GENERAL PSYCHOLOGY (psyc1011)

By
Endirias, G. (MA)

ADDIS ABABA UNIVERSITY
SCHOOL OF PSYCHOLOGY

Course objectives

Up on the completion of this course, active learners will be able to:

- ✓ Describe basic psychological concepts
- ✓ Compare and contrast the major theoretical perspectives in psychology
- ✓ Compare and contrast different learning theories
- ✓ Summarize motivational and emotional processes
- ✓ Demonstrate social and interpersonal skills in everyday life
- ✓ Set an adaptive goal and plan for future
- ✓ Apply knowledge of psychology in their life
- ✓ Develop their life skills.

CHAPTER ONE
ESSENSE OF PSYCHOLOGY

Definition of psychology

- Derived from two Greek words '***psyche***'and '***logos***'
- Psyche refers to mind, soul or sprit while logos means study, knowledge or discourse.
- Psychology epistemologically refers to the study of the mind, soul, or sprit and it is often represented by the Greek letter **Ψ** (psi) which is read as ("sy").
- Psychologists define psychology differently based on their intentions, research findings, and background experiences

Nowadays, most of them agree on the following scientific definition of psychology.

- Psychology is the scientific study of human and animal behavior and the underlying mental process

- There are three aspects under the definition of **Ψ.**

I. Science: ψst do not study human bhr with common sense rather they follow scientific procedures and use empirical data to study behavior and mental processes.

II. Behavior: refers to all of our outward or overt actions and reactions (talking, facial expression..). There is also covert behavior considered as mental process.

III. Mental process : refer to all the internal, covert activities of our minds, such as thinking, feeling, remembering

Goals of psychology

I. Description: involves observing the behavior and noticing everything about it. Emphasizes on answering What is happening, where does it happen, to whom does it happen, and under what circumstances does it seem to happen.

II. Explanation: Why is it happening? It is about trying to find reasons for the observed behavior. This helps in the process of forming theories (general explanation of a set of observations or facts) of behavior

III. Prediction: Once we know what happens, and why it happens, we can begin to speculate what will happen in the future.

IV. Control: How can it be changed or modified?

Historical Background and Major Perspectives in Psychology

- Psychology broke away from philosophy and physiology and emerged as a separate discipline over 125 years ago.
- It began as a science of its own in 1879 in Leipzig, Germany, with the establishment of a psychology laboratory in the University of Leipzig by Wilhelm Wundt.
- He developed technique of objective introspection to scientifically examine mental experiences.
- With such newer orientation to the study of human subjective experiences that were previously under the field of philosophy alone, psychology then begun as an independent field of study and Wilhelm Wundt as its founder or "father of modern psychology.

Early schools/perspectives of psychology

- A school of thought is a system of thinking about a certain issue, say, for example, about human behavior or mind.
- Once psychology begun to use the scientific method, it then went through successive developments in which different schools of thought emerged at different times. **Structuralism**:

➢ Views psychology as a study of structure of mind. It is an expansion of Wundt‘s ideas by his student named Edward Titchener (1867-1927). He is the founder of structuralism.

➢ The goal of structuralists was to find out the **units or elements**, which make up the mind such as; **sensations, images, and feelings**. The best-known method used by them was introspection - looking inward into our consciousness.

- It is a procedure aimed at analyzing the mental experience into three basic mental elements: images, feelings, and sensations. It is a detailed description about **how people perceive things in the world.**

However, Analyzing mental structure alone was found to serve little purpose in helping humans deal with the environment. Hence, a new school of thought emerged to study this functional value of human mind '**Functionalism**'.

2. Functionalism:

- views psychology as a study of function of the mind.
- The founder of this school of thought is William James (1848-1910), First American psychologist.
- It focused on **what the mind does on the functions of mental activity** and **the role of behavior in allowing people to adapt to their environment.**
- Unlike Wundt and Titchener, James focused on how the mind allows people to function in the real world

- He developed many research methods other than introspection including questionnaires, mental tests and objective descriptions of behavior.

- Generally, according to functionalists, psychological processes are adaptive. They allow humans to survive and to adapt successfully to their surroundings.

However, examining human mind in terms of its structural elements and functions were, found to be simplistic to understand the complex human being.

It was believed that human mind is more than the sum of sensations as well as adaptive functions. Hence, a new school of thought was emerged to examine mind in a holistic manner '**Gestalt Psychology**'.

3. Gestalt psychology

- ✓ The leading proponents of the Gestalt view were the German psychologists Max Wertheimer, Kurt Kafka and Wolfgang Kohler I 20th century.
- ✓ Instead of considering separate parts that make up thinking, Gestalt psychologists concentrated on the 'whole'.
- ✓ Gestalt psychologists argued that the mind is not made up of combinations of elements. The German word "gestalt" refers to form, whole, configuration or pattern.
- ✓ According to them, the mind should be thought of as a result of the whole pattern of sensory activity and the relationships and organizations within their pattern.
- ✓ They acknowledge consciousness

'THE WHOLE IS GREATER THAN THE SUM OF ITS PARTS'

Mind is greater than sensation, image & feelings

To sum up, the above three school of thoughts try to examine the human mind; which is an internal, not visible, and hidden experience of human beings.

- Although it could be useful to understand this experience, it was believed that this subjective, private experience can‘t be observable, measurable, and hence can‘t be studied scientifically.
- Therefore, psychology needs to get rid of dealing with subjectivity in all its forms and rather focus on studying behavior
- This has led to the birth of a new paradigm of thought about psychology called ‘behaviorism’.

4. Behaviorism

- John B. Watson is the founder of behaviorism
- View psychology as a study of observable and measurable behaviors. Other proponents include E. Thorndike and F. Skinner.
- For Watson, psychology was the study of observable and measurable behavior and nothing more about hidden mental processes
- Consciousness cannot be the object of scientific study
- As to Watson, behaviorism had three other important characteristics in addition to its focus on behavior;

✓ **Conditioned response** as the elements or building blocks of behavior

✓ Learned rather than unlearned behaviors and

✓ Focus on animal behavior.

BEHAVIORS ARE LEARNED NOT INHERITED AND LEARNERS ARE PASSIVE AND REACTIVE

Generally, all the above discussed schools of thought were focusing on human mind and behavior as conscious experiences.

However, an opposition to this assertion came from a physician in Vienna who, realized that human functioning was basically explained by more powerful forces which were not accessible to our consciousness

Hence, this lead to the formulation of a new school of thought in psychology called Psychoanalysis.

5. Psychoanalysis

- The Viennese neurologist and psychologist Sigmund Freud (1856-1939) pioneered the psychoanalytic perspective
- Psychology studies about the components of the unconscious part of the human mind.

- As a physician, Sigmund Freud became convinced that some of the physical illnesses of his patients didn‘t have medical or bodily causes; but non-physical or emotional causes. He called it as ‘***hysteria***’ or conversion reaction.

- Conflicts and emotional traumas that had occurred in early childhood can be too threatening to be remembered consciously and therefore they become hidden or unconscious and then will remain to affect later behavior

- Conscious awareness is the tip of the mental iceberg beneath the visible tip lays the unconscious part of the mind.

- The unconscious contains hidden wishes, passions, guilty secrets, unspeakable yearnings, and conflict between desire and duty.

- Unconscious urges and thoughts make themselves known in dreams, slip of the tongue, apparent accidents and even jokes. He used clinical case studies (hypnosis and Dream analysis) as a method.

Modern schools of psychology

1. Psychodynamic

- It has its origins in Freud's theory of psychoanalysis

It emphasizes

- The unconscious dynamics within the individual such as inner forces, conflicts or instinctual energy.
- 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

Psychodynamists think of themselves as '*archaeologists of the mind'*

2. Behavioral perspective

- The forerunners of this view were J.B. Watson, Ivan Pavlov, Edward L. Thorndike and B.F. Skinner
- It emphasizes the role learning experiences play in shaping the behavior of an organism.
- Behaviorists focus on environmental conditions (e.g. rewards, and punishments)
- 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.
- Behaviorists are only interested in the effects of the environment (input) on behavior (output) but not in the process inside the box

3. Humanist approach

- Human behavior is not determined either by unconscious dynamics or the environment.
- Emphasizes the uniqueness of human beings and focuses on human values and subjective experiences.
- Assumes that people are naturally endowed(gifted) with the capacity to make decisions about their lives and to control their behavior
- This perspective places greater importance on the individual‘s free will.

4. Cognitive perspectives

- Emphasizes mental processes such as perception, memory, intelligence, language, problem solving, and others
- Concerned about 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.
- Techniques used to explore behavior from a cognitive perspective include electrical recording of brain activity, electrical stimulation and radioactive tracing of metabolic activity in the nervous system

5. Biological perspective

- It states that behavior has a biological basis.
- It holds that the brain and the various brain chemicals affect psychological processes such as learning, performance, perception of reality, and the experience of emotions.
- Biology affecting behavior and behavior in turn affecting biology.
- Genetic heritage can predispose us to behaving in a certain way.

6. Socio-cultural Perspective

✓ It focuses on the social and cultural factors that affects human behavior.

Branches/Sub Fields of Psychology

Developmental Ψ:studies the physical, cognitive and psychological changes across the life span.

Personality Ψ: Focuses on the relatively enduring traits and characteristics of individuals.

Social Ψ: Deals with people‘s social interactions, relationships, social perception, and attitudes.

Cross-cultural Ψ: Examines the role of culture in understanding behavior, thought, and emotion.

Industrial Ψ: Applies psychological principles in industries and organizations

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

Clinical Ψ: -is a field that applies psychological principles to the prevention, diagnosis, and treatment of psychological disorders

Research Methods in Psychology

- Research is any honest attempt to study a problem systematically or to add to man's knowledge of a problem. In psychology, researchers want to see only what is there, not what their biases might want them to see. Researchers do this by using the scientific method
- Scientific method: A process of testing ideas through systematic observations, experimentations, and statistical analysis.
- Theory - is an integrated set of principles about observed facts that is intended to describe and explain some aspects of experience.
- Hypotheses - is a tentative proposition about the relationship between two or more variables or phenomena

Major types of research method

Descriptive research

- ✓ The researcher simply records what she/he has systematically observed.

It includes

- *Naturalistic observation*: subjects are observed in their natural environment to get a real (not artificial) picture of how behavior occurs. Limitations : observer effect and observer bias.
- *Case study* : A technique in which an individual is studied in great detail. Adv (in-depth study), dis adv (lack of generalization)
- *Survey:* Used to collect data from a very large group of people. It is useful to get information on private (covert) behaviors and it addresses hundreds of people . Its disadvantage is that it needs a careful selection of a representative sample of the actual population.

Correlational research

- Is a research method that measures the relationship between two or more variables.
- A variable is anything that can change or vary i.e, scores on a test, the temperature in a room, gender, and so on.
- It tells the strength and direction of the relationship, however, it doesn‘t prove causation (which means it doesn‘t show the cause and effect relationship).

Experimental Research

- ✓ Studies cause effect relationship between variables
- ✓ It involve at least one independent variable and one dependent variable
- ✓ The independent variable is the manipulated, influential, experimental factor.
- ✓ The dependent variable is the factor (behavior) that is measured in an experiment. It can change as the independent variable is manipulated.

- ✓ Experiments also involve randomly assigned experimental groups and control groups.
- ✓ An experimental group is a group whose experience is manipulated.
- ✓ A control group is a comparison that is treated in every way like the experimental group except for the manipulated factor.

Steps of scientific research

In scientific research, there are at least five major steps to be followed.

