General Psychology

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Chapter One
Introduction

The Meaning of Psychology

- Originally, the word psychology was derived from **two Greek** words.

(1) Psych- soul/spirit

(2) Logos/Logy-study/knowledge

- Therefore, literally the term 'psychology' simply refers to **the study of the soul/spirit**.
- Later improved into defining it as **the study of the mind or the science of consciousness.**

- But as the nature of soul could not be defined and the concept of mind and consciousness were narrow, these definitions were rejected.
- To day, however, psychology is understood as the **scientific study of human and animal behavior and mental process**.
- It is often represented by ﻉ.

i) **Psychology is a science**

- As a science psychology obtains knowledge through **systematic and objective methods**.
- Three basic activities that science requires: **measurement, research, and theorizing**
  - In scientific studies the events to be studied should be **measurable**.
  - As a science, psychology uses theory to describe, explain, predict and control behavior.

ii) **Psychology deals with behavior**

- Behavior is **any activity** an animal does, which could be **overt (observable) and covert (unobservable**).

Why Do You Think Psychologists Study Animal Behavior?

Psychology is interested in studying animal behavior for the following reasons

a. Many **similarities exist** between animals and humans

b. It will be **unethical** to study human beings in a **controlled laboratory** situation

What Psychology is and what it's not?

a) What psychology is:

- Psychology is a **soft science and helping profession** that deals with maladjustment problems of individuals.
- Psychology is concerned particularly with the investigation of **individual behavior-** Usually, its questions are individual related

What psychology is not?

- Psychology is **not commonsense, palmistry(looking the lines of the palm's of people and telling their future), spiritualism, fortune(chance)-telling**, and psychobabble (pseudo science).
- It is not a body of knowledge through **intuition(knowing things with out proof or evidence) and guess.**
- Psychologists are not individuals who traditionally **dispense or give advice**

Goals of psychology

a) **Describing behavior**

- The first goal is to observe and defining the behavior of individuals (**what happens**)

b) **Explaining behavior**

- why did the individual do what he or she did?
- **Justified why the behavior is happened**

c) Predicting behavior

- speculate what will happen in the future and **what the future will bring about**.
- **"the best predictor of future behavior is past behavior.“**

d) Controlling behavior

- control over the phenomena, events, characteristics, etc
- **Minimize, maximize, maintain the behavior**.

Historical Development of Psychology

- Like other sciences, psychology **has evolved over time.**
- Psychology's historical roots are **philosophy and physiology**.

Philosophical

- The philosophical roots of psychology reach back to the philosophers of ancient Greece, most notably Socrates and his followers, Plato (c. 428-347 B.C) and Aristotle (c. 384-322 B.C),

- They probed a variety of psychological questions like
  - Whether human traits are innate or product of experience.
  - Are people inherently good?
  - How can people attain happiness?
  - What motives or drives do people have?
  - What is the cause of mental illness?

Physiological

- Since psychology is the youngest discipline, it borrows their methodology (i.e. critical observation and experimentation) from other sciences that were already emerged.
- **Biological bases of human behavior.**

- Psychology was emerged as a science of mental life **in 1879** with the opening of the first psychological laboratory in Europe.
- **Wilhelm Wundt** who formally considered as the father of psychology in Leipzig, Germany.
- This year is considered as the birth of psychology as **a separate field of study**.

Perspectives in Psychology

- Just after the separation of psychology from philosophy and physiology, professionals were debating about
  - **what psychology should study (the subject mater),**
  - **how psychology should do it (method)**
  - **what causes behavior**
- This critical argument among scholars contribute for the emergence of different schools of thought / perspectives/ in psychology.

Early perspectives

1. **Structuralism**

- the chief purpose of psychology is to describe, analyze and explain **conscious experiences**, particularly feelings, images and sensations.
- They attempted to give a scientific analysis of conscious experience by **breaking it down into its specific components or structures**.

- For example Titchener identified four elements in the sensation of taste: Sweet, sour, salty ad bitter.
- The main method of investigation was **introspection .**
- In this technique individuals were trained to observe and report their mental process, feelings, and experiences as accurately as they could.

Shortcoming

- There are elements of **subjectivity**, where the reports of two individuals can not be the same to the same objective situation.

2. **Functionalism**

- According to them emphasis should be given to see the **function of the mind** instead of looking at the structure.

- The American psychologists **William James** pioneered functionalism.
- Decided that the task of psychology is to investigate the function or purpose of consciousness.
- developed the technique of longitudinal research

3. **Gestalt psychology**

- Gestalt psychologists believed that human beings and other animals **perceive the external world as an organized pattern, not as individual sensations.**
- The German word **“gestalt” means whole**
- believed that the structuralists were wrong in thinking of the mind as being made up of elements.
- “*The whole is greater than the sum of its parts*”.

4. **Psychoanalysis**

- Psychoanalysis was founded by the psychologist **Sigmund Freud**
- In contrast to wundt and James, for whom psychology was the study of conscious experience, **Freud believed that people are motivated largely by unconscious forces**
- behavior is determined by powerful inner forces, most of which are buried in the unconscious mind

- To probe the unconscious mind Freud developed
  - **Free association**
  - **Dream analysis**

  5. **Behaviorism**
- John Watson (1878 – 1958) revolutionized psychology by changing the subject – matter of psychology **from the study of conscious experience to the study of behaviour**.

- Watson believed that the study of psychology should be about observable behaviour.
- He contended at psychologists should never use the terms consciousness, mental states, introspection, imaginary the like
- The behaviorists also stressed the importance of **the environment** in shaping an individual's behavior.

Modern school of psychology

1. The psychodynamic school of psychology

It focuses on the unconscious dynamics within the individual such as inner forces, conflicts or instinctual energy.

This approach emphasizes:

- The influence of unconscious mental behavior on everyday behavior
- The role of childhood experiences in shaping adult personality
- The role of intrapersonal conflict in determining human behavior

2. The Behavioral Perspective- It emphasizes

The role of learning experiences in shaping the behavior of an organism.

- The environment affects the person‘s actions.
- Behaviorists focus on environmental conditions (e.g. rewards and punishments) that maintain or discourage specific behaviors.
- The behavioral perspective is sometimes called the *"black box" approach in psychology* because it treats the mind as less useful *in understanding human behavior* and focus *on what goes in to and out of the box*,

3. Humanistic Perspective-

- According to this perspective, human behavior is not determined either by unconscious dynamics or the environment.
- This perspective places greater importance on the **individual‘s free will**.
- The goal of this perspective is helping people to express themselves creatively and achieve their **full potential or self-actualization** (developing the human potential to its fullest).

4. Cognitive Perspective-

The focus of this perspective is on

- What goes on in people's heads;
- How people reason, remember, understand language, solve problems, explain experiences and form beliefs.
- The mental processes.
- The most important contribution of this perspective has been to show how people's thoughts and explanations affect their actions, feelings, and choices.

5.Biological Perspective-

It focuses on:-

- How bodily events or functioning of the body affects behavior, feelings and thoughts.

- It holds that the brain and the various brain chemicals affect psychological processes such as learning, performance, perception of reality, the experience of emotions, etc.

6. Socio-cultural Perspective-

- It focuses on the social and cultural factors that affects human behavior.
- As a fish cannot leave without water, human behavior cannot be understood without sociocultural context (the social and cultural environment) that people "Swim" in every day.

- For instance, social psychologists examine how group membership affects attitudes and behaviors, why authority and other people (like spouse, lovers, friends, bosses, parents, and strangers) affect each of us.

Branches/subfields of psychology

1.Developmental psychology: It studies the physical, cognitive and psychological changes across the life span.

2.Personality psychology: it focuses on the relatively enduring traits and characteristics of individuals(self concept, aggression, moral development etc.

3. Social psychology : deals with people‘s social interactions, relationships, social perception, and attitudes.

4. Cross-cultural psychology : examines the role of culture in understanding behavior, thought, and emotion.

5.Industrial psychology: applies psychological principles in industries and organizations to increase the productivity of that organization.

6. Forensic psychology : applies psychological principles to improve the legal system (police, testimony, etc..).

7. Educational psychology :concerned with the application of psychological principles and theories in improving the educational process including curriculum, teaching, and administration of academic programs.

8. Health psychology: applies psychological principles to the prevention and treatment of physical illness and diseases.

9. Clinical psychology: is a field that applies psychological principles to the prevention, diagnosis, and treatment of psychological disorders.

10. Counseling psychology: is a field having the same concern as clinical psychology but helps individuals with less severe problems than those treated by clinical psychologists.

Research methods in psychology

Definition of terms

1. Scientific method - a process of testing ideas through systematic observations, experimentations, and statistical analysis.

2.***Theory*** - is an integrated set of principles about observed facts that is intended to describe and explain some aspects of experience.

3. ***Hypotheses*** - is a tentative proposition about the relationship between two or more variables or phenomena. E.g. Males have high self - confidence in making decisions than females.

There are three major types of research methods:

1.Descriptive research method: it includes

Naturalistic observation: is a descriptive research method in which subjects are observed in their natural environment to get a real (not artificial)

Case studies : is a descriptive technique in which an individual is studied in great detail.

.Surveys: is a descriptive research method used to collect data from a very large group of people.

2.Correlational research is a research method that measures the relationship between two or more variables.

3.Experimental research methods: it is a research method that allows researchers to study the cause and effect relationship between variables.

