hot coffee) punishes the clumsy act. This is considered a positive form of punishment.

- Negative punishment occurs when the termination of a rewarding stimulus suppresses behavior.
- If a haphazard action results in **your dropping and losing** an important document, ***the loss serves*** as punishment for the act. Therefore the ***loss of a positive reinforcer*** is a negative punishment.

Negative reinforcement & punishment

- It is important to distinguish between negative reinforcement and punishment.
- The two are not the same in operant conditioning.
- Punishment refers to a stimulus that **decreases** the probability that a prior behavior will occur again.
- This differs from negative reinforcement, which **increases** the likelihood of a recurrence in the behavior.

- Punishment **does not cause behavior to be** unlearned or forgotten.
- It merely suppresses the frequency of responding.
- Often the effects of punishment are only temporary.
- When the punishment no longer occurs, the rate of responding usually increases.
- This phenomenon is called recovery.
- Recovery is fastest and most complete when the original punishment was mild or infrequent and there is reinforcement for reinstating the behavior.
- The milder the original punishment, the sooner a behavior is likely to recover after the end of punishment.

- Positive punishment weakensa response or makes it less likely to recur through the application of an unpleasant stimulus.
- On the same track, but coming from the opposite direction, is negative punishment.
- This consists of ***removing something that is pleasant in order to weaken the response or make it less likely to be repeated***.

- *Although Skinner recognized the role of punishment in response to behavior, he was against using it because he did not believe it had a permanent effect on altering behavior except in extreme cases*.
- Although it may initially stop the particular behavior in question, Skinner believed that the prior response was likely to reappear over time.
- In addition, punishment may actually cause a resulting fear or anxiety to emerge that wasn’t present before the application of the punishment.

PUNISHMENT

Positive punishment	Negative punishment
When the subject—a person or animal—engages in a behavior and something negative is applied as a result, the behavior is less likely to be repeated.	When the subject—a person or animal—engages in a behavior and something positive is taken away, that behavior is less likely to be repeated.

Note: **Punishment**

- **is a stimulus** that weakens the response or makes it less likely to recur
- It is an undesirable event that follows a behavior it intends to reduce/ weaken
- **Punishers** can also be primary or secondary
- **primary punishers:** Pain and extreme heat or cold
- **Secondary punishers:** Criticism, demerits, catcalls, scolding, fines, and bad grades

The Pros and Cons of Punishment

- **Immediacy** –punishment follows immediately after the behavior to be punished
- **Consistency**- using punishment evenly/steadily
- **Intensity**- use severe punishments

The Pros and Cons (Contd.)

When punishment fails:

- ✓administering punishment inappropriately or mindlessly
- ✓recipient of punishment often responds with anxiety, fear or rage
- ✓depending heavily on the presence of the punishing person or circumstances
- ✓hard to punish immediately
- ✓Punishment conveys little information - instead of punishing it may be reinforcing because it brings attention

3. Schedules of reinforcement

- Skinner discovered that reinforcement need not be given for each response, but instead could be given after some number of responses according to various schedules of reinforcement
- A schedule of reinforcement refers to the specific relationship between the number, timing, or frequency of responding; and the delivery of the reward.
- Once a behavior has been shaped, it can be maintained by various patterns of reinforcement.
- Depending on the particular schedule, the reward may follow the response immediately or have varying degrees of delay.

- Schedules are among the most powerful determinants of behavior.
- All reinforcers and punishers are embedded in one schedule or another and each schedule has its own characteristic effects on behavior.

Type of the schedule

- Reinforcement can be given for each occurrence of the response or only for some of the responses.
- The two broad categories of schedules are **continuous and partial (also called intermittent**) reinforcements.
- With continuous reinforcement, **each response** of a particular type **is reinforced**.
- In a partial reinforcement schedule, **only a portion** of the responses **are reinforced**.

- a continuous schedule of reward generally produces more rapid conditioning or a higher level of responding than a partial-reinforcement schedule.
- Though a continuous schedule may condition more rapidly, partial schedules are often more powerful in sustaining the behavior, depending on the interval of reward.
- Extinction does tend to occur more quickly if a behavior that has received continuous reinforcement is no longer reinforced.

- There are again two broad types of partial-reinforcement schedules: interval schedules, which are based on the passage of time; and ratio schedules, which are based on the number of responses.
- On an interval schedule, the first response made after an interval of time has passed is reinforced.
- Responses made before that interval of time are not reinforced. There are two types of interval schedules: fixed and variable.

- In a ratio schedule, time is not a factor. Instead, reinforcement is given only after a certain number of responses.
- Ratio schedules also have two types: **fixed** and **variable**.

Examplary expression:

- **A fixed-interval schedule applies the reinforcer aftera specific amount of time.**
- An example might be *an employee who gets a raise once at the end of each year* but no increase in pay during the course of the year.
- The reinforcer (**increase in pay**) comes only at a **predetermined time** regardless of the employee's work performance during the year.

- Fixed intervals have ***built-in problems that manifest*** in certain situations
- Using the example of the employee's end-of-the-year raise, the employee, knows when the reinforcement is to come,
- **So he may tend to lower his performance immediately after the reinforcement and tend to increase performance right before the reinforcement period**
- **In fixed, therefore, resonse rate decrease (*immediate after*) then increase as it *approaches (for the secod round)***

- **In this case, the emplyee might improve his performance near the end of the year to *“look good”* when it comes time for the review that determines the amount of pay raise**

Variable-interval

- Reinforcement is also controlled by the ***passage of time*** in a **variable-interval** schedule
- In contrast to the fixed-interval (***in which the person knows the time the reinforcement will be given***) the person does not know when the reinforcement will appear **in a variable-interval schedule.**

Examplary expression: interval

- An example of this schedule might be the supervisor who checks an employee's work at irregular intervals.
- Because ***the employees never know when such checks will occur***, they must perform in a ***consistent manner in order to obtain positive outcomes***, such as praise; or avoid negative ones, such as criticism or loss of their job.

- A response can be reinforced each time it occurs- a procedure as **continuous reinforcement or** once a response has become reliable reinforcing only some responses, not all of them, a procedure called ***intermittent (partial)*** schedule of reinforcement
- There are **four** types of **intermittent** schedules

1. Fixed-ratio schedules

- Reinforcement is determined in a very different manner **on a fixed-ratio schedule**
- Here, reinforcement occurs **only after a fixed number of responses**
- For example, some individuals are paid on the basis of **how many pieces of goods they produce**
- a fixed-ratio schedule yields **a high rate of response**, though there is a tendency for **brief pauses immediately** after reinforcement

2. Variable-Ratio Schedule

- On a variable-ratio schedule, reinforcement occurs after completion of a variable number of responses
- It is reinforcing a response after some average number of responses, but with varying from reinforcement to reinforcement
- Since the person using a variable-ratio schedule cannot predict how many responses are required before reinforcement will occur, they usually respond at high and steady rates

Example

- The person who ***repeatedly plays*** the slot machine ***knows at some*** point the machine will have a **payoff**, but they are not sure when it will occur.
- The anticipation that it could happen on the next pull compels many to keep playing beyond the point of good reason.

- Variable-ratio schedules also result in behaviors that are highly resistant to extinction.
- This means that even in the absence of reinforcement, the behavior might persist.
- In fact, resistance to extinction is much higher after exposure to a variable-ratio schedule than to a continuous-reinforcement schedule.
- This would help explain why gambling can be so addictive for certain individuals.

3. Variable-Ratio Schedule: reinforcing a response only after a fixed amount of time has passed

4. Variable Interval Schedule: reinforcing a response only after a variable amount of time has passed

Generally, note that:

- **Fixed-ratio schedule**:

✓ produces high rate of responding;

✓ sometimes respone drops off just afters;

✓ response is less reistant to extniction = more exposed to extniction

- **Variable ration:**

✓ produces extreemly high steady rate of respondig;

✓ response is more resistant to extniction = the learned behavior is mot easily extnicted

4. Shaping

- Shaping is a technique that is used in behaviorism to train an organism to perform a behavior that is completely new
- Shaping teaches a complex behavior by rewarding or reinforcing each step of the learning process rather than the final outcome
- an operant conditioning procedure in which successive approximations of a desired response are reinforced
- It is establishing novel behaviors by reinforcing responses that gradually approach the behavior that is desired
- **The concept of shaping breaks down the learning process into smaller pieces.**

- Shaping, then, helps the organism acquire or construct new and more complex forms of behavior from simpler behavior
- By the time shaping is complete, the reinforcement need only be given at the completion of the desired behavior in order for the behavior to recur

Examples for shaping

Textbooks for students are often written using the concept of shaping. Typically, information is presented so that new material builds on previously learned concepts or skills. If this were not the progression, most students would become confused and perhaps abandon the attempt to learn the concepts under study.

Chaining

- Chaining refers to a type of conditioning that is similar to shaping but requires a more complex sequence of behaviors.
- This process is referred to as chaining because each response is like a link in the chain.
- The reward is presented after the entire sequence of behaviors is completed, thus reinforcing the sequence and not the individual behavior

- Chains can be trained in the forward direction, that is, by practicing the first response in the chain and then adding successively the next elements.
- It can also be learned backwards, beginning with the last element and working toward the front.
- Sometimes the entire chain is learned simultaneously.

Exapmles for chaining

- **Backward chaining** is often used with pilot trainees when using a flight simulator. They practice landings first, followed by landing approaches and then other flight specific behaviors such as midair maneuvers. The purpose of the backward chaining is that landings are the most difficult behavior to master in the chain and by starting there, this behavior receives the most practice as the behavioral links are put in place.
- ***Forward chaining* might be used by physical therapists to teach disabled individuals to transfer themselves from a wheelchair to another chair or bed.**

Personal note

- Unlike classical conditioning, in which the original behaviors are the natural, biological responses to the presence of a stimulus such as food, water, or pain, operant conditioning applies to voluntary responses, which an organism performs deliberately to produce a desirable outcome. The term operant emphasizes this point: The organism operateson its environment to produce a desirable result. Operant conditioning is at work when we learn that toiling industriously can bring about a raise or that studying hard results in good grades.

Applications of operant conditioning

- ***Conditioning study behavior:*** arranging effective contingencies of reinforcement, e.g., for Self-learning reinforcing a student using incentives such as prize, medal, smile, praise, patting on the back or giving higher marks
- ***Conditioning and classroom behavior:*** acquiring unpleasant experience which becomes conditioned to the teacher, subject and the classroom and students begin to dislike the subject and the teacher
- ***Managing Behavioral Problem*** : used as therapy to shape students' behavior by

Applications (Contd)

- ***Dealing with anxieties through conditioning***: used to break fear habits using use desensitization technique- initially provide very weak form of conditioned stimulus, gradually increasing the strength of stimulus
- ***Conditioning group behavior***: reinforcement breaks undesired and antisocial behavior of a group

Applications of operant conditioning (Contd)

- ***Conditioning and Cognitive Processes***: to bring a progress of knowledge, reinforcing in the feedback form
- ***Shaping Complex Behavior***: Controlling complex behavior that exist in the form of a chain of small behaviors

Social Learning Theory (observational learning)theory

A tendency for individuals to reproduce the actions, attitudes or emotional responses displayed by real life or symbolized models

As Bandura, three forms of **reinforcement** can encourage observational learning

- ***direct reinforcement: reproduce the behaviors of the model***
- ***vicarious reinforcement****:*
- ***self-reinforcement***

Processes of Social learning

Bandura mentions *four conditions* that are necessary in the processes of observational learning

1. ***Attention*****:** paying attention to the model
2. ***Retention*****:** encoding and storing of observed behavior in memory
3. ***Motor reproduction***: replicating the observed behavior
4. ***Motivation*****:** *motivation*; the desire *to demonstrate (*perform) the learned behavior frequently

Implications of Social learning theory

- *Learning occurs through observing* other people
- *Describing* the *consequences* of behavior to increase appropriate behaviors and decrease inappropriate ones
- Provides an *alternative to shaping* for teaching new behaviors
- Taking care to *model appropriate behaviors but not* inappropriate behaviors
- To break down traditional stereotypes, *exposing* students to a *variety* of other *models*

Implications (Contd.)

- To develop a sense of *self-efficacy - believe* that someone is *capable* of accomplishing school tasks
- To set *realistic expectations* for academic accomplishments
- Helps to improve elf-regulation behavior

Cognitive Learning Theory

- **Cognitive learning theory:** An approach to the study of learning that focuses on the thought processes that underlie learning
- These mental processes affect individuals' behavior and personality
- **These theory deals with the mental mechanisms that mediate the processing of information in some meaningful fashion.**
- **It extends into the realms of memory, thinking, problem solving and the use of language**

Forms of Cognitive learning

Examples:

- **Latent learning -** a hidden form of learning in which a behavior is not manifested for the time being but it might appear when situations are favorable
- **Latent learning**: Learning in which a new behavior is acquired but is not demonstrated until some incentive is provided for displaying it
- It involves changes in the way information is processed and occurs without reinforcement and responses
- **Insight learning -** a sudden change in our perception that comes while encounter and struggle with life challenging problem

It doesn‘t depend on conditioning of particular behaviors for its occurrence

Note

- **Clearly, not all learning is due to operant and classical conditioning**

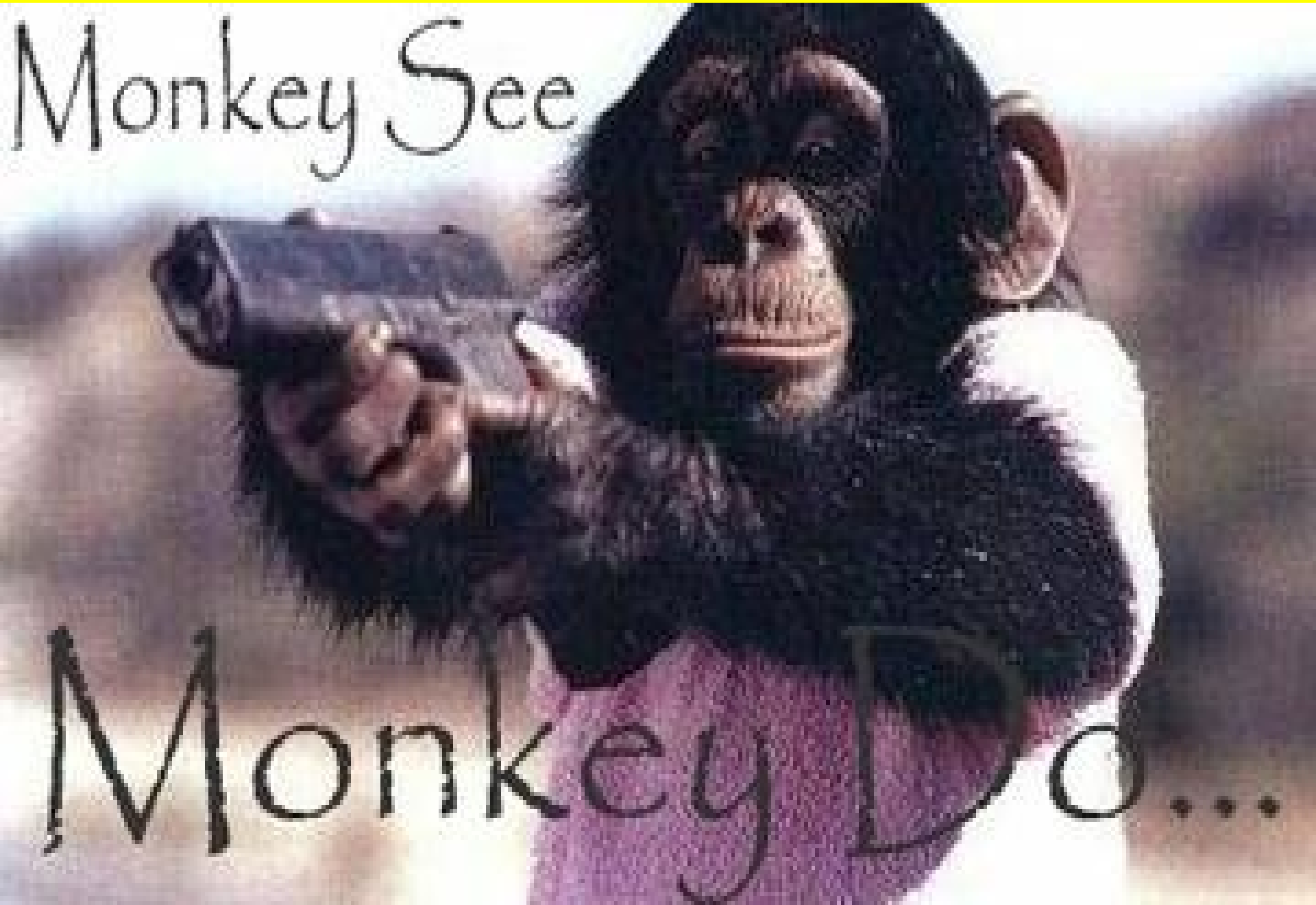
Recaptulations

- **Behaviorsim learning theory**
- **Socila learning theory**
- **Cognitive learning theory**

Bobo doll experiment



Conclusion of Bobo doll experiment



CHAPTER FOUR

MEMORY AND FORGETTING

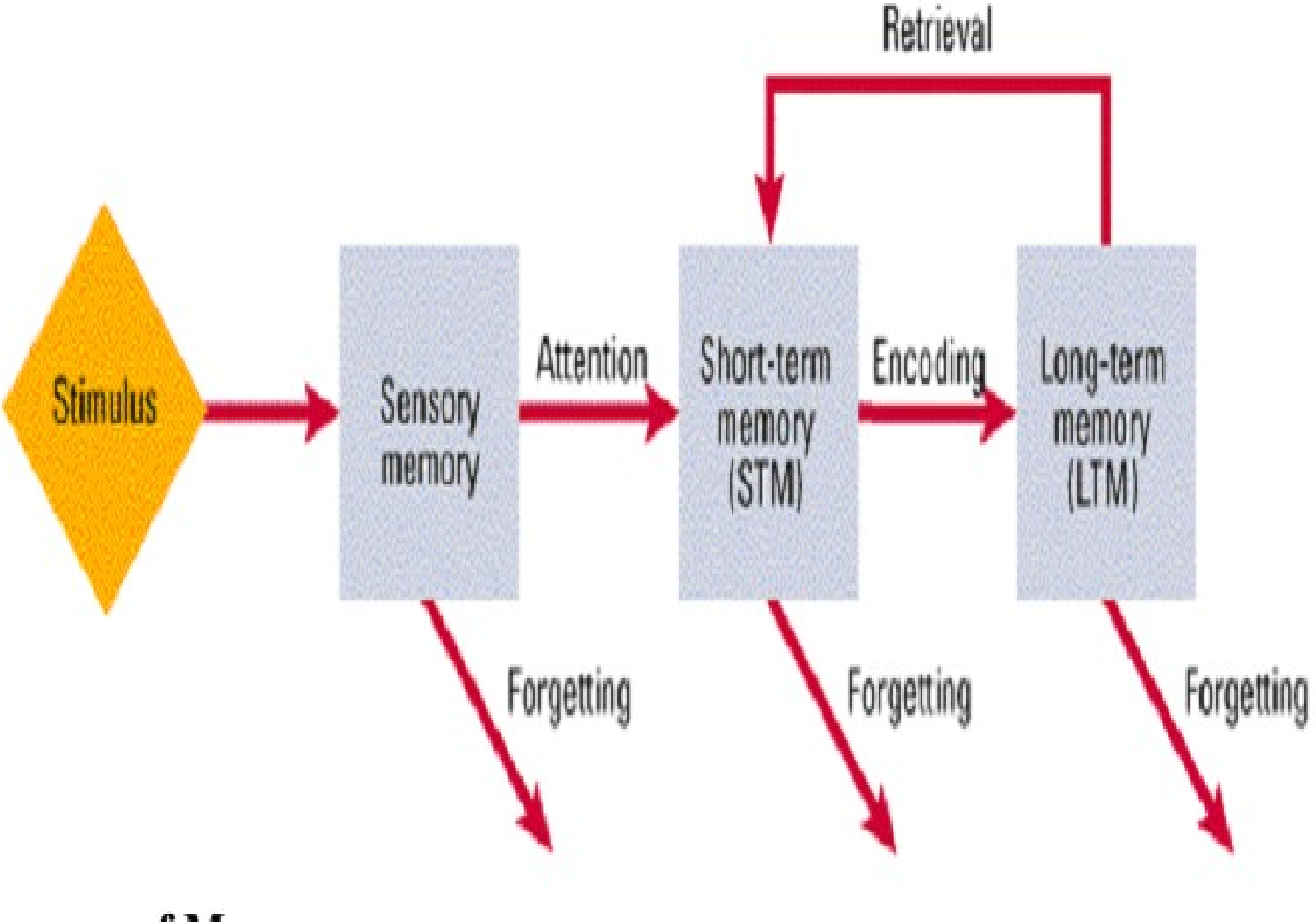
- Intelligent life does not exist without memory
- **Memory**:The process by which we **encode**, **store**, and **retrieve information,**
- the ability to store and retrieve information over time
- The **initial process** of recording information in a form of **usable to memory**, is called **encoding**,
- is the **first stage** in remembering something.

- Memory is the retention of information/what is learned earlier over time.
- It is the way in which we record the past for later use in the present.
- Memory is a blanket label for a large number of processes that form the bridges between our past and our present.
- To learn about the nature of memory, it is useful to separate the **process** from the **structure**.

Table 5.1 Memory Conceptualized in Terms of Types, Stages, and Processes

As types	Explicit memory
	Implicit memory
As stages	Sensory memory
	Short-term memory
	Long-term memory
As processes	Encoding
	Storage
	Retrieval

Processes of Memory



Encoding

- the term encoding refers to the form (i.e. the code) in which an item of information is to be placed in memory.
- It is the process by which information is initially recorded in a form usable to memory.
- In encoding we transform a sensory input into a form or a memory code that can be further processed.
- The initial process of recording information in a form usable to memory, a process **called encoding**, is the first stage in remembering something.