1. Defining the problem
2. Formulating the Hypothesis (expected guess)
3. Testing the Hypothesis
4. Drawing Conclusion
5. Reporting Result

CHAPTER TWO
SENSATION AND PERCEPTION

- Sensation and perception are starting points for all of your other psychological processes.
- Without access to the environment through sensation and perception, you would be like a person in a coma devoid of any thoughts or feelings

Learning Outcomes

At the end of this chapter, you are expected to understand the:

- ✓ Meaning of sensation and perception
- ✓ Difference and similarities of sensation and perception
- ✓ Factors affecting sensation and perception
- ✓ Principles of sensation and perception,
- ✓ Reasons for sensory and perceptual differences amount individuals.

The meanings of sensation and perception

- **Sensation** is the process by which an organism's sense organs respond to a stimulus.
- It is the process whereby stimulation of receptor cells in the eyes, ears, nose, mouth, and surface of the skin sends nerve impulses to the brain.
- **Perception**: It is the process whereby the brain interprets sensations, giving them information, order, and meaning
- It is the process that organizes sensations into meaningful patterns
- Thus, hearing sounds and seeing colors is *largely* a sensory process, but forming a melody and detecting patterns and shapes is *largely* a perceptual process

The sensory laws

I. Sensory threshold: It is the minimum point of intensity a stimulus can be detected

➢ There are two laws of sensory threshold:

A. The absolute threshold

- It is the smallest intensity of a stimulus that must be present for it to be detected
- Psychologists operationally define it as the minimum level of stimulation that can be detected 50 percent of the time when a stimulus is presented over and over again.
- It can be affected by factors other than the intensity of the stimulus; physical and psychological state of the individual. One of the most important psychological factors is the *response bias*

B. The difference threshold

- The difference threshold is the amount of change needed for us to recognize that a change has occurred

- It is the amount of change needed for us to recognize that a change has occurred
- The minimum change in stimulation that can be detected 50 percent of the time by a given person. This difference in threshold is called the just noticeable difference (jnd).
- The amount of change in intensity of stimulation needed to produce a jnd is a constant fraction of the original stimulus. This became known as Weber‘s law.

II. Sensory Adaptation

- It is the tendency of receptor cells in the sense organs to respond less and less to a constant stimulus.
- Adaptation occurs as a result of prolonged exposure to stimuli, a change in the attitude and expectation of the individual.

Perception

Major characteristics of the perceptual process are selectivity of perception, form perception, depth perception, perceptual constancy, and perceptual illusion.

A. Selectivity of perception: Attention

- ✓ Attention is the perceptual process that selects certain inputs for inclusion in your conscious experience, or awareness, at any given time, ignoring others.
- ✓ The selectivity of perception implies, among other things, that our field of experience is divided into what is known as Focus and Margin.
- ✓ 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.

Factors that affect attention

1. External to perceiver

- Refers to factors that are generally found in the objects or stimuli to be perceived.

- Size and intensity: Bigger and brighter stimuli are more likely to capture your attention
- Repetition: you are more likely to attend to stimuli that repeatedly or frequently occur in your perceptual field.
- Novelty/Suddenness : sudden stimulus is likely to catch our attention more easily than one we have been expecting.
- Contrast: Contrasting stimulus will attract attention more easily than those, which are similar to each
- Movement: Moving objects tend to get your attention more than non-moving or stagnant objects.

2. Internal to perceiver

- Set or expectancy: Set refers to the idea that you may be ready and Primed for certain kinds of sensory input.
- Motives or needs

B. Form perception

✓ The meaningful shapes or patterns or ideas that are made perhaps out of meaningless and discrete or pieces and bites of sensations refer to form 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

Is the perception of objects and forms of everyday experience as standing out from a background.

- ✓ Pictures (figure) hang on a wall (ground)
- ✓ Words (figure) are seen on a page (ground)
- ✓ Melody (figure) stands out from the repetitive chords in the musical background (ground)

There can be a shift in you perception of figure and ground such that the figure may become the ground and vice versa

Contours in Form Perception

- ✓ Contours help to separate the figure from the general around in your visual perception

Organization of form perception

- When objects are present in the visual field, we tend to perceive them as organized into patterns or groupings.
- The Gestalt psychologists studied such organization
- They emphasized that organized perceptual experience has properties, which cannot be predicated from a simple analysis of the components.

"The whole is more than the sum of its parts."

Gestalt laws of perceptual organization

- ✓ Are principles that describe how we organize and construct pieces of information into meaningful wholes.
- ✓ They include: closure, proximity, similarity, and simplicity.

- Proximity: Items which are close together in space or time tend to be perceived as belonging together or forming an organized group.



- Similarity: Elements that are similar in appearance are grouped together
- Closure: We perceive things by grouping them as complete figure rather than open and breaks
- Simplicity: When we observe a pattern, we perceive it in the most common straightforward manner

C. Depth perception

- Is the ability to judge the distance of objects.
- Distance is determined by using two different cues: binocular and monocular.
- There are two kinds of binocular cues: retinal disparity and convergence. These two kinds of binocular cues require the interaction of both eyes.
- Retinal disparity is, the degree of difference between the image of an object that are focused on the two retinas. The closer the object, the greater is the retinal disparity.
- Convergence is the degree to which the eyes turn inward to focus on an object. the closer the objects are the greater the convergence of the eyes.

Monocular cues

- ✓ Accommodation: is the change in the shape of the lens that lets you focus the image of an object on the retina.

The greater the accommodation of the lens, the closer the object.

- ✓ Motion parallax: The tendency to perceive ourselves as passing objects faster when they are closer to us than when they are farther away.
- ✓ Pictorial cues:
  - ➢ An object that overlaps another object will appear closer, a cue called *interposition*.
  - ➢ Larger images are perceived as closer to us
  - ➢ Objects that are higher in your visual field seem to be farther away(objects elevation)
  - ➢ Areas that are in shadow tend to recede, while areas that are in light tend to stand out.

- ✓ Closer objects seem clearer than more distant ones. A distant mountain will look hazier than a near one.

D. Perceptual Constancies

Perceptual constancy refers to our ability to see things differently without having to reinterpret the object's properties.

- ❑ Shape constancy

- ❑ Brightness constancy

- ❑ Size constancy

BUT In fact, there are some exceptions to this in which perceptual illusions may occur, providing otherwise.

CHAPTER THREE
LEARNING AND THEORIES OF LEARNING

Learning outcomes

- Explain the general meaning, types, and factors of learning
- Identify the characteristics of learning
- Describe some of the theories designed to explain the characteristics of learning
- Differentiate the viewpoints of different theories of learning.
- Discuss the applications of theories of learning
- State techniques used to motivate and reinforce behavior

Definitions of learning

- It is a relatively permanent change in behavior occurring as a result of experience or practice.
- The above definition emphasizes four attributes of learning
  - ✓ Learning is a change in behavior
  - ✓ This change in behavior is relatively permanent
  - ✓ 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
- ✓ The learning is not directly observable but manifests in the activities of the individual.

Characteristics of learning

Yoakman and Simpson described the following ch/s of learning.

- It is continuous modification of behavior throughout life
- It is pervasive, it reaches into all aspects of human life.
- It is often a change in the organization of experiences.
- It is responsive to incentives
- It is an active process
- It depends on maturation, motivation and practice.

Principles of learning

- ✓ 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
- ✓ 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

Factors influencing learning

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

Theories of learning

What is theory??

- An idea or set of ideas that is intended to explain facts or events
- An idea that is suggested or presented as possibly true but that is not known or proven to be true
- The general principles or ideas that relate to a particular subject

- Learning theories provide the theoretical framework to understand how people learn.
- We want to know how people acquire new knowledge, develop skills, modify attitudes, and learn new behaviors.

Behaviorist theories

- One of the first developed and used theories in USA education system and continue to be universal.
- Some assumptions that have historically supported behavioral research are the follows (Ormrod, 2016)
  - Humans and animals learn in similar ways
  - Studying stimulus and response objectifies the learning process
  - Internal process, such as thoughts, motives, emotions, are un important in understanding learning because they are not observable
  - Later behaviorists stated that motivation and strength of S-R association were important
  - Learning is largely the result of environmental events that condition behavior

- Behavioral theories emphasize observable behaviors, seek laws to govern all organisms, and provide explanations which focus on consequences.
- Generally, behaviorists view learning as the product of the association between stimulus conditions **(S)** and the responses **(R).**
- It is sometimes referred as the **S-R** model of learning.
- The behaviorist, to modify people's attitudes and responses, recommends either
  - To alter the stimulus conditions in the environment or
  - To change what happens after a response occurs.

- However, behaviorists also differ among themselves with respect to their views about the role of reinforcement in learning.
- There are two major behavioral theories of learning
  1. Classical conditioning
  2. Operant conditioning

Classical conditioning

- The theory of classical conditioning aims to explain the way in which **reflex behavior** may become associated with **a new stimulus** that does not naturally activate that behavior.
- It 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.
- It emphasizes the importance of **stimulus conditions** and **the associations formed**

Basics of classical conditioning

Neutral stimulus(NS)

- ✓ 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)

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

Pavlov (1927), ***The process of classical conditioning model of learning*.**

Before conditioning

FOOD (UCS) **SALIVATION (UCR)**



BELL **NO RESPONSE**



During conditioning

BELL + FOOD (UCS) **SALIVATION (UCR)**



After conditioning

BELL (CS) **SALIVATION (CR)**



Conditioned learning:

The experiment "Litlle Albert"

1.

no conditioned response:
the baby did not show fear

neutral stimulus:
the white mouse



2.

unconditioned response:
the baby showed fear

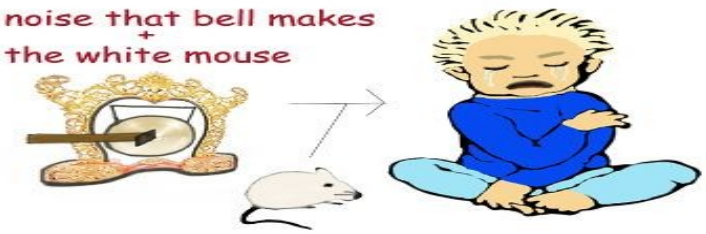
unconditioned stimulus:
the noise that bell makes



3.

response:
the baby showed fear

the noise that bell makes
+
the white mouse



4.

conditioned response:
the baby showed fear

conditioned stimulus:
the white mouse



https://happychildren.life

Principles of classical conditioning

The basic principles of classical conditioning include the role of;

Stimulus generalization

- ✓ In classical conditioning, generalization is defined as the process in which a stimulus similar to the original CS produces similar behavior identical to the CR

Stimulus discriminations

- The opposite process to generalization is discrimination.
- With more diverse experiences individuals learn to differentiate among similar stimuli.
- If two different tones were sounded but food was presented with only one of them, the dog would learn to salivate discriminately.

Extinction

- ✓ Conditioned responses are decreased if the presentation of the conditioned stimulus is not accompanied by the unconditioned stimulus over time.
- ✓ If a CS is repeatedly presented without presenting the UCS (meat), the CR will diminish and eventually stop occurring.

Spontaneous recovery.

- ✓ It occurs when a response reappears at any time (even years later) especially when stimulus conditions are similar to the initial learning experience.
- ✓ It is the reemergence of an extinguished conditioned response after a period of rest and with no further conditioning.
- ✓ In spontaneous recovery, however, the CR is weaker and extinguishes faster than it did originally.

Operant/Instrumental conditioning

- It is learning in which a voluntary response is strengthened or weakened, depending on its favorable or unfavorable consequences.
- It is a deliberate form of learning in which the organism actively attempts to change its environment to produce a desirable outcome.
- An emphasis ***on environmental consequences*** is at the heart of Operant Conditioning
- The term operant emphasizes this point: The organism operates on its environment to produce a desirable result.