Steps of scientific research

1. **Problem identification** which emphasizes clarification of the problem, definition of the problem,

2. Formulating the hypothesis (guesses of expectation) or research questions

3.State objectives tell why you are to do research

4. Review of related literature: critically summarize books, articles, thesis, journals, and magazines.

5. Select design/methods-includes identification of the population, selecting sample, indicating sampling procedures, and techniques, data collection instruments, and statistical tools to analyze the data.

6. Coding and analyzing data: after the data is collected it has to summarized, coded, and put in table, frequencies, and analyzed by using the statistical data analysis techniques.

7. Making interpretation or discussion: the obtained data should be interpreted in line with theories, literatures and objectives and research questions.

8. Conclusion and recommendation: based on the findings conclusion will be arrived about the hypothesis or research questions.

9. Reporting or communicating results: communicating the results to the advisor, communities, or other organizations.

- **Differentiate and understand the following variables**

a) Dependent variable

b) Independent variable

c) Control group

d) Experimental group

Chapter two:
sensation and perception

2.1.The meanings of sensation and perception

Sensation: there are receptor cells in the eyes, ears, nose, mouth, and surface of the skin sends nerve impulses to the brain from the stimuli.

- Sensations are closely tied to what is happening in the sensory systems themselves. Color, brightness, the pitch of tone or a bitter taste are examples of sensations.
- Sensation is therefore the process that detects the stimulus from one‘s body or from the environment.

- **Meaning of Perception**
- **It is a** process that organizes sensations into meaningful patterns.
- It is a process whereby the brain interprets sensations, giving them order and meaning.
- Hearing sounds and seeing colors is largely a sensory process, but forming a melody and detecting patterns and shapes is largely a perceptual process.

2.2.The sensory laws: Sensory thresholds and sensory adaption.

Q1. How much intense must a sound be for you to detect it?

Q2. How much changes in light intensity must occur for you to notice it?

- **Sensory threshold** is the *minimum point of intensity a sound* can be detected.

- **There are two laws of sensory threshold:**

  1. The law of absolute threshold and

  2.The law of difference threshold.

1. The law of absolute threshold it is

- The *minimum amount of stimulation* a person can detect is called the absolute threshold,
- **The detection of a stimulus depends on**

a. intensity(the strength or power of the stimulus) and the

b. Physical:-it refers to the external stimulus like distracts and function of the physiology like body organ function.

- It also includes the condition of the context-safety, peace, disturbance, insecurity, uncertainty, night time, day time and strange areas

- Example: people detection of stimulus is different at the night and day time. At night people highly detect stimuli and respond quickly and the reverse is true at the day time

C .Psychological state of the individual:- it is an internal state of a person like capacity, understanding, ability, confidence, self-doubt, judgment of a person, bias

2. The law of difference threshold it is *detecting changes in the intensity* of a stimulus in addition to detecting the presence of a stimulus.

- It is the minimum amount of change that can be detected

Adaptation

- Sensory adaptation: it is better detecting the potentially important change in your environment while ignoring unchanging aspects of it or forgetting the little purpose stimuli
- **Example**: your friend‘s room smells, it would serve little purpose to continue noticing those stimuli-especially when more important change might be taking place elsewhere in your surroundings.

- Of course, you will not adapt completely to extremely intense sensations, such as severe pain or freezing cold.

Perception it is a meaning making process.

The major characteristics of the perceptual process:

1. Selectivity of perception: the selection process of perception is Attention.

At any given time, our sense organ is bombarded by many stimuli.

- **Attention** is the perceptual process that selects certain inputs for inclusion in your conscious experience, or awareness, at any given time by ignoring others.

- Our field of experience towards perception selection divided in to what is known as **Focus** and —**Margin**

- Events or stimuli that we perceive **clearly and strongly are the focus of our** experience and other items or stimuli that we perceive dimly or vaguely or weakly are in the margin of our attention.

- To illustrate **focus and margin,** consider the following example of your perceptual field is a **football game.**

- you are dimly aware of the rubbish(poor quality or unimportant) of players and the activity of the blockers during the play,

- But it is the ball carrier and his movement that stands out clearly to you and your attention is mainly focused on him.

- But at the same time, sensory inputs are coming in from your cold feet, from your stomach as a result of the last uncomfortable food you ate, and from the fellows behind you who are smoking a cigar (a roll of tobacco leaves that is longer and thicker than a cigarette). The crowd is also shouting.

- While the play is going on, you are probable not aware of any of these sensory inputs.

- Only when the play is finished or time is called that you perceive how cold your feet are, and how noisy the crowd is.

- But after the game is over, you perceive how cold your feet are, and how noise the crowd, this illustrates another characteristics of attention, that it is **constantly shifting.**

- Attention shifts constantly which means what is in the focus of your attention one moment may be in margin; and what is in the margin may become in your focus.

- **Paying attention** is in general affected by two factors:

1. Factors external to the perceiver and
2. Factors internal to the perceiver.

1. **External factors:-they are** generally found in the objects or stimuli to be perceived.

➢ **Some of the external factors are:-**

- size and intensity,
- repetition,
- novelty (or newness),
- movement.

❖**size and intensity,**

- Bigger and brighter stimuli are more likely to capture your attention than smaller and dimmer objects.

- That is why announcements and notice are written in big and block letters.

- In the same way, people who dress bright colored clothes tend to capture your attention.

❖ **Repetition**

- 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.
- You are going to notice a person if he continuously follows you as compared to a person you meet only once or twice.

- That is why slogans, advertisings, and announcement are repeated continuously to audiences and spectators.
- In other word, repetition is **attention getting.**
- **Novel or new objects can**
- create and capture your attention.

E.g.

- why you are given a special attention as a guest,

- why first-born children get more attention from parents etc.

- **Movement** is the last external factor of the perceiver

- Moving objects tend to get your attention more than non-moving or stagnant objects.

2.The internal or the psychological factor:-

Psychologists have identified two important psychological factors:

1.expectancy it varies from person to person. E.g. consider the husband who is expecting an important phone call. He will hear the telephone ring in the night while his wife does not. The wife, on the other hand, may more likely to hear the baby crying than the telephone ringing.

2. motives or **needs.** There are differences between people in what they select to perceive as a result of differences in their motives and needs.

e.g. People who are hungry, thirst, or sexually aroused are likely to pay attention to events in the environment, which will satisfy these needs.

A 13 C D E F G

12 13 14 15 16 17 18

2.3.2.From perception:-To perceive forms (meaningful shapes or patterns), you need to distinguish a **figure** (an object) from its **ground** (or its surrounding).

- **Figure-Ground Perception**

Pictures (figure) hang on a wall (ground), words (figure) are seen on a page (ground), and melody (figure) stands out from the repetitive chords musical background (ground), the pictures, words, and the melody are perceived as the figure, while the wall, the page, and the chords are the ground.

- The ability to distinguish an object from its general background is basic to all form perception.

- **what are the strategies to separate the figure from the general ground in your visual perception?**

i. Organization in form Perception

- When several objects are present in the visual field, we tend to perceive them as organized into patterns or groupings.

- **there are laws of perceptual organization**
  - **proximity, or nearness**.
  - Perception is **similarity.**
  - principle of symmetry,
  - Continuity
  - the law of closure The law of closure refers to perceptual processes that organize the perceived world by filling in gaps in stimulation

CHAPTER Three
LEARNING AND THEORIES OF LEARNING

3.1. Definition, Characteristics and Principles of Learning

3.1.1. Definition of learning:-

The common definition of learning is:- it *is a relatively permanent change in behavior occurring as a result of experience or practice.*

Attributes of Learning

- In the above definition, we can see
- Learning is a change in behavior
- This change in behavior is relatively permanent
- It does not include change due to illness, fatigue, maturation and use of intoxicant.
- This permanent change in behavior is not because of biological factors (like hormonal changes) that bring permanent changes in behavior; but because of experience, or practice
- Learning is not directly observable but manifests in the activities of the individual.

3.1.2. Characteristics of learning

1. Learning is continuous modification of behavior throughout life

2. Learning is pervasive, it reaches into all aspects of human life.

3. Learning involves the whole person, socially, emotionally & intellectually.

4. Learning is often a change in the organization of experiences.

5. Learning is responsive to incentives

6. Learning is an active process

7. Learning is purposeful

8. Learning depends on maturation, motivation and practice.

9. Learning is multifaceted

3.1.3. Principles of learning

- principles are very important and helpful to explain how learning occurs effectively.
- **Some of the principles are**
  - Individuals learn best when they are physically, mentally, and emotionally ready to learn.
  - Students learn best and retain information longer when they have meaningful practice and exercise
  - Learning is strengthened when accompanied by a pleasant or satisfying feeling, and that learning is weakened when associated with an unpleasant feeling.

- Things learned first create a strong impression in the mind that is difficult to erase.
- 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.
- Individuals must have some abilities and skills that may help them to learn.
- Things freely learned are best learned - the greater the freedom enjoyed by individuals, the higher the intellectual and moral advancement.

3.2. Factors Influencing Learning

1. **Motivation:** The learner‘s motivation matters the effectiveness of learning. The stronger and clearer the motives for learning, the greater are the effort to learn.

2. Maturation: Neuro-muscular coordination is important for learning a given task. Example, The child has to be mature before she/he is able to learn.

3. Health condition of the learner: The learner should be in a good health status to learn. Example**-** Sensory defects, malnutrition, toxic conditions of the body, loss of sleep and fatigue hinder effective learning.

4. Psychological wellbeing of the learner: individual‘s psychological states like worries, fears, feelings of loneliness and inferiority hinders learning. Whereas self-respect, self-reliance, and self-confidence are necessary for effective learning.