- Encoding is the process by which we place the things that we experience into memory
- Unless information is encoded, it cannot be remembered

Storage

- Storage is the process of holding information in memory to be processed or used

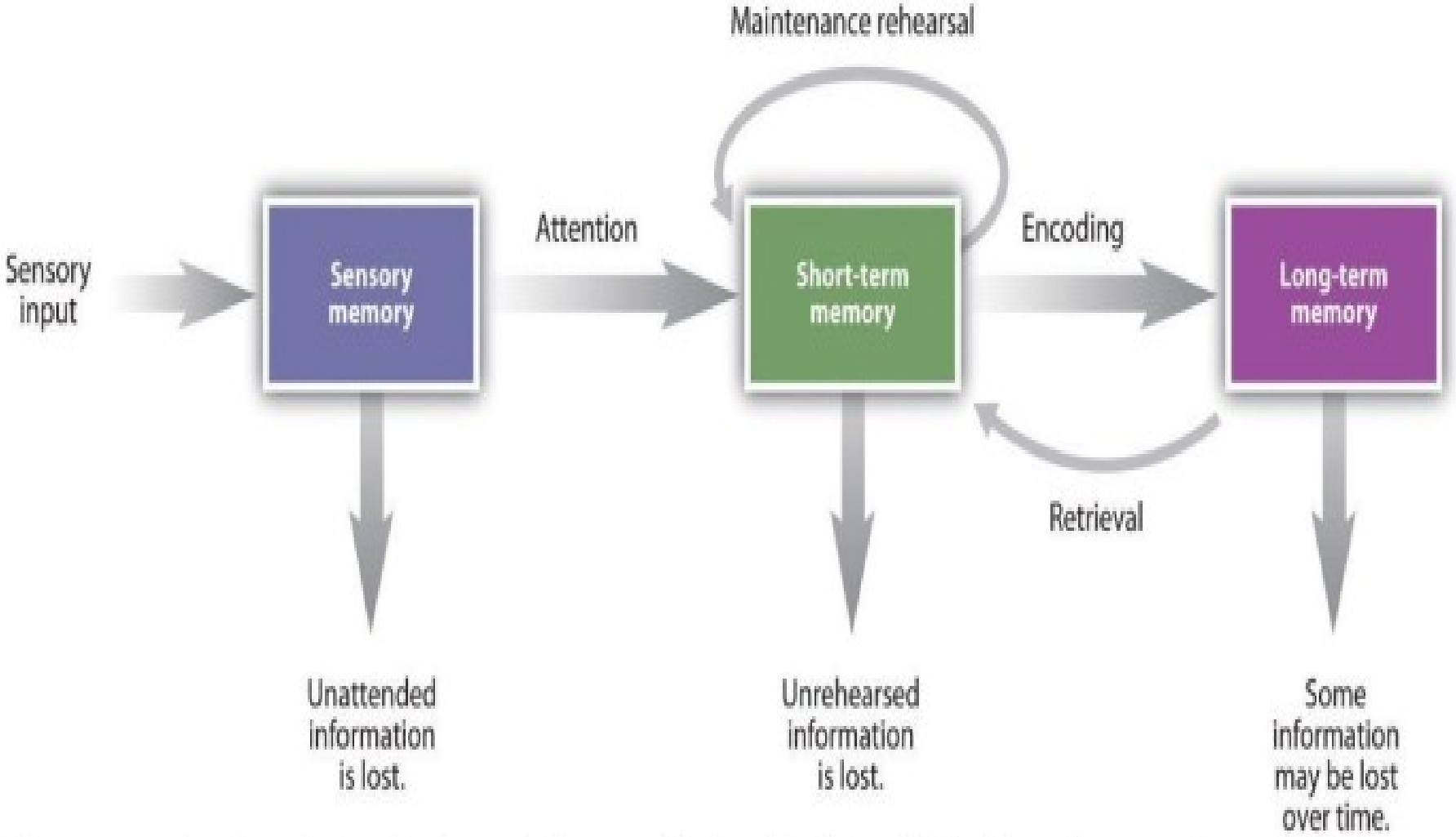
Retriveal

- Retrieval refers to the process of reactivating information that has been stored in memory
- Storage is the persistence of information in memory

Stages/Structure of Memory

- Memory structure is the nature of memory storage itself- how information is represented in memory and how long it lasts and how it is organized.
- memory has three structures: **Sensory Memory/Sensory Register**; **Short-term Memory**; **Long Term Memory**

Figure 5.4 Memory Duration



Memory can be characterized in terms of stages—the length of time that information remains available to us.

Source: Adapted from Atkinson, R. C., & Shiffrin, R. M. (1968). Human memory: A proposed system and its control processes. In K. Spence (Ed.) *The psychology of learning and motivation* (Vol. 2). Oxford, England: Academic Press.

Sensory Memory/Sensory Register

- Sensory memory refers to the brief storage of sensory information.
- It is the entry way to memory.
- It is the first information storage area.
- Sensory memory acts as a holding bin, retaining information until we can select items for attention from the stream of stimuli bombarding our senses
- It can hold virtually all the information reaching our senses for a brief time

For instance,

- **Visual images (Iconic memory) remain in the visual system for a maximum of one second**
- **Iconic memory is sensory memory for visual information**
- **Auditory images (Echoic memory) remain in the auditory system for a slightly longer time, by most estimates up to two second or so.**

- The information stored sensory in memory is a fairly accurate representation of the environmental information but unprocessed
- Most information simply decay from the register
- Some of the information that has got attention and recognition pass on short-term memory for further processing

Short-term Memory

- is part of our memory that holds the contents of our attention.
- Unlike sensory memories, short-term memories are not brief replicas of the environmental message
- they consist of the by -products or end results of perceptual analysis
- important in a variety of tasks such as thinking, reading, speaking, and problem solving= are working memories
- terms used to refer to this stage of memory are working memory, immediate memory, active memory, and primary memory

The four characteristics of STM:

1. It is active

- consciously processing, examining, or manipulating it
- Used workspace to process new information and to call up relevant information from LTM

2. Accessibility

- Rapid accessibility - Information in

3. Preserves the temporal sequence of information

- helps us to maintain the information in sequential manner for a temporary period of time

4. Limited capacity

- the capacity of STM to be —the magic number seven plus or minus 2
- That is, on the average, people can hold about seven pieces of information in STM at a time; with a normal range from five to nine items.

- However, if we can only hold a maximum of about **nine digits** in **short-term memory**, then
  - ✓how can we remember larger amounts of information than this?
  - ✓ For instance, how can we ever remember a ***10-digit phone number long enough to***

- One way we are able to expand our ability to remember things in STM is by using a memory technique called **chunking**.
- **Chunking** is the process of organizing information into smaller groupings, or chunks, thereby increasing the number of items that can be held in STM
- Chunking expands working memory by making large amounts of information more manageable
- The real capacity of short-term memory, therefore, is not a few bits of information but **a few chunks**.

- **STM holds received from SM for up to about 30 seconds by most estimates**
- **But it is possible to prolong STM indefinitely by rehearsal- the conscious repetition of information**

Long Term Memory

- the memory storage that can hold information for days, months, and years.
- The capacity of long- termmemory is large, and there is no known limit to what we can remember
- is a memory system used for the relatively permanent storage of meaningful information
- The vast amount of information stored in LTM enables us to learn, get around in the environment, and build a sense of identity and personal history.
- LTM stores information for indefinite periods

Subsystems of LTM

- **Declarative/ explicit memory**
  - ✓ **Semantic memory**
  - ✓ **Episodic memory**
- **Non-declarative/ implicit memor**

Declarative/ explicit memory

- refers to knowledge or experiences that can be consciously remembered
- When we assess memory by asking a person to consciously remember things, we are measuring explicit memory

Semantic memory

- Semantic memory- **factual knowledge like the meaning of words**, concepts and our ability to do math.
- i.e. it refers to our knowledge of facts and concepts about the world.
- They **are internal representations** of the world, independent of any particular context.

Episodic memory

- the firsthand experiences that we have had.
- memories for events and situations from personal experience.
- They are internal representations of personally experienced events
- For example, recollections of our high school graduation day

Non-declarative/ implicit memory

- refers to a variety of phenomena of memory in which behavior is affected by prior experience without that experience being consciously recollected.
- One of the most important kinds of implicit memory is procedural memory.
- It is the – "***how to***" knowledge of procedures or skills: **Knowing how to comb your hair, use a pencil, or swim**.

Factors Affecting Memory

Eleven Factors

- Ability to retain:
- Good health:
- Age of the learner: young > old age
- Maturity: more mature > less mature
- Will to remember:
- Intelligence: more intelligent > less intelligent
- Interest: more interested > less interested to retain
- Over learning: over learning will lead to better memory
- Speed of learning: Quicker learning leads to better retention

Forgetting

- first studied by German psychologist Hermann Ebbinghaus
- forgetting refer to the apparent loss of information already encoded and stored in the long-term memory

Theories of Forgetting

- Psychologists have proposed five mechanisms to account for forgetting:
  - ✓ decay,
  - ✓ replacement of old memories by new ones,
  - ✓ interference,
  - ✓ motivated forgetting, and
  - ✓ cue dependent forgetting.

The Decay Theory

- holds that memory traces or engram fade with time if they are not accessed now and then
- assumes that when new material is learned a memory trace or engram- an actual physical change in the brain- occurs
- the trace simply fades away with nothing left behind, because of the passage of time
- Mostly decay occurs in **sensory memory** and short term memory as

- the mere passage of time does not account so well for forgetting in long-term memory.
- E.g. People commonly forget things that happened only yesterday while remembering events from many years ago

Interference

- similar items of information interfere with one another in either storage or retrieval
- The information may get into memory, but it becomes confused with other information

- There are two kinds of interference: **proactive** and **retroactive**.
- **Proactive:** information learned earlier interferes with recall of newer material
- **Retroactive**: new information interferes with the ability to remember old information

New Memory for Old/ Displacement Theory

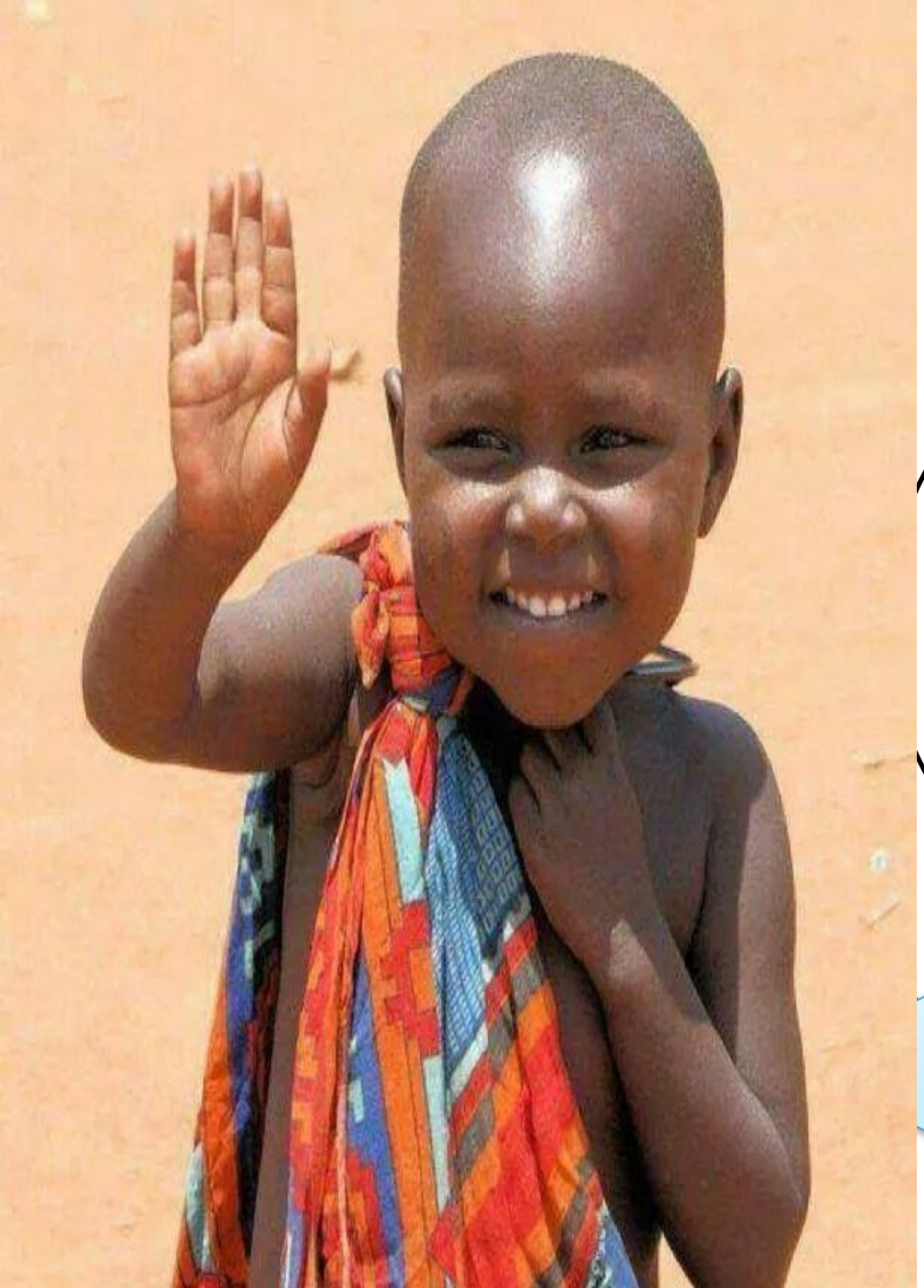
- holds that new information entering memory can obliterate/wipe out old information: ***like taperecoder***,
- This theory is mostly associated with the STM: b/c of the capacity for information is limited to seven plus or minus chunks.
- But It cannot be associated with the LTM because of its virtually unlimited capacity.

Motivated Forgetting

- Think of the assumtion of Sigmund Freud
- people forget because they block from consciousness: b/c they **threatening** or **painful to live with**
- he called this self-protective process: **Repression technique**
- currently, psychologists prefer to use a more general term, **motivated**

Cue Dependent Forgetting

- ***Depending on retrieval cues***: items of information that can help us find the specific information we‘re looking for
- When we lack retrieval cues, we may feel as **if we have lost** the ***call number for an entry*** in the mind‘s library.
- In long-term memory, this type of memory failure may be the most common



Thank you

Any question?

CHAPTER FIVE

MOTIVATION AND EMOTIONS

Learning Outcomes

- Define what motivation is
- Identify the two types of motivation
- Compare the different theories of motivation
- Explain the different types of conflicts of motives
- Define what emotion is
- Discuss the three elements of emotion
- Discuss the different theories of emotion

Motivation

Definition and types of motivation

Brainstorming

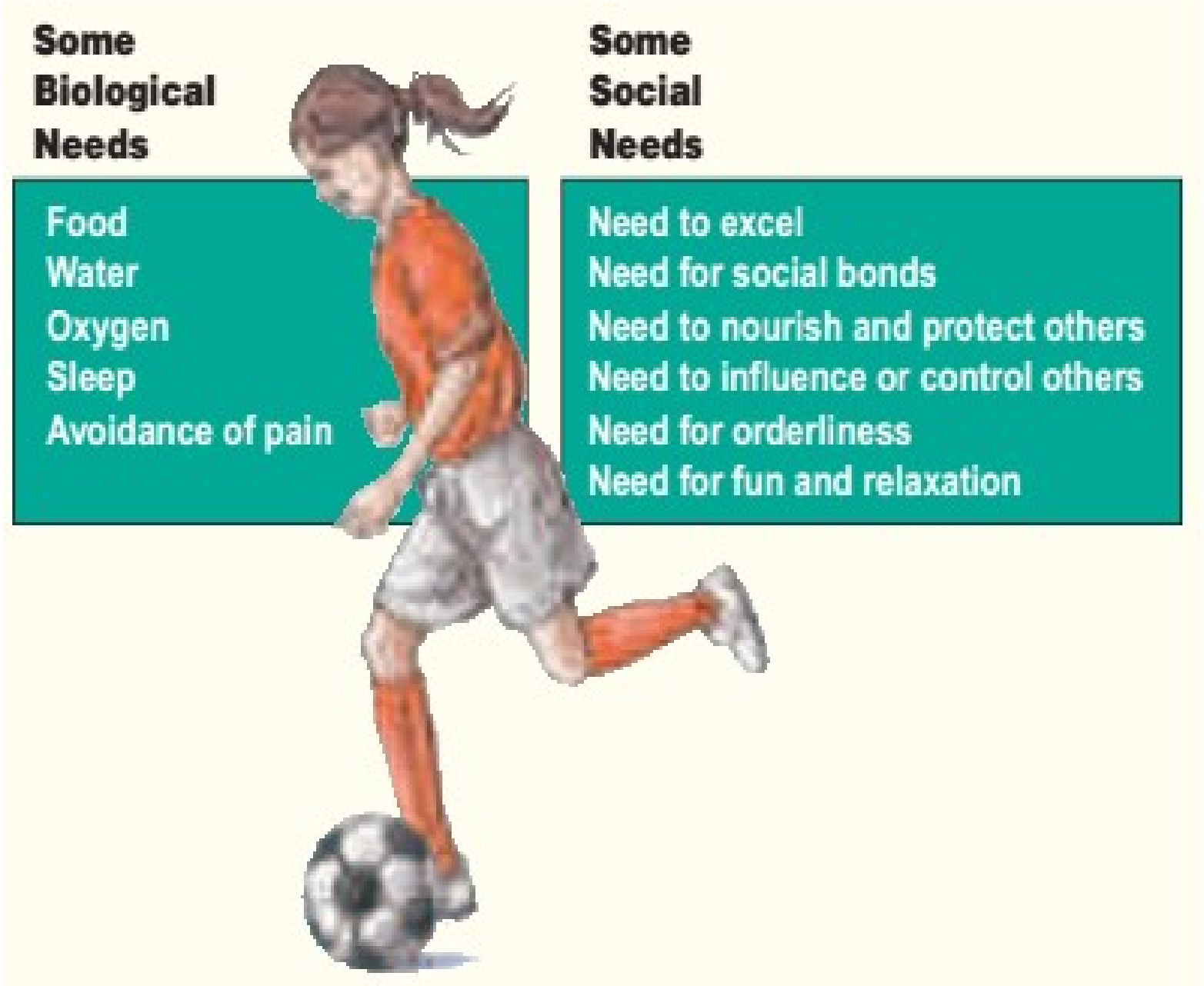
- **Why do we do the things we do?**
- **What motivations underlie our behaviors?**

- It a Latin word: **Mover** = **to move**
- **Motivation:** describes the wants or needs that direct behavior toward a goal
- **Motivation:** is a factor by which activities are **started**, **directed** and **continued** so that **physical** or **psychological needs** or **wants** are **met**.
- **Motivation**: an internal state that activates behavior and directs it toward a goal
- **A motivation:** is a driving force that initiates and directs behavior.

- **need: biological or psychological requirement of an organism**
- **drive: a state of tension produced by a need that motivates an organism toward a goal**
- Motivation, therefore, is what moves people to do the things they do
- **Motivation**: an internal state that activates behavior and directs it toward a goal

- Some motivations are **biological**, such as the motivation for food, water, and sex.
- Some are **personal** and **social motivations** that can influence behavior, **including** the motivations for **social approval** and **acceptance**, **the motivation to achieve**, and the **motivation to take, or to avoid taking, risk**s