- Besides, B.F Skinner, the very renowned proponent of operant conditioning, argued that to understand behavior we should focus on;
  - ✓ The external causes of an action and
  - ✓ The action‘s consequences.
- To explain behavior, he said, we should look outside the individual, not inside.
- In Skinner‘s analysis, a response (operant) can lead to three types of consequences: such as

  AA neutral consequence

  BA reinforcement

  CPunishment.

A. A neutral consequences: A consequences that does not alter the response

B. A reinforcement : that strengthens the response or makes it more likely to recur.

- ✓ A reinforcer is any event that increases the probability of the behavior that precedes it will be repeated.
- ✓ There are two basic types of rein forcers or reinforcing stimuli: primary and secondary reinforcers.

Primary reinforcers

- That satisfies some biological need. It is not based on past experience or learning.eg
- Food, water, light, stroking of the skin, and a comfortable air temperature are naturally reinforcing because they satisfy biological needs.

Secondary reinforcers

- ✓ Are the stimulus that becomes a reinforcer because of their association with a primary rein forcer.
- ✓ Money, praise, applause, good grades, awards, and gold stars are common secondary reinforcers.
- ✓ Behaviors can be controlled by secondary reinforcers.

Both primary and secondary reinforcers can be positive or negative.

1. **Positive reinforcement:** It is a stimulus when added to the environment brings about an increase to the preceding response.

✓ It is the process whereby presentation of a stimulus makes behavior more likely to occur again.

2. Negative reinforcement: It is the process whereby termination of an aversive stimulus makes behavior more likely to occur.

Negative rein forcers work in two forms;

A. **Escape conditioning**: the learner makes a response to bring about an end to an aversive situation.

Example. A college student takes a day to escape from a workload.

B. **Avoidance conditioning:** when the learner responds to a signal that marks the coming (onset) of unpleasant event with the aim of avoiding the evasion.

- **Example:**. The pretension of some people to look ill in order to escape from doing something that they do not want to do.

Schedules of reinforcements

- Skinner showed that the kind of schedules of reinforcement given would differentially affect the kind of learning, which occurred.
- The two main schedules are **continuous reinforcement** and **partial/ intermittent reinforcement**.
- Continues reinforcement: the response is reinforced each time it occurs.
- However, once a response has become reliable, it will be more resistant to extinction if it is rewarded on an intermittent (partial) schedule of reinforcement
- Intermittent reinforcement: involves reinforcing only some responses, not all of them

- The reasons for using partial reinforcement schedule are:
  - Reinforcing every correct response would be time consuming and practically impossible
  - Helps the organism not to expect reinforcement every time it demonstrates a given behavior
  - Strengthens the occurrence of a desired behavior by counteracting extinction.

There are four types of intermittent schedules

1. Fixed-ratio schedules:(Response/action based)

- ✓ Reinforcement occurs after a fixed number of responses.
- ✓ They produce high rate of responding.

2. Variable-Ratio Schedule:

- ✓ Reinforcement occurs after some average number of responses, but the number varies from reinforcement to reinforcement.
- ✓ A variable ratio schedule produces extremely high steady rates of responding.
- ✓ The responses are more resistant to extinction than when a fixed ratio schedule is used.

3. **Fixed Interval Schedule:(Time based schedules)**

- ✓ A fixed interval schedule of reinforcement occurs only if a fixed amount of time has passed since the previous rein forcer.

4. **Variable Interval Schedule:**

- ✓ A variable interval schedule of reinforcement occurs only if a variable amount of time has passed since the previous rein forcer.

Quiz 1.(10%)

Read the following sentences carefully and identify it as FI,VI,FR&VR

1. Giving a tip to a waiter sometimes after two fast services, other times after every fast services, etc……
2. Praising a student every time when he finishes his home work in the evening ……
3. Buying new clothes for a child every six months provided he obtains an average of 80% or more in school work……..
4. Giving bonus to workers sometimes every year, other times every two years , and so on provided they meet a specific target……

A basic principle of operant conditioning is that if you want a response to persist after it has been learned, you should reinforce it ***intermittently, not continuously***.

Shaping:

- ✓ It is the process of teaching behavior by rewarding closer and closer approximation of the desired behavior.
- ✓ In shaping, the behavior that is similar to the expected behavior is reinforced first.
- ✓ Therefore, we use reinforcement selectively to convert simple behaviors into more complex patterns of responding.
- ✓ The process is sometimes called ***successive approximation***.

Punishment

- ✓ It is a stimulus that weakens the response or makes it less likely to recur.
- ✓ Refers to unpleasant stimulus that decreases the probability of the occurrence of a preceding behavior.
- ✓ It often is the quickest way to change behavior.
- ✓ Like reinforcers, punishers can also be primary or secondary.

- ✓ Pain and extreme heat or cold are inherently punishing and are therefore known as **primary punishers.**
- ✓ Criticism, demerits, catcalls, scolding, fines, and bad grades are common **secondary punishers**.

The positive-negative distinction can also be applied to punishment.

- ❖ Something unpleasant may occur following some behavior (positive punishment).
- ❖ Something pleasant may be removed (negative punishment).

	Reinforcement	punishment
Positive		
Adding	Desirable	Unpleasant
e.g	getting gold star	getting spanking
Negative		
Removing	Unpleasant	Desirable
e.g	avoiding ticket	losing a privilege

- Immediacy, consistency and intensity matter are important for effectiveness of punishment.

However, when punishment fails:

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

Application of the theory of operant conditioning:

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

Social Learning Theory (observational learning) theory

- The founder of the theory was Albert Bandura.
- The theory claims that a major part of human learning takes place through observing the behavior of another person called a model.
- Because of its reliance on observation it is often referred as a *social* cognitive approach to learning
- Bandura identifies three forms of reinforcement that can encourage observational learning.
  - ✓ Direct reinforcement
  - ✓ Vicarious reinforcement
  - ✓ Self-reinforcement

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.
3. **Motor reproduction**
   - ✓ It is the ability to replicate the behavior that the model has just demonstrated.
4. **Motivation**
   - ✓ Learners must want to demonstrate what they have learned.

Educational Implications of Social Learning Theory

- Students often learn a great deal simply by observing other people.
- Modeling provides an alternative to shaping for teaching new behaviors.
- Teachers and parents must model appropriate behaviors and take care that they do not model inappropriate behaviors
- Teachers should expose students to a variety of other models.

Cognitive learning theory

- Both classical and operant conditionings have traditionally been explained by the principle of contiguity
- Contiguity has been used to explain;
  - ✓ The association of a conditioned stimulus and unconditioned stimulus in classical conditioning and
  - ✓ The association of a behavior and its consequences in operant conditioning.

- This theory agreed with behaviorists that human beings, along with the rat and the rabbit, are subject to the laws of operant and classical conditioning.
- But, they opposed that human beings, unlike the rat and the rabbit, are full of;
  - Attitudes
  - Beliefs and
  - Expectations

that affect the way they acquire information, make decisions, reason, and solve problems.

- These mental processes affect what individuals will do at any given moment

Cognitive learning may take two forms:

1. 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.

2. Insight learning (gestalt learning or perceptual learning)

- ✓ It doesn‘t depend on conditioning of particular behaviors for its occurrence.
- ✓ What has been learned in insight learning can also be applied easily to other similar situations.

Generally, cognitive learning theory suggests that;

- ✓ It is not enough to say that people make responses because there is an assumed link between a stimulus and a response due to a past history of reinforcement to the response.
- ✓ Instead according to this point of view, people and even animals develop an **expectation that they will receive a reinforcer to make a response**.

Thank you!!

CHAPTER FOUR

MEMORY AND FORGETTING

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

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

Memory

- It is the retention of information what is learned earlier over time.
- It is the ability to store and retrieve information over time
- It is the way in which we record the past for later use in the present.
- To learn about the nature of memory, it is useful to separate the process from the structure.

Process of memory

Memory processes are the mental activities we perform;

- To put information into memory
- To keep it there, and
- To make use of it later.

This involves three basic steps:

1. Encoding: is the process by which we place the things that we experience into memory.

✓ It is the process of converting information into something that can be meaningfully recalled and stored in the brain

✓ Unless information is encoded, it cannot be remembered.

- Not everything we experience can or should be encoded.
- We tend to encode things that we need to remember and not bother to encode things that are irrelevant.
- One way to improve our memory is to use better encoding strategies.
  - ✓ Research has found that we are better able to remember information if we encode it in a meaningful way.
  - ✓ When we engage in elaborative rehearsal or elaborative encoding, we process new information in ways that make it more relevant or meaningful

Elaborative rehearsal is a memory technique that involves thinking about the meaning of the term to be remembered, as opposed to simply repeating the word to yourself over and over.

- Ineffective encoding or encoding failure is an important cause of memory failure and forgetting in humans.

2. Storage: is the process of holding information in memory to be processed or used.

- ✓ To be remembered the encoded experience must leave some record in the nervous system (the memory trace)
- ✓ It is the location in memory system in which material is saved.
- ✓ It is the persistence of information in memory.

3. Retrieval: refers to the process of reactivating information that has been stored in memory.

- ✓ It is the point at which one tries to remember to dredge up a particular memory trace from among all the others we have stored.
- ✓ Memory would be useless without the ability to retrieve the memories that we have created.
- ✓ Failure to remember can result from problems during any of the three phases of the memory process

Generally, memory is the process by which information is encoded (phase1), stored (phase 2) and later retrieved (phase 3).

Stages/structure of Memory

- ✓ Memory structure is the nature of memory storage itself
- ✓ How information is represented in memory and how long it lasts and how it is organized.
- ✓ Although people usually refer to memory as a single faculty, the term memory actually covers a complex collection of abilities and processes.
- ✓ According to Atkinson and Shiffrin, memory has three structures:
  - ❖ Sensory memory/sensory register
  - ❖ Short term memory
  - ❖ Long term memory

Sensory memory

- It is a brief storage of information from each of the senses, in a relatively unprocessed form beyond the duration of a stimulus, for recoding into another memory
- It is the entry way to memory and it is not consciously controlled
- It holds impressions of that sensory information that was received by your senses after the original stimulus has stopped
- Sensory memory acts as a holding bin, retaining information until we can select items for attention from the stream of stimuli bombarding our senses.
- Unless it is attended to and passed on for more processing, the memory is quickly forgotten.

- The purpose of sensory memory is *to give the brain some time to process the incoming sensation*s, and *to allow us to see the world as an unbroken stream of events* rather than as individual pieces.
- Sensory memory includes a number of separate subsystems, as many as there are senses.
- It can hold virtually all the information reaching our senses for a brief time.
  - ✓ For example 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

Short term memory

- It is also known as working, active memory, immediate memory, and primary memory.
- It holds the information we are currently thinking about
- This information will quickly be forgotten unless you make conscious effort to retain it
- Like sensory memory(SM), short term memory(STM) holds information temporarily pending further processing.
- However, unlike SM which holds the completed image received by our senses, STM only stores our interpretation of the image.
- STM is important in a variety of tasks such as thinking, reading, speaking, and problem solving.

Distinguishing features of short-term memory

- It is active: information remains in STM only so long as the person is consciously processing, examining, or manipulating it.
- Rapid accessibility: Information in STM is readily available for use.
- 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.
- Limited capacity: George Miller (1956) estimated the capacity of STM to be “the magic number seven plus or minus 2”.