5. Good working conditions – absence or presence of fresh air, light, comfortable surroundings, moderate temperature, absence of distractions like noise and learning aids determine learning effectiveness.

6. Background experiences: having background experiences affect effectiveness of learning.

7. Length of the working period: Learning periods should neither be too short nor too long. Long learning time sets fatigue and reduces effectiveness in learning. Short learning time doesn‘t allow adequate practice needed to master a learning task.

3.3. Theories of Learning and their Applications

❖**The common theories of learning are**

3.3.1. Behavioral Theory of Learning

3.3.2. Social Learning Theory (observational learning) theory and

3.3.3. Cognitive Learning Theory

➢.

3.3.1. Behavioral Theory of Learning classified into

3.3.1.1.classical conditioning

3.3.1.2. operant conditioning

3.3.1.1.classical conditioning

- **Classical conditioning focuses on**

➢ *Involuntary emotional* or *physiological responses to stimuli such as* 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** 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(Bell):** A stimulus that, before conditioning, does not naturally bring about the response of interest.

- **Unconditioned stimulus (UCS):** A stimulus that naturally brings about 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 unconditioned stimulus to bring about a response formerly caused only by the unconditioned stimulus.

- **Conditioned response (CR):** A response that, after conditioning, follows a previously neutral stimulus (e.g., salivation at the ringing of a bell)
- classical conditioning represents a process in which a neutral stimulus, by pairing with a natural stimulus,
- Sometimes it is called ***substitution learning*** because it involves substituting a neutral stimulus in place of natural stimulus.

Pavlov‘s experiment to explain the classical conditioning:-

Stage 1: before conditioning

stimulus	**response**
Neutral stimulus(bell) ----------	no response
Unconditioned Stimulus (UCS)-----	**(UCR)salivation**

Stage 2. During conditioning

Bell (NS) plus meat (UCS---------- **(UCR) salivation**

Stage3. After conditioning

CS----------conditioned response(salivation)

Principles of Classical Condition

1. **A. Stimulus generalization and stimulus discrimination**

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.

Example: a dog conditioned to salivate to a dinner bell (CS) might also salivate to a door bell, a telephone bell.

- ***Stimulus discrimination*** is the process of distinguishing two similar stimuli; the ability to differentiate between stimuli. Example, the dog salivates only in response to the dinner bell instead of the doorbell or the telephone bell.

B. Extinction and spontaneous recovery

- In Pavlov‘s procedure, if a CS is repeatedly presented without presenting the UCS (meat), the CR will diminish and eventually stop occurring. This process is called **extinction**.

- ***Spontaneous recovery*** is the reemergence of an extinguished conditioned response after a period of rest and with no further conditioning.

- For example, suppose you produce extinction of the CR of salivation by no longer presenting the dog with meat after ringing the dinner bell. If you rang the dinner bell a few days later, the dog would again respond by salivating.

3.3.1.2. Operant/Instrumental conditioning

- ***Operant conditioning*** is learning in which a voluntary response is strengthened or weakened, depending on its favorable or unfavorable consequences.

- When a response has been strengthened or weakened, we mean that it has been made more or less likely to recur regularly.

- An emphasis on environmental consequences is at the heart of *Operant Conditioning* (also called *Instrumental Conditioning*).

- 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 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 is active to perform deliberately to produce a desirable outcome.

- The term *operant* emphasizes this point: The organism *operates* on its environment to produce a desirable result.

There are three types of consequences: such as

a) **A neutral consequence**

b) **A reinforcement or**

c) **punishment.**

- **A neutral Consequence** that does not alter the response.
- **A reinforcement** *that strengthens the response or makes it more likely to recur.*

- A reinforcer is any event that increases the probability that the behavior that precedes it will be repeated.

- There are two basic types of reinforcers or reinforcing stimuli: *primary* and *secondary* reinforcers.

- **Primary reinforcers:** Food, water, light, stroking of the skin, and a comfortable air temperature are naturally reinforcing because they satisfy biological needs. They are, therefore, known as primary reinforcers. Primary reinforcers, in general, have the ability to strengthen a behavior without prior learning.

- **Secondary Reinforcers:** Behaviors can be controlled by 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.

- 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. **(both response and stimuli increases**
- **Example as response ↑ stimulus(desirable stimulus) ↑ study habit increases to get A**

- ***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.
- Example to avoid or escape from F(unpleasant or aversive stimuli, study very hard(response)
- Therefore, Response increases to decrease or remove or reject or avoid unpleasant stimuli (F grade).

- **Example of negative reinforcement**,

- 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. This can be an example of what is called *escape learning*.
- *Negative reinforcement classified as* ***escape*** *and* ***avoidance.***

- ***Schedules of reinforcement***

❖***It is divided into two***

1. **continuous reinforcement**:- learning is usually most rapid if the response is reinforced each time it occurs.
2. ***intermittent (partial)*** schedule of reinforcement, which involves reinforcing only some responses, not all of them.

➢There are four types of intermittent schedules.

1. **Fixed-ratio schedules:** A fixed ratio schedule of reinforcement occurs after a fixed number of responses.

2. Variable-Ratio Schedule: A variable ratio schedule of reinforcement occurs after some average number of responses,

- 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 a variable amount of time has passed since the previous reinforcer.

c) Punishment- is a stimulus that weakens the response or makes it less likely to recur. Punishers can be any aversive (unpleasant) stimuli that weaken responses or make them unlikely to recur.

Punishment classified into two:

1. **Positive punishment:-**Something unpleasant may occur following some undesirable behavior

2. Negative punishment:-something pleasant may be removed .

Factors affecting the 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, 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.

Shaping:-

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

- **Application of the theory of operant conditioning:**

1. Reinforce student behavior through variety of incentives such as prize, medal, smile, praise, affectionate patting(affectionate touching) on the back.
2. ***Conditioning and classroom behavior***: During a learning process, children can acquire unpleasant experiences. This unpleasantness becomes conditioned to the teacher, subject and the classroom and learners begin to dislike the subject and the teacher.

3. Managing Problem Behavior: Operant conditioning is a behavior therapy technique that shape students behavior. To do this, teachers should admit positive contingencies like praise, encouragement etc. for learning.

4. Dealing with anxieties through conditioning: Through conditioning, fear, anxieties, prejudices, attitudes, and perceptual meaning develops.

- **Examples of anxieties** that are acquired through conditioning are signals on the road, siren blown during wartime, child receiving painful injection from a doctor.
- Anxiety is a generalized fear response. To break the habits of fear, a teacher can use **desensitization techniques.** That is, a teacher can initially provide very weak form of conditioned stimulus. Gradually the strength of stimulus should be increased.

- ***5 Conditioning and Cognitive Processes***: Reinforcement is given in different form, for the progress of knowledge and in the feedback form. When response is correct, positive reinforcement is given.

3.3.2. Social Learning Theory (observational learning) theory

- According to **Albert Bandura**, major part of human learning consists of observational learning, which is learning by watching the behavior of another person, or *model*.
- .

- **There are three forms of reinforcement that can encourage observational learning**

1. the observer may reproduce the behaviors of the model and receive ***direct reinforcement*.**

2. ***vicarious reinforcement*** as well:-the observer may simply see others reinforced for a particular behavior and then increase his or her production of that behavior.

- ***Self-reinforcement*** (controlling your reinforcers).
- This sort of reinforcement is important for both students and teachers
- social cognitive theorists emphasize the knowledge that results when a person sees a model- behaving in certain ways and experiencing the consequences.

- Albert Bandura and his colleagues showed just how important observational learning is, especially **for children who are learning the rules of social behavior.**

- 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*:** the observer must be able to **remember** the behavior that has been observed. One way of increasing this is using the technique of **rehearsal.**

3. *Motor reproduction*: the third condition is the ability to **replicate or repeat the model** the behavior that the model has just demonstrated. This means that the observer has to be able to replicate the action,

4. *Motivation*: the final necessary ingredient for modeling to occur is *motivation*; learners must want *to* ***demonstrate*** what they have learned.

❖**The implication of Social learning theory for the classroom teacher.**

1. Students often *learn a great* deal simply by ***observing*** **other people.**

2. *Describing* the *consequences* of behavior can effectively increase the appropriate behaviors and decrease inappropriate ones.

This can involve discussing with learners about the rewards and consequences of various behaviors.

3. Modeling can *provide a faster*, more *efficient* means for teaching new behavior.

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*. This technique is especially important to break down traditional stereotypes.

6. Students must *believe* that they are *capable* of accomplishing school tasks. That is *self-efficacy* for students.

Teachers can promote such self-efficacy by having students receive confidence-building messages, watch others be successful, and experience success on their own.

7.Teachers should help students set ***realistic expectations*** for their academic accomplishments.

8. Self-regulation techniques provide an effective method for improving student behavior.

3.3.3. Cognitive Learning Theory

- **Contiguity** has been used to explain
- The association of a conditioned stimulus and unconditioned stimulus in classical conditioning

- The association of a behavior and its consequences in operant conditioning.

Cognitive learning 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.

In the 1940s, social scientists proposed that most human learning is acquired by observing other people in social context, rather than through standard conditioning procedures.

- **Latent Learning**

„Latent‘ means hidden and thus latent learning is learning that occurs but is not evident in behavior until later, when conditions for its appearance are favorable.

❖**Insight Learning**

- It is a cognitive process whereby we reorganize our perception of a problem.

- Sometimes, for example, people wake up from sleep with a solution to a problem that they had not been able to solve during the day.

- Human beings who solve a problem insightfully usually experience a good feeling called an 'aha' experience.