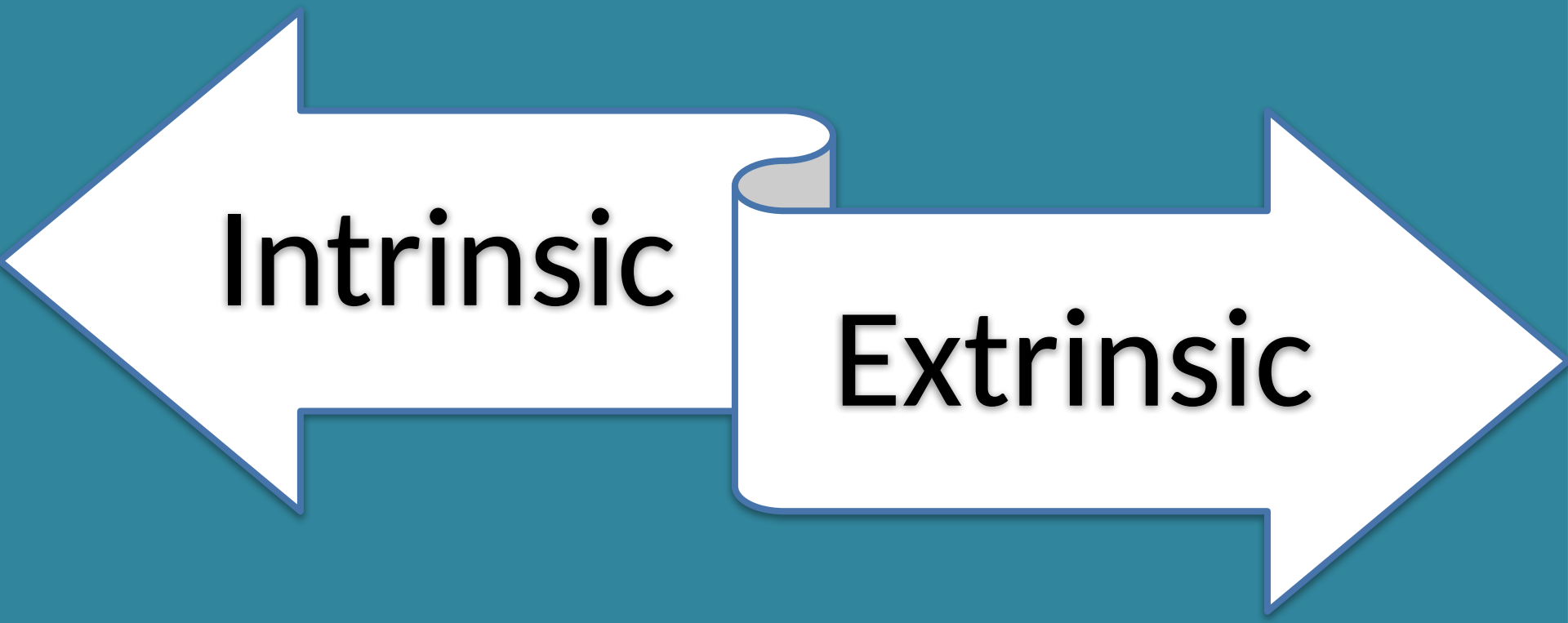
Biological and social motives

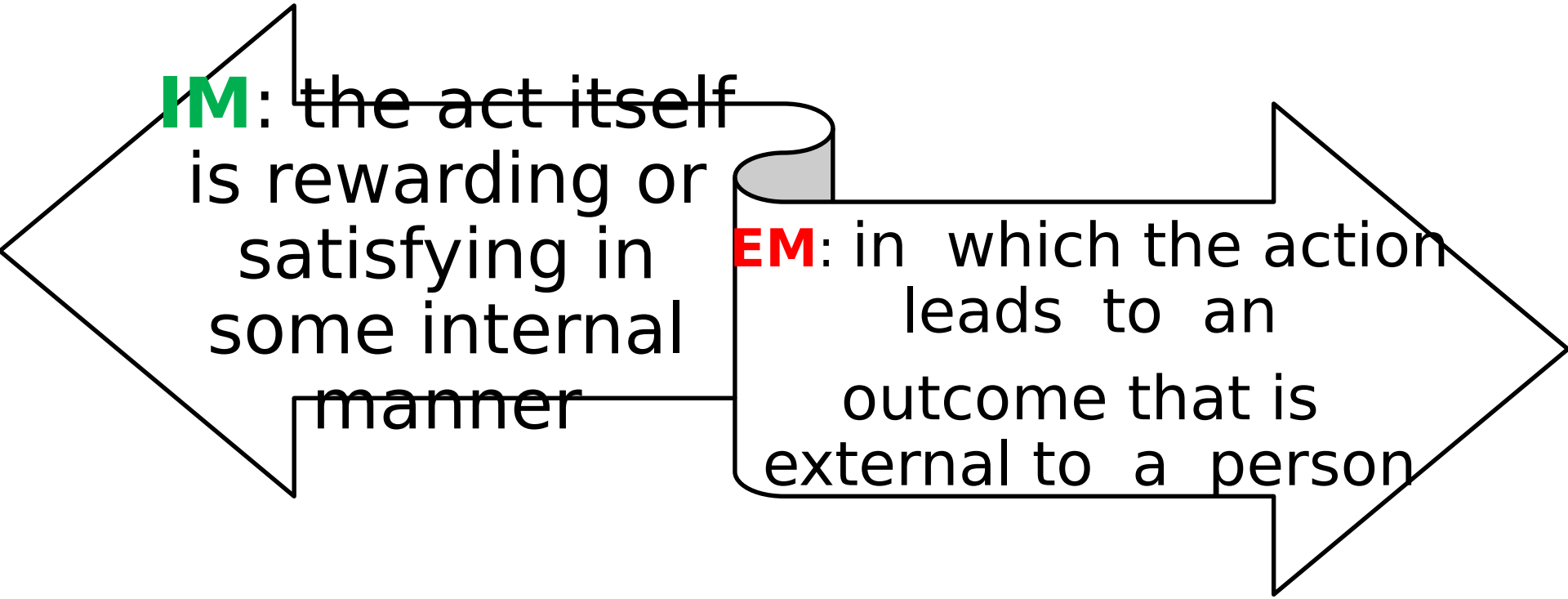


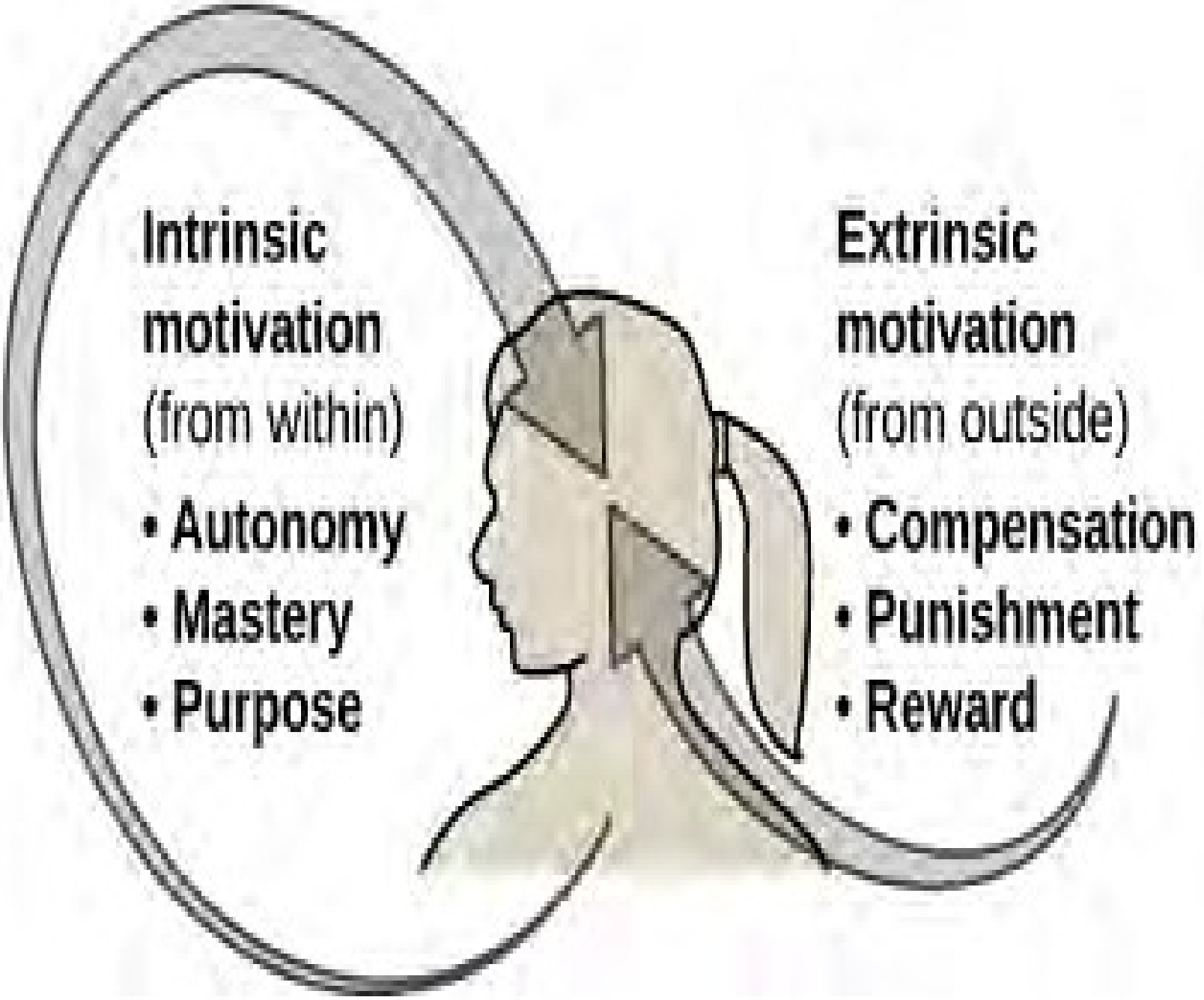
For example,

- when a person is relaxing in front of a television and begins to feel hungry, the physical need for food may cause the person to get up, go into the kitchen, and search for something to eat. If hunger is great enough, the person may even cook something.
- The physical need for hunger causes:
  - ✓ **the action** (getting up),
  - ✓ **directs** it (going to the kitchen), and
  - ✓ sustain the **search** (finding or preparing something to eat)

different types of motivation: now are 2




IM: the act itself is rewarding or satisfying in some internal manner
EM: in which the action leads to an outcome that is external to a person


Intrinsic
motivation
(from within)
• Autonomy
• Mastery
• Purpose
Extrinsic
motivation
(from outside)
• Compensation
• Punishment
• Reward

- **Instincts**: innate tendencies that determine behavior
- **Intrinsic motivation**: engaging in activities because they are personally rewarding or because they fulfill our beliefs and expectations
- **Extrinsic motivation**: engaging in activities that either reduce biological needs or help us obtain external incentives

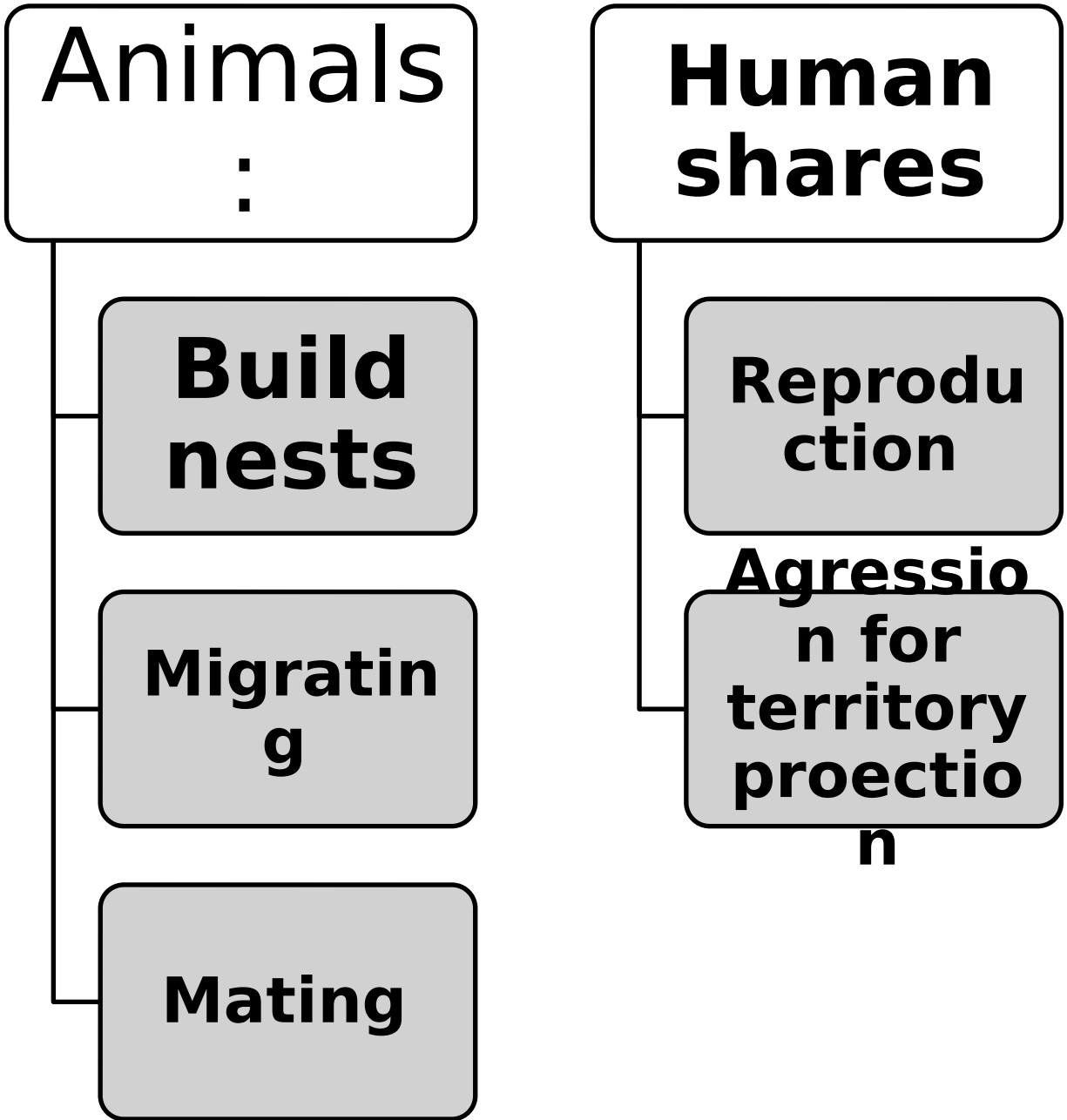
Approaches to motivation (theories of motivation)

- according to theories of motivation there are different sources of motivation:
  - ✓ **instinct**,
  - ✓ **drive-reduction,**
  - ✓ **arousal,**
  - ✓ **incentive,**
  - ✓ **cognitive, and**
  - ✓ **humanistic.**

1. Instinct approaches to motivation

- One of the earliest theory of motivation
- focused on the biologically determined and innate patterns of both humans and animals behavior**: intrinsic**
- **Instincts: innate tendencies that determine behavior**
- **Both animals and humans governed by intrinsic motivation:**

Example,


Animals :
Build nests
Migrating
Mating
Human shares
Reproduction
Agression for territory proection

- The early theorists and psychologists listed thousands of instincts in humans including:
  - ✓ **curiosity,**
  - ✓ **flight (running away),**
  - ✓ **pugnacity (aggressiveness), and**
  - ✓ **acquisition (gathering possessions).**
- However, none of these theorists did more than give names to these instincts.

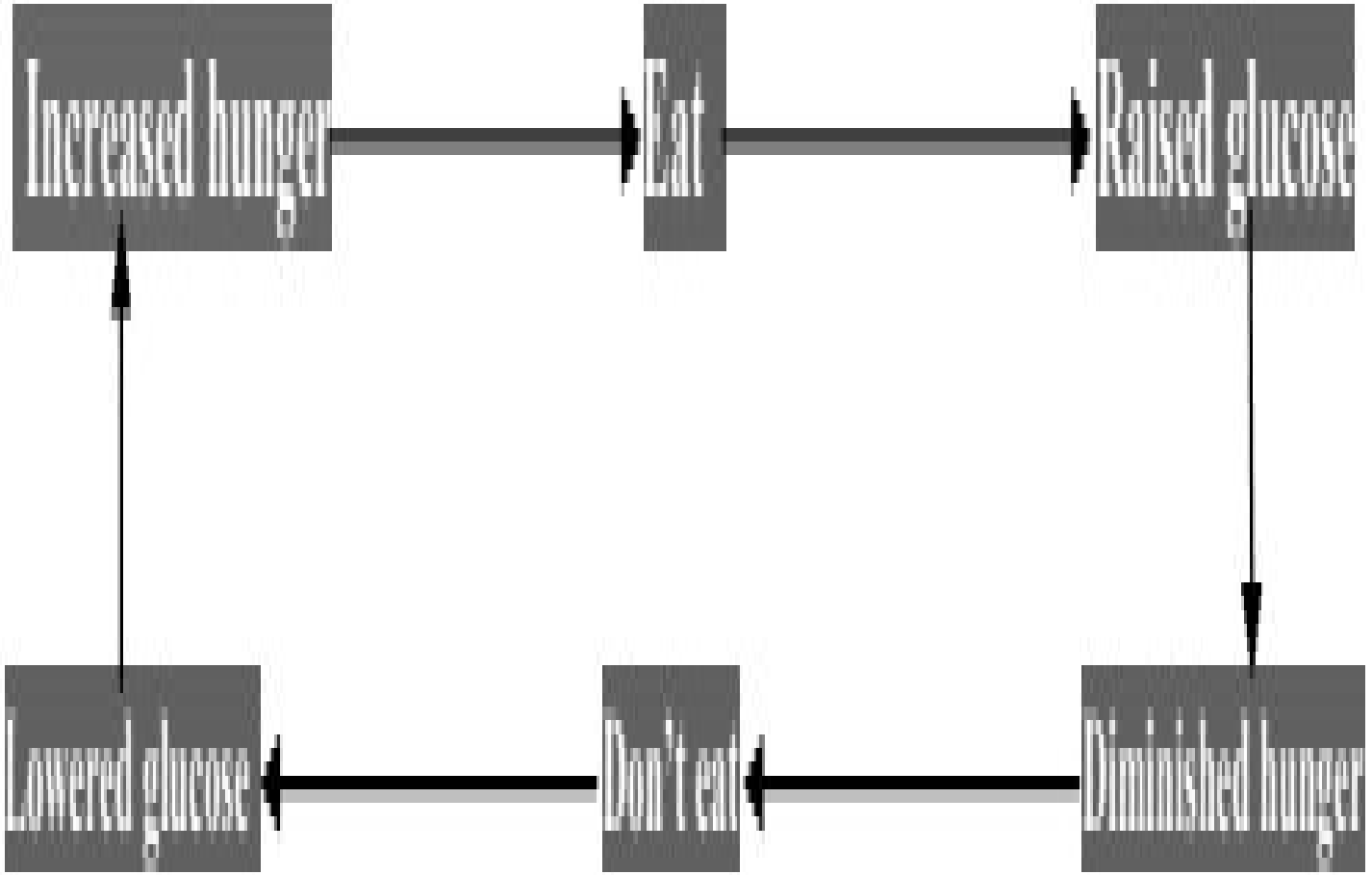
2. Drive-reduction approaches to motivation

- This approach involved the concepts of **needs** and **drives**
- **A need:** is a requirement of some material that is essential for the survival of the organism
- A need it leads to a **psychological tension** or **physical arousal** to reduce the **tension** and **fulfill the need =** This tension is called **drive**
- **Drive**-reduction theory proposes the connection between **internal psychological states** and **outward behavior**

- It proposed two kinds of **drives**; **primary** and **secondary**
- **Primary drives:** are those that involve survival needs of the body such as hunger and thirst,
- **Secondary/ acquired drives:** are learned through experience or conditioning, such as the need for **money**, **social approval**.

- It includes the **concept of homeostasis**: the tendency of the body to maintain **a steady-state**
- When there is a primary drive need, the body is in a state of imbalance.
- This stimulates behavior that brings the body back into balance or homeostasis
- *For example, if mister X‘s body needs food, he feels hunger and the state of tension (arousal associated with that need). He will seek to restore his homeostasis by eating something which is the behavior stimulated to reduce the hunger drive*

Drive-reduction and homeostasis



- **Homeostasis:** the tendency of all organisms to correct imbalances and deviations from their normal state

A Balance for Living

Period of Study: 1940

Introduction: When you are driving a car for a long time, eventually the gas tank will need refueling. Many cars are built today with computer systems that can tell when many other things need our attention, such as changing the oil or simply closing a door that did not shut completely. It is important that we respond to these signals. The same can be said for human beings; we require maintenance for operating properly as well.



Like modern cars, humans also have a built-in computer. This computer is the human brain. The human body must keep in balance all of the particles and liquids that help maintain our organ systems and, together, keep us alive and well every day. This collective action is known as *homeostasis.* Homeostasis refers to a person's behavior and the corresponding actual physical need. For example, when a person is hungry, he eats. When he has completed a strenuous physical activity and becomes thirsty, he drinks.

3. Arousal approaches: beyond drive reduction

- These approaches seek to explain behavior in which the goal is to **maintain or increase excitement/eagerness**.
- For these approaches to motivation, each person tries to maintain a certain level of stimulation and activity.
- This approach suggests that if our **stimulation/inspiration and activity levels** become too high, we try to reduce them
- if levels of stimulation and activity are too low, we will try to increase them by seeking stimulation

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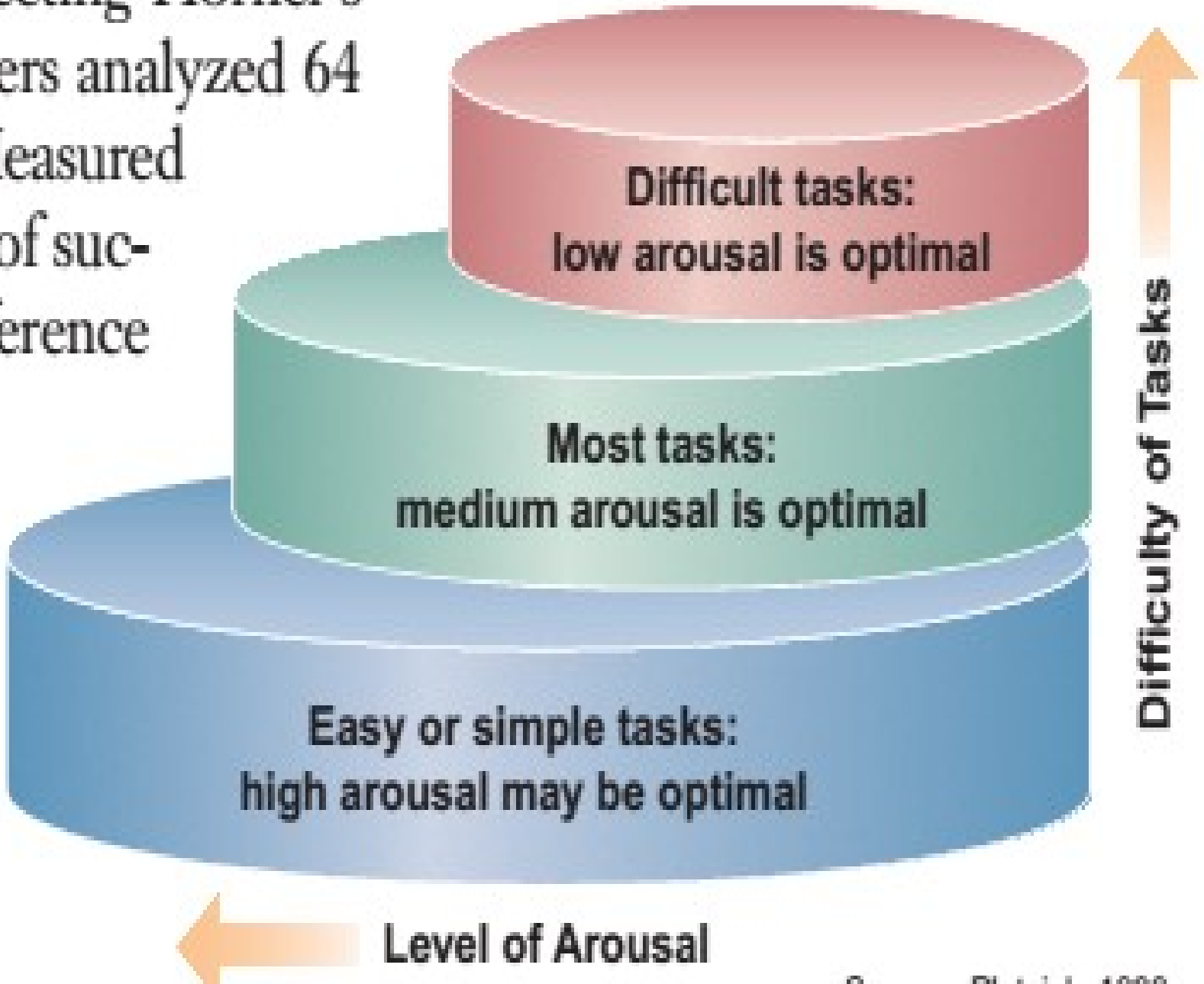


4. Incentive approaches: motivation's pull

- suggest that motivation stems from the desire to attain external rewards, known as incentives
- the desirable properties of external stimuli: whether grades, money, affection, food, or sex—account for a person's motivation.

- It is believed that the **internal drives** proposed by **drive-reduction theory** work in **a cycle with the external incentives** of ***incentive theory*** to "**push**" and "**pull**" behavior, respectively.

5. Cognitive Approaches: the thoughts behind motivation

- Suggest that motivation is a result of people‘s thoughts, beliefs, expectations, and goals draw a key difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.
- **Intrinsic motivation:** causes to participate in an activity for our enjoyment rather than for any actual or concrete reward that it will bring indivual.
- **Extrinsic motivation**: causes to do something for money, a grade, or some other actual, concrete reward.