- ✓That is, on the average, people can hold about seven pieces of information in STM at a time; with a normal range from five to nine items.
- ✓According to most models of memory, we overcome this problem, by grouping small groups of information into larger units or chunks.
- ✓Chunking is the grouping or packing of information into higher order units that can be remembered as single units.
- ✓STM memory holds information (sounds, visual images, words, and sentences and so on) received from SM for up to about 30 seconds by most estimates.
- ✓It is possible to prolong STM indefinitely by rehearsal- the conscious repetition of information.

Long-term memory

- It is a memory storage that can hold information for days, months, and years.
- The capacity of long- term memory is large, and there is no known limit to what we can remember (Wang, Liu, & Wang, 2003).
- Although we may forget at least some information after we learn it, other things will stay with us forever.

The LTM is assumed to be composed of different sub systems:

Explicit (Declarative) Memory

- ✓ Refers to knowledge or experiences that can be consciously remembered.
- ✓ It is the conscious recollection of information such as specific facts or events that can be verbally communicated.
- ✓ It is further subdivided into semantic and episodic memories.

Semantic memory refers to our knowledge of facts and concepts about the world (e.g., that the absolute value of 90 is greater than the absolute value of 9)

- ✓ Factual knowledge like the meaning of words, concepts and our ability to do math.

Episodic memory refers to the firsthand experiences that we have had (e.g., recollections of our high school graduation day or of the fantastic dinner we had in New York last year).

- ✓ Memories for events and situations from personal experience.

Implicit memory/non-declarative memory

- Refers to a variety of phenomena of memory in which behavior is affected by prior experience without that experience being consciously recollected.
- It generally refers to knowledge that we cannot consciously access.
- However, implicit memory is nevertheless exceedingly important to us because it has a direct effect on our behavior.
- Implicit memory refers to the influence of experience on behavior, even if the individual is not aware of those influences.

There are three general types of implicit memory: procedural memory, classical conditioning effects, and priming

Procedural memory refers to our often unexplainable knowledge of how to do things.

- ✓ It allows us to perform complex tasks, even though we may not be able to explain to others how we do them.
- ✓ When we walk from one place to another, speak to another person in English, dial a cell phone, or play a video game, we are using procedural memory.

Classical conditioning effects

- In which we learn, often without effort or awareness, to associate neutral stimuli (such as a sound or a light) with another stimulus (such as food).

Priming

- Refers both to the activation of knowledge and to the influence of that activation on behavior

Long-term memory organizes information using categories, prototypes, and schemas(frameworks of knowledge in long term memory). This can both improve memory and lead to distortions.

Serial position effect

- Experiments show that when participants are presented with a list of words
  - ✓ They tend to remember the first few and last few words and are more likely to forget those in the middle of the list.
  - ✓ If you are shown a list of items and are then asked immediately to recall them, your retention of any particular item will depend on its position in the list
- The tendency to recall earlier words is called the primacy effect
- The tendency to recall the later words is called the recency effect.

Factors affecting memory

- ✓ **Ability to retain**: This depends upon good memory traces left in the brain by past experiences.
- ✓ **Good health**
- ✓ **Age of the learner**: Youngsters can remember better than the aged.
- ✓ **Maturity:** Very young children cannot retain and remember complex material.
- ✓ **Will to remember**
- ✓ **Intelligence**
- ✓ **Interest**
- ✓ **Over learning:** continuing to practice and study even when we think that we have mastered the material.
- ✓ **Speed of learning**: Quicker learning leads to better retention
- ✓ **Meaningfulness of the material**: Meaningful materials remain in our memory for longer period than for nonsense material

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

Forgetting

- It is the loss of information or the inability to access previously encoded information within memory
- Psychologists generally use the term forgetting to refer to the *apparent loss of information already encoded and stored in the long-term memory.*
- The first attempts to study forgetting were made by German psychologist Hermann Ebbinghaus (1885/1913). According to him
  - The most rapid forgetting occurs in the first hours, and particularly in the first hour.
  - After nine hours, the rate of forgetting slows and declines little, even after the passage of many days

Theories of Forgetting

1. The decay theory

- ✓ Explains that information in short term memory will fade quickly without rehearsal.
- ✓ Most research does not support the concept of decay as a reason for the loss of information in long term memory.
- ✓ The decay theory holds that memory traces or engram fade with time if they are not accessed now and then. A trace is some form of physical and/or chemical change in the nervous system.
- ✓ When new material is learned a memory trace or engram an actual physical change in the brain- occurs.
- ✓ It occurs in sensory memory and in short term memory as well, unless we rehearse the material.

- ✓ However, the mere passage of time does not account so well for forgetting in long-term memory.

2. Interference theory

According to interference theory;

- ➢ Our existing memories can influence our new learning.
- ➢ This may occur either in a backward way or a forward way.
- ➢ It holds that forgetting occurs because similar items of information interfere with one another in either storage or retrieval.
- ➢ The information may get into memory, but it becomes confused with other information.

There are two kinds of interference that influence forgetting: proactive and retroactive.

- **Proactive interference** occurs when earlier learning impairs our ability to encode information that we try to learn later. E.g
  - Have you ever written the previous year down when writing the date?
  - Many parents find themselves calling a younger child by an older child's name.
- **Retroactive interference** occurs when learning something new impairs our ability to retrieve information that was learned earlier. E.g
  - Someone may call their old boyfriend or girlfriend by a new partner's name

3. Displacement/new memory for old theory/

- **Displacement** seeks to explain forgetting in short term memory, and suggests it’s due to a lack of availability.
- Because of its limited capacity, suggested by Miller to be 7+/- 2 items(chunks), STM can only hold small amounts of information.
- When STM is 'full', new information displaces or 'pushes out’ old information and takes its place.
- The old information which is displaced is forgotten in STM.

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

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. Cue Dependent Forgetting

- Forgetting is the failure to recall a memory due to missing stimuli or cues that were present at the time the memory was encoded.
- For example, students would sometimes forget what they had studied before an exam. This occurs because of the examination room's environmental conditions are different to the room or place where learning occurred.
- In long-term memory, this type of memory failure may be the most common type of all.
- There are two different types of cues: state-dependent cues and context-dependent cues

State-Dependent Cues

- ✓ These are dependent on your state of mind and being at the time:
- ✓ If you were drugged, upset, anxious, happy, in love, or in any other state such as these when you processed a memory, you are more likely to be able to retrieve the memory if you are in the same state.

Context dependent cues

These are dependent on the environment and situation:

- ✓ If you were *cold*
- ✓ with a certain person
- ✓ Smelt a certain smell
- ✓ Heard a certain phrase,
- ✓ Experiencing a certain type of weather, or in any context like those when you processed the memory, you are more likely to be able to retrieve the memory if you are in the same context.

Memory impairment

- It is lack of a person's ability to consistently recollect information to the extent of impairing the daily activities of the person.
- when a person shows severe lapses of memory than is usual for his age, it is usually a sign of **memory Impairment.**

Causes of memory impairment

Acute or sudden memory loss is usually caused by:

- ✓ Brain trauma
- ✓ Stroke, or as a side effect of medications like statin drugs and chemotherapy,
- ✓ Brain infections,
- ✓ Brain surgery, or Electroconvulsive Therapy.

Most progressive memory impairments are permanent and may be caused by various underlying factors including:

- Long standing diseases like meningitis or epilepsy.
- Abuse of psychedelic drugs
- Certain forms of mental illnesses
- Certain types of brain tumors or cancers.
- As a symptom of diseases such as Alzheimer’s disease, Parkinson’s disease, and Huntington’s disease.
- Pregnancy can at times cause transient mild memory impairment.

Apart from the aforementioned conditions, aging is a major potential cause of memory impairment.

Improving memory

- ✓ Drugs may be available to help people with memory deficiencies to increase normal memory performance.
- ✓ For the time being, however, those of us who hope to improve our memories must rely on mental strategies.
- ✓ Some simple mnemonics can be useful, but complicated ones are often more bothersome than they are worth.
- ✓ A better approach is to follow some general guidelines;
  - ❖ Pay attention
  - ❖ Encode information in more than one way
  - ❖ Add meaning:
  - ❖ Take your time: if possible, minimize interference by using study breaks for rest or recreation. Sleep is the ultimate way to reduce interference.

- **Over learn:** Studying information even after you think you already know it- is one of the best ways to ensure that you‘ll remember it.
- **Monitor your learning:** By testing yourself frequently, rehearsing thoroughly, and reviewing periodically, you will have a better idea of how you are doing
- **Physical exercise**
- **Food** (Apples, Avocados, Bananas, Grapes, Dried Fruit, Onions, Eggs, Legumes, Nuts and Seeds, Whole Grains, Salmon, Green Tea etc.)

Chapter Five

Motivation and Emotion

Learning Outcomes

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

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

Definition and types of motivation

- The word motivation comes from the Latin word ‘Mover’ which means ‘to move’.
- Motivation is what ‘moves’ people to do the things they do.
- It is the factor that directs and energizes the behavior of humans and other organisms.
- According to Atiknson (1964) motivation as the arousal tendency to act to produce one or more effects.
- Baron (199) also defines the term motivation as an internal process that serves to activate, guide and maintain our behavior over time.

Types of motivation

Even if there are different types of motivation, it is possible to categorize them into two:

A. Intrinsic motivation.

- ✓ It is a type of motivation in which a person acts because the act itself is rewarding or satisfying in some internal manner.

B. Extrinsic motivation.

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

Approaches to motivation (theories of motivation)

1. **Instinct approaches to motivation** (W.Mc Dougall & others)

- ✓ Instincts are unlearned (inborn) forms of behavior which contribute to survival.
- ✓ According to the theory, instincts determine the direction in which the individual's energy is expended. E.g sucking the breast of the mother, eye blinking..
- ✓ Freudians go further and suggest that behaviors such as sexual activities and aggressiveness are also instincts
- ✓ Overall the importance of instincts in motivation is recognized, by forcing psychologists to realize that some human behavior is controlled by hereditary factors. however,
  - ❖ Instinct theories are incapable of explaining a variety of motives like the need for power
  - ❖ Moreover, there is no agreement even on the number of instincts

2. Drive-reduction approaches to motivation(C.Hull & others)

- ✓ 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.
- ✓ The theory proposes that when individuals lack or feel deficiency in something basic or important, they make an effort to satisfy their need
- ✓ Drives that are related to physiological needs (e,g. need for food, water, sleep, etc.) are regarded as primary and those that emerge as a result of experience (e.g. drive for recognition or dominance) are leveled secondary.

- ✓This theory also includes the concept of *homeostasis*, or the tendency of the body to maintain a steady-state.
- ✓ When there is a primary drive need, the body is in a state of imbalance.
- ✓This stimulates behavior that brings the body back into balance or homeostasis.
- ✓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.
- ✓It contributed in explaining primary drives than secondary drives because the latter are learned and difficult to describe in homeostatic terms .

3. Arousal theory/optimal Level Theories(D. Berlyne & others)

- There is a certain optimal, or best, level of arousal that is pleasurable.
- The individual is motivated to behave in such a way as to maintain the optimal level of arousal
- As with the drive-reduction model, this approach suggests that if the arousal become too high, we try to reduce them.
- But, in contrast to the drive-reduction perspective, it suggests that if levels of stimulation and activity are too low, we will try to increase them by seeking stimulation.

4. Incentive approaches: motivation's pull (P.Young & others)

- The theory proposes that *external sources of satisfaction or reward* impel us to act in one way or another.
- Focus on the ways in which people respond to *external incentives* such as money, grades in school, and recognition.
- This theory focuses on the power of the goal itself in motivating a person to the attainment of the desired behavior
- Thus, in contrast with the push of drive theory, incentive theories are "pull theories" of motivation: because of certain characteristics they have, the goal objects pull behavior towards them.