- Memory is the retention of information/what is learned earlier over time.
- Memory is the way in which we record the past for later use in the present.
- **Memory processes:-** are the mental activities that people perform to put information **into memory,** to **keep it there**, and to **make use of it later**. **This involves three basic steps**:

CHAPTER FOUR
MEMORY AND FORGETTING

4.1. Memory

- The relationship between person's life and memory and the relevance of memory for persons life

- Intelligence does not exist without memory.

4.1.1.meaning and process of memory

Memory processing involves three basic steps

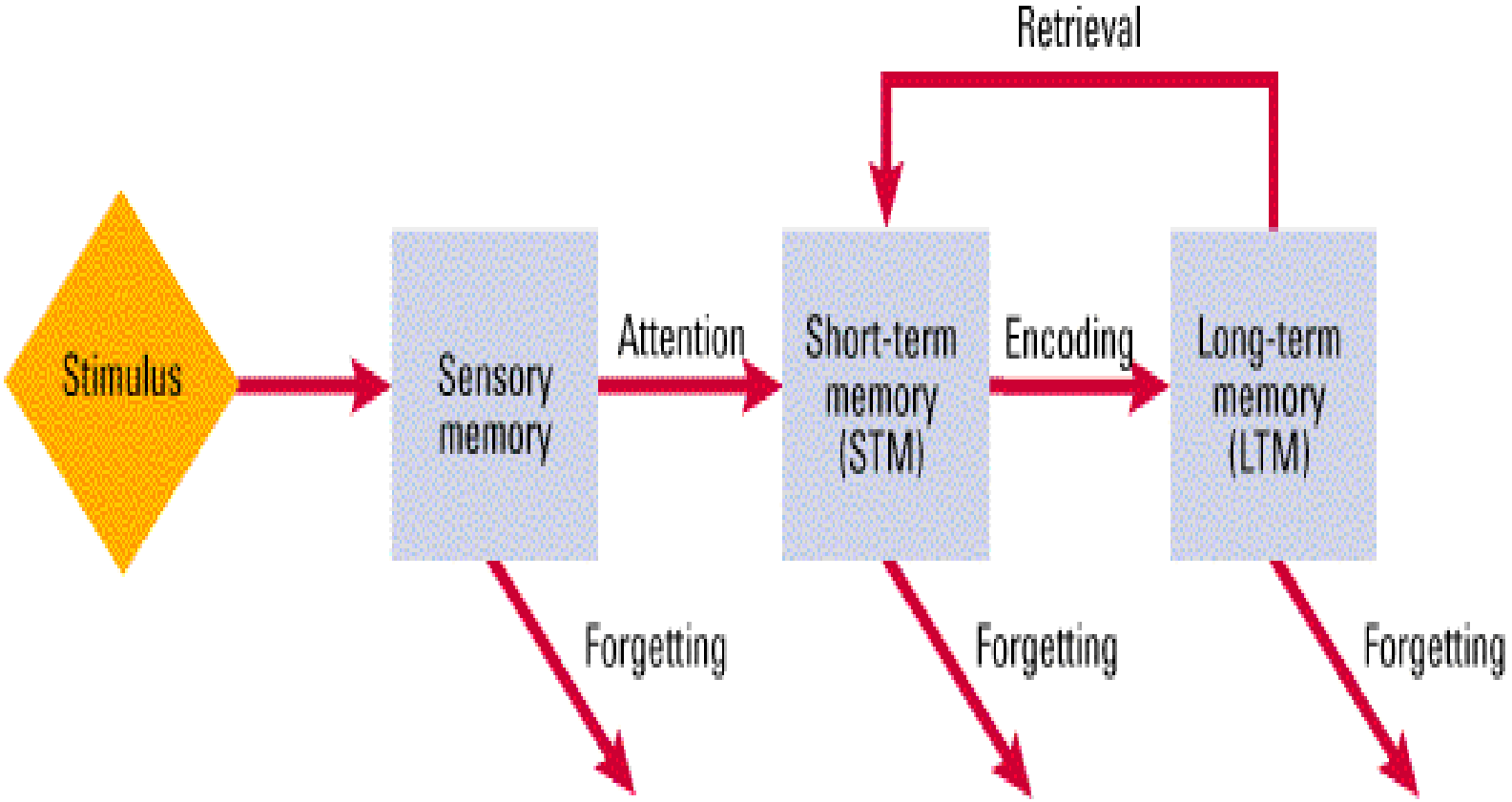
1. **Encoding:** in order to put information in to memory, the information must be changed into some forms or the code

- It is the process by which information is initially recorded in some form that can be usable to memory.
- In encoding we transform a sensory input into a form or a memory code that can be further processed.

2. Storage It is the location in memory system in which material is saved.

Storage is the persistence of information in memory.

3. Retrieval: In retrieval, material or information in memory storage is located, and bring the information into awareness and used.


Retrieval
Stimulus
Sensory memory
Attention
Short-term memory (STM)
Encoding
Long-term memory (LTM)
Forgetting
Forgetting
Forgetting

*Therefore, **Memory** is the process by which information is encoded (phase1), stored (phase 2) and later retrieved (phase 3).*

4.1.2 Stages/Structure of Memory

- Memory structure is the nature of memory storage itself- which shows that how **information is represented** in memory and **how long it lasts** and **how it is organized.**

- According to Atkinson and Shiffrin, memory has **three structures:**

1) **Sensory Memory/Sensory Register:** It is the entry way to memory.

- It is the first information storage area.

- All the information reaching our senses for a brief time.

❖Information in the sensory memory classified into

- visual images (Iconic memory) remain in the visual system for a maximum of one second.

- Auditory images (Echoic memory) remain in the auditory system for a slightly longer time, by most estimates up to two second or so.

- Most information briefly held in the sensory memory simply **decays** from the register.

- However, some of the information that has got **attention and recognition** pass on short-term memory for further processing.

2) Short-term Memory: Unlike sensory memories, short-term memories are not brief replicas of the environmental message.

- **STM** is important in a variety of tasks such as thinking, reading, speaking, and problem solving.
- It can be referred to **working memory, immediate memory, active memory, and primary memory.**

Four characteristics of STM

1.It is active- information remains in STM only so long as the person is consciously processing, examining, or manipulating it.

- People use STM as a —workspace to process new information and to call up relevant information from LTM.

2 Rapid accessibility - Information in STM is readily available for use.

3. Preserves the temporal sequence of information- STM usually helps us to maintain the information in sequential manner for a temporary period of time.

It keeps the information fresh until it goes to further analysis and stored in LTM in meaningful way.

4. Limited capacity- the estimated capacity of STM to be —the magic number seven plus or minus 2.

The number of items that short-term memory can handle is small.

In order to overcome this problem, chunking helps people it means grouping small groups of information into larger grouping or —packing of information into higher order units that can be remembered as single units.

- A chunk may be a word, a phrase, a sentence, or even a visual image, and it depends on previous experience.
- STM memory holds information like (sounds, visual images, words, and sentences and so on) received from SM for up to about 30 seconds.
- It is possible to prolong STM by rehearsal- the conscious repetition of information.
- Material in STM is easily displaced(forgotten) unless we do something to keep it there.

- **3. Long Term Memory**
- It is used for the relatively permanent storage of meaningful information.
- The capacity of LTM seems to have no practical limits.
- The vast amount of information stored in LTM enables us to learn, **a sense of identity and personal history.**
- **LTM** stores information for indefinite periods. It may last for days, months, years, or even a lifetime.

❖The LTM consists

1 Declarative/ explicit memory- the conscious recollection of information such as facts or events

- It is further subdivided into semantic and episodic memories.
- **Semantic memory-** factual knowledge like the meaning of words, concepts and our ability to do math.

- **Episodic memory-** memories for events and situations from personal experience. They are internal representations of personally experienced events.

2 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, how to eat.

- **5.1.3 Factors Affecting Memory**
- Memory as stated already, is a process which includes learning, retention and remembering.

The FF are Factors that Influence Memory Process

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

9 Speed of learning: Quicker learning leads to better retention,

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

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

5.2 Forgetting

5.2.1 Meaning and Concepts of Forgetting

From the store house of information, most of us forget the names of individuals, names of places and other information‘s.

- Sometimes we are motivated to forgot something and recall what we want to remember.

- Psychologists call this phenomenon as motivated forgetting
- Psychologists generally use the term *forgetting* to refer to the apparent loss of information already encoded and stored in the long-term memory.

- **5.2.2. Theories of Forgetting**
- Psychologists have proposed five mechanisms to account for forgetting:

1 decay,

2 replacement of old memories by new ones,

3 interference,

4 motivated forgetting, and

5 cue dependent forgetting.

- **5.2.2.1.The Decay Theory**
- The decay theory holds that memory can fade with time if they are not improved now and then.
- In decay, the trace simply fades away with nothing left behind, because of the passage of time.

- Decay can occurs both in sensory and in short term memory, unless we rehearse the material.
- However, the mere passage of time does not account so well for forgetting in long-term memory.
- People commonly forget things that happened only yesterday while remembering events from many years ago.

- **5.2.2.2. Interference**
- Interference theory holds that forgetting occurs because similar items of information interfere with one another in either storage or retrieval.
- The information may get into memory, becomes confused with other information.

- **interference** classified into

1. **Proactive interference** occurs when information learned earlier interferes with recall of newer material.

2. **Retroactive Interference.** When new information interferes with the ability to remember old information.