For instances:

1. **A teacher provides tutorial support for students in her extra time because she loves teaching, intrinsic motivation is prompting her; if she provides tutorial support to make a lot of money, extrinsic motivation underlies her efforts**
2. **If you study a lot because you love the subject matter, you are being guided by intrinsic motivation; if all you care about is the grade to get in the course, it is extrinsic motivation**

6. Humanistic approaches to motivation

- Is based on the work of Abraham Maslow
- He was one of the early humanistic psychologists
- He was who rejected the dominant theories of psychoanalysis and behaviorism
- He rejected these theories in favoring of **a more positive view** of human behavior
- **He Proposed a hierarchy** of needs that spans the spectrum of motives ranging from the biological to the individual to the social

- As you recall from chapter one,therefore, humanism embraces the notions of the self and free will
- Arguing that people are free to choose their own lives and make their own decisions,

Among the major assumptions underlying humanism are the following:

- human nature is inherently good;
- individuals are free and autonomous, thus they are capable of making major personal choices;
- human potential for growth and development is virtually unlimited;
- self-concept plays an important role in growth and development;
- individuals have an urge toward self-actualization;
- reality is defined by each person; and
- individuals have responsibility to both themselves and to others

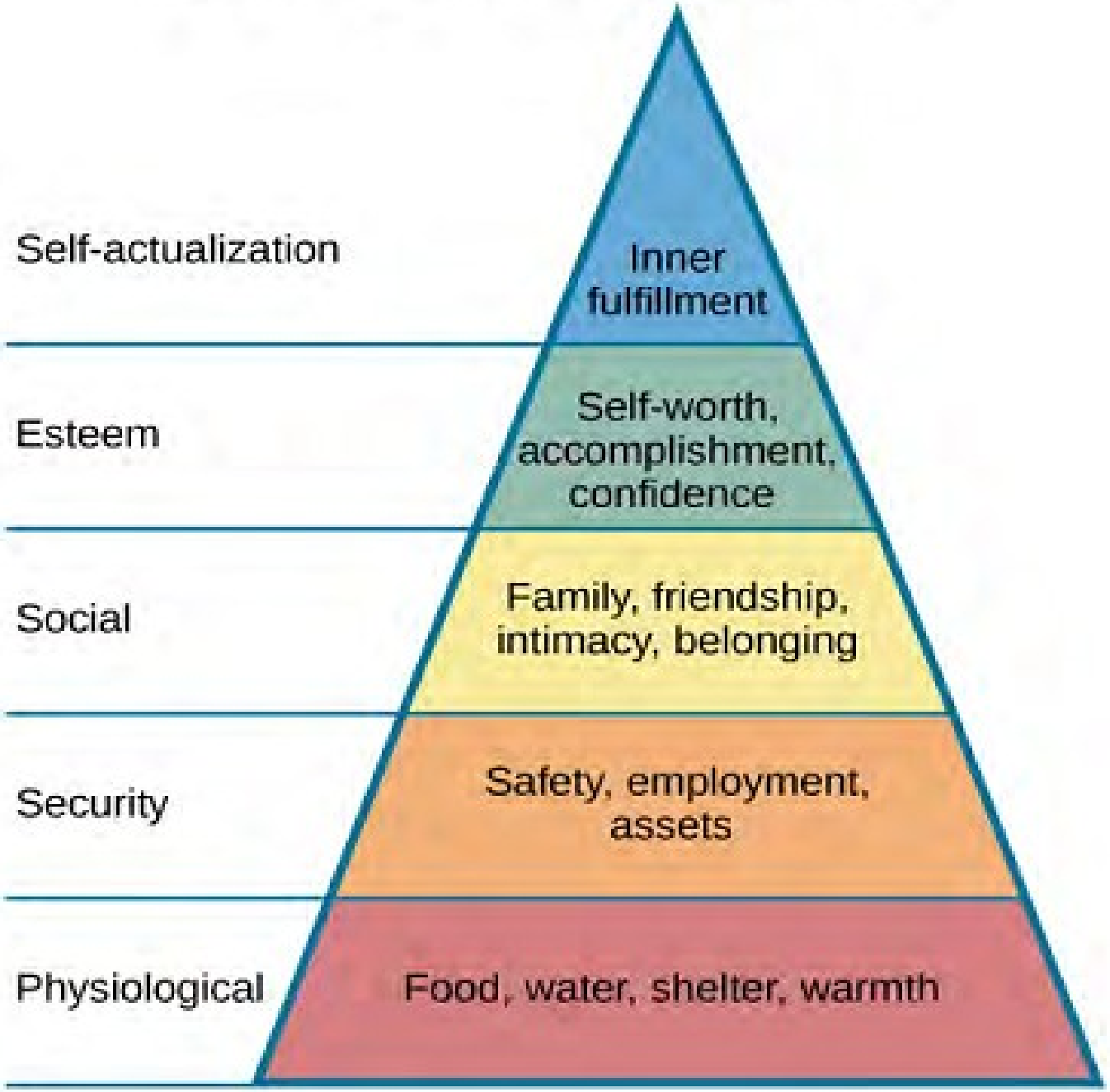
- While many individuals have made important contributions to humanistic psychology, two of the most noteworthy contributors were ***Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers***.
- Maslow discussed the concept of "**self-actualization**," which he described as

- **Rogers:** his approach referred to as "***client-centered therapy***"
- He noted that the major goal of therapy is to help clients foster greater self-direction.
- According to Rogers, self-direction "***means that one chooses*** - and ***then learns from the consequences***

- He believed that all human beings need to feel competent, to win approval and recognition, and to sense that they have achieved something.
- He suggested that human behavior is influenced by a **hierarchy, or**

- As him needs at the lowest level of the hierarchy must be at least partially satisfied before people can be motivated by the ones at higher levels.
- Maslow‘s five Hierarchies of needs for motives from the bottom to the top are as follows (look at the here under diagrams):

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs



Or

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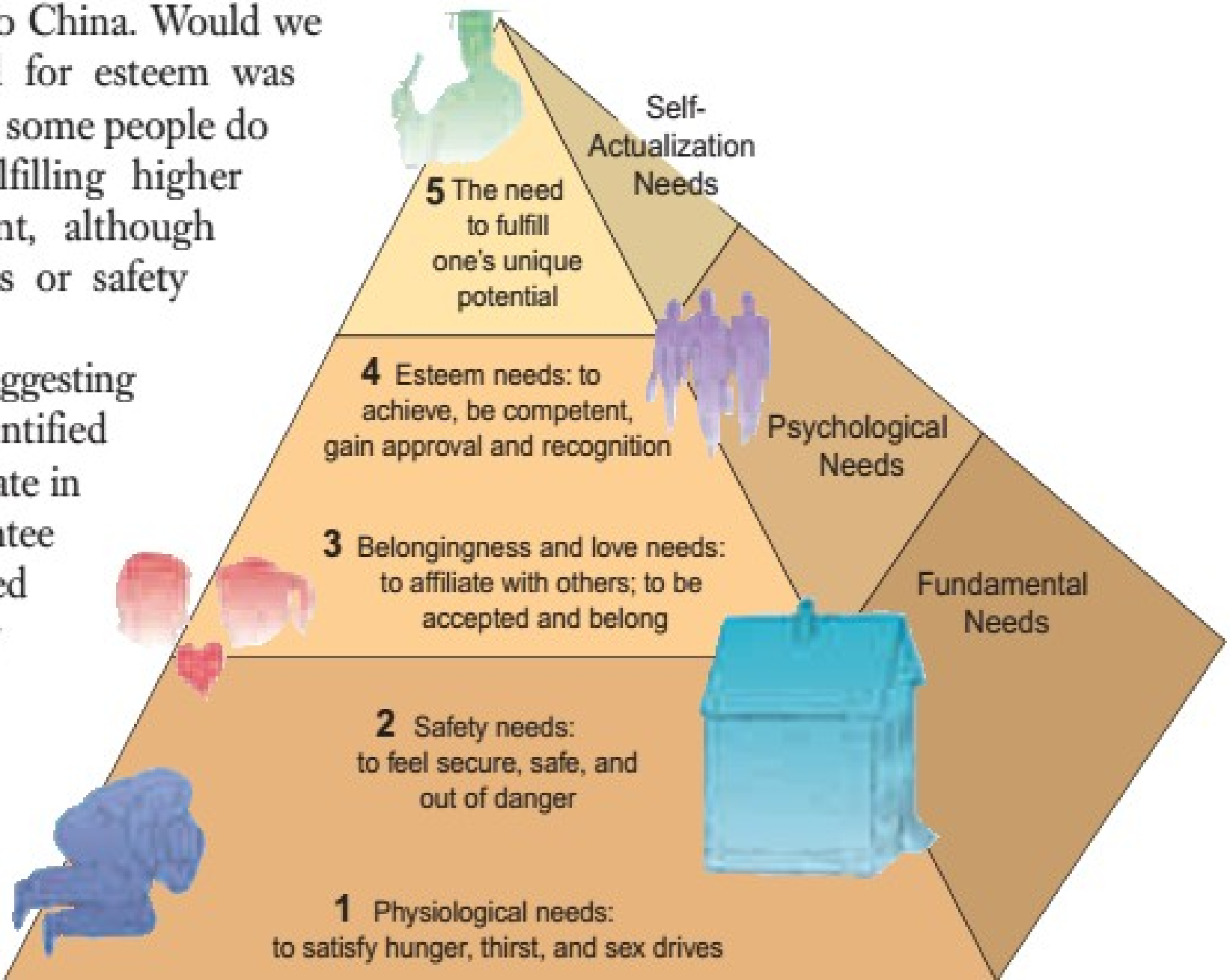
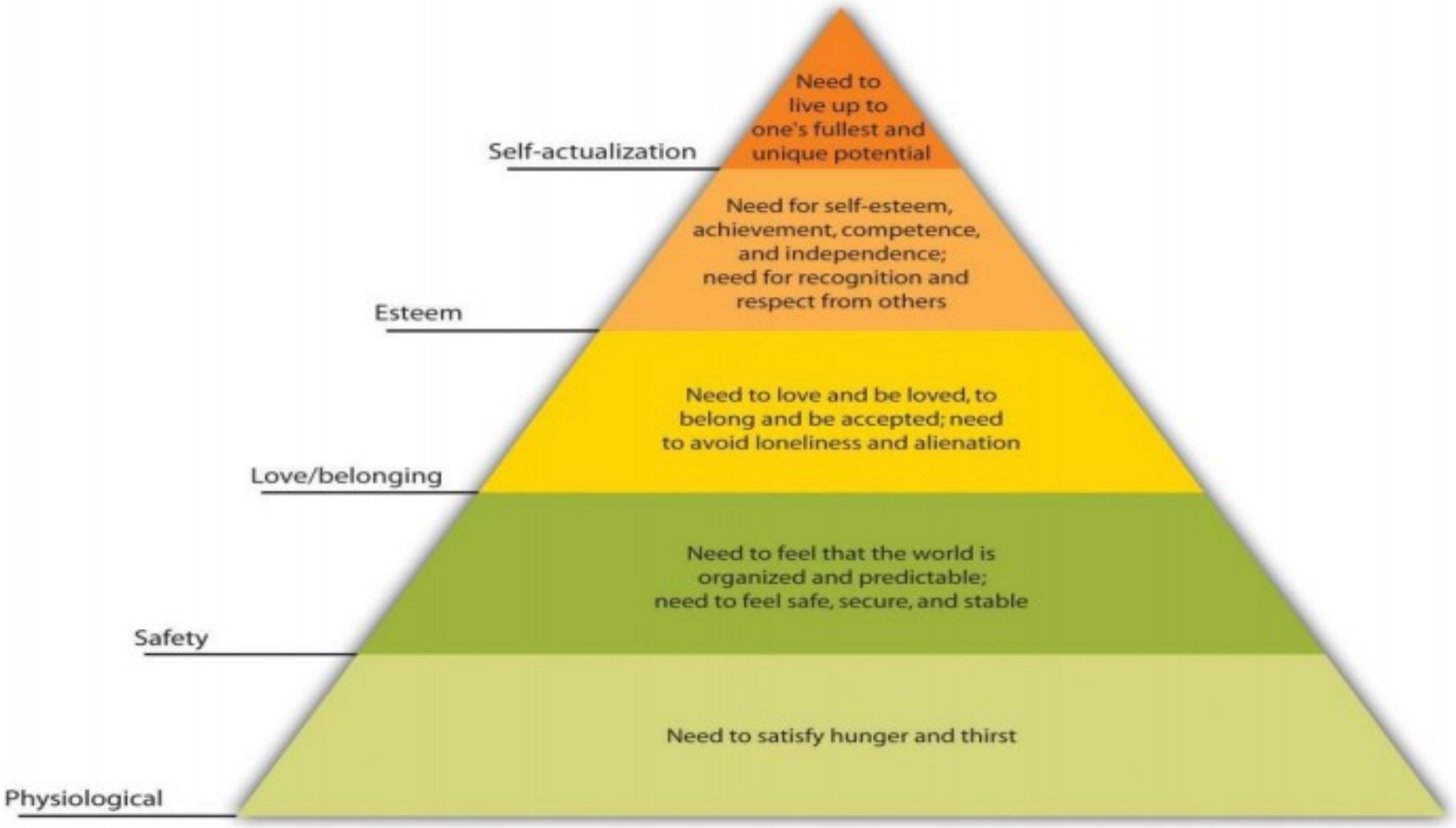


OR

Figure 8.8 Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs



Abraham Maslow conceptualized personality in terms of a hierarchy of needs. The highest of these motivations is self-actualization.

Detail explanation for each:

1. Physiological needs: also called fundamental needs

- Are biological drives that must be satisfied to maintain life
- These are biological requirements for human survival, e.g. air, food, drink, shelter, clothing, warmth, sex, sleep.
- People have to satisfy these fundamental needs to live

2. Safety needs: also called psychological needs

- Is the urge to belong and to give and receive love, and the urge to acquire esteem
- It the needs of protection from elements, security, order, law, stability, freedom from fear
- Is the need to belong and to give and receive love, and the need to acquire esteem through competence and achievement
- A lack of love or esteem makes people anxious and tense.

3. Love and belongingness needs: social needs

- Involves feelings of belongingness
- It includes friendship, intimacy, trust, and acceptance, receiving and giving affection and love.
- Affiliating, being part of a group (family, friends, work)

4. Esteem needs

- Is the need to be respected as a useful, honorable individual; which
- Maslow classified esteem needs into two categories:
  - ✓**esteem for oneself** (dignity, achievement, mastery, and independence) = **bieng one's self** and
  - ✓**the desire for reputation or respect from**

5. Self-actualization needs

- Are at the top of Maslow's hierarchy
- the pursuit of knowledge and beauty or whatever else is required for the realization of one's unique potential
- Is the needs of realizing personal potential, self-fulfillment, seeking personal growth and peak experiences
- A desire "**to become everything one is**

Understanding the nature of the pyramid

- **Why it is wider at the bottom and norrower at the top?**


Selfactualization
A state of
self-fulfillment
esteem
The need to
develop a senseof
Love and belongingness
The need to obtain and give
affection
Safety needsThe need for a safe and
secure environment
Physiological needs
The primary drives: needs for water, food, sleep,
and sex

It is because:

- The top tier of the pyramid is **self-actualization**, which is a need that essentially equates to achieving one's full potential, and it can only be realized when ***needs lower on the pyramid have been met***.
- lifelong process and that only a small percentage of people actually achieve a self-actualized state
- one must satisfy lower-level needs before addressing those needs that occur higher in the pyramid.

Example

- If someone is struggling to find enough food to meet his nutritional requirements, it is quite unlikely that he would spend an inordinate amount of time thinking about whether others viewed him as a good person or not.
- ***Instead, all of his energies would be geared toward finding something to eat.***

Shared elements between the humanist and behaviorist

- Learning should focus on practical problem solving
- Learners enter a teaching-learning setting with a wide range of skills, abilities, and attitudes, and these need to be considered in the instructional planning process
- The learning environment should allow each learner to proceed at a pace best suited to the individual
- It is important to help learners continuously assess their progress and make feedback a part of the learning process
- The learner's previous experience is an invaluable resource for future learning and thus enhancing the value of advanced organizers or making clear the role for mastery of necessary prerequisites

- **Conflict of motives and frustration**

- Motivation and the importance of the decision, people usually face difficulty choosing among the motives
- When the decision is more important, the number and strength of motivational pushes and pulls are often greater creating far more

1. Approach-approach conflict

- Exists when we must choose only one of the two desirable activities.
- Example, going to a movie or a concert

2. Avoidance-avoidance conflict

- Arises when we must select one of two undesirable alternatives.
- Someone forced either to sell the family home or to declare bankruptcy

3. Approach-avoidance conflict

- Happens when a particular event or activity has both attractive and unattractive features,
- For example, a freshman student wants to start dating but she, at the same time, is worried that this may unduly consume her study time.

4. Multiple approach-avoidance conflict

- Exists when two or more alternatives each have both positive and negative features
- Suppose you must choose between two jobs.
- One offers a high salary with a well-known company but requires long working hours and relocation to a miserable climate.
- The other boasts advancement opportunities, fringe benefits, and a better climate, but it doesn‘t pay as much and involves an unpredictable work schedule.

Emotions

Definitions of emotion

- the “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.
- From this short definition, we can understand that there are three elements of emotion: **the physiology, behavior and subjective experience**.
- **emotion:** a set of complex reactions to stimuli involving subjective feelings, physiological arousal, and observable behavior

- Is a subjective, affective state that is relatively intense and that occurs in response to something we experience
- emotiona response of the whole organism, involving **(1) physiological arousal, (2) expressive behaviors, and (3) conscious experience**
- **It means,** our emotional states are combinations of physiological arousal, psychological appraisal, and subjective experiences
- These are known as the components of emotion

Element 1: The physiology of emotion

- when a person experiences an emotion, there is physical arousal created by the sympathetic nervous system
- Thus, the heart rate increases, breathing becomes more rapid, the pupils of the eye dilate, and the moth may become dry.

Examplary senario: symphathetic NS

- The sympathetic divisionof your ANS directs your adrenal glands to release the stress hormones epinephrine (adrenaline) and norepinephrine (noradrenaline). Influenced by this hormonal surge, to provide energy, your liver pours extra sugar into your bloodstream. To help burn the sugar, your respiration increases to supply needed oxygen. Your heart rate and blood pressure increase. Your digestion slows, diverting blood from your internal organs to your muscles. With blood sugar driven into the large muscles, running becomes easier. Your pupils dilate, letting in more light. To cool your stirredup body, you perspire.

Element 2: The behavior of emotion

- tells us how people behave in the grip of an emotion.
- There are facial expressions, body movements, and actions that indicate to others how a person feels
- Frowns, smiles, and sad expressions combine with hand gestures, the turning of one‘s body, and spoken words to produce an understanding of emotion

Element 3: Subjective experience or labeling emotion

- it involves interpreting the subjective feeling by giving it a label: anger, fear, disgust, happiness, sadness, shame, interest, surprise and so on.
- The label a person applies to a subjective feeling is at least in part a learned response influenced by that person‘s language and culture

Theories of emotion

There are theories:

1. James- Lang Theory of Emotion
2. Cannon-Bard theory of emotion
3. Schechter-Singer and Cognitive Arousal Theory

1. James- Lang Theory of Emotion

Philohized/theorized that:

- the theory that our experience of emotion awareness of our physiological responses to emotion-arousing stimuli.
- a stimulus of some sort (for example, the large snarling dog) produces a physiological reaction.

- This reaction, which is the arousal of the **“fight-or-flight” ????**
- believed that physical arousal led to the labeling of the emotion (fear)



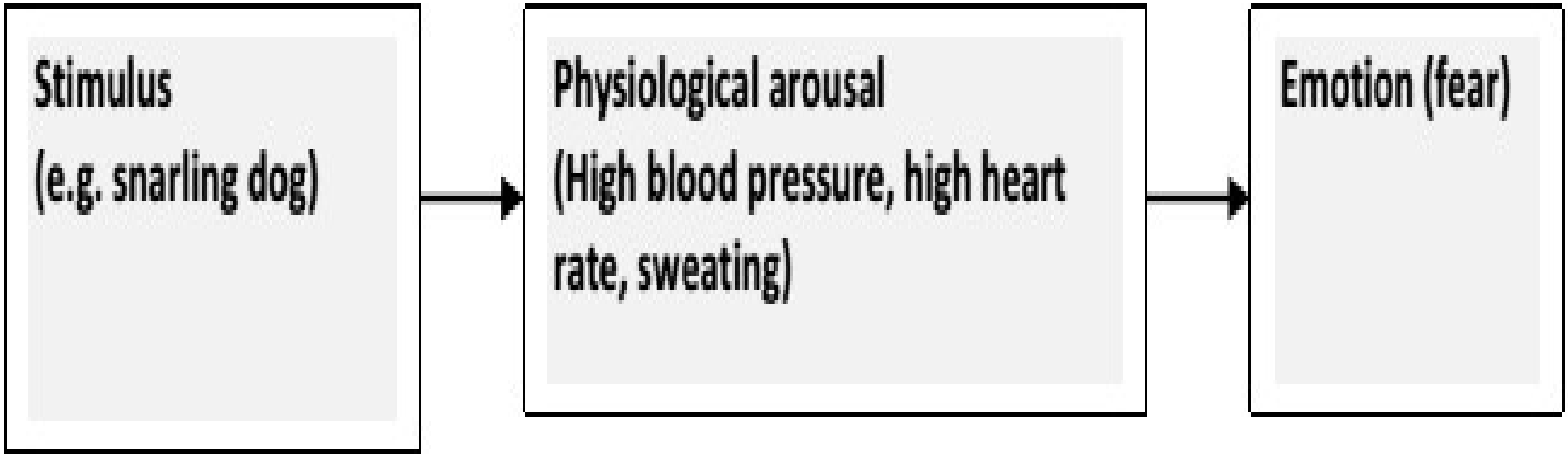


Figure 2. James Lang Theory of Emotion

2. Cannon-Bard theory of emotion

- theorized that the emotion and the physiological arousal occur more or less at the same time emotions arise from physiological arousal.
- Cannon argued that the **thalamus** (**part of the lower brain**) is the seat of emotion
- He was an expert in **sympathetic arousal mechanisms**,
- He did not feel that **the physical changes aroused** by different emotions were **distinct enough** to allow them to be **perceived** as different emotions.

- Certain, he said, experiences activate the thalamus, and the thalamus sends messages to the cortex and to the other body organs
- This theory states that the brain sends two reactions -arousal and experience

- For him the sensory information that comes into the brain is sent simultaneously (by the thalamus) to both the cortex and the organs of the sympathetic nervous system.
- The fear and the bodily reactions are, therefore, experienced at the same time-not one after the other.
- “I am afraid and running and aroused!”
- He was the first to describe the **fight-or-flight reaction** of the sympathetic nervous system that prepares us for an emergency.
- Some of the signs of physiological arousal are measured in one of the most famous applications of psychological knowledge- lie detection

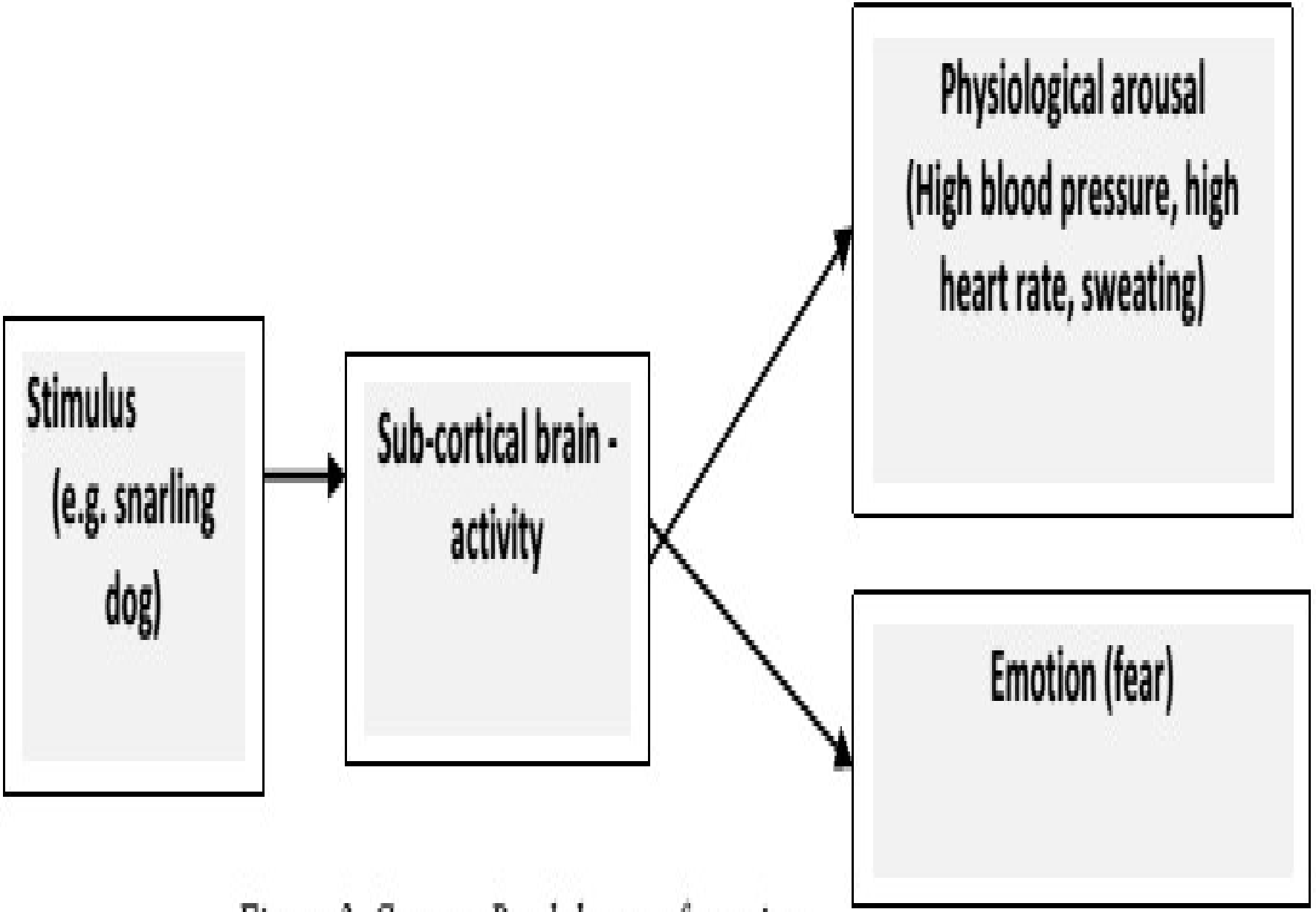


Figure 3. Cannon-Bard theory of emotion

3. Schechter-Singer and Cognitive Arousal Theory

- proposed that two things have to happen before emotion occurs: the physical arousal and labeling of the arousal base on cues from the surrounding environment.
- These two things happen at the same time, resulting in the labeling of the emotion.
- *For example, if a person comes across a snarling dog while taking a walk, the physical arousal (heart racing, eyes opening wide) is accompanied by the thought (cognition) that this must be fear.*
- Then and only then will the person experience the fear of emotion.
- In other words, -I am aroused in the presence of a scary dog; therefore, I must be afraid.‖

- bodily changes and thinking work together to produce emotions.
- Physiological arousal is only half of the story.
- What you feel depends on how you interpret your symptoms
- emotions are composed of two factors: **physiological and cognitive**.