- An important part of many incentive theories is that individuals expect pleasure from the attainment of what are called positive incentives and from the avoidance of what are known as negative incentives.
- Many psychologists believe that the *internal drives proposed by drive-reduction theory* work in a cycle with the external incentives of incentive theory to push and pull behavior, respectively.
- Hence, at the same time that we seek to satisfy our underlying hunger needs (the push of drive-reduction theory), we are drawn to food that appears very appetizing (the pull of incentive theory).
- *Rather than contradicting each other, then, drives and incentives may work together in motivating behavior.*

5. Cognitive Approaches: the thoughts behind motivation

- ✓Motivation is a result of people‘s thoughts, beliefs, expectations, and goals. E.g
- ✓The degree to which we are motivated to study hard depends upon our expectations for good grades and the value we place on getting good grades.
- ✓If both expectations and value are high, we will be motivated to study hard; but if either one is low, our motivation to study will be relatively lower.
- ✓Cognitive theories of motivation draw a key difference between *intrinsic* and *extrinsic* motivation

- ✓ Intrinsic motivation causes us to participate in an activity for our enjoyment rather than for any actual or concrete reward that it will bring us.

- ✓ In contrast, extrinsic motivation causes us to do something for money, a grade, or some other actual, concrete reward.

6. Humanistic approaches to motivation

- Abraham 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.*
- He 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:

A. Physiological needs

- These are biological requirements for human survival, e.g. air, food, drink, shelter, clothing, warmth, sex, sleep.

B. Safety needs

- Protection from elements, security, order, law, stability, freedom from fear.

C. Love and belongingness needs

- After physiological and safety needs have been fulfilled, the third level of human needs is social and involves feelings of belongingness.
- Examples include friendship, intimacy, trust, and acceptance, receiving and giving affection and love.

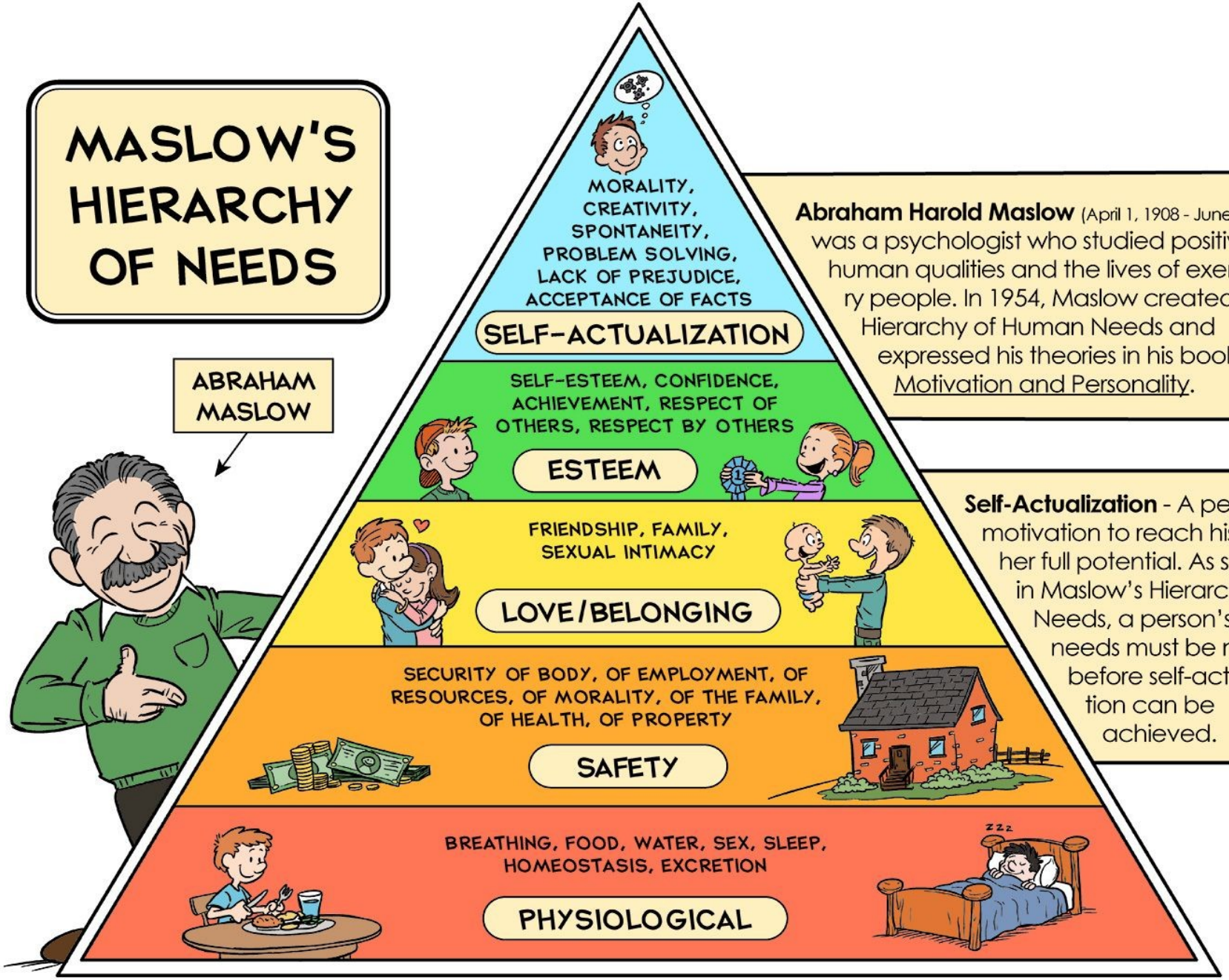
D. Esteem needs

- ✓ The need to be respected as a useful, honorable individual; which Maslow classified into two categories:
- ✓ Esteem for oneself (dignity, achievement, mastery, and independence) and
- ✓ The desire for reputation or respect from others (e.g., status, prestige).

E. Self-actualization needs

- ❖ Realizing personal potential, self-fulfillment, seeking personal growth and peak experiences.
- ❖ A desire "*to become everything one is capable of becoming*".

MASLOW'S HIERARCHY OF NEEDS



Abraham Harold Maslow (April 1, 1908 - June 8, 1970) was a psychologist who studied positive human qualities and the lives of exemplary people. In 1954, Maslow created the Hierarchy of Human Needs and expressed his theories in his book, Motivation and Personality.

Self-Actualization - A person's motivation to reach his or her full potential. As shown in Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, a person's basic needs must be met before self-actualization can be achieved.

www.timvandevall.com |Copyright © 2013 Dutch Renaissance Press LLC.

Theory	View
Biological Theories	
1. Instinct	Motivation results from behaviors that are unlearned, uniform in expression, and universal in a species.
2. Drive-Reduction	Motivation begins with a physiological need (a lack or deficiency) that elicits a drive toward behavior that will satisfy the original need.
3. Arousal	Organisms are motivated to achieve and maintain an optimal level of arousal.
Psychosocial Theories	
4. Incentive	Motivation results from environmental stimuli that "pull" the organism in certain directions.
5. Cognitive	Motivation is affected by attributions, or how we interpret or think about our own or others' actions.
Biopsychosoical Theory	
6. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs	Lower motives (such as physiological and safety needs) must be satisfied before advancing to higher needs (such as belonging and self-esteem).

Summary of theories of motivation

1. People do certain things because that is how human beings are predetermined to act by nature ----
2. People do certain things because by doing them they decrease their tension, discomfort or pain and regain favorable condition ----------
3. People do certain things because they enjoy excitement and action----------
4. People do certain things because they feel they will gain something by doing so----------
5. People do certain things as a result of their thoughts, beliefs, expectations, and goals----------
6. People do certain things according to series of hierarchy of needs……

Conflict of motives and frustration

There are four basic types of motivational conflicts.

- ✓ **Approach-approach conflicts -** exist when we must choose only one of the two desirable activities. Example, going to a movie or a concert.
- ✓ **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.
- ✓ **Approach-avoidance conflicts -** happen when a particular event or activity has both attractive and unattractive features
- ✓ **Multiple approach-avoidance conflicts -** exist when two or more alternatives each have both positive and negative features.

Emotions

- Emotion is feeling plus something
- 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.**
- Thus, from this short definition, we can understand that there are three elements of emotion:
  - ✓The physiology
  - ✓Behavior and
  - ✓Subjective experience.

Physiology of the 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 mouth may become dry

The behavior of Emotion

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

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

Subjective experience or labeling emotion

✓ It involves interpreting the subjective feeling by giving it a label: anger, fear, disgust, happiness, sadness, shame, interest, surprise and so on.

✓ The label a person applies to a subjective feeling is at least in part a learned response influenced by that person‘s language and culture.

There are a number of components of emotion that can be observed in certain situation.

1. The perception of the emotion-arousing stimuli (e.g an armed robber entering a bank)
2. Subjective feeling or experience of emotion (pleasant/unpleasant)
3. Involuntary physiological changes of the body's internal balance (arousal/ depression)
4. External bodily changes (facial/posture)
5. Cognitive factors; awareness of situation, previous experience, memory(seen people killed)
6. Voluntary behavioral consequences; response to the stimulus (do as the robbery says, because he has the gun)

All human beings experience emotions, and seven types of emotions are often recognized as universal

The are ;

- ✓ Happiness
- ✓ Surprise
- ✓ Sadness
- ✓ Fear
- ✓ Anger
- ✓ Contempt
- ✓ Disgust

However, the number of emotion is not limited to seven.

The functions of emotions

1.Preparing us for action

2.Shaping our future behavior

3.Shaping us to regulate social interaction

James- Lang Theory of Emotion

Based on:

- ✓ The work of William James, who was also the founder of the functionalist perspective. And
- ✓ A physiologist and psychologist in Denmark, Carl Lang (1885), came up with an explanation of emotion so similar to that of James.
- ✓ According to this theory, individuals show emotions such as fear and anger because they feel physiological changes/arousal in their bodies
- ✓ Argues that an event causes physiological arousal first and then we interpret this arousal.
- ✓ Only after our interpretation of the arousal can we experience emotion.

Simply put,

- ✓"I am afraid because I am shivering"
- ✓"I am embarrassed because my face is red"
- ✓"I am nervous because my stomach is fluttering"
- ✓"I am in love because of my heart rate increases when I look at her or him."

Stimulus → Physiological arousal → Emotion

However, it is in adequate in explaining the process of emotional experience for a number of reasons.

1. Emotions such as surprise, fear, sadness, joy show as soon as the emotion provoking situation appears.
2. Physiological changes such as respiration rate do not necessarily result in emotion such as anger or jealousy.
3. It is difficult to associate a unique type or pattern of physiological changes with a particular emotion.

Cannon-Bard theory of emotion

- This theory posits that physiological changes and mental awareness or realization of the emotions occur simultaneously.
- Cannon disagreed with the James-Lange theory of emotion on several different grounds.
- First, he suggested, people can experience physiological reactions linked to emotions without actually feeling those emotions

- For example, your heart might race because you have been exercising and not because you are afraid.
- Did not feel that the physical changes aroused by different emotions were distinct enough to allow them to be perceived as different emotions.
- Bard expanded on this idea by stating that the sensory information that comes into the brain is sent simultaneously (by the thalamus) to both the cortex and the organs of the sympathetic nervous system.