- **5.2.2.3. New Memory for Old/ Displacement Theory**
- This theory holds that new information entering memory can wipe out old information,

This theory is mostly associated with the **STM,** where the capacity for information is limited to seven plus or minus chunks.

It cannot be associated with the LTM because of its unlimited capacity.

- **5.2.2.4. Motivated Forgetting**
- Sigmund Freud maintained that people forget because they block from consciousness those memories that are too threatening or painful to live with, and **he called this self-protective process Repression.**
- Today many psychologists prefer to use a more general term, *motivated forgetting*.

- **5.2.2.5. Cue Dependent Forgetting**
- Often when we need to remember, we rely 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 type of all.

- **5.3. Improving Memory**
- **Strategies of improving memory are**

1. Pay Attention: It seems obvious, but often we fail to remember because we never encoded the information in the first place.

2 Encode information in more than one way: The more elaborate the encoding of information, the more memorable it will be

3 Add meaning: The more meaningful the material, the more likely it is to link up with information already in long-term memory.

4 Take your time: If possible, minimize interference by using study breaks for rest or recreation. Sleep is the ultimate way to reduce interference.

5 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.

***6* Monitor your learning:** By testing yourself frequently, rehearsing thoroughly, and reviewing periodically, you will have a better idea of how you are doing

CHAPTER FIVE: MOTIVATION AND EMOTIONS

5.1. Motivation

5.1.1. Definition and types of motivation

Motivation is a factor or a force that helps to start activities, directed and continued in order to meet both the physical and psychological needs or wants.

It is a Latin word means "Mover', which means to move. Motivation is what —moves people to do the things they do.

- **Motivation is a condition that arouses, maintains and channels behavior for the attainment of a goal.**
- It is also a factor that energizes behaviour.
- In addition to energizing the behaviour of an organism, motivation directs a behaviour towards a goal.
- **E.g**. when a person 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.

- Motivation commonly **classified in to**

1. primary and secondary motivation
2. extrinsic and intrinsic motivation

1. **The primary motives** are the **biological motives** that are based on physiological needs or tissue deficits within the body. It maintains balance (a steady state) among the various physiological components like internal organs, the blood, the hormones, etc.

They are regulated within the organism by **homeostasis**, which is the tendency of the body to maintain itself in a steady, stable condition with regard to the physiological processes.

e.g. fundamental needs of life, including the need for food, water, stable body temperature, and sleep.

- Is a sexual behaviour **homeostasis?**

- **Secondary/Social Motives:** These are motives that are learned in the social environment.
- they are also called social motives because they are learned in social groups usually involving other people.
- Some of the important social motives are social approval, affiliation, affection, respect, status, prestige, money, achievement, power, etc.
- The most studied social motives are ***the need for achievement, the need for affiliation and the need for power.***

B. Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation

These can also be considered as the sources of motivation. **Assume that** You may study medicine to get a good job and salary; the other may enjoy learning medicine for its own sake as reading the course by itself gives pleasure for him/her. **Why this difference?**

Such motivation can be described in two broad categories ***extrinsic and intrinsic motivation***.

- **Extrinsic motivation** refers to motivation to engage in an activity as a means to an end, whereas **intrinsic motivation** is motivation to engage in an activity for its own sake.
- **Extrinsic motivation** is the desire to perform a task to gain external rewards, such as others' approval, praise, grades or money.

- ***Intrinsic motivation* (The primary motives)**can be defined as motivation in which a person acts because the act itself is rewarding or satisfying in some internal manner.

- **E*xtrinsic motivation*** is a type of motivation in which individuals act because the action leads to an outcome that is external to a person.

- For example, giving a child money for every “A” on a report card, offering a bonus to an employee for increased performance.

- For example, you might join your department because you find it interesting (intrinsic motivation) or
- because it has better job opportunities and therefore, greater salary (extrinsic motivation).
- In contrast, intrinsic motivation is the desire to perform a task for its own sake or within a person.

- **Which can produce work of higher quality? The intrinsic or the extrinsic**?
- **Theories of motivation**
- There are different theories that explain sources of motivation: **some of these theories are:**

a. Instinct approaches to motivation

b. Drive-reduction approaches to motivation

c. Arousal approaches: beyond drive reduction

d) Incentive approaches: motivation pull

e) Cognitive Approaches: the thoughts behind motivation

f) Humanistic approaches to motivation

a. Instinct approaches to motivation

- According to this theory, motivation is the result of biological or genetic program and it is complex, inherited (unlearned) pattern of behaviour.
- It is a biologically determined characteristic of species.
- **Examples, sucking the breast of mother, and other reflexes (eye blinking, sneezing).**

- Animals are governed by their instincts to do things such as **migrating, nest building, mating and protecting their territory.**
- human beings may also be governed by instincts. Example the instinct to reproduce is **responsible for sexual behavior** and the instinct for territorial protection may be related to **aggressive behavior.**

- ❖psychologists realize that some human behavior is controlled by hereditary factors.
- ❖**Some instincts in humans are**
- Curiosity(the desire to learn or know more about sth),
- flight (running away),
- pugnacity (aggressiveness or readiness to fight or argue),
- acquisition (human desire or wish to possess achievement or attainment).
- submissive people possess the instinct of submission,

b) Drive-reduction approaches to motivation

- This approach involved the concepts of needs and drives.
- A *need* is a requirement of some material (such as food or water) that is essential for the survival of the organism.
- When an organism has a need, it leads to a **psychological tension as well as physical arousal** to fulfill the need and reduce the tension. This tension is called *drive*.

Example thirst drive motivates us drinking, and hunger drive motivates us for eating

- Drive-reduction theory connects the internal psychological states and outward behavior (action or activities).
- this theory consists **two kinds of drives**

1.Primary drives are those that involve survival needs of the body such as hunger and thirst

2. Secondary drives are acquired (secondary) drives are those that are learned through experience or conditioning, such as the need for money, social approval.

- Although the drive-reduction theory works well to explain the actions people take to reduce tension created by needs, it does not explain all human motivation.
- Why do people eat when they are not hungry? People do not always seek to reduce their inner arousal, either sometimes they seek to increase.

C. Arousal Theories: Beyond Drive – Reduction

- Arousal approaches seek to explain behaviour in which the goal is to maintain or increase excitement.
- According to this theory, the aim of motivation is to maintain an optimal level of arousal.
- Arousal theories states that there is a certain optimal or best level of arousal that is pleasurable.
- If arousal is less than the optimal level, we do something to stimulate it; if arousal exceeds the optimal level, we seek to reduce the stimulation.

d) Incentive approaches: motivation’s pull

- According to this theory, motivation stems from the desire to attain external rewards, known as incentives.
- The external rewards are whether grades, money, affection, food, or sex—account for a person‘s motivation.

e. **Cognitive Approaches: the thoughts behind motivation**

According to this theory, motivation is a result of people‘s thoughts, beliefs, expectations, and goals.

- **Example** . Students are motivated to study for a test is based on their expectation of how well studying will pay off in terms of a good grade.

- **Cognitive theory of motivation** includes bot the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

1.Intrinsic motivation causes us to participate in an activity for our enjoyment rather than for any actual or concrete reward .

2. ***Extrinsic motivation*** causes us to do something for money, a grade, or some other actual and concrete reward.

- **Example for intrinsic motivation:-** if a teacher provides tutorial support for students in her extra time because she loves teaching and if a student study a lot because he or she loves the subject matter

- **Example for extrinsic motivation:-** if a teacher provides tutorial support to make a lot of money, underlies her efforts and if a student cares about his or her grade to get in the course

f) Humanistic approaches to motivation

- Humanistic approach is based on the work of **Abraham Maslow.**
- **Maslow** was one of the early humanistic psychologists who rejected the dominant theories of psychoanalysis and behaviorism in favor of a more positive view of human behavior.

- Maslow suggested that human behavior is influenced by a hierarchy, or ranking, of five classes of needs, or motives.

- He said that 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:

1. Physiological needs- these are biological requirements for human survival, e.g. air, food, drink, shelter, clothing, warmth, sex, sleep.

2.Safety needs- protection from elements, security, order, law, stability, freedom from fear.