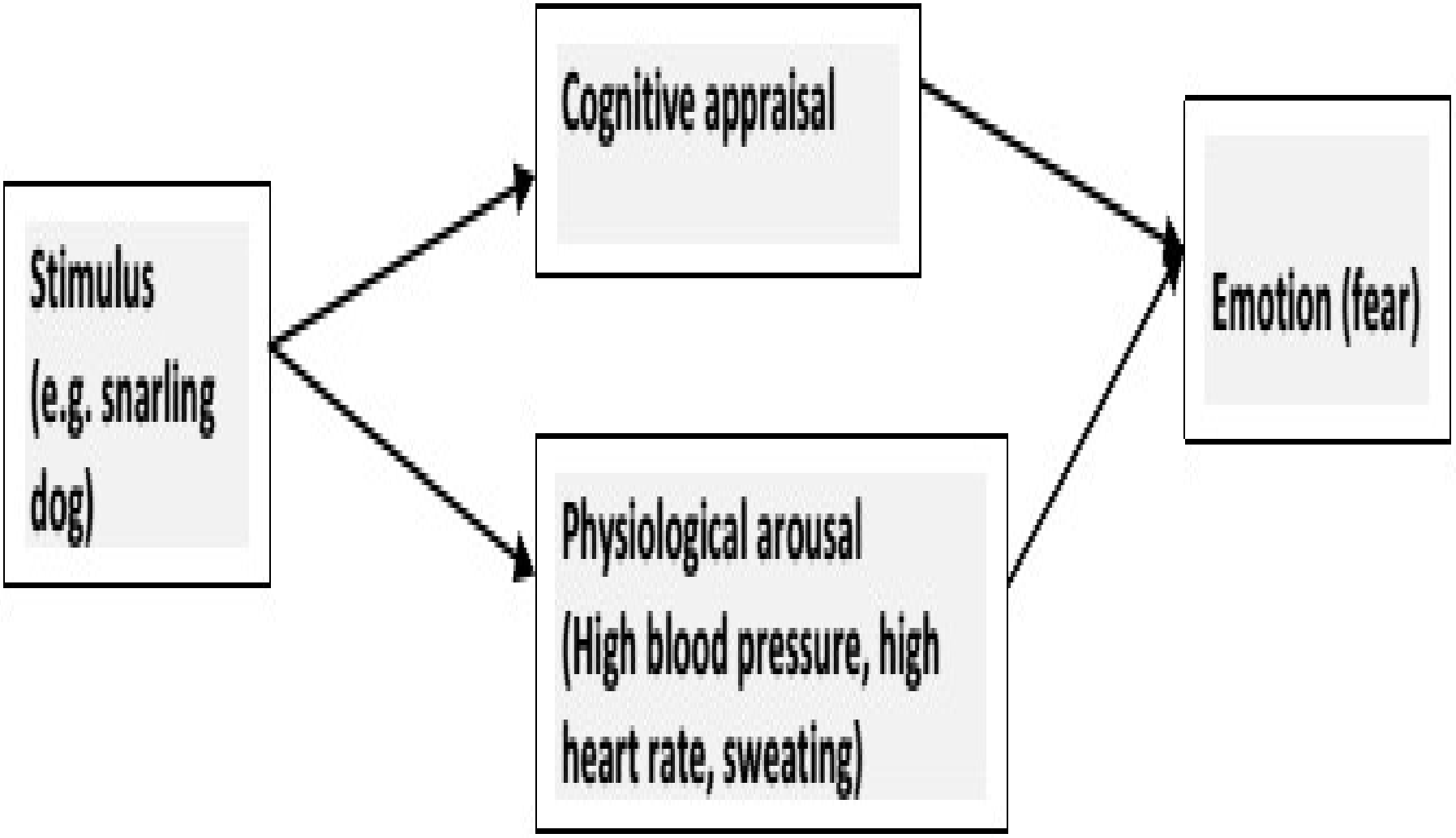


Figure 4. Schachter-Singer theory of emotion

Biological vs social motives

- Biological motives often involve the organisms' need to correct imbalances and deviations from their normal state.
- The hypothalamus interprets three kinds of information—the amount of glucose entering a body's cells, an individual's set-point, and body temperature—to determine whether an individual will eat or not.
- Social motives are learned from people's interactions with other people.
- The achievement motive concerns the desire to set challenging goals and to persist in trying to reach those goals despite obstacles, frustrations, and setbacks.

Theories of motivation: summary

- The instinct theory of motivation stresses that humans were motivated by a variety of instincts.
- The drive-reduction theory is based on the idea that all human motives are extensions of basic biological needs.
- The incentive theory stresses the role of the environment in motivating behavior.
- The cognitive theory proposes that motivation is influenced by forces both inside and outside individuals that energize them to move.

Emotions:

- An emotion is a subjective feeling provoked by real or imagined objects or events that have high significance to the individual.
- All emotions have three parts: the physical, the behavioral, and the cognitive parts.
- Some psychologists believe emotions derive from physical changes, while others believe that emotions result from mental processes.

These theories of emotion differ depending on the relationship of physiological change and cognitive interpretation of emotion. ***What causes the emotion in each theory?***

James-Lange Theory
↓ You experience physiological changes.
↓ Your brain interprets the physiological changes.
↓ You feel a specific emotion.
↓ You demonstrate observable behavior.
Facial Feedback Theory
↓ The muscles in your face move to form an expression.
↓ Your brain interprets the muscle movement.
↓ You feel an emotion.
↓ You demonstrate observable behavior.
Cannon-Bard Theory
↓ Your experience activates the hypothalamus.
↓ This produces messages to the cerebral cortex and your body organs. The reacting organs activate sensory signals.
↓ Sensory signals combine with cortical message, yielding emotion.
Schachter-Singer Experiment
↓ You experience physiological arousal.
↓ You interpret (cognitively) environmental cues.
↓ You feel an emotion.
↓ You demonstrate observable behavior.



Time



James-Lange Theory

Arousal (snake) → Heart pounding, sweating → Fear (emotion)

Cannon-Bard Theory

Arousal (snake) → Heart pounding, sweating

Arousal (snake) → Fear (emotion)

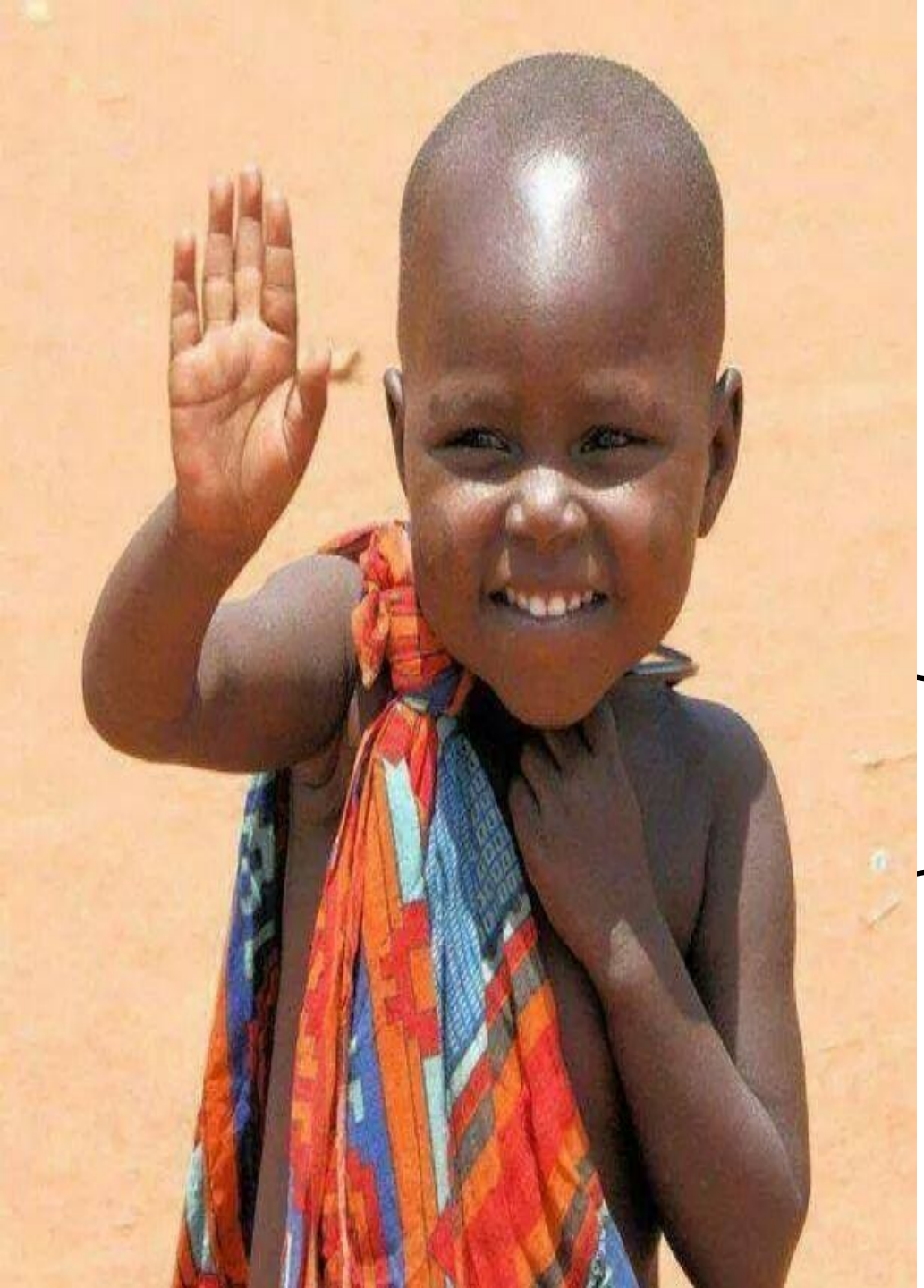
Schachter-Singer Two-Factor Theory

Arousal (snake) → Heart pounding, sweating → Fear (emotion)

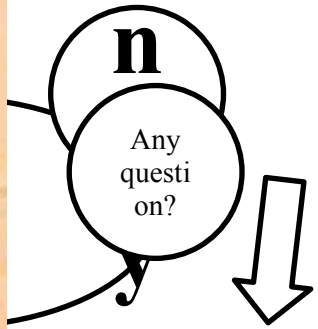
Arousal (snake) → Cognitive label ("I'm scared") → Fear (emotion)

Lazarus' Cognitive-mediational Theory

Arousal (snake) → Appraisal → Fear/Heart pounding, sweating



Thank you



CHAPTER SIX

PERSONALITY

“One of the greatest *regrets* in life is being what others would want you to be, rather than being yourself”.

Shannon L. Alder

Learning Outcomes

- Define personality
- Discuss the natures of psychoanalytic theory
- Identify the structures of personality
- Explain psychological defense mechanisms
- Explain the essence of the trait theory of personality
- Discuss the five factor model of personality
- Explain the essence of humanistic theory of personality

Overview

- Personality has different meanings for theologians, philosophers, and sociologists, and within psychology it has been defined in many ways
- So is better begin by considering just one definition of personality considered acceptable by many psychologists today that says:

personality refers to more or less stable, internal factors that make one person's behaviour consistent from one time to another, and different from the behaviour other people would manifest in comparable situations'

Continued ….

- this definition consists of four major assumptions of personality.
- These assumptions are that personality is **stable**, **internal**, **consisten**t and **different**.

Stability assumption

- The assumption of stability corresponds to our everyday experience: *friends do not present radically different personalities on every fresh meeting, but instead are likely to be approximately the same from occasion to occasion*.
- ***Even when we are taken by surprise by an old friend's dramatic new image, we are usually able to fit the new and old selves into a coherent whole, and to be reassured that deep down the person is still the same.***

Internality assumption

- Personality cannot be observed directly; it can only be measured indirectly by making observations of that which is available externally.
- For example, on the basis of a personality test; on the basis of observations of their behaviour.

Consistency assumption

- personality makes one person's behaviour consistent from one time to another.
- Consistency over time refers to the similarity between a person's behaviour on two different occasions.

Individual differences assumption

- personality makes a person’s behaviour different from the behaviour other people would manifest in comparable situations.
- people respond to the same situation in different ways

Meaning of Personality

- The word personality is derived from a Greek word, rooted in Latin "**persona**"
- Refers to the theatrical masks worn by Greek actors
- Many define personality differently
- But psychologists generally view personality as the unique pattern of enduring thoughts, feelings, and actions that characterize a person
- Psychologists agree that personality is fundamentally a matter of human individuality, or 'individual differences
- Personality is defined as an individual's consistent patterns of feeling, thinking, and behaving.

- Personality refers to the long-standing traits and patterns that propel individuals to consistently think, feel, and behave in specific ways.
- Ersonality includes all those relatively permanent traits or characteristics that render some consistency to a person’s behavior
- Our personality is what makes us unique individuals
- Our personalities are thought to be long term, stable, and not easily changed.

Careful that:

Personality should not be confused with:

- **character:** refers to value judgments made about a person‘s morals or ethical behavior;
- It usually refers to those personal attributes that are relevant to moral conduct, self-mastery, will-power, and integrity
- **character** is often assumed to be the result of socialization experiences, aspects of the person’s psychological make-up that depend on learning socially appropriate forms of self-control and ‘prosocial’ conduct.

- **Temperament**: the enduring characteristics with which each person is born, such as irritability or adaptability.
- temperamental characteristics are commonly assumed to have a biological basis,
- However, both character and temperament are vital personalities

- Not all differences between people are differences of personality.
- We differ in our physical attributes, our ages, our nationalities, and our genders, and none of these differences really seem to be about personality.
- Of course, it is possible that these differences are in some way relatedto personality, but they are not themselves differences of personality
- So we must qualify our definition so that personality refers **only to** psychological differences between people, differences having to do with ***thought, emotion, motivation, and behaviour***.

Theories of Personality

- **Personality is still a relatively young fields of psychology**
- **The specific questions psychologists ask and the methods they use to investigate personality**
- **there are different theories of personality but we will see at least the three ones**

✓ **psychoanalytic,**

✓ **trait and**

✓ **humanistic**

The psychoanalytic theory of personality

- **psychoanalytic theory was formulated by Sigmund Freud**
- **As Freud, ppersonality is formed within ourselves, arising from basic inborn needs, drives, and characteristics**
- **He argued that people are in constant conflict between their biological urges (drives) and the need to tame them**
- **It includes a theory of personality structure**

Continued….

- Freud views that personality has **three parts** which serves a different function and develops at different times: **the id, the ego, and the superego**.

- To Freud, the most primitive part of the mind was **das Es**, or the **“it,”** which is almost always translated into English as **id**
- a second division was **das Ich**, or the **“I,”** translated as **ego**;
- a final province was **das Uber-Ich**,or the **“over-I**,” which is rendered into English as **superego**.

- These provinces or regions have no territorial existence, of course, but are merely hypothetical constructs.
- to Freud, the way these three parts of personality **interact with one another** determines the personality of an individual
- The synergy of the three structures creates "**normal**" personality
- They interact with the three levels of mental life so that the ego cuts across the various topographic levels and has conscious, preconscious, and unconscious components, whereas the superego is both preconscious and unconscious and the id is completely unconscious.

The ID personality

- A term derived from the impersonal pronoun meaning “the it,” or the not-yet owned component of personality
- The id has no contact with reality, yet it strives constantly to reduce tension by satisfying basic desires.
- its sole function is to seek pleasure then is said it serves the pleasure principle
- Completely unconscious

- A newborn infant is the personification of an id unencumbered by restrictions of ego and superego
- The infant seeks gratification of needs without regard for what is possible (that is, demands of the ego) or what is proper (that is, restraints of the superego)
- Since the id has no direct contact with reality, it is not altered by the passage of

- Besides being unrealistic and pleasure seeking, the id is illogical and can simultaneously entertain incompatible ideas.
- ***For example, a woman may show conscious love for her mother while unconsciously wishing to destroy her***.
- These opposing desires are possible because the id has no morality; that is, it cannot make value judgments or distinguish between good and evil

The ID ….

- the id is merely amoral/unethical
- All of the id’s energy is spent for one purpose—to seek pleasure without regard for what is proper or just

In summary:

- the id is primitive, chaotic, inaccessible to consciousness, unchangeable, amoral, illogical, unorganized, and filled with energy received from
- basic drives and discharged for the satisfaction of the pleasure principle.

The ID: from your module:

- If It Feels Good, Do It
- The first and most primitive part of the personality in the infant
- The id is a completely unconscious amoral part of the personality that exists at birth, containing all of the basic biological drives; hunger, thirst, sex, aggression,
- When these biological drives are active, one feels increased physical and psychological tensions **#**

Freud called it libido

The ID: from your module .....

- **Libido** is the instinctual energy that may come into conflict with the demands a society‘s standards for behavior
- High libidinal energy creates high unpleasant situation, so the goal is to reduce the **libido** by fulfilling the drive
- For example **Eat** when **hungry**, **drink** when **thirsty**,
- this need for satisfaction is called the pleasure principle

- Pleasure principle is the desire for immediate satisfaction of needs with no regard for the consequences
  ∑ “if it feels good, do it.”

The Ego personalit

- is the only region of the mind in contact with reality.
- It grows out of the id during infancy and becomes a person's sole source of communication with the external world
- It is governed by the reality principle, which it tries to substitute for the pleasure principle of the id
- As the sole region of the mind in contact with the external world, the ego becomes the decision-making or executive branch of personality.

The EGO .....

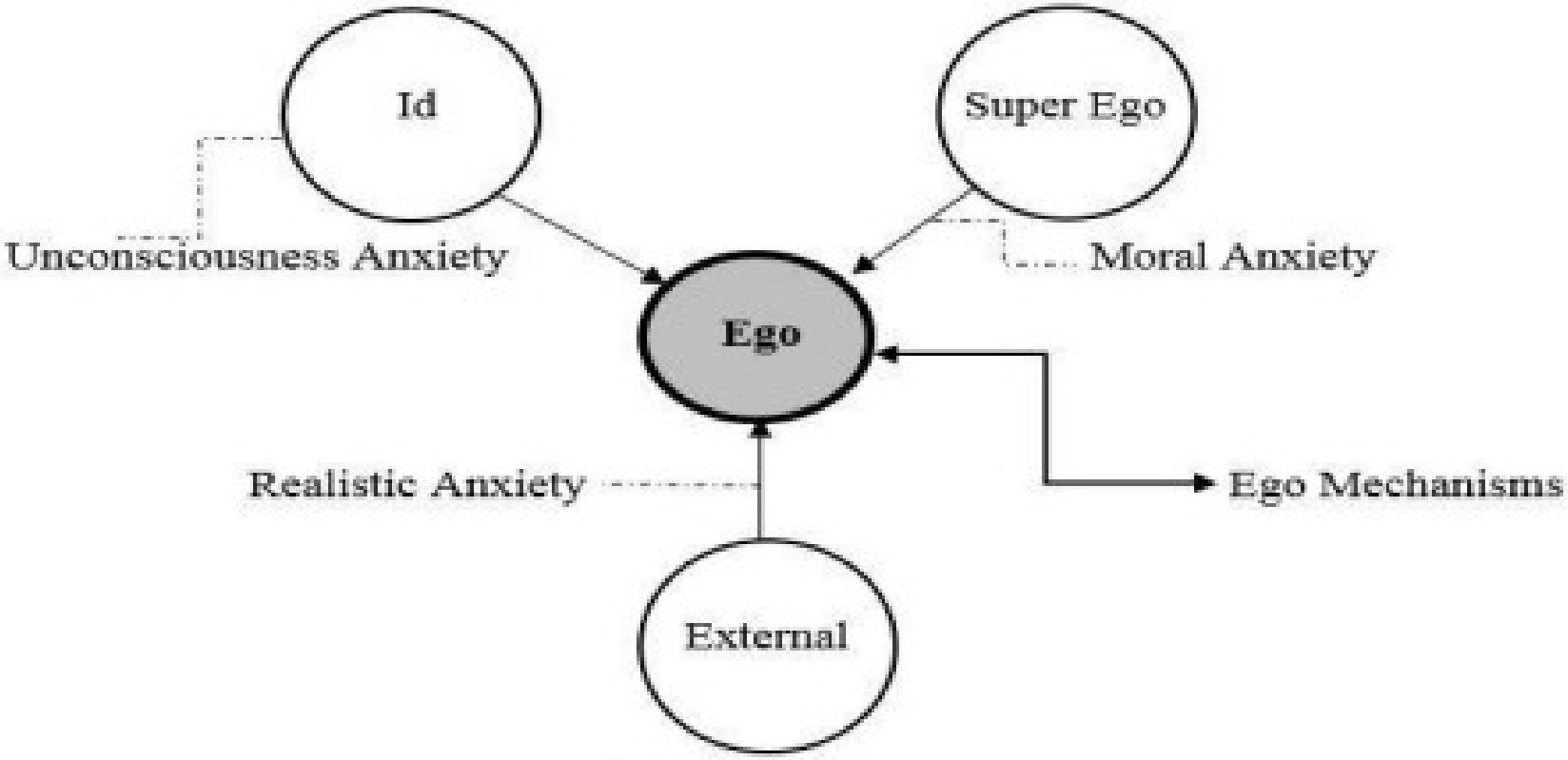
- because it is partly conscious, partly preconscious, and partly unconscious, the ego can make decisions on each of these three levels.
- **Look at the nex Example**:

A woman's ego may consciously motivate her to choose excessively neat, well-tailored clothes because she feels comfortable when well dressed. At the same time, she may be only dimly (i.e., preconsciously) aware of previous experiences of being rewarded for choosing nice clothes. In addition, she may be unconsciously motivated to be **excessively neat** and orderly due to early childhood experiences of toilet training

Thus, her decision to wear neat clothes can take place in all three levels of mental life

- Tries to equally treat unrealistic demands of the id and the superego
- In addition to these two tyrants, the ego must serve a third master: **the external world (the reality)**
- Thus, the ego constantly tries to reconcile the blind, irrational claims of the id and the superego with the realistic demands of the external world.
- Finding itself surrounded on three sides by divergent and hostile forces, the ego reacts in a predictable manner: **where it becomes anxious (look at the next picture)**
- It then uses repression and other defense mechanismsto defend itself against this anxiety

Personality structure



- the ego becomes differentiated from the id when infants learn to distinguish **themselves** from the outer world
- While the id remains unchanged, the **ego continues** to develop strategies for handling the id's unrealistic and unrelenting **demands for pleasure**
- At times the ego can control the powerful, pleasure-seeking id, but at other times **it loses control**

The synergy of id & ego

- Looks like **a person on horseback**
- The rider checks and inhibits the greater strength of the horse but **this possible by politeness the horse (its mercy)**
- Similarly, the ego must check and inhibit id impulses **but the ego has no its own power but borrows from the id**
- **b/c of the more poorly organized id, gives its power**

The ego: what your module says:

- The Executive Director
- deals with reality
- is mostly conscious and is far more rational, logical than the id
- works on the reality principle
- i.e. It satisfies the demands of the id and reduce **libido** only in ways that it will not lead to negative consequences
- b/c sometimes denies id's drives based on the consequence that will produce painful or too unpleasant

The superego personality

- Represents the moral and ideal aspects of personality and is guided by the moralisticand idealistic principlesas opposed to the pleasure principle of the id and the realistic principle of the ego
- The superego grows out of the ego, and like the ego, it has no energy of its own.
- However, the superego differs from the ego in one important respect: **it has no contact with the outside world and therefore is unrealistic in its demands for perfection**

The superego.....