- The fear and the bodily reactions are, therefore, experienced at the same time-not one after the other. “I am afraid and running and aroused”

This theory has received credit for improving on the James- Lange theory since it rejects the one to one relationship between physiological changes and specific emotions. However, it has been criticized

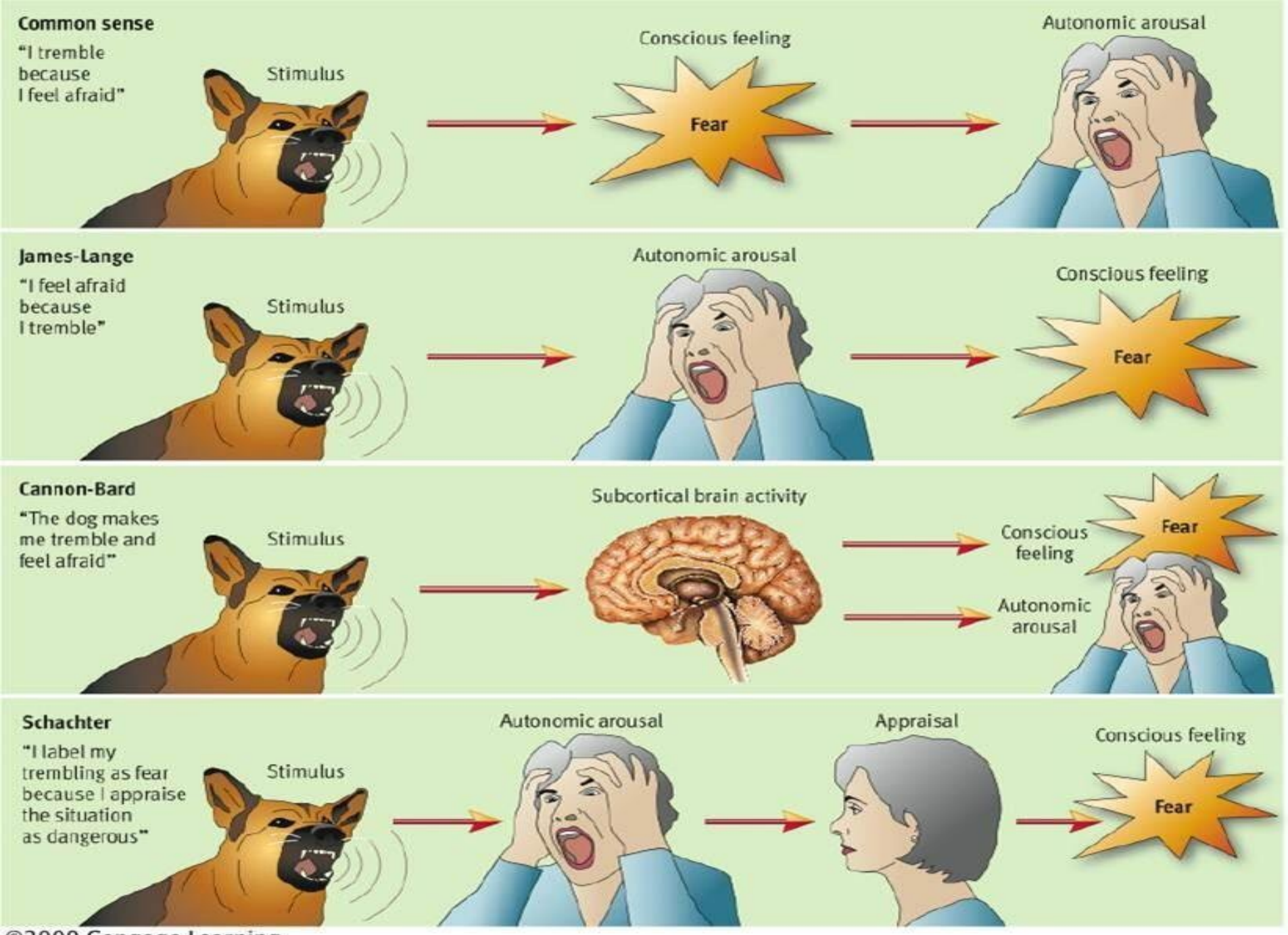
1. Research suggests that it is not the thalamus that regulates emotional experiences rather the hypothalamus.
2. The preposition that both physiological reactions and emotions are activated simultaneously has not been ascertained.

The Schachter-Singer theory

- Also known as the two-factor theory of emotion
- According to the Schachter-Singer theory, emotions are the result of both physiological and cognitive processes.
- 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.
- The theory proposes that while experiencing physiological changes or arousal, the individual checks around his environment to determine whether or not his observations of the environment bear out the arousal.
- Depending on the outcome of his assessment(cognition), the individual may feel one type of emotion.

- Like James-lange theory, it recognizes the importance of physiological changes/ arousal in emotional experience.
- Like canon bard theory, it recognizes the difficulty of associating a particular physiological change with a specific emotion.
  - For example, if you experience a racing heart and sweating palms during an important math exam, you will probably identify the emotion as anxiety.
  - If you experience the same physical responses on a date with your significant other, you might interpret those responses as love, affection, or arousal.

- The theory also highlights the importance of cognition in emotional experience. However,
- In trying to give meaning to physiological arousal, individuals seem to check not just their immediate environment but also their memory about past related experiences
- The theory seems helpful in explaining emotional experience mainly in unfamiliar situations where the arousal may be relatively unclear.



©2009 Cengage Learning

CHAPTER SIX

PERSONALITY

Learning Outcomes

After completion of this chapter, you will be able to:

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

what is personality?

- Derived from the word ‘persona‘, which has Greek and Latin roots and refers to the ***theatrical masks*** worn by Greek actors.
- Like other abstract terms, defining personality is difficult.
- It refers to an important and relatively stable aspects of behaviour.
- Aspects of personality may be observable or unobservable, and conscious or unconscious.

Gordon Allport defined it as the total quality of an individual's behavior as it is shown in his **habits of thinking**, in his attitudes, interests, his manner of acting and his personal philosophy of life.

- It is the totality of his being and includes his physical, mental, emotional and temperamental makeup and how it shows itself in behavior.
- These various components of personality do not stand apart from each other.
- They are interconnected and as a result of this integration gave rise to a characteristic behavior pattern or quality called personality.

- Personality has been defined in many different ways, but *psychologists generally view*:
- It as the unique pattern of enduring thoughts, feelings, and actions that characterize a person.
- Personality should not be confused with character, which refers to value judgments made about a person‘s morals or ethical behaviour
- It should not be confused with temperament, the enduring characteristics with which each person is born, such as irritability or adaptability. However, both character and temperament are vital ***personalities.***

Theories of personality

The psychoanalytic theory of personality

- It is general and best-known theory of personality.
- The greatest figure in psychoanalytic theory is Sigmund Freud (1856-1939).
- According to Freud, personality is formed within ourselves, arising from basic inborn needs, drives, and characteristics.
- He argued that people are in constant conflict between their biological urges (drives) and the need to tame them.
- This school emphasizes on childhood experiences as critically important in shaping adult personality.
- Concerned with powerful but largely unconscious motivations believed to exist in every human being.

Freud's assumption about the unconscious

- The unconscious is the major motivating force behind human behavior.
- The unconscious are processes which are totally unaware and which are incapable of becoming conscious unless special methods of psychoanalysis are used.
- The unconscious includes all forgotten past experiences our repressed wishes and desires, our fears and phobias for which we do not know the reasons.
- Much of what we say and do is either to find some socially acceptable way of expressing unconscious impulses or an effort to keep those impulses from being known by others.
- Even trivial words and actions often have deeper meanings in psychoanalysis.

The psychoanalytic theory includes a theory of personality structure.

- In Freud's view, personality has three parts which serves a different function and develops at different times: ***the id, the ego, and the superego***.
- According to Freud, the way these three parts of personality interact with one another determines the personality of an individual.
- They are not physical divisions of the brain; instead they are names given to psychological forces and hypothetical concepts created by Freud to explain his theory.
- The existence of these structures is inferred from the ways that people behave in their lives.

The ID: If It Feels Good, Do It

- The first and most primitive part of the personality in the infant is the *id*
- *The id is a completely unconscious amoral part of the personality that exists at birth*
- It is the storehouse of biological drives that arise from our needs for food, water, warmth, sexual gratification and avoidance of pain etc.
- When these drives are active, the person will feel an increase in not only physical tension but also in psychological tension that Freud called libido
- Libido - the instinctual energy that may come into conflict with the demands a society‘s standards for behaviour

- ✓When libidinal energy is high, it is unpleasant for the person, so the goal is to reduce libido by fulfilling the drive;
  - ❖Eat when hungry,
  - ❖Drink when thirsty, and
  - ❖Satisfy the sex when the need for pleasure is present
  - ❖ Freud called this need for satisfaction the pleasure principle
  - ❖The pleasure principle can be summed up simply as ***"if it feels good, do it."***

In the absence of external goal satisfaction, internal mental acts (Example: dream about accomplishment, achievement desire, daydream of attacking some one in order to gratify aggressive needs) are used to fulfill wishes.

The Ego

- It begins to develop soon after birth, but does not become apparent until the age of about six months.
- It serves as a mediator between the id impulse and reality.
- Unlike the id, the ego is conscious and is far more rational, logical and cunning than the id.
- It operates according to the reality principle.
- Satisfaction of biological needs is not given up; but reality is taken into account to satisfy these biological needs.
- The ego cannot totally reject the id impulse. Rather like a patient parent, it attempts to control, divert and protect the id.

- ✓ A simpler way of stating the reality principle is "if it feels good, do it, but only if you can get away with it."

Superego: The Moral Watchdog

- ➢ Freud called the third and final part of the personality, the moral canter of personality, the superego
- Like the id, the superego is not attentive to reality, nor does it differentiate between desires and actions.
- It constantly commands that sexual and other biological urges should be stopped and pleasure is postponed according to the ideals and morality of society.
- ➢ There are two parts to the superego: the ego ideal and the conscience.

- The ego-ideal is a kind of measuring device.
- It is the sum of all the ideal or correct and acceptable behaviour that the child has learned about from parents and others in the society.
- All behaviour is held up to this standard and judged by the conscience.
- The conscience is part of the personality that makes people pride when they do the right thing and guilt, or moral anxiety when they do the wrong thing.

Integration of the three personality structures

A six-year-old child Bereket spots his favorite candy in a supermarket.

- The id shouts - "I want it now! Take it!"
- The super ego - "Thou shall not steal.“
- The ego - "I could ask my father Girma to buy it for me, but he might say no."

- For Freud, our personality is the outcome of the continual battle for dominance among the id, the ego, and the superego.
- When the ego loses its energy to resolve the divergent demands of the id, anxiety is signaled.
- Anxiety is a feeling of apprehension or tension that hinders our daily functioning.
- Anxiety as an alarm signal tells ego that something must be done to resolve the conflict and to protect the personality from danger.
- The ego, therefore, uses **defense mechanism**, a mental strategy to block the harmful forces while at the same time reducing anxiety
- It protects the individual from overwhelming anxiety, punishment of the superego and other unpleasant experiences.

There are varieties of defense mechanisms

1. Repression

- ✓ Acts to keep information out of conscious awareness. However, these memories don't just disappear; they continue to influence our behaviour
- ✓ It is an unconscious mechanisms employed by the ego to keep disturbing or threatening thoughts from becoming conscious
- ✓ A person who has repressed memories of abuse suffered as a child may later have difficulty forming relationships.(effect of repression)
- ✓ Example 1: An Ethiopian husband who is defeated by his wife will not remember/ talk it out again.
- ✓ Example 2. resistance to talk about one's failure on a national examination.

2. Denial

- Is refusal to recognize or acknowledge a threatening situation. Example 1; Mr. Geremew is an alcoholic who denies/ doesn‘t accept being an alcoholic.
- When you use denial, you simply refuse to accept the truth or reality of a fact or experience.
- Example 2: A student may refuse to recognise their obvious lack of preparedness for an exam!