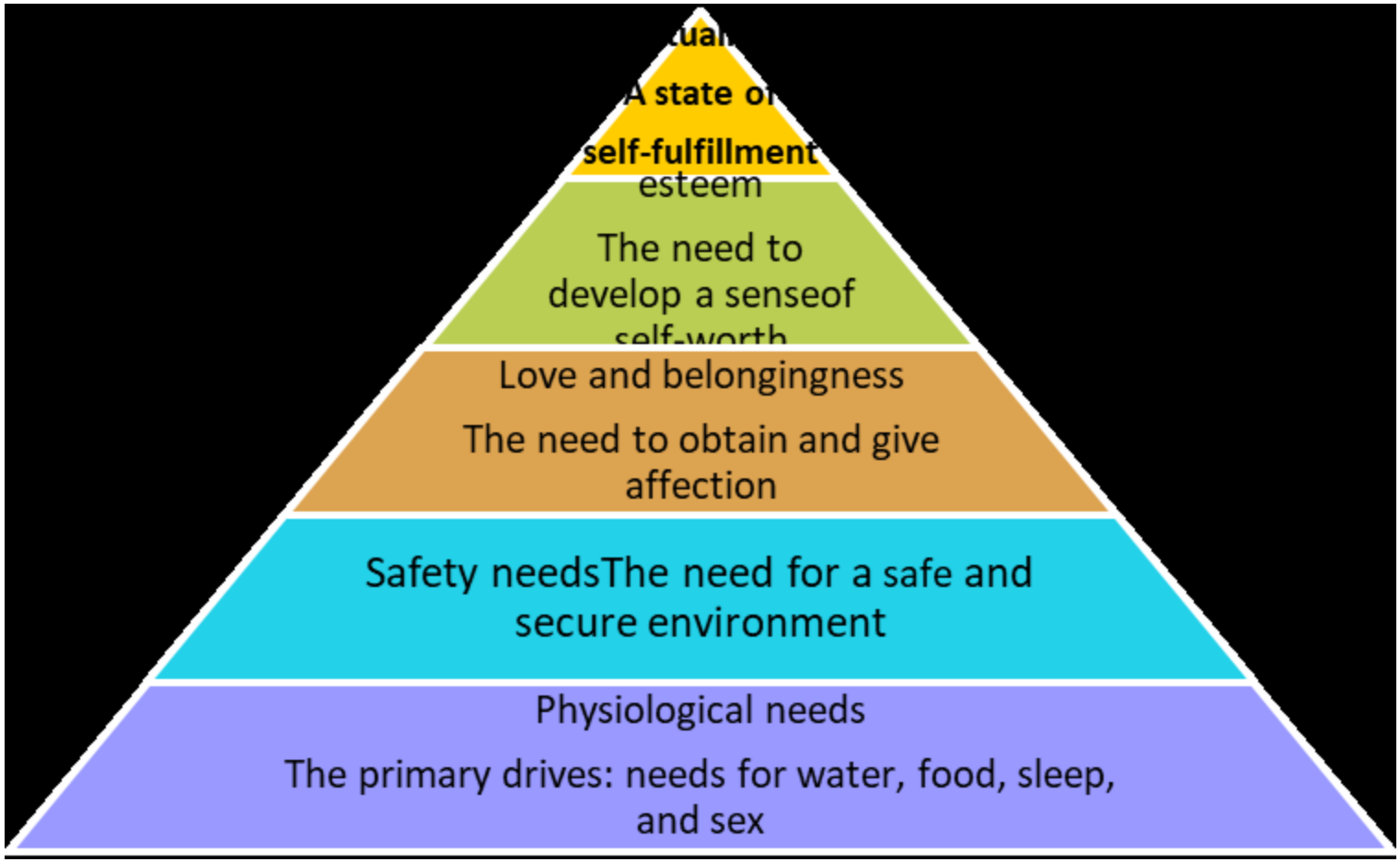
3. Love and belongingness needs*-** after physiological and safety needs have been fulfilled, human beings demand ***Love and belongingness needs **which include**: friendship, intimacy, trust, and acceptance, receiving and giving affection and love. Affiliating, being part of a group (family, friends, work).

4. Esteem needs- the need to be respected as a useful, honorable individual; it includes

(i) esteem for oneself (dignity, achievement, mastery, and independence) and

(ii) the desire for reputation or respect from others (e.g., status, prestige).

5.Self-actualization needs- realizing personal potential, self-fulfillment, seeking personal growth and peak experiences.


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

5.1.3. Conflict of motives and frustration

1.Approach-approach conflicts - exist when we must choose only one of the two desirable activities. Example, going to a movie or a concert.

2.Avoidance-avoidance conflicts - arise when we must select one of two undesirable alternatives. Someone forced either to sell the family home or to declare bankruptcy.

3. Approach-avoidance conflicts - happen when a particular event or activity has both attractive and unattractive features,

e.g. 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 conflicts - exist 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.

- **5.2. Emotions**
- **5.2.1. Definition of emotion**

Emotion can be defined as 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.

- **There are three elements of emotion:**

1. th*e physiology,*
2. *Behavior and*
3. *Subjective experience*.

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

2. The behavior of emotion- .

This type of emotion related with the

facial expressions,

body movements, and

actions that indicate to others how a person feels.

e.g. Frowns(glare look directly at someone in an angry way), smiles, and sad expressions combine with hand gestures, the turning of one‘s body, and spoken words to produce an understanding of emotion

People fight, run, kiss, and yell, along with countless other actions stemming from the emotions they feel.

Facial expressions can vary across different **cultures**, although some aspects of facial expression seem to be universal.

3. Subjective experience or labeling emotion is the third component of emotion and it involves interpreting the subjective feeling by giving it a label: anger, fear, disgust, happiness, sadness, shame, interest, surprise and so on.

Another way of labeling this component is to call it the —cognitive component, because the labeling process is a matter of retrieving memories of previous similar experiences, perceiving the context of the emotion, and coming up with a solution- a label.

- **5.2.2. Theories of emotion**

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

1. **James- Lang Theory of Emotion**

- This theory of emotion is based on the work of William James(the founder of the functionalist perspective in the early history of psychology) and a physiologist and psychologist in Denmark, **Carl Lang.**
- These two names are used together to refer to the theory –**the James- Lang theory of emotion.**

- In this theory, a stimulus of some sort produces a physiological reaction.
- This reaction, which is the arousal of the fight-or-flight sympathetic nervous system (wanting to run), produces bodily sensations such as increased heart rate, dry mouth, and rapid breathing.

- James and Lang believed that physical arousal led to the labeling of the emotion (fear).
- I am afraid because I am aroused,
- I am embarrassed because my face is red,
- I am nervous because my stomach is fluttering, and
- I am in love because of my heart rate increases when I look at her or him.

2. **Cannon-Bard theory 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.
- **E.g. I am afraid and running and aroused**!

3. Schechter-Singer and Cognitive Arousal Theory

- In their **cognitive arousal theory**, Schachter-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.

- For example, if a person comes across a snarling dog while taking a walk, the physical arousal (heart beat, 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.

- **CHAPTER SEVEN**

PSYCHOLOGICAL DISORDERS AND TREATMENT TECHNIQUES

Definition of psychological disorder

A psychological disorder is a condition characterized by abnormal thoughts, feelings, and behaviors.

- Generally three main criteria related with the psychological disorder. These are: have three main criteria:

1. Abnormality,
2. Maladaptiveness, and
3. Personal distress.

1. Abnormality:-

Q1. *Can you give an example of a behavior that deviates from the behavior of the "typical" person, the norm?*

Abnormality defined as When someone behaves in culturally unacceptable ways and the behaviors he/she exhibit violates the norm, standards, rules and regulations of the society, this person is most likely to have a psychological problem.

•

- **To define abnormality,** we must consider the context of the persons' abnormal behavior
- we need to consider the context in which a person‘s behavior happens. *The context in which abnormal behavior occurs must be considered before deciding that it is symptomatic of psychological disorders.*
-

2. Maladaptiveness

Q2. *Does a person's behavior seriously disrupt the social, academic, or life of an individual?*

Maladaptive behavior in one way or another creates a **social, personal and occupational problem** on those who exhibit the behaviors.

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

•

3. Personal Distress(trouble or unhappiness)

Q3. *Does a person's behavior cause personal distress including feelings of anxiety, depression, hopelessness and self-defeating thoughts?*

- Our subjective feelings of anxiety, stress, tension

and other unpleasant emotions determine the psychological disorder.

- These negative emotional states arise either by the problem itself or by events happen that on us.

- But, the criterion of personal distress, just like other criteria, is not sufficient for the presence of psychological disorder. This is because of some people like feeling distressed by their own behavior.

7.2. Causes of Psychological Disorders (Based on Perspectives)

7.2.1 The Biological Perspective:-Current researchers believe that abnormalities in the working of chemicals in the brain, called neurotransmitters, may contribute to many psychological disorders.

7.2.2 Psychological Perspectives

- In this part, we will examine **three psychological perspectives**:
  - The psychoanalytic perspective,
  - The learning, and
  - The cognitive behavioral perspectives.

A. The psychoanalytic perspective,

- *Abnormal behavior, in Freud‟s view, is caused by the ego‟s inability to manage the conflict between the opposing demands of the id and the superego.*
- ***Because Freud*** **believed that the human mind consists of three interacting forces:**

1. the **id** (a pool of biological urges),

2.the **ego** (which mediates between the id and reality),

3. the **superego** (which represent society‘s moral standards).

B. The Learning perspective

- Most mental and emotional disorders, in contrast to the psychoanalytic perspective, arise from **inadequate or inappropriate** learning.
- People acquire abnormal behaviors through the various kinds of learning.

C. The Cognitive perspective

- Whether we accept it or not, the quality of our **internal dialogue** either builds ourselves up or tear ourselves down and has profound effect on our mental health.
- The main theme of this perspective is that **self-defeating thoughts** lead to the development of negative emotions and self-destructive behaviors.

7.3. Types of Psychological Disorders

Psychopathology is the study of psychological disorders, including their symptoms, etiology (i.e., their causes), and treatment.

1. **Neurodevelopmental disorders** are those that are typically diagnosed during infancy, childhood, or adolescence. These psychological disorders include:

- **Intellectual disability** (or Intellectual Developmental Disorder)
- **Global developmental delay** it includes delays relate to cognition, social functioning, speech, language, and motor skills.

- **Communication disorders** are those that impact the ability to use, understand, or detect language and speech. communication disorders: language disorder, speech sound disorder, childhood onset fluency disorder (stuttering), and social (pragmatic) communication disorder.
- **Autism spectrum disorder** is characterized by persistent deficits in social interaction and communication in multiple life areas as well as restricted and repetitive patterns of behaviors.