- **Superego**: The Moral Watchdog
- Is the third and final part of the personality, the moral center of personality
- Is the Latin, meaning "**over the self**"
- It develops as a preschool-aged child learns the rules, customs, and expectations of society

The superego ….

- The superego has two subsystems, the conscienceand the ego-ideal
- the **conscience** results from experiences with punishments for improper behavior and tells us what we should not do,
- the **ego-ideal** develops from experiences with rewards for proper behavior and tells us what we should do.

the ego ideal:

- The ego-ideal is a kind of measuring device.
- It is the sum of all the ideal or correct and acceptable behavior that the child has learned about from parents and others in the society
- All behavior is held up to **this standard (i.e. societal expectation, social**

The conscience ego

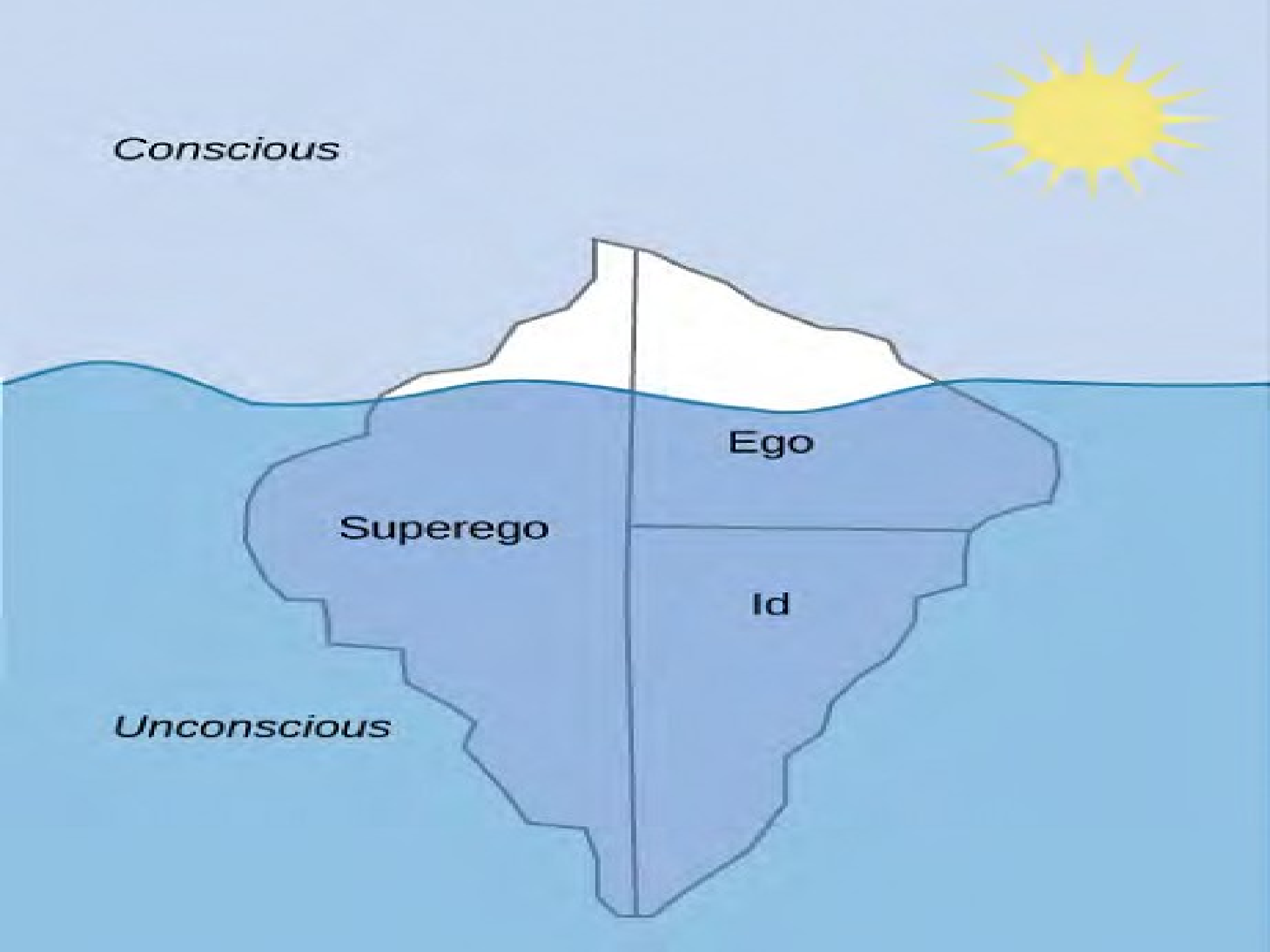
- The conscience is part of the personality that makes people pride when they do the right thing and guilt, or moral anxiety when they do the wrong thing

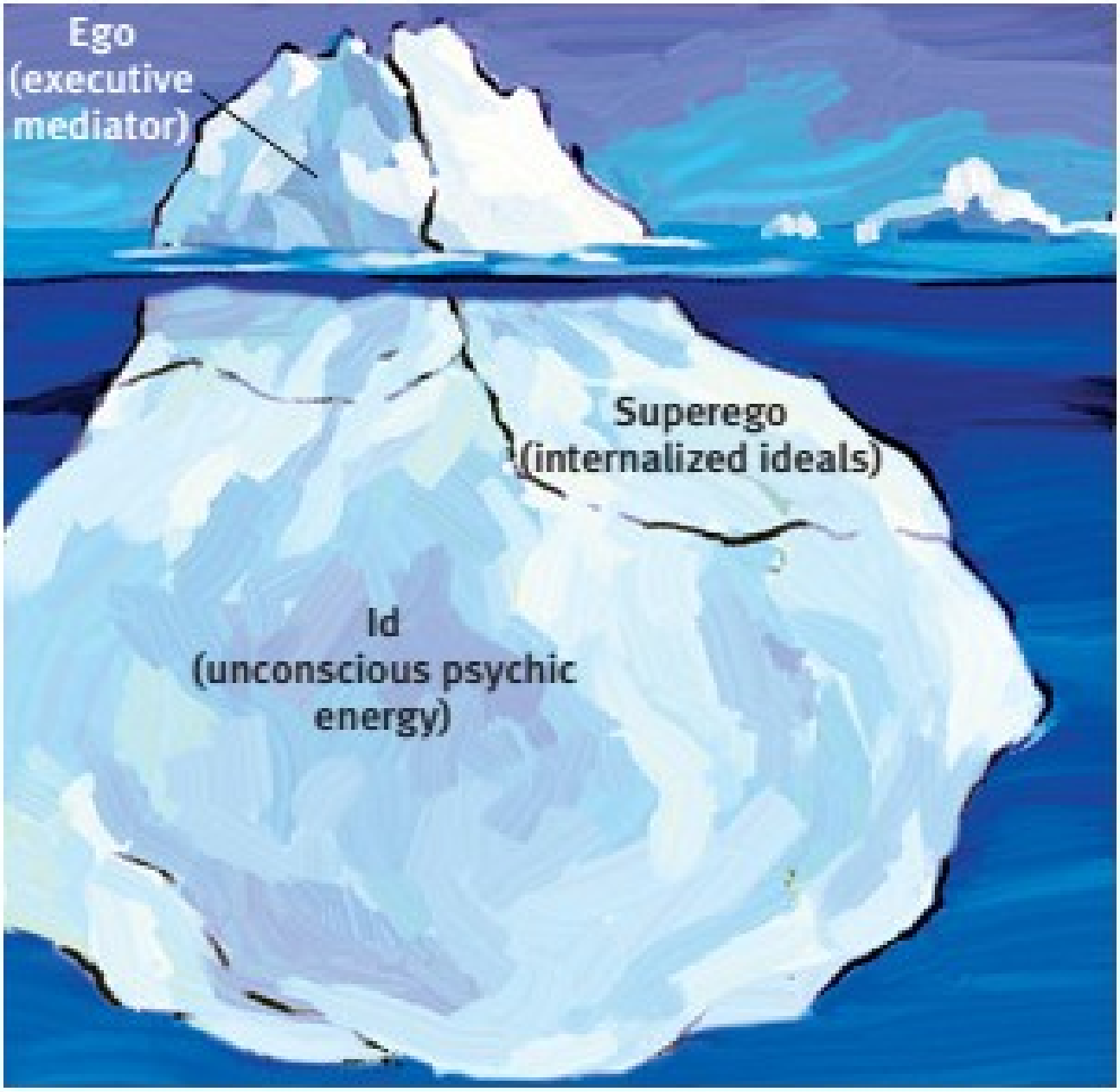
The superego…..

- A well-developed superego acts to **control sexual and aggressive impulses** through the **process of repression**.
- It cannot produce ***repressions by itself***, but it can order the ego to do so.
- The superego watches closely **over the ego**, judging its actions and intentions.

The superego ….

- **Guilt** is the result when the ego acts—or even intends to act—contrary to the moral standards of the superego.
- **Feelings of inferiority** arise when the ego is unable to meet the superego's standards of perfection.
- **Guilt,** then, is a function of the **conscience**, whereas **inferiority**

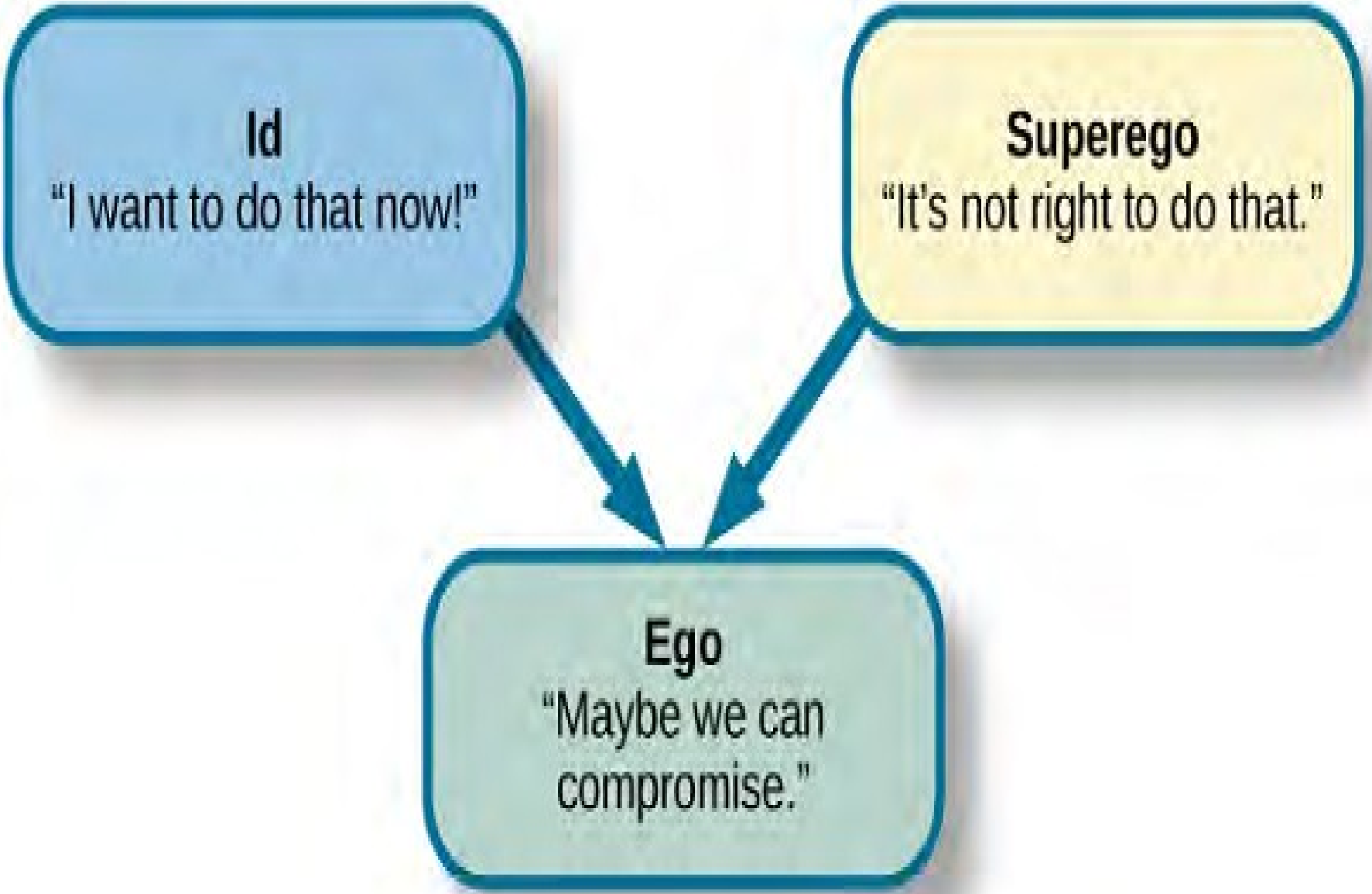

Conscious
Ego
Superego
Id
Unconscious



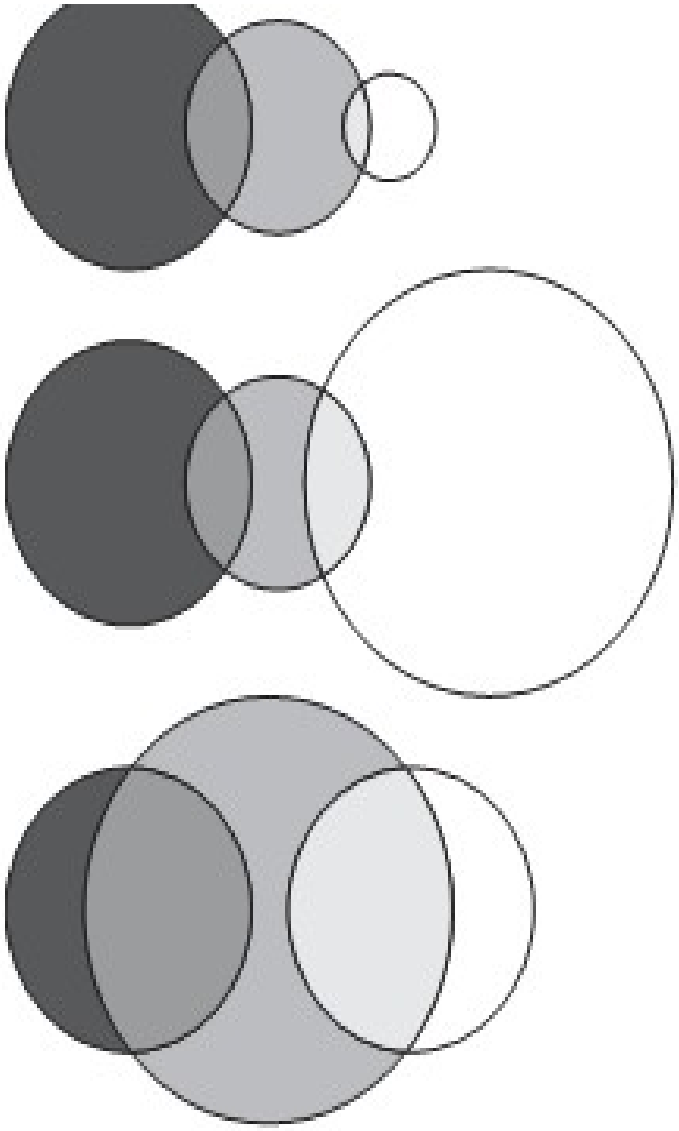
Conscious mind

Preconscious (outside awareness but accessible)

Unconscious mind


Id
"I want to do that now!"
Superego
"It's not right to do that."
Ego
"Maybe we can compromise."

Relationship among Id, Ego, and Superego



A pleasure-seeking person dominated by the id

A guilt-ridden or inferior-feeling person dominated by the superego

A psychologically healthy person dominated by the ego

Id Ego Superego

- The development of the three divisions varies widely in different individuals.

✓ For some people, the superego does not grow after childhood;

✓ For others, the superego may dominate the personality at the cost of guilt and inferiority feelings.

✓ For yet others, the ego and superego may take turns controlling personality, which results in extreme fluctuations of mood and alternating cycles of self-confidence and self-deprecation.

- In the healthy individual, the id and superego are integrated into a smooth functioning ego and operate in harmony and with a minimum of conflict.
- **What you have learned from the above picture?????**

For the 1st person: ID > SUPEREG

- The id dominates a weak ego and a feeble superego, preventing the ego from counterbalancing its incessant demands of the id and leaving the person nearly constantly striving for pleasure regardless of what is possible or proper

For the 2nd person: SUPEREGO > ID

- With strong feelings of either guilt or inferiority and a weak ego, will experience many conflicts because the ego cannot arbitrate the strong but opposing demands of the superego and the id.

For the 3rd person: ID<EGO>SUPEREGO

- A strong ego that has incorporated many of the demands of both the id and the superego, is psychologically healthy and in control of both the pleasure principle and the moralistic principle.

Defense mechanisms

- Our personality is the outcome of the continual battle for dominance among the id, the ego, and the superego
- Our personality uses defense mechanism to mange it
- DFs are **unconscious** tactics that either prevent threatening material from surfacing or disguise it when it does
- DF is a certain specific means by which the ego unconsciously protects itself against unpleasant impulses or circumstances
- They **defend the ego** from experiencing anxiety about failing in its tasks

Defense…

- Defense mechanisms **are normal and universally used**,
- But when carried to an **extreme** they lead to ***compulsive, repetitive, and neurotic behavior***.
- Because we must expend psychic energy to establish and maintain defense mechanisms, ***the more defensive we are***, the less psychic energy we have left to satisfy **id** impulses
- **It is** the ego's purpose/duety in establishing **defense mechanisms**
- It does it to avoid dealing directly with sexual and aggressive implosives and to defend itself against the anxiety that accompanies them

Defense…

The principal defense mechanisms identified by Freud include

- **Repression**
- **Denial**
- **Regression**
- **Rationalization**
- **Displacement**
- **Projection**
- **Reaction formation**
- **Sublimation**

Common Defense Mechanisms



Displacement



Repression



Sublimation



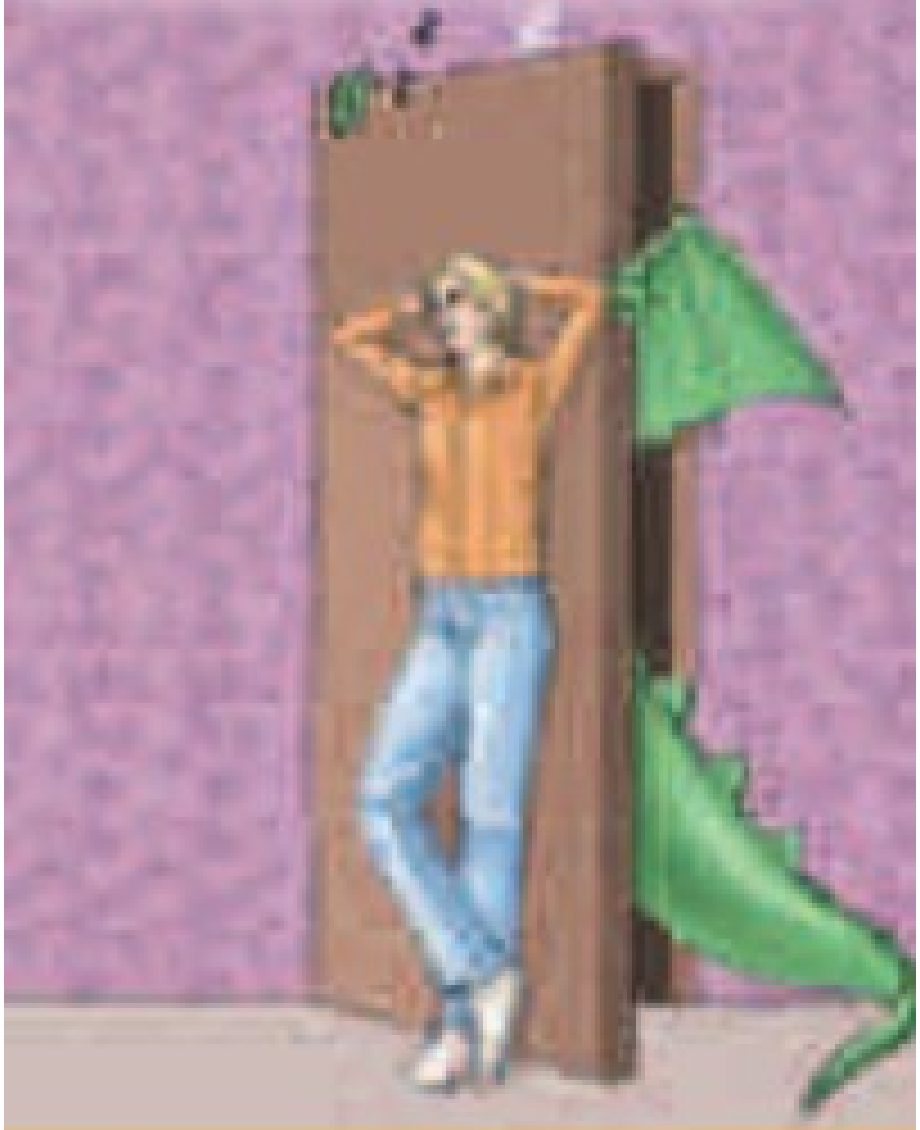
Regression

Mechanism	Description	Example
Repression	Repression is an unconscious mechanism employed by the ego to keep disturbing or threatening thoughts from becoming conscious.	During the Oedipus complex aggressive thoughts about the same sex parents are repressed
Denial	Denial involves blocking external events from awareness. If some situation is just too much to handle, the person just refuses to experience it.	For example, smokers may refuse to admit to themselves that smoking is bad for their health.
Projection	This involves individuals attributing their own unacceptable thoughts, feeling and motives to another person.	You might hate someone, but your superego tells you that such hatred is unacceptable. You can 'solve' the problem by believing that they hate you.
Displacement	Satisfying an impulse (e.g. aggression) with a substitute object.	Someone who is frustrated by his or her boss at work may go home and kick the dog,
Regression	This is a movement back in psychological time when one is faced with stress.	A child may begin to suck their thumb again or wet the bed when they need to spend some time in the hospital.
Sublimation	Satisfying an impulse (e.g. aggression) with a substitute object. In a socially acceptable way.	Sport is an example of putting our emotions (e.g. aggression) into

1. Repression

- involves banishing threatening thoughts, feelings, and memories into the unconscious mind
- Whenever the ego is threatened by undesirable id impulses, it protects itself by repressing those impulses; that is, it forces threatening feelings into the unconscious
- In many cases the repression is then perpetuated for a lifetime.
- ***Eg. a young girl may permanently repress her hostility for a younger sister because her hateful feelings create too much anxiety.***

Repression: a person pushes painful memories or anxiety out of her consciousness; a person denies or forgets what is disturbing her.



Cultural sayings

- አውቆ የተኛውን ብቀሰቅሱት አይነቃም፤
- Kan beekaa rafe yaaman hin dammaqu;

2. Denial

- is refusal to recognize or acknowledge a threatening situation
- i.e. Refusing to accept a reality
- if you refuse to accept the reality of something that makes you anxious.

Example for denial

Forexample, it is a **stormy** and **frightening night**, and the ***local television and radio announcers*** are advising citizens to take cover and observe the tornado warnings in effect. Bekalu ***does not believe that his town will get hit*** (he is in denial) and is severely injured after failing to heed the warnings.