3. Regression

- ✓ Involves reverting to immature behaviours that have relieved anxiety in the past.
- ✓ Example: a girl/a boy who has just entered school may go back to sucking her/his thumb or wetting the bed.

4. Rationalization

- ✓ It is giving socially acceptable reasons for one's inappropriate behaviour.
- ✓ Involves a cognitive distortion of "the facts" to make an event or an impulse less threatening. We do it often enough on a fairly conscious level when we provide ourselves with excuses.
- ✓ Example 1: A student who make bad grades but states the reason as being knowledge rather than grade oriented; and grades only showing superficial learning
- ✓ Example 2: A person may explain a natural disaster as 'God's will'.

5. Displacement

Is the redirection of an impulse (usually aggression) onto a powerless substitute target.

- ✓ Example 1. Someone who is frustrated by his or her superiors may go home and kick the dog, beat up a family member and etc.
- ✓ Eg 2. Shouting at a congenial classmate when it is deemed risky to do the same to an irritating instructor

6. Projection

- ✓ The process in which an individual attributes unwanted thoughts, feelings and motives onto another person.
- ✓ Eg 1. A student who has cheated in an examination may satisfy her/his self by saying that others also have cheated.

7. Reaction formation:

- ✓ It is a defence mechanism that involves a tendency to act in a manner opposite to one's true feelings.
- ✓ A woman being excessively warm to her *t'awint*

8. Sublimation

- It is a form of substitution in which our unacceptable desires or activities are redirected into socially desirable channels.
- Example: an aggressive person who loves playing football.
- An unmarried woman interested in children may give expression to her repressed maternal need by engaging herself in orphanage work or in any child welfare institution

9. Identification

- It is an adjustment mechanism, which enables a person to achieve satisfaction from the success of other people, groups or organization.
- Example, A businessman who has not yet achieved success in business may identify himself with a well-known businessman.

10. Fantasy

- ✓ Imagining objects or events related to motives which are difficult to fulfil
- ✓ Example daydreaming about a luxurious home, a stupendous car, and a lot of money just lying around one's bedroom .

11. Compensation

- ➢ It is substituting another goal because of personal or other constraints which prevented the attainment of the initial one
- ➢ Example1. trying to excel in sports because a failure to succeed in academic subjects.
- ➢ (but be careful! Simply because a person goes in to sports does not necessary mean he is using it as a defence mechanisms

- Generally, our use of defence mechanisms is not considered as inappropriate or unhealthy unless we rely on them to an extreme level.
- Remember that all of us use defence mechanisms to manage our conflict and stress.
- But, excessive use may create more stress than it alleviates

Summary of the defence mechanisms

1. A man with powerful unconscious sexual desires for women claims that women use him as a sex object…….
2. A student who is angry at her professor for a low grade lashes out at her roommate who is a safer target of her anger…….
3. Explaining failure to do domestic assignment that was given by claiming that one needed to study every minute(while the real reason was that the offender was playing a game with his friens.)…….
4. Meron is sexually attracted to friend Leul, but she claims in public that she intensely dislikes him. ……..

5. A college student who is worried about an important test begins to suck on his finger. ……

6. A person who witnesses his parents having sex is later unable to remember anything about the event…….

7. A person participates in sports to sublimate aggressive drives……

8. Stressing the point that one grew up in the same village as some other famous person

The trait theory of personality

- A trait is defined as any relatively enduring way in which one individual differs from another (Guilford, 1959).

- Psychologists who take the trait approach see personality as a combination of stable internal characteristics that people display consistently over time and across situations.
- Main idea: classifying people according to general and consistent tendencies (innate or learned) that they show in their behaviour.

The trait approach to personality makes three main assumptions:

1. Personality traits are relatively stable, and therefore predictable, over time.
   - ✓ **Example-** a person who is shy at parties at age twenty is likely still to be shy at Party five, ten, even twenty years later.
2. Personality traits are relatively stable across situations, and they can explain why people act in predictable ways in many different situations.

•3. People differ in how much of a particular personality trait they possess; no two people are exactly alike on all traits, **but the differences are largely a matter of degree.**

- **Example-** Everyone can be classified as more or less sociable. But sociability can be seen as a continuum with two extremes.

Big Five Theory of personality

- ✓ According to this model, there are five fundamental underlying trait dimensions that are stable across time, cross-culturally shared, and explain a substantial proportion of behavior (Costa & McCrae, 1992; Goldberg, 1982).
- ✓ The five trait dimensions can be remembered by using the acronym OCEAN, in which each of the letters is the first letter of one of the five dimensions of personality.

Openness

- ✓ It refers to willingness to try new things and be open to new experiences.
- ✓ Individuals who are highly open to experience tend to have distinctive and unconventional decorations in their home
- ✓ They are also likely to have books on a wide variety of topics, a diverse music collection, and works of art on display
- ✓ It can be described in a general appreciation for art, emotion, adventure, unusual ideas, imagination, curiosity, and variety of experience

Conscientiousness

- Individuals who are conscientiousness have a preference for planned rather than spontaneous behavior.
- A tendency to show self- discipline, act dutifully, and aim for achievement

Sample items

- ✓ "I am always prepared"
- ✓ "I am exacting in my work"
- ✓ "I follow a schedule."

- They are achievement oriented, dependable, responsible, prudent, hardworking, self controlled- the opposite of impulsive.

Extraversion

- First used by Carl Jung, who believed that all people could be divided into two personality types: extraverts and introverts.
- Extraverts are outgoing and sociable, whereas introverts are more solitary and dislike being the center of attention.
- They enjoy being with people. In groups they like to talk, assert themselves, and draw attention to themselves.

Agreeableness

- A tendency to be compassionate and cooperative rather than suspicious and antagonistic toward others
- They value getting with others. They are generally considerate, friendly, generous, nurturing, helpful, and willing to compromise their interests with those of others

Sample items

- ✓ "I am interested in people"
- ✓ "I feel others' emotions"

Neuroticism

- ✓ Refers to emotional instability or stability. People who are excessively worried, overanxious and moody would score high on this dimension.
- ✓ Those who score high in neuroticism are more likely to interpret ordinary situations as threatening and minor frustrations as hopelessly difficult.
- ✓ They may have trouble thinking clearly, making decisions, and coping effectively with stress.

Sample Items

- ➢ "I am not usually relaxed";
- ➢ "I get upset easily";
- ➢ "I am easily disturbed."

Humanistic theory of personality

- The major proponent of humanistic theory is Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow
- The theory emphasized that people have natural tendency to grow to higher levels of functioning.
- Rogers suggested that people have a universal need to be loved and respected by others.
- It emphasize on people‘s inherent goodness and their tendency to move toward higher levels of functioning instead of seeing people as controlled by the unconscious, unseen forces (psychodynamic approaches), and a set of stable traits (trait approaches).

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

- Humanists such as Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow wanted psychology to focus on the things that make people uniquely human, such as subjective emotions and the freedom to choose one‘s destiny.

Carl Rogers and Self-Concept

- Like Maslow, Rogers believed that human beings are always striving to fulfil their innate capacities and capabilities and to become everything that their genetic potential will allow them to become.
- This striving for fulfilment is called **self-actualizing tendency.**
- An important tool in human self-actualization is the development of an image of oneself or the **self-concept.**
- The self-concept is based on what people are told by others and how the sense of self is reflected in the words and actions of important people in one‘s life, such as parents, siblings, co-workers, friends, and teachers.
- There are two important components of self concept.

Real and Ideal self

- Real self: it is one‘s actual perception of characteristics, traits, and abilities that form the basis of the striving for self-actualization
- Ideal self: It is the perception of what one should be or would like to be
- Rogers believed that when the real self and the ideal self are very close or similar to each other, people feel competent and capable, but
- When there is a mismatch between the real and ideal selves, anxiety and neurotic behaviour can be the result.

- When one has a realistic view of the real self, and the ideal self is attainable, there usually isn‘t a problem of a mismatch.

Conditional and Unconditional Positive Regard

✓ Rogers defined positive regard as warmth, affection, love, and respect that comes from the significant others (parents, admired adults, friends, and teachers) in people‘s experience.

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

Learning theories

- External sanctions regulate personality

Social cognitive theories

- Individuals actively organize and interpret their environment or experience, and their interpretation of situations and events influences their behaviour and personality

CHAPTER SEVEN

PSYCHOLOGICAL DISORDERS AND TREATMENT TECHNIQUES

Learning Outcomes

At the end of this unit, you are expected to:

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

Nature of Psychological disorders

- A psychological disorder is an on-going dysfunctional pattern of thought, emotion, and behaviour that causes significant distress, and that is considered deviant in that person's culture or society (Butcher, Mineka, & Hooley, 2007).

The criteria used for determining a person has a psychological problem /disorder

1. **Abnormality**
   - ✓ Abnormal behaviour is a behaviour that deviates from the behaviour of the 'typical' person, and the norm.
   - ✓ When someone behaves in culturally unacceptable ways and the behaviours he/she exhibit violates the norm, standards, rules and regulations of the society, this person is most likely to have a psychological problem.

- ✓ Only abnormal behaviour cannot be sufficient for the diagnosis of psychological problem.
- ✓ Hence, we need to consider the context in which a person‘s behaviour happens.

2. **Maladaptiveness**

- ➢ Maladaptive behaviour creates a social, personal and occupational problem on those who exhibit the behaviours.
- ➢ These behaviours seriously disrupt the day-to-day activities of individuals that can increase the problem more.

3. Personal Distress

- ✓ Our subjective feelings of anxiety, stress, tension and other unpleasant emotions determine whether we have a psychological disorder.
- ✓ These negative emotional states arise either by the problem itself or by events happen 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 behaviour.
- ✓ Hence, behaviour that is abnormal, maladaptive, or personally distressing might indicate that a person has a psychological disorder.

Causes of Psychological Disorders (Based on Perspectives)

1. The Biological perspective

- ✓ Abnormalities in the working of chemicals in the brain, called neurotransmitters, may contribute to many psychological disorders.
- ✓ **Brain defects or injury**: Defects in or injury to certain areas of the brain have also been linked to some mental illnesses.
- ✓ **Infections**: Certain infections have been linked to brain damage and the development of mental illness or the worsening of its symptoms.
- ✓ **Substance abuse**: Long-term substance abuse, in particular, has been linked to anxiety, depression, and paranoia.

2. The psychological perspectives

Three psychological perspectives: the psychoanalytic perspective, the learning, and the cognitive perspectives.

A. Psychoanalytic perspective

- ✓ Sigmund Freud, believed that the human mind consists of three interacting forces: **the id** (a pool of biological urges), **the ego** (which mediates between the id and reality), and **the superego** (which represent society‘s moral standards)
- ✓ Abnormal behaviour, 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**.
- ✓ Especially important is the individuals‘ failure to manage the conflicting of id’s sexual impulses during childhood, and society's sexual morality to resolve the earlier childhood emotional conflicts that determine how to behave and think later.

B. **Learning perspective**

- ✓ Most mental and emotional disorders, in contrast to the psychoanalytic perspective, arise from inadequate or inappropriate learning.
- ✓ People acquire abnormal behaviours through the various kinds of learning.
- ✓ ***Like normal behaviours, abnormal behaviours are also learned***

C. Cognitive perspective

- ➢ The main theme of this perspective is that ***self-defeating thoughts*** lead to the development of negative emotions and self-destructive behaviours.
- ➢ People's ways of thinking about events in their life determines their emotional and behavioural patterns.

- Hence, if there is a disturbance in on our thinking, it may manifest in our display of emotions and behaviours.
- Our environmental and cultural experiences in our life play a major role in the formation of our thinking style.