2. Bipolar and Related Disorders

- Bipolar disorder is characterized by shifts in mood as well as changes in activity and energy levels. The disorder often involves experiencing shifts between elevated moods and periods of depression
- Bipolar can be referred to either as **mania** or **hypomania**

- **Mania is characterized by a distinct period of elevated, expansive, or irritable** mood accompanied by increased activity and energy. Periods of mania are sometimes marked by feelings of distraction, irritability, and excessive confidence.
- Depressive episodes are characterized by feelings of a depressed or sad mood along with a lack of interest in activities. It may also involve feelings of guilt, fatigue, and irritability.
- During a depressive period, people with bipolar disorder may lose interest in activities that they previously enjoyed, experience sleeping difficulties, and even have thoughts of suicide

- **Treatment:-** both manic and depressive episodes can be frightening for both the person experiencing these symptoms as well as family, friends and other loved ones who observe these behaviors and mood shifts.
- Appropriate and effective treatments include both medications and psychotherapy, can help people with bipolar disorder successfully manage their symptoms

3. Anxiety Disorders

- **Anxiety disorders:-** characterized by excessive and persistent fear, worry, anxiety and related behavioral disturbances.
- **Fear** involves an emotional response to a threat, whether that threat is real or perceived.
- **Anxiety involves** the anticipation that a future threat may arise.

❖**Types of anxiety disorders include:**

- **Generalized anxiety disorder** refers to excessive worry about everyday events. Even though some stress and worry are a normal and even common part of life.
- GAD involves worry that is so excessive that it interferes with a person's well-being and functioning

- **Agoraphobia** is characterized by a pronounced fear of public places. People who experience this disorder often fear that they will suffer a panic attack in a setting where escape might be difficult.
  .
- In some cases, this avoidance behavior can reach a point where the individual is unable to even leave their own home.

- **Social anxiety disorder** it is an irrational fear of being watched or judged by others. The anxiety caused by this disorder can have a major impact on an individual's life and make it difficult to function at school, work, and other social settings.
- **Specific phobias** it refers to an extreme fear of a specific object or situation in the environment.
- **Examples of specific phobias** include the fear of spiders, fear of heights, or fear of snakes.

There are four main types of specific phobias involve

1. Natural events (thunder, lightening, tornadoes),

2. **Medical** (medical procedures, dental procedures, medical equipment),

3. Animals (dogs, snakes, bugs(type of insect), and

4. Situational (small spaces, leaving home, driving).

- When confronted by a phobic object or situation, people may experience **nausea**, **trembling or vibrating**, rapid heart rate, and even a fear of dying.

- **Panic disorder** is characterized by panic attacks.

- People with panic disorder often experience anxiety and preoccupation over the possibility of having another panic attack.
  People may begin to avoid situations and settings where attacks have occurred in the past or where they might occur in the future.

- This can create significant impairments in many areas of everyday life and make it difficult to carry out normal routines.

- **Separation anxiety disorder** is a type of anxiety disorder involving an excessive amount of fear related to being separated from attachment figures.
- Symptoms involve an extreme fear of being away from the caregiver or attachment figure.
- The person suffering these symptoms may avoid moving away from home, going to school, or getting married in order to remain in close proximity to the attachment figure.

4. Dissociative Disorders:- are psychological disorders that involve a dissociation or interruption in aspects of consciousness, including identity and memory.

Dissociative disorders include

- **Dissociative amnesia** involves a temporary loss of memory as a result of dissociation.
- In many cases, this memory loss, which may last for just a brief period or for many years, is a result of some type of psychological trauma.

- **Dissociative identity disorder**, formerly known as **multiple personality disorder**(involves the presence of two or more different identities or personalities).
- People with this disorder experience changes in behavior, memory, perception, emotional response, and consciousness.

- **Depersonalization/de-realization disorder** is characterized by experiencing a sense of being outside of one's own body (depersonalization) and being disconnected from reality (derealization).

- People who have this disorder often feel a sense of unreality and an involuntary disconnect from their own memories, feelings, and consciousness.

5.Feeding and Eating Disorders

- **Types of eating disorders include:**

- Anorexia nervosa is characterized by restricted food consumption that leads to weight loss and a very low body weight.
- Those who experience this disorder also have a preoccupation and fear of gaining weight as well as a distorted view of their own appearance and behavior.

- **Pica** involves craving and consuming non-food substances such as dirt, paint, or soap.
- The disorder most commonly affects children and those with developmental disabilities.

6. Sleep - Wake Disorders it refers to an interruption in sleep patterns that lead to distress and affects daytime functioning.

- **Examples of sleep disorders:**
- **Insomnia disorder** involves being unable to get enough sleep to feel rested
- **Hypersomnolence disorder** is characterized by excessive sleepiness despite an adequate main sleep period. People with this condition may fall asleep during the day at inappropriate times such as at work and school.

- **Parasomnias** involve disorders that feature abnormal behaviors that take place during sleep. Such disorders include sleepwalking, sleep terrors, sleep talking, and sleep eating.
- **Restless legs syndrome** is a neurological condition that involves having uncomfortable sensations in the legs and an irresistible urge to move the legs in order to relieve the sensations. People with this condition may feel tugging, creeping, burning, and crawling sensations in their legs resulting in an excessive movement which then interferes with sleep

7. Impulse-Control and Conduct Disorders:- it refers to the inability to control emotions and behaviors, resulting in harm to oneself or others.

- These problems of lack of regulating the emotional and behavioral regulation related with violate the rights of others such as destroying property or physical aggression and/or those that conflict with societal norms, authority figures, and laws.

8. Schizophrenia(ski-sa-frenia)

- Schizophrenia is a chronic psychiatric condition that affects a person's thinking, feeling, and behavior.
- It is a complex, long-term condition that affects about one percent of people in the United States.

❖**One symptom must be one of the following**:

- Delusions: Beliefs that conflict with reality
- Hallucinations: Seeing or hearing things that aren't really there
- **Disorganized speech**: Words do not follow the rules of language and may be impossible to understand

9. Obsessive-Compulsive and Related Disorders

- Obsessions are defined as recurrent, persistent thoughts, impulses, and urges that lead to distress or anxiety.
- Compulsions are repetitive and excessive behaviors that the individual feels that they must perform. These actions are performed to reduce anxiety or to prevent some frightened outcomes from occurring.

10. Personality Disorders

- Personality disorders are characterized by an enduring pattern of maladaptive thoughts, feelings, and behaviors that can cause serious impairments to relationships and other life areas.

❖**Types of personality disorders include:**

- **Narcissistic personality disorder** is associated with a lasting pattern of exaggerated self-image, self-centeredness, and low empathy. People with this condition tend to be more interested in themselves than with others.
- **Obsessive-compulsive personality disorder** is a pervasive pattern of preoccupation with orderliness, perfectionism, inflexibility, and mental and interpersonal control.

- **Dependent personality disorder** involves a chronic pattern of fearing separation and an excessive need to be taken care of.

  People with this disorder will often engage in behaviors that are designed to produce care-giving actions in others.

- **Antisocial personality disorder** is characterized by a long-standing disregard for rules, social norms, and the rights of others. People with this disorder typically begin displaying symptoms during childhood, have difficulty feeling empathy for others, and lack remorse(sorrow) for their destructive behaviors.

- Dysthymic Disorder it refers to a mood disorder characterized by chronic mildly depressed or irritable mood often accompanied by other symptoms such as poor self esteem,. Sleeping disturbance, fatigue, and eating disorder ,
- Cyclothymic refers to a mood disorder characterized by alternating episodes of depression and elation in a form and less severe than that of bipolar.
- **Major Depression:-** also known as depression or 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.

CHAPTER EIGHT

- **INTRODUCTION TO LIFE SKILLS**
- At the end of this chapter, you will be able to:
- *Define life skills*
- *Describe features of life skills*
- *Identify components of life skill, and*
- *Give illustrative examples of life skills and analyze its features*

8.1. Nature and Definition of Life skills

- ***life skills are*** *"abilities for adaptive and positive behavior that enable individuals to deal effectively with the demands and challenges of everyday life." by World Health Organization definition*
- Life skills are abilities for adaptive and positive behavior, that enable individuals to deal effectively with the demands and challenges of everyday life.
- *It is also defined as "behavioral changes or behavioral development approach designed to address a balance of three areas: knowledge attitude and skills" (UNICEF"s definition).*

- The Life Skills is a comprehensive behavior change approach that concentrates on the development of the skills needed for life such as
  - communication,
  - decision–making,
  - thinking,
  - managing emotions,
  - assertiveness,
  - self–esteem building,
  - resisting peer pressure, and relationship skills.

- Life Skills are a set of basic skills that enable us to effectively manage the challenges and questions we face in our daily lives.
- They include confidence, assertiveness, decision-making, and the ability to stay safe and healthy.
- Schools are expected to play a key role in promoting and sustaining young people’s emotional and social health, including gain the confidence they need to develop into successful adults.

- Life Skills is a set of skills acquired through learning and/or direct life experience that are used to help individuals and groups effectively handle problems and questions commonly encountered in their daily life.
- In practice, many skills are used simultaneously. For example, decision-making involves critical thinking, e.g. “what are my options?» and
- an assessment of our values, e.g. «what is important to me?

- ❖life skills relating to:
  - ➢Respect for ourselves and others
  - ➢Communication
  - ➢Social skills
- ❖**Basic elements of life skills**

1. Knowledge and understanding including:-

- Of topics such as laws and rules,
- the democratic process, the media,
- human rights, diversity, money and the economy,

- sustainable development, and the world as a global
- community; and of concepts such as democracy, justice, equality, freedom, authority and the rule of law

2. Skills and aptitudes:

- Critical thinking,
- analyzing information,
- expressing opinions,
- taking part in discussions and debates,
- negotiating,
- dispute resolution
- participating in community actions

3.Values and attitudes:

- Respect for justice,
- democracy and the rule of law,
- openness,
- tolerance,
- courage to defend a point of view, and a willingness to listen to,
- work with and stand up for others.