Mr. Geremew is an alcoholic who denies/ doesn‘t accept being an alcoholic

"**ይህ ህልም መሆን አለበት**" ይባላል

“**kun abjuu tahuu qaba**” jedhama

3. Regression:

- involves reverting to immature behaviors that have relieved anxiety in the past
- Is means going back to an earlier and less mature pattern of behavior
- Once the **libido** has passed a developmental stage during times of **stress** and **anxiet**y, revert back to that earlier stage
- Regressions are quite common and are readily visible in children.
- ***For example, a completely weaned child may regress to demanding a bottle or nipple when a baby brother or sister is born***.

- Regressions are also frequent in older children and in adults.
- A common way for adults to react to anxiety-producing situations is to revert to earlier, safer, more secure patterns of behavior and to invest their **libido onto** more **primitive and familiar objects**.
- **Example: a girl/a boy who has just entered school may go back to**

4. Rationalization

- Is giving socially acceptable reasons for one's inappropriate behavior.
- ***Example: make bad grades but states the reason as being knowledge rather than grade oriented; and grades only showing superficial learning***.

5. Displacement

- Involves expressing feelings toward a person who is less threatening than the person who is the true target of those feelings.
- **Example: Hating your boss but taking it out on family members**
- **For example**, a woman who is angry at her roommate may displace her anger onto her employees, her pet cat, or a stuffed animal. She remains friendly to her roommate, but unlike the workings of a reaction formation, she does not exaggerate or overdo her friendliness.


Displacement: a widow transfers her love for her late husband to her cats.

6. Projection

- Involves attributing one's undesirable feelings to other people.
- When an ***internal impulse provokes too much anxiety***, the ego may reduce that anxiety by ***attributing the unwanted impulse*** to an ***external object***, usually another person
- ***Example: a paranoid person uses***

- Paranoia is a mental disorder characterized by powerful delusions of jealousy and persecution
- **Projection, therefore, is talking as we hate something but the opposite is real/tue = we love it/accept it**
- ***E.g. Some indivuals I hate to marry but they want to do where thay hate for the could not get the chance.***
- **Locally it is: "Dhabduun didduu of gootii"**

- paranoia is always characterized by repressed homosexual feelings toward the persecutor. Freud believed that the persecutor is inevitably a former friend of the same sex,
- When homosexual impulses become too powerful, persecuted paranoiacs defend themselves by reversingthese feelings and then projecting them onto their original object
- e.g. for men, the transformation proceeds as follows. Instead of saying, “I love him,” the paranoid person says, “I hate him.”

7. Reaction formation

- involves a tendency to act in a manner opposite to one's true feelings.
- Reactive behavior can be identified by its exaggerated character and by its obsessive and compulsive form
- *Example: a person who acts conservation but focuses on violence in*

- Another example of a reaction formation can be seen in a young woman who deeply resents and hates her mother. Because she knows that society demands affection toward parents, such conscious hatred for her mother would produce too much anxiety. To avoid painful anxiety, the young woman concentrates on the opposite impulse-love. Her “love” for her mother, however, is not genuine. It is showy, exaggerated, and overdone.

8. Sublimation

- involves expressing sexual or aggressive behavior through **indirect**, socially **acceptable outlets**.
- is the repression of the genital aim of **Eros** by substituting a cultural or social aim.
- The sublimated aim is expressed most obviously in creative cultural accomplishments such as art, music, and literature, but more subtly, it is part of all human relationships and all social pursuits.
- Example: an aggressive person who loves playing football.

- Sublimationrefers to redirecting a forbidden desire into a socially acceptable desire.
- For example, you may be so frustrated by your friend’s arrogant attitude that you work extra hard at soccer practice, pushing yourself to your physical limits.
- You have channeled your aggressive feelings into physical activities.

Projection Vs reactionformation?

- Projection refers to a person seeing attributes of his own personality in others.
- In Projection a person believes that impulses really coming from within himself are coming from other people.
- (**He is jealous of his girlfriend but claims that she’s the one who is**

- In Projection inner feelings are thrown, or projected, outside the self and assigned to others.
- If a person thinks, for example, that others dislike him when in reality he dislikes himself, he is said to be projecting.
- This is a common mechanism, which you may have used yourself from time to

Example



Reaction formation

- involves replacing an unacceptable feeling or urge with an opposite one.

Denial Refusing to accept real events because they are unpleasant	Kaila refuses to admit she has an alcohol problem although she is unable to go a single day without drinking excessively.
Displacement Transferring inappropriate urges or behaviors onto a more acceptable or less threatening target	During lunch at a restaurant, Mark is angry at his older brother, but does not express it and instead is verbally abusive to the server.
Projection Attributing unacceptable desires to others	Chris often cheats on her boyfriend because she suspects he is already cheating on her.
Rationalization Justifying behaviors by substituting acceptable reasons for less-acceptable real reasons	Kim failed his history course because he did not study or attend class, but he told his roommates that he failed because the professor didn't like him.
Reaction Formation Reducing anxiety by adopting beliefs contrary to your own beliefs	Nadia is angry with her coworker Beth for always arriving late to work after a night of partying, but she is nice and agreeable to Beth and affirms the partying as "cool."
Regression Returning to coping strategies for less mature stages of development	After failing to pass his doctoral examinations, Giorgio spends days in bed cuddling his favorite childhood toy.
Repression Suppressing painful memories and thoughts	LaShea cannot remember her grandfather's fatal heart attack, although she was present.
Sublimation Redirecting unacceptable desires through socially acceptable channels	Jerome's desire for revenge on the drunk driver who killed his son is channeled into a community support group for people who've lost loved ones to drunk driving.

Generally, note that:

- defense mechanisms are not considered as inappropriate or unhealthy unless we rely on them to an extreme level all of us use defense mechanisms to manage our conflict and stress
- It may not be possible to get through life without such defenses
- But, excessive use may create more stress than it alleviates
- all defense mechanisms protect the ego against anxiety.
- They are universal in that everyone engages in defensive behavior to some degree.
- Each defense mechanism combines with repression, and each can be carried to the point of psychopathology

- Normally, however, defense mechanisms are beneficial to the individual and harmless to society
- In addition, one defense mechanism-sublimation—usually benefits both the individual and society

The trait theory of personality

- trait approach see personality as a combination of stable internal characteristics that people display consistently over time and across situation
- The trait approach to personality makes three main assumptions:

1. traits are relatively stable, and therefore predictable, over time
2. traits are relatively stable across situations = ***eg. Bieng competent in tennis transfers to socer game***
3. no two people are exactly alike on all traits = individual difference

five-factor model or the Big Five theory

- Component of trait theory
- The five trait dimensions can be remembered by using the acronym **OCEAN**
- **O = Openness**
- **C = Conscientiousness**
- **E = Extraversion**
- **A = Agreeableness**
- **N = Neuroticism**

1. Openness

- person‘s willingness to try new things and be open to new experiences
- People who try to maintain the status quo and who don‘t like to change things would score less on openness

2. Conscientiousness

- a person‘s organization and motivation, with people who score high in the dimension being those who are careful about being in places on time and careful with belongings as well.
- for example, Someone scoring low on this dimension might always be late to important social events or borrow belongings and fail to return them or return in poor coordination.

3. Extraversion

- first used by Carl Jung, who believed that all people could be divided into two personality types: **extraverts** and **introvert**s.
- Extraverts are outgoing and sociable, whereas introverts are more solitary and dislike being the center of attention.

4. Agreeableness

- refers to the basic emotional style of a person, who may be easygoing, friendly and pleasant (at the high end of the scale) or grumpy, crabby and hard to get along with (at the low end).

5. Neuroticism

- refers to emotional instability or stability.
- People who are excessively worried, overanxious and moody would score high on this dimension, whereas those who are more even-tempered and calm could score low.

The "Big Five" Personality Factors

(*Memory tip:* Picturing a **CANOE** will help you recall these.)

Trait Dimension	Endpoints of the Dimension		
Conscientiousness	Organized	⟷	Disorganized
	Careful	⟷	Careless
	Disciplined	⟷	Impulsive
Agreeableness	Soft-hearted	⟷	Ruthless
	Trusting	⟷	Suspicious
	Helpful	⟷	Uncooperative
Neuroticism (emotional stability vs. instability)	Calm	⟷	Anxious
	Secure	⟷	Insecure
	Self-satisfied	⟷	Self-pitying
Openness	Imaginative	⟷	Practical
	Preference for variety	⟷	Preference for routine
	Independent	⟷	Conforming
Extraversion	Sociable	⟷	Retiring
	Fun-loving	⟷	Sober
	Affectionate	⟷	Reserved

Humanistic theory of personality

- **It is the works Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow**
- a central feature of personality is one's self-concept—all the thoughts and feelings we have in response to the question, "Who am I?"
- **If our self-concept is positive**: we tend to act and perceive the world positively.
- **If it is negative**: if in our own eyes we fall far short of our ideal we feel dissatisfied and unhappy.
- A worthwhile goal for therapists, parents, teachers, and friends is therefore, he (**Rogers)** said, to help others know, accept, and be true to themselves.

- Want psychology to focus on subjective emotions and the freedom to choose one‘s destiny.
- people‘s inherent goodness and their tendency to move toward higher levels of functioning instead of seeing people as controlled by

✓ **the unconscious** (psychoanalysis approach),

✓ **unseen forces** (psychodynamic approaches), and

✓ **a set of stable traits** (trait approaches)

- It is this conscious, self-motivated ability to change and improve, along with people‘s unique creative impulses, that humanistic theorists argue make up the core of personality.

Carl Rogers:

- **Self-Cconcept**
- believed that human beings are always striving to fulfill their innate capacities and capabilities and to become everything that their genetic potential will allow them to become.
- This striving for fulfillment is called self-actualizing tendency.

- Therefore, **self-concept** is all our thoughts and feelings about ourselves, in answer to the question, “Who am I?”

Carl….

- Image of oneself or self-concept leads to self-actualization.
- self-concept 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.

Carl said on two components of SELF

- **Real:** one‘s **actual perception of characteristics**, traits, and abilities that form the basis of the striving for self-actualization
- **Ideal Self:** the perception of what one should be or would like to be
- **ideal self** comes from significant others in one‘s life (models), most often the parents = **to say ideal self is the learned self**

Carl ……

- **Rogers believed that when:**

✓ the real self and the ideal self are very close or similar to each other, people feel competent and capable,

✓ there is a mismatch between the real and ideal selves, anxiety and neurotic behavior can be the result.

Rogers' Regards in self

- **For Carl Rogers there are two regards**

1. **Conditional postive regard**

2. **Unconditional Positive regard**

Conditional postive regard

- **positive regard**: is warmth, affection, love, and respect that comes from the significant others (parents, admired adults, friends, and teachers) in people‘s experience (life)
- **Positive** is vital to people‘s ***ability to cope with stress*** and to strive to achieve self-actualization.

Unconditional Positive regard

- Unconditioned positive regard, or love, affection and respect **with no strings attached**,
- It is necessary for people to be able to explore fully all that they can achieve and become
- Unfortunately, some parents, spouses, and friends give **conditional positive regard,** which is love, affection, respect and warmth that depend, or seem to depend, on doing what those people want.

Self-actualization

- Is the humanist term for realizing one's unique potential
- **self-actualization**: is, the realization of our potentialities as unique human beings.
- **Self-actualization** involves an openness to a wide range of experiences, an awareness of and respect for one's own

Self-actualization

- **Self-actualization** involves an openness to a wide range of experiences, an awareness of and respect for one's own and other people's uniqueness, accepting the responsibilities of freedom and commitment, a desire to become more and more authentic or true to oneself, and an ability to grow.

Here is an example: as a freshman Tirhas was thinking about becoming a math teacher, a computer programmer. Chalet, also a freshman, already knew that she was going to be a doctor. While Tirhas' parents had told her that what she wanted to become was up to her and that they would love her no matter what, Chaltu's parents had made it very clear to her as a small child that they expected her to become a doctor. She was under the very impression that if she tried to choose any other career, she will lose her parents' love and respect. Tirhas' parents were giving her unconditional positive regard, but Chaltu's parents were giving her conditional positive regard. Chaltu was not as free as Tirhas to explore potential abilities.

Therefore, for the Rogerian's:

- a person who is in the process of self-actualizing is:
  - ✓ actively exploring his/her potentials and abilities
  - ✓ experiencing a match between real and ideal selves
- As a result this man is **fully functioning/working/operative** person.
- Fully functioning person is in touch with his/her feelings and abilities and can trust his innermost urges and intuitions/ perception/ intrinsic
- To become a fully functioning, then, a person needs unconditional positive regard.

Conclustion from the above example:

- Chaltu would not have been a fully functioning person= **b/c of conditional positive regad = parental preexpectation = think of extrinsic motivation**
- Tirhas would have been a fully functioning person = **b/c of unconditional positive regard = personal expectation = think of intrinsic motivation**

Self-actualization vs fully functioning

- Self-actualization is a goal that people are always striving to reach
- **fully functioning**: an individual whose **person** and **self** coincide
- It is ablity to accept your person and become open to allyour feelings, thoughts, and experiences and hence to other people.
- Fully functioning is an element of self-actualization
- i.e. only a person who is fully functioning is capable of reaching the goal of self-actualization
- To be fully functioning is a necessary step in the process of self-actualization

- The **person** and the **self** are one.
- So, the individual is free to develop all of his or her potentialities

- **Maslow** listed several people that he considered to be self-actualized people:

Albert Einstein, **Mahatma Gandhi**, and **Eleanor Roosevelt**

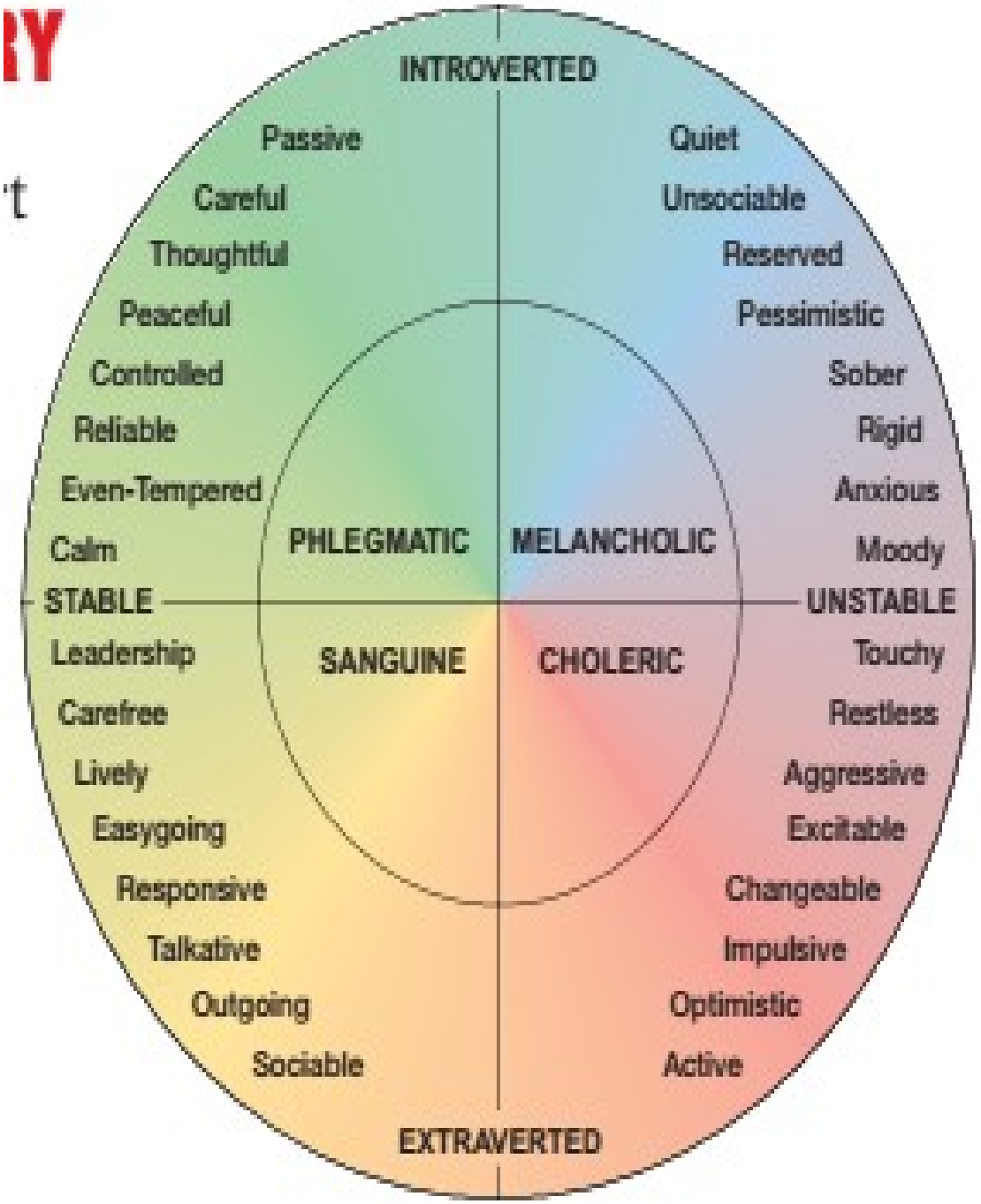
- Qualities of self-actualized person include **creative**, **autonomous** and **unprejudiced /fairness/unbais/evenhanded**
- Self-actualized people have trust in their true feelings and innermost needs rather than just going along with the crowd, a description that certainly seems to apply in these three cases

HANS EYSENCK: DIMENSIONS OF PERSONALITY

- he was an English psychologist
- He concluded that there are two basic dimensions of personality

1. **stability** versus **instability**
2. **extraversion** versus **introversion.**

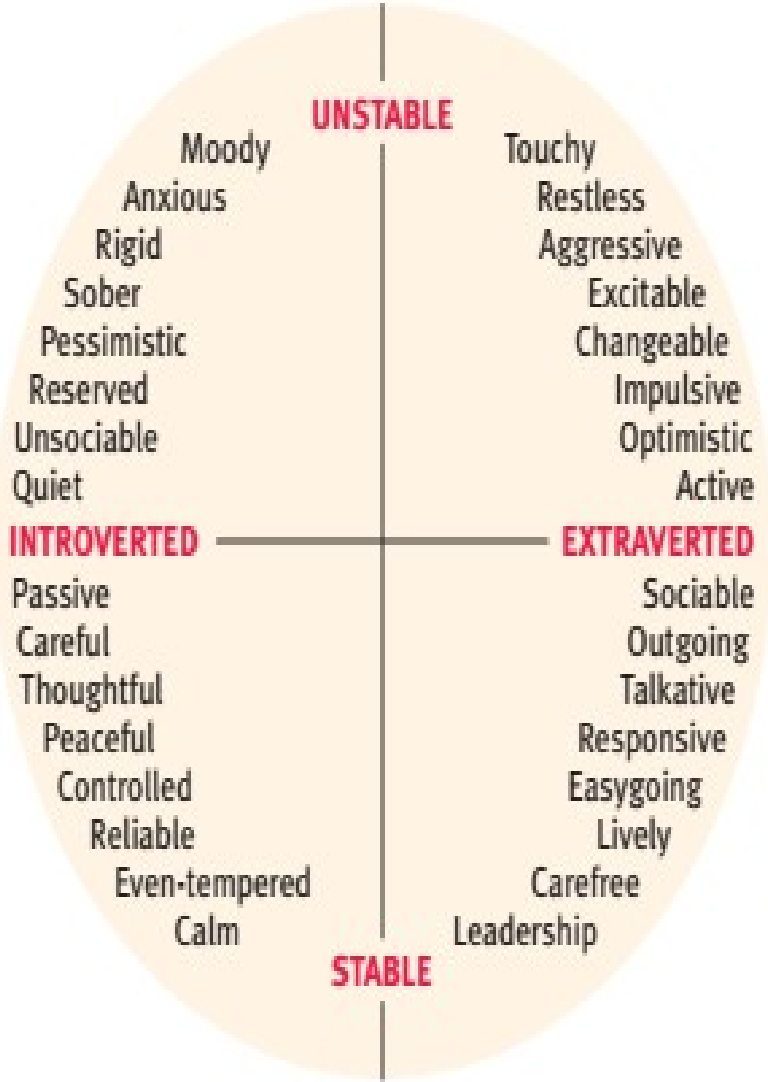
- **Stability** refers to the degree to which people have ***control over their feelings***
- A person is emotionally stable who is **easygoing**, **relaxed**, **well-adjusted**, and **even-tempered**
- At the **anxiety (instability)** dominated end of the spectrum is the moody, anxious, and restless person.


INTROVERTED
Passive
Careful
Thoughtful
Peaceful
Controlled
Reliable
Even-Tempered
Calm
Quiet
Unsociable
Reserved
Pessimistic
Sober
Rigid
Anxious
Moody
PHLEGMATIC
MELANCHOLIC
STABLE
UNSTABLE
SANGUINE
CHOLERIC
Leadership
Carefree
Lively
Easygoing
Responsive
Talkative
Outgoing
Sociable
Touchy
Restless
Aggressive
Excitable
Changeable
Impulsive
Optimistic
Active
EXTRAVERTED

Learn this: Two personality dimensions



Deborah Jaffe/Getty Images

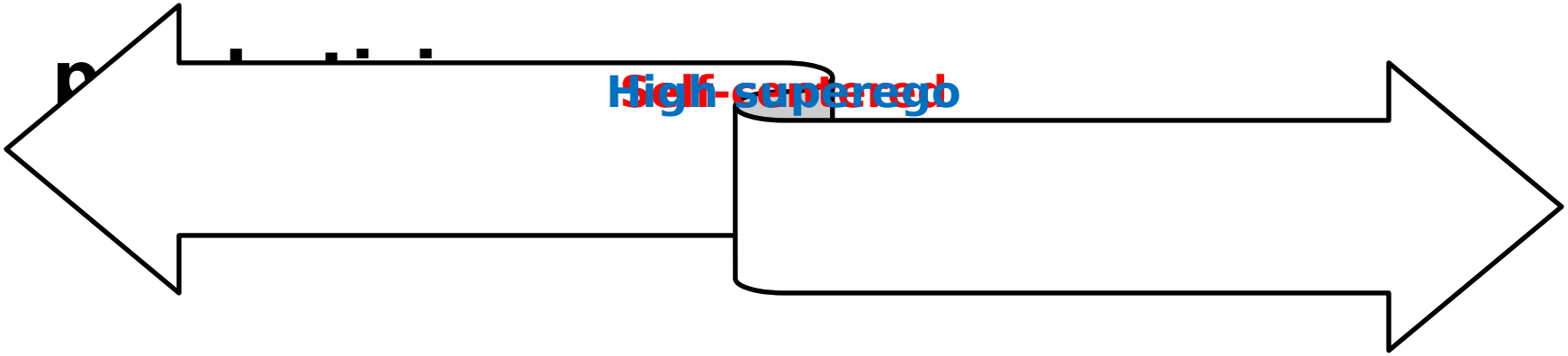




Digital Vision/ Getty Images

- **Extravert:** an outgoing, active person who directs his or her energies and interests toward other people and things
- Extravertsare sociable, outgoing, active, lively people.
- They enjoy parties and seek excitement.
- **introvert:** a reserved, withdrawn person who is preoccupied with his or her inner thoughts and feelings
- who are more thoughtful, reserved, passive, unsociable, and quiet.

- Eysenck added a third dimension: **p . . . .**



- **self-centered end**: they are hostile, and aggressive people, who **act without much thought**.
- **high superego**: they tend to be socially sensitive, high on caring and empathy, and easy people with whom to work

Theories of Personality

Theory	Main Ideas
Behaviorist Theories	focus on the way rewards and punishment shape our actions
Social Learning Theories	cognitive-personal factors, our behaviors, and environmental factors interact to shape our personalities
Psychoanalytic Theories	emphasize the importance of early childhood experiences, repressed thoughts, and conflict between conscious and unconscious forces
Cognitive Theories	our analysis of our own perceptions, thoughts, and feelings shape our personalities
Humanistic Theories	emphasize our capacity for personal growth, development of our full potential, and freedom to make choices
Trait Theories	focus on identifying, measuring, and classifying similarities and differences in personality characteristics or traits

Theory	Assumptions
Psychoanalytic	➢ Mian point: proposes that personality is made up of three components: the id, ego, and superego; ➢ every personality has an unconscious component and that childhood experiences, even if not consciously recalled, continue to influence peo ple's behaviors. ➢ The id, ego, and superego explain how the mind functions and how instinctual energies are regulated.
Learning/ behvioral	➢ Main point: Behaviorists are interested in how aspects of personality are learned ➢ Behaviorists believe that as individuals differ in their learning experiences, they acquire different behaviors and different personalities. ➢ Albert Bandura believed that personality is acquired not only by reinforcement but also by observational learning.
Humanistic and	➢ Main point: personality stress the positive aspects of human



CHAPTER SEVEN

PSYCHOLOGICAL DISORDERS

AND

TREATMENT TECHNIQUES

Chapter Overview

- Mental illness is a disorder that affects mood, thinking and behavior

Examples of mental illness include depression, anxiety disorders, schizophrenia, eating disorders and addictive behaviors

- Many people have mental health concerns from time to time.
- But, a mental health concern becomes **a mental illness** when ongoing signs and symptoms cause frequent stress and affect your ability to function

Learning Outcomes

- Describe how psychological disorders are defined, as well as the inherent difficulties in doing so.
- Identify the nature of Psychological disorders.
- Explain the causes of psychological disorders.
- Identify the different types, characteristic features of psychological disorders.
- Explain different theories to explain the nature of abnormality.
- Discuss the treatment techniques.

Nature of Psychological Disorders

- People who exhibit abnormal patterns of feelings, thinking and behavior most likely suffer from some kind of psychological disorders

- **Psychological disorder** is a clinically recognizable set of symptoms or behaviours associated in most cases with distress and with interference with personal functions

Criteria for psychologica disorder:

Three main criteria:

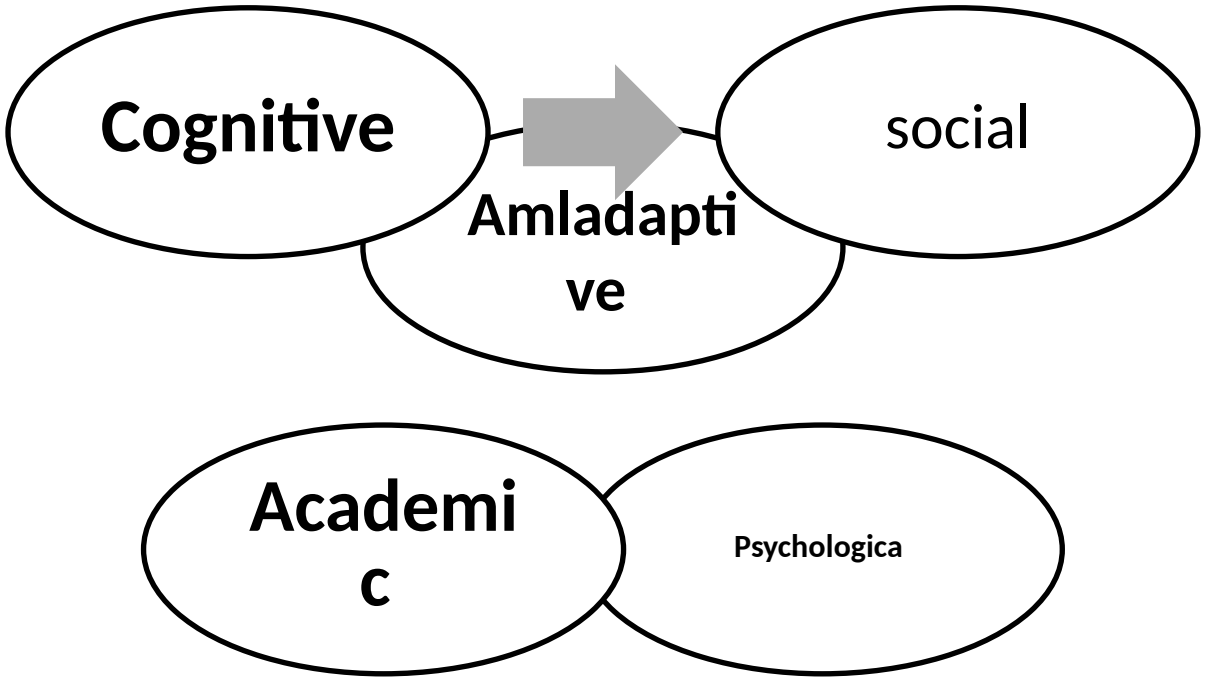
- **abnormality,**
- **maladaptiveness, and**
- **personal distress.**

1. Abnormality

- Abnormal behavior is a behavior that deviates from the behavior of the “typical” person; the norm
- When someone behaves in culturally unacceptable ways and the behaviors a one exhibit violates the norm, standards, rules and regulations of the society, this person is most likely to have a ps ychological problem
- Since abnormal behavior not sufficient **context** is great solution

2. Maladaptiveness

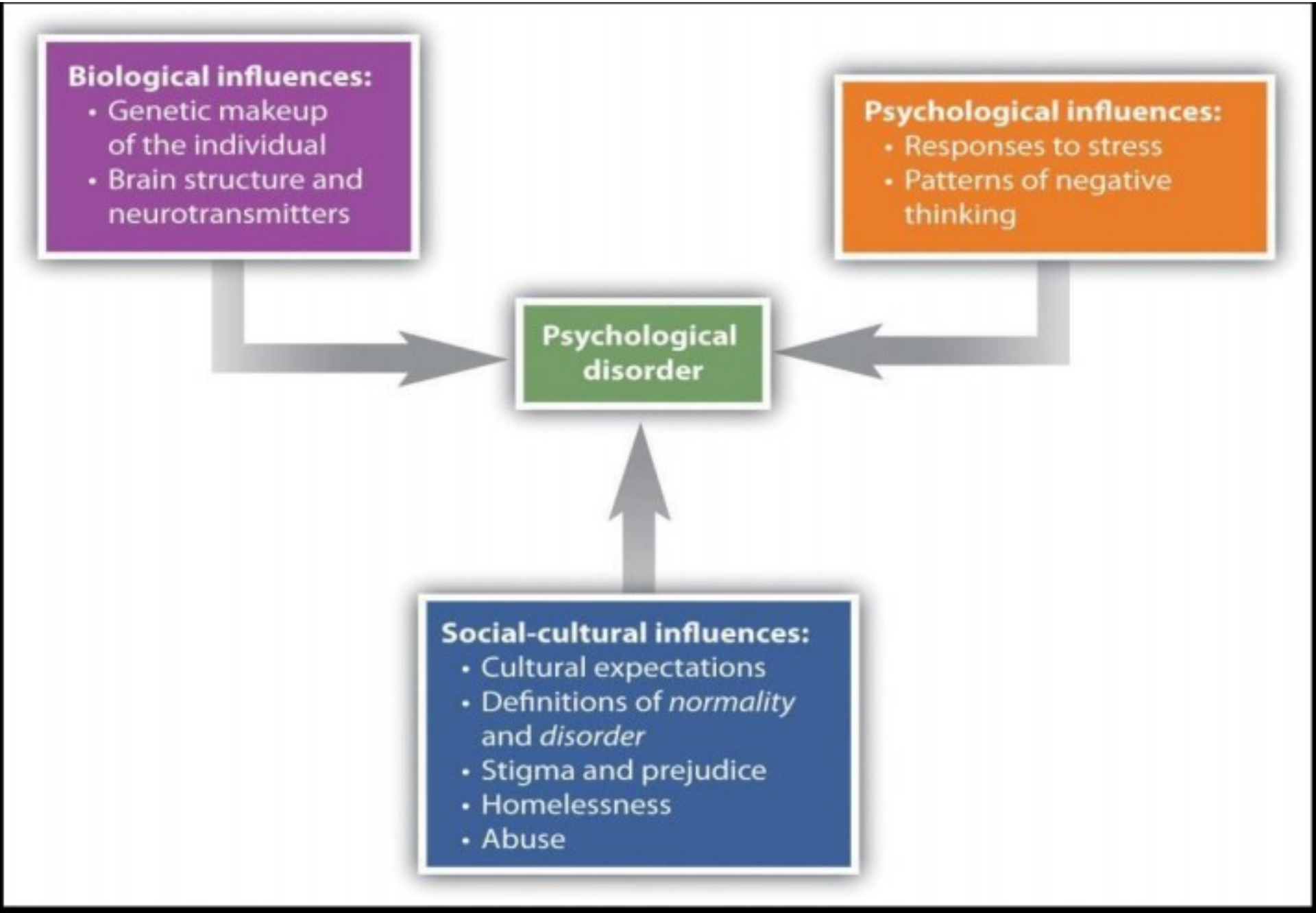
- **Maladaptiveness**: lack skills to carry out day-to-day activities
- a social, personal and occupational problem on those who exhibit the behaviors



Personal Distress

- Our subjective feelings of anxiety, stress, tension and other unpleasant emotions determine whether we have a psychological disorder
- These negative emotional states arise either by the problem itself or by events happen that on us but is not sufficient for the presence of psychological disorder

Causes of Psychological Disorders (Based on Perspectives)



The Biological Perspective

- 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,
- This links to the **bizarre** symptoms of **schizophrenia**.

Psychological Perspectives

three psychological perspectives

- **the psychoanalytic perspective,**
- **the learning, and**
- **the cognitive behavioral perspectives**

the psychoanalytic perspective

believed that the human mind consists of three interacting forces:

- **the id (a pool of biological urges),**
- **the ego (which mediates between the id and reality), and**

- in Freud's view, it is caused by the ego's inability to manage the conflict between the opposing demands of the id and the superego
- It is the **individuals' failure** to manage the conflicting of:
  - ✓ **id's sexual impulses during childhood**

    VERSUS **society's sexual morality to resolve the earlier childhood (superego)**

Learning perspective

- **arise from inadequate or inappropriate learning.**
- **People acquire abnormal behaviors through the various kinds of learning**

Cognitive perspective

- Believe or not, the quality of our internal dialogue either builds ourselves up or tear ourselves down and has profound effect on our mental health
- **Theme:** self-defeating thoughts lead to the development of negative emotions and **self-destructive behaviors**
- ways we think about **events** in our life determine our emotional and behavioral patterns
- But our environmental and cultural **experiences factor** our **thinkng**

Types of Psychological Disorders

- **Psychlogical 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
- **Psychopathology**: refer to the

there are many types of psychological disorders including:

- **mood disorder,**
- **anxiety disorder and**
- **personality disorder.**

Mood Disorder

- a serious change in mood from **depressed** to **elevated feelings** causing disruption to life activities
- **Depressive disorder:** is characterized by overall feelings of desperation /worry/extreem anxiety/nerviousness and inactivity.
- **Elevated mood:** characterized by

- **Bipolar mood**: is the cycling between both depressed and manic moods
- **Dysthymic disorder:** is a lesser form of major depression
- **Cyclothymic disorder:** is recognized less severe form of bipolar disorder

Generally mood disorder include:

- **Major Depression**
- **Dysthymic Disorder**
- **Bipolar Disorder and**
- **Cyclothymia.**

Major Depression

- also known as **clinical depression**
- **is characterized by:**
  - ✓ **depressed mood,**
  - ✓ **diminished interest in activities previously enjoyed,**
  - ✓ **weight disturbance,**
  - ✓ **sleep disturbance,**
  - ✓ **loss of energy, difficulty concentrating, and**
  - ✓ **often includes feelings of hopelessness and thoughts of suicide**

Dysthymia

- is often considered a lesser, but more **persistent** form of depression.
- Its symptoms are similar but a lesser degree.
- as opposed to Major Depression it is steadier in periods of normal feelings and extreme lows.

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)

- bipolar disorder is in which individuals are excessively and inappropriately happy or unhappy.
- These reactions may take the form of high elation, hopeless depression, or an alternation between the two.

Anxiety Disorders

- Anxiety is a general state of dread or uneasiness that a person feels in response to a real or imagined danger.
- **anxiety**: is a vague, generalized apprehension or feeling that one is in danger
- Anxiety: is a normal reaction to stress
- People suffering from Anxiety disorders feel anxiety but not just normal anxiety.
- They suffer from anxiety that is out of proportion to the situation provoking it
- This intense anxiety interferes with normal functioning in everyday

- It can alert us to dangers and help us prepare and pay attention.
- Anxiety disorders differ from normal feelings of nervousness or anxiousness, and involve excessive fear or anxiety
- anxiety disorders are treatable and a number of effective treatments are available
- Anxiety disorders can cause people into trying to avoid situations that trigger or worsen their symptoms.

the primary feature is abnormal or inappropriate anxiety that includes

- **Panic Disorder,**
- **Agoraphobia,**
- **Specific Phobias,**
- **Social Phobia,**
- **Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder,**
- **Posttraumatic Stress Disorder, and**
- **Generalized Anxiety Disorder.**

Panic disorder

- Is a psychological disorder characterized by sudden attacks of anxiety and terror, known as panic attacks, that have led to significant behavioral changes in the person's life
- **Symptoms**: shortness of breath, heart palpitations, trembling, dizziness, choking sensations, nausea, and an intense feeling of dread or impending doom

Example of panic diorder: from an interview women

- When I was about 30 I had my first panic attack. I was driving home, my three little girls were in their car seats in the back, and all of a sudden, I couldn’t breathe, I broke out into a sweat, and my heart began racing and literally beating against my ribs! I thought I was going to die. I pulled off the road and put my head on the wheel. I remember songs playing on the CD for about 15 minutes and my kids’ voices singing along. I was sure I’d never see them again. And then, it passed. I slowly got back on the road and drove home. I had no idea what it was

Phobias

- A phobia is a specific fear of a certain object, situation, or activity that adversely affects an individual's functioning
- Most people learn to live with their phobias, but for others the fear can be so debilitating that they go to extremes to avoid the fearful situation.

Agoraphobia

- is defined as anxiety about being in places or situations from which escape might be difficult or in which help may not be available.
- Means fear of the marketplace

Specific/Simple and Social Phobias

- **Specific phobias:** are unreasonable fears of a clearly identified object or situation
- Examples of specific phobias include animals, blood, flying in a plane, or thunder and lightning
- **social phobia**: also known as **social anxiety** disorder, which is an extreme discomfort in social situations due to a fear of being negatively evaluated by others or humiliating oneself

The Most Common Phobias

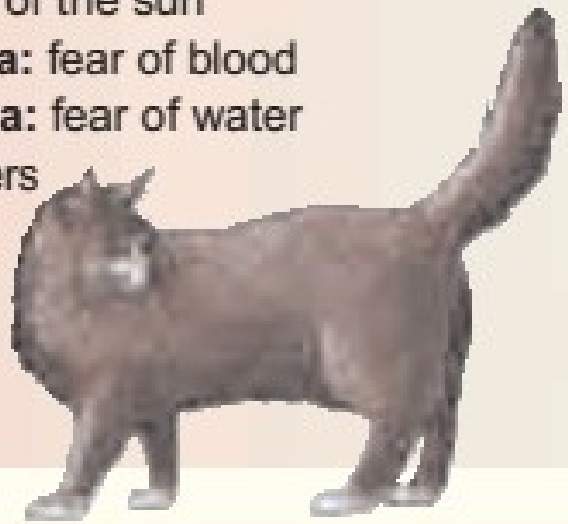
Name	Description
Acrophobia	Fear of heights
Agoraphobia	Fear of situations in which escape is difficult
Arachnophobia	Fear of spiders
Astraphobia	Fear of thunder and lightning
Claustrophobia	Fear of closed-in spaces
Cynophobia	Fear of dogs
Mysophobia	Fear of germs or dirt
Ophidiophobia	Fear of snakes
Pteromerhanophobia	Fear of flying
Social phobia	Fear of social situations
Trypanophobia	Fear of injections
Zoophobia	Fear of small animals

Kinds of phobia

Acarophobia: fear of itching or the insects that cause itching
Acrophobia: fear of heights
Aerophobia: fear of flying
Agoraphobia: fear of open spaces
Atelophobia: fear of imperfection
Autophobia: fear of being alone
Catagelophobia: fear of being ridiculed
Claustrophobia: fear of closed spaces
Entomophobia: fear of insects
Felinophobia: fear of cats
Heliophobia: fear of the sun
Hemophobia: fear of blood
Hydrophobia: fear of water
Logizomechanophobia: fear of computers
Lygophobia: fear of darkness
Nosocomephobia: fear of hospitals
Verminophobia: fear of germs
Zoophobia: fear of animals







Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder,

- is a psychological disorder that when an individual ***continuously*** experiences distressing or frightening thoughts, and then engages in repetitive behaviors
- **Obsessions:** are unwanted and distressing repetitive thoughts and
- **Compulsions:** are the repetitive behaviors done as a way to reduce the anxiety caused by the obsession.
- Everyone has obsessions and compulsions

Example of OCD: from star socer David Bekham

I have got this obsessive-compulsive disorder where I have to have everything in a straight line or everything has to be in pairs. I'll put my Pepsi cans in the fridge and if there's one too many then I'll put it in another cupboard somewhere. I've got that problem. I'll go into a hotel room. Before Ican relax, I have to move all the leaflets and all the books and put them in a drawer. Everythinghas to be perfect

(Dave Beckham as reported)



Posttraumatic Stress Disorder

- feel stress and fear that cause distress and interfere with their lives after having been exposed to a traumatic event
- People who have survived a terrible ordeal, such as **torture**, **sexual assault**, **imprisonment**, **abuse**, **natural disasters**, or **witnessing** the death of someone, may develop PTSD
- PTSD may begin months or even years after the event. People with PTSD experience flashbacks or high levels of anxiety or arousal along with re-experiencing the trauma

post-traumatic stress disorder generally is disorder in which victims of traumatic events experience the original event in the form of dreams or flashbacks

Generalized Anxiety Disorder

- a psychological disorder diagnosed in situations in which a person has been excessively worrying about money, health, work, family life, or relationships for at least 6 months, even though he or she knows that the concerns are exaggerated, and when the anxiety causes significant distress and dysfunction

Personality Disorders

- is a disorder characterized by inflexible patterns of thinking, feeling, or relating to others that cause problems in personal, social, and work situations
- Personality disorders tend to emerge during late childhood or adolescence and usually continue throughout adulthood

Personality disorder is categorized into three types:

- **Characterized by odd or eccentric behavior**
- **Characterized by dramatic or erratic behavior**
- **Characterized by anxious or inhibited behavior.**

It is Reality based issue

You will probably think of people that you know who have each of these traits, at least to some degree. Probably you know someone who seems a bit suspicious and paranoid, who feels that other people are always “ganging up on him,” and who really does not trust other people very much. Perhaps you know someone who fits the bill of being overly dramatic, such as the “drama queen”, who is alwaysraising a stir and whose emotions seem to turn everything into a big deal. Also, you might have afriend who is overly dependent on others and cannot seem to get a life of her own.

Cluster	Personality Disorder	Characteristics
Odd/Eccentric	Schizotypal	Peculiar or eccentric manners of speaking or dressing; strange beliefs or magical thinking, such as belief in ESP or telepathy; difficulty forming relationships and conversing.
	Paranoid	Distrust in others, suspicious, and apt to challenge the loyalties of friends; prone to anger and aggressive outbursts, but otherwise emotionally cold; often jealous, guarded, secretive, and overly serious.
	Schizoid	Extreme introversion and withdrawal from relationships; prefers to be alone, little interest in others, humorless, distant, and often absorbed with own thoughts and feelings.

Dramatic/Erratic	Antisocial	Impoverished moral sense or "conscience"; history of deception, crimes, and legal problems; impulsive, aggressive or violent behavior; little emotional empathy or remorse; manipulative.
	Borderline	Unstable moods and intense, stormy personal relationships, frequent mood changes and anger; unpredictable impulses; self-mutilation or suicidal threats or gestures; self-image fluctuation.
	Histrionic	Constant attention seeking, grandiose language, provocative dress, exaggerated illnesses, overly dramatic, and excessively flirtatious.
	Narcissistic	Inflated sense of self-importance, absorbed by fantasies of self andsuccess, exaggerates own achievement, and exploitative of others.

Anxious/Fearful	Avoidant	Socially anxious and uncomfortable; yearns for social contact, but fears criticism and worries about being embarrassed in front of others; avoids social situations due to fear of rejection.
	Dependent	Submissive, dependent, requires excessive approval, reassurance, and advice; clings to people and fears losing them; lacks self-confidence and uncomfortable when alone.
	Obsessive-compulsive	Conscientious, orderly, perfectionist, and an excessive need to do everything "right"; inflexibly high standards and fear of errors can make this person strict and controlling; poor expression of emotions. **Obsessive compulsive personality disorder is not the same as obsessive-compulsive disorder.

- Two personality disorders that have important implications for behavior, will be further discussed
- The first, borderline personality disorder (BPD), is important because it is so often associated with suicide, and the second, **antisocial personality disorder** (APD), because it is the foundation of criminal behavior
- Borderline and antisocial personality disorders are also good examples to consider because they are so clearly differentiated in terms of their focus
- BPD is known as an internalizing disorder because the behaviors that it entails are mostly directed toward the self (e.g., suicide and self-mutilation)

Borderline Personality Disorder (BPD)

- is a psychological disorder characterized by a prolonged disturbance of personality accompanied by mood swings, unstable personal relationships, identity problems, threats of self-destructive behavior, fears of abandonment, and impulsivity.
- BPD is widely diagnosed as up to **20%** of psychiatric patients are given the diagnosis, and it may occur in up to **2%** of the general population
- About three-quarters of diagnosed cases of BDP are women.

- People with BPD fear being abandoned by others, show a clinging dependency on others, and engage in manipulation to try to maintain relationships.
- They become angry if a partner limits the relationship, but deny that they care about the person.
- As a defense against fear of abandonment, those with BPD are compulsively social, but their behaviors, including intense anger, demands, and suspiciousness, repel people.

- **APD**, on the other hand, is a type of externalizing disorder in which the problem behaviors focus primarily on harm to others (e.g., lying, fighting, vandalism, and other criminal activity).

- BPD has both genetic and environmental roots.
- In terms of genetics, research has found that those with BPD frequently have neurotransmitter imbalances and the disorder is heritable.
- In terms of environment, many theories about the causes of BPD focus on a disturbed early relationship between the child and his or her parents

- Some theories focus on the development of attachment in early childhood, while others point to parents who fail to provide adequate attention to the child's feelings.
- Others focus on parental abuse (**both sexual and physical**) in adolescence, as well as on **divorce**, **alcoholism**, and other **stressor**s

- The dangers of BPD are greater when they are associated with childhood sexual abuse, early age of onset, substance abuse, and aggressive behaviors.
- The problems are amplified when the diagnosis is comorbid, as it often is, with other disorders, such as substance related disorders, major depressive disorder,

Antisocial Personality Disorder (APD)

- is a pervasive pattern of violation of the rights of others and a tendency to violate those rights without being concerned about doing so
- APD is about three times more likely to be diagnosed in men than in women.
- To be diagnosed with **APD**, the person must be 18 years of age or older.
- People having antisocial personality disorder are sometimes referred to as "**sociopaths**" or "**psychopaths**."

- People with APD feel little distress for the pain they cause others
- They lie, engage in violence against animals and people, and frequently have drug and alcohol abuse problems
- They are egocentric and frequently impulsive, for instance suddenly changing jobs or relationships
- The intensity of antisocial symptoms