A core set of life skills are

- Decision making
- Problem solving
- Creative thinking
- Critical thinking
- Effective communication
- Interpersonal relationship skills
- Self-awareness
- Empathy
- Coping with emotions
- Coping with stress

1. Decision making:- it helps us to deal constructively with decisions about our lives and consequences for health if young people actively make decisions about their actions.

- Assessing the different options, and what effects different decisions may have.

2. problem solving enables us to deal constructively with problems in our lives. Significant problems that are left unresolved can cause mental stress

3. Creative thinking contributes to both decision making and problem solving by enabling us to explore the available alternatives and various consequences of our actions

- creative thinking can help us to respond adaptively and with flexibility to the situations of our daily lives.

4. Critical thinking is an ability to analyze information and experiences in an objective manner.

- Critical thinking can contribute to health by helping us to recognize and assess the factors that influence attitudes and behavior, such as values, peer pressure, and the media.

5.Effective communication means that we are able to express ourselves, both verbally and non-verbally, in ways that ate appropriate to our cultures and situations.

- This means being able to express opinions and desires,
- And it may mean being able to ask for advice and help in a time of need.

6. Interpersonal relationship skills help us to relate in positive ways with the people we interact with.

- This means being able to make and keep friendly relationships, which can be of great importance to **our mental and social well-being**.
- It may mean keeping good relations with family members, which are an important source of social support.

7. Self-awareness includes our recognition of ourselves, of our character, of our strengths and weaknesses., desires and dislikes.

8. Empathy is the ability to imagine what life is like for another person,

Empathy can help us to understand and accept others who may be very different from ourselves, which can improve social interactions, for example, in situations of ethnic or cultural diversity.

- Empathy can also help to encourage nurturing behavior towards people in need of care and assistance, or tolerance, as is the case with AIDS sufferers, or people with mental disorders, who may be stigmatized

- **8. Coping with emotions** involves recognizing emotions in ourselves and others, being aware of how emotions influence behavior, and being able to respond to emotions appropriately.
- Intense emotions, like anger or sorrow can have negative effects on our health if we do not react appropriately.

9. Coping with stress is about recognizing the sources of stress in our lives, recognizing how this affects us, and acting in ways that help to control our levels of stress.

- **Chapter Nine**
- **INTRA-PERSONAL AND INTERPERSONAL .**
- **The focus of the chapter**
- self-concept,
- self-awareness,
- self-esteem, self-confidence,
- self-control,
- emotional intelligence,
- resilience and coping with stress,
- anger management,
- critical and creative thinking,
- problem solving and decision-making.

Meaning of the self

- The self is the collection of beliefs that we hold about ourselves.
- The self is our sense of personal identity and of who we are as individuals.

The self concept:- the thoughts that we hold about ourselves

- Some nonhuman animals, including chimpanzees, orangutans, and perhaps dolphins, have at least a primitive sense of self
- E.g. when the chimps woke up and looked in the mirror, they touched the dot on their faces, not the dot on the faces in the mirror.
- But most other animals, including dogs, cats, and monkeys, never realize that it is themselves they see in a mirror.

- The self-concept is knowledge representation that contains knowledge about us, including our beliefs about our personality traits, physical characteristics, abilities, values, goals, and roles, as well as the knowledge that we exist as individuals.
- The fundamental cognitive part of the self is known as the self-concept.

- I am a nice person
- I have good hair
- I am female or male(around age two)
- We become aware of our own mortality. At times, having a sense of self may seem unpleasant—when we are not proud of our appearance, actions, or relationships with others,

- Self concept about our physical characteristics

Such as I am short, I am attractive, I am golden, I am overweight these are evaluated by comparing with others

- the self-concept reflects our memberships in the social groups that we belong to and care about(e.g. “I am an artist,” “I am an Ethiopian,” “I am a student at AAU and “I am a journalist.

- The self-concept is normally made up of personality traits such as “I am friendly,” “I am shy,” “I am persistent”)
- The self-concept also includes thoughts about our relationships with others because, no doubt you have thoughts about your family and close friends that have become part of yourself.
- If you should lose them in one way or another, you will naturally feel sad because you are in essence missing part of yourself.

- Self-complexity is the extent to which individuals have many different and relatively independent ways of thinking about themselves.
- There are two types of self complexity the first is high self complexity and the second is low self complexity.
- Research has found that compared with people low in self-complexity, those higher in self-complexity experience more positive outcomes. People with more complex self-concepts have been found to have lower levels of stress and illness.

- **B. Self- awareness**
- Self-awareness is having a clear perception of your personality, including strengths, weaknesses, thoughts, beliefs, motivation, and emotions.
- I am sure that you can remember times when your self-awareness was increased and you became self-conscious—for instance, when you were given a class presentation and you were perhaps painfully aware that everyone was looking at you

- People lose their self-awareness and become more likely to violate social norms, so
- They put on a Halloween mask or engage in other behaviors that hide their identities.
- People are in large crowds, such as in a mass demonstration or a riot, they may become so much a part of the group that they lose their individual self-awareness and experience de-individuation the loss of self-awareness and individual accountability in group

- **3.Self-esteem**
- It refers to the positive (high self-esteem) or negative (low self-esteem) feelings that we have about ourselves.
- We experience the positive feelings of high self-esteem when we believe that we are good and worthy and that others view us positively.
- We experience the negative feelings of low self-esteem when we believe that we are inadequate and less worthy than others.
- Our self-esteem is determined by many factors, including how well we view our own performance, our own appearance, and how satisfied we are with our relationships with other people

- Esteem" is *an appraise*, *value*, *rate*, *evaluate*, *estimate*," and self-esteem is our cognitive and, above all, emotional appraisal of our own worth.
- Self-evaluation or self-esteem refers to the evaluative and affective aspects of the self-concept.

D Self-confidence

- The term *confidence* refers *to trust*." To be self-confident is to trust in oneself, and, in particular, in one‘s ability

e. Self-Control –self regulating

- It is said, “A person who controls oneself is better than the one who controls a city.” What does this mean? Do you agree with it?

f. Anger Management

Anger is a state of emotion where a person is irritated by block of interests, loss of possession or threats to personality. Everyone gets angry at times. When people are angry or annoyed, they may walk away or use a harsh tone of voice. Other times, they may yell, argue, or start a fight. If you learn to manage, or control your anger, you can redirect these surges of anger energy to reach your goal.

- *When anger is not controlled, conflict becomes worse.*
- **G. Emotional Intelligence and Managing Emotion**
- *Emotional intelligence describes the ability, capacity, skill, or self- perceived ability to identify, assess, and manage the emotions of one‟s self, of others, and of groups. People who possess a high degree of emotional intelligence know themselves very well and are also able to sense the emotions of others. They are affable, resilient, and optimistic.*
-

h. Stress, Coping with Stress and Resilience

Stress generally refers to two things: the psychological perception of pressure, on the one hand, and the body's response to it, on the other, which involves multiple systems from metabolism to muscles and memory.

prolonged or repeated arousal of the stress response, a characteristic of modern life, can have harmful physical and psychological consequences, including heart disease, diabetes, anxiety, and depression.

- Mainly, stress comes from three categories of stressors: 1.catastrophes, 2.significant life changes, and 3.daily hassles.

1. Catastrophes **-** Catastrophes are unpredictable, large scale events, such as war and natural disasters, that nearly everyone appraises as threatening.

2. Significant Life Changes - the death of a loved one, loss of a job, leaving home, marriage, divorce, etc.

3. Daily life events full of Everyday annoyances like rush hour traffic, aggravating housemates, long lines at the store, for taxi, to pay electricity fee, for sugar, too many things to do,

- **CHAPTER TEN**
- **ACADEMIC SKILLS**
- Academic skills are a collection of study habits, learning strategies, and time management tools that help students learn and absorb school lessons. For most students, learning is about much more than access to information. Teachers often include academic skills in their lessons in order for students to really master certain concepts. These skills not only benefit the students when it comes time to take tests, but can also help in the future: solid study skills are essential for college success, for instance, and learning to balance multiple demands at once is valuable to many different career paths.
- **Why are academic skills important?**
- Academic skills encourage students to become more efficient learners. They give students the confidence to participate fully in English-speaking courses and are invaluable outside of the classroom and after they graduate. These skills, which include critical thinking and note-taking,

- **examples of academic skills include time management, reading proficiency, oral communication, written communication, critical thinking, research abilities, analytical thinking and problem solving**

- In order to succeed in classroom learning, students must possess motivation, dedication, commitment to tasks, intercultural understanding, sensitivity when communicating, flexibility, test preparation strategies, the ability to prioritize and strategies to deal with procrastination and anxiety

- While class participation and daily assignments are important parts of academic learning, the bulk of a student's grade is generally assessed based on test performance. Academic skills are particularly important when it comes to studying for exams. Simply mastering the material is not usually enough: students must also demonstrate that they can synthesize information, draw their own conclusions, and apply lessons learned to new scenarios. All of this requires some sort of academic skill set.

- Mastering good habits in the classroom can also have profound effects on life after graduation. Much of what it takes to succeed in school is also required to succeed on the job. Time management, personal discipline, and the ability to complete multiple tasks simultaneously are all keys to good work ethic, and are the building blocks of most required job skills.