Types of psychological disorders

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

1. Mood Disorders

- Psychological disorders characterized by prolonged and marked disturbances in mood that affect;
  - ✓how people feel
  - ✓what they believe and expect
  - ✓how they think and talk
  - ✓how they interact with others.
- They are characterized by a serious change in mood from depressed to elevated feelings causing disruption to life activities.
- Depressive disorder is characterized by overall feelings of desperation and inactivity.
- Elevated moods are characterized by mania or hypomania.

- The cycling between both depressed and manic moods is characteristic of **bipolar mood disorders.**
- Bipolar disorders are mood disorders in which a person's mood is sometimes decidedly upbeat, perhaps to the point of being manic, and sometimes may be low.
- In addition to type and subtype of mood, these disorders also vary in intensity and severity.
- For example, dysthymic disorder is a lesser form of major depression and cyclothymic disorder is recognized as a similar, but less severe form of bipolar disorder.

- The disorders in this category include those where the primary symptom is a *disturbance in mood.*
- The disorders include Major Depression, Dysthymic Disorder, Bipolar Disorder, and Cyclothymia

1. **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.

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

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

3. Bipolar Disorder (previously known as Manic-Depression)

- ✓ is characterized by periods of extreme highs (called mania) and extreme lows as in Major Depression.
- ✓ Bipolar Disorder is subtyped either I (extreme or hyper manic episodes) or II (moderate or hypomanic episodes).

4. **Cyclothymia:**

- Like Dysthymia and Major Depression, Cyclothymia is considered a lesser form of Bipolar Disorder.

2. Anxiety Disorders

- Anxiety is a sense of agitation or nervousness, which is often focused on an upcoming possible danger.
- It is a normal reaction to stress and can be beneficial in some situations.
- It can alert us to dangers and help us prepare and pay attention.
- Anxiety disorders differ from normal feelings of nervousness or anxiousness, and involve excessive fear or anxiety.
- Anxiety disorders are the most common of mental disorders and affect nearly 30% of adults at some point in their lives.
- However, anxiety disorders are treatable and a number of effective treatments are available.

- Anxiety disorders can cause people into trying to avoid situations that trigger or worsen their symptoms.
- In general, for a person to be diagnosed with an anxiety disorder, the fear or anxiety must:
  - ❖ Be out of proportion to the situation or age inappropriate
  - ❖ Hinder your ability to function normally
- Anxiety Disorders categorize a large number of disorders where the primary feature is abnormal or inappropriate anxiety.
- The disorders in this category include

A. Panic Disorder

- It is characterized by a series of panic attacks.
- A panic attack is an inappropriate intense feeling of fear or discomfort including many of the following symptoms:
  - ✓heart palpitations
  - ✓trembling
  - ✓shortness of breath
  - ✓chest pain
  - ✓dizziness
- These symptoms are so severe that the person may actually believe he or she is having a heart attack.

B. Agoraphobia

- ✓ Literally means fear of the market place.
- ✓ It refers to a series of symptoms where the person fears, and often avoids, situations where escape or help might not be available, such as shopping centers, grocery stores, or other public place.
- ✓ Agoraphobia is often a part of panic disorder if the panic attacks are severe enough to result in an avoidance of these types of places.

C. Specific or Simple Phobia and Social Phobia

- ➢ Represents an intense fear and often an avoidance of a specific situation, person, place, or thing.
- ➢ To be diagnosed with a phobia, the person must have suffered significant negative consequences because of this fear and it must be disruptive to their everyday life.

D. Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder (OCD)

- ✓ It is characterized by obsessions (thoughts which seem uncontrollable) and compulsions (behaviours which act to reduce the obsession).
- ✓ These obsessions and compulsions are disruptive to the person's everyday life, with sometimes hours being spent each day repeating things, which were completed successfully already such as checking, counting, cleaning, or bathing.

E. Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD)

- ✓ It occurs only after a person is exposed to a traumatic event where their life or someone else's life is threatened.
- ✓ The most common examples are war, natural disasters, major accidents, and severe child abuse.
- ✓ Once exposed to an incident such as this, the disorder develops into
  - ✓ an intense fear of related situations,
  - ✓ avoidance of these situations,
  - ✓ reoccurring nightmares,
  - ✓ flashbacks, and heightened anxiety to the point that it significantly disrupts their everyday life.

F. Generalized Anxiety Disorder

- ✓ It is diagnosed when a person has extreme anxiety in nearly every part of their life.
- ✓ It is not associated with just open places (as in agoraphobia), specific situations (as in specific phobia), or a traumatic event (as in PTSD).
- ✓ The anxiety must be significant enough to disrupt the person's everyday life for a diagnosis to be made.

3. Personality Disorders

- It is a type of mental disorder in which you have a rigid and unhealthy pattern of thinking, functioning and behaving.
- A person with a personality disorder has trouble perceiving and relating to situations and people.
- Personality Disorders are characterized by an enduring pattern of thinking, feeling, and behaving which is significantly different from the person's culture and results in negative consequences.
- ***This pattern must be longstanding and inflexible for a diagnosis to be made.***
- There are around nine types of personality disorders, all of which result in significant distress and/or negative consequences within the individual:

1. Paranoid (includes a pattern of distrust and suspiciousness).
2. Schizoid (pattern of detachment from social norms and a restriction of emotions).
3. Schizotypal (pattern of discomfort in close relationships and eccentric thoughts and behaviours).
4. Antisocial (pattern of disregard for the rights of others, including violation of these rights and the failure to feel empathy).
5. Borderline (pattern of instability in personal relationships, including frequent bouts of clinginess and affection and anger and resentment, often cycling between these two extremes rapidly).

6. Histrionic (pattern of excessive emotional behaviour and attention seeking).

7. Narcissistic (pattern of grandiosity, exaggerated self-worth, and need for admiration).

8. Avoidant (pattern of feelings of social inadequacies, low self-esteem, and hypersensitivity to criticism).

9. Obsessive-Compulsive (pattern of obsessive cleanliness, perfection, and control).

Treatment techniques

- Treatment of mental disorders can take various forms
- They can include medication, talk therapy, a combination of both, and can last only one session or take many years to complete.
- Many different types of treatment are available, but most agree that the core components of psychotherapy remain the same.
- Psychotherapy consists of the following:
  1. A positive, healthy relationship between a client or patient and a trained psychotherapist
  2. Recognizable mental health issues, whether diagnosable or not
  3. Agreement on the basic goals of treatment
  4. Working together as a team to achieve these goals

Treatment Approaches

- Providing psychological treatment to individuals with some kind of psychological problems is psychotherapy.
- When providing psychotherapy, there are several issues to be considered.
  - ✓First and foremost is *empathy.* It is a requirement for a successful practitioner to be able to understand his or her client's feelings, thoughts, and behaviours.
  - ✓Second, *being non-judgmental* is vital if the relationship and treatment are going to work.
  - ✓Third, presence of well-trained therapists.

- Aside from these commonalties, therapists approach clients from slightly different angles, although the ultimate goal remains the same:
    - To help the client reduce negative symptoms,
    - Gain insight into why these symptoms occurred and work through those issues, and
    - Reduce the emergence of the symptoms in the future.
- The three main branches include Cognitive, Behavioural, and Dynamic/psychodynamic approaches look to the problem differently.

- Therapists who lean toward the ***cognitive branch*** will look at dysfunctions and difficulties as arising from irrational or faulty thinking.
- Those who follow more ***behavioural models*** look at problems as arising from our behaviours which we have learned to perform over years of reinforcement.
- The ***dynamic or psychodynamic camp*** stem more from the teaching of Sigmund Freud and look more at issues beginning in early childhood which then motivate us as adults at an unconscious level.

- Cognitive approaches appear to work better with *most types of depression*, and behavioural treatments tend to work better with phobias.
- Other than these two, no differences in terms of outcome have been found to exist.
- Most mental health professionals nowadays are ***more eclectic*** in that they study how to treat people using different approaches.
- These professionals are sometimes referred to as integrationists.

Treatment modalities

- Therapy is most often thought of as a one-on-one relationship between a client or patient and a therapist.
- Often time‘s group therapy is utilized, where individuals suffering from similar illnesses or having similar issues meet together with one or two therapists.
- Group sizes differ, ranging from three or four to upwards of 15 or 20, but the goals remain the same.
- The power of group is due to the need in all of us to belong, feel understood, and know that there is hope. All of these things make group as powerful as it is.

- Therapy can also take place in smaller groups consisting of a couple or a family.
- The therapist's job is to facilitate healthy interaction, encourage the couple or family to gain insight into their own behaviours, and to teach the members to listen to and respect each other.
- Sometimes therapy can include more than one treatment modality.
- The treatment approach and modality are always considered, along with many other factors, in order to provide the best possible treatment for any particular person.
- Sometimes more than one is used, sometimes a combination of many of them, but together the goal remains to improve the life of the client.

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 analyse its features

Nature and definition of life skills

- As defined in the document of World Health Organization life skills are "*abilities for adaptive and positive behaviour that enable individuals to deal effectively with the demands and challenges of everyday life.*"
- It is also defined as "*behavioural changes or behavioural development approach designed to address a balance of three areas: knowledge attitude and skills*" (UNICEF"s definition).
- Life skills are essentially those abilities that help to promote mental well-being and competence in young people as they face the realities of life.

Components of life skills

- Critical thinking
- Self- confidence
- Self-awareness
- Self- esteem
- Decision making
- Interpersonal relationship
- Reflective communication
- Peer pressure resistance
- Knowing rights and duties
- Problem solving

- If someone is able to develop them at least to an average level, s/he can lead a better and peaceful life.
- Moreover, to be effective in life, one has to develop skills of:
  - Expressing views
  - Challenging stereotypes
  - Making connections
  - Thinking creatively
  - Getting good advices
  - Managing time
  - Learning how to learn
  - Listening actively, and the like.

- The following are simple descriptions given for major components of life skills.

Critical thinking - thinking more effectively within curricular subject areas, understanding the reasoning employed, assessing independently and appropriately, and solving problems effectively.

- ➢ It involves, as well, improved thinking skills in dealing with real life problems in assessing information and arguments in social contexts and making life decisions.

Self-confidence – is the degree to which one can rely on his/her ability to perform certain behaviour alone or in public.

- ✓ It is individual‘s trust in his or her own abilities, capacities, and judgments, or belief that he or she can successfully face day-to-day challenges and demands (Psychology Dictionary Online).

Self-awareness –knowledge and understanding of one‘s strengthens and weaknesses.

- ✓ Self-awareness involves monitoring our inner worlds, thoughts, emotions, and beliefs.
- ✓ It is important, because it is a major mechanism influencing personal development.

Self-esteem - the degree to which we perceive ourselves positively or negatively; our overall attitude toward ourselves, which can be measured explicitly or implicitly.

Decision-making - Processes involved in combining and integrating available information to choose, implement and evaluate one out of several possible courses of actions.

Interpersonal relationships – the relationships a person have with others persons.

Reflective communication - attending communications with thoughtful and due attention to reflect on one‘s own thinking, behaviours and interaction with others.

Peer pressure resistance – individual‘s abilities and skills to confront negative influences from his/her group members.

Knowing rights and duties – One‘s knowledge and understanding of rights and duties of individuals, groups, institutions and nations allowed to do or not to do by law and/or a culture.

Problem solving-the process of identifying a discrepancy between an actual and desired state of affairs, difficulties, obstacles and complex issues and then taking action to resolve the deficiency or take advantage of the opportunity

Goals of life skills

- The goal of knowing and applying life skills is to lead a smooth and successful life at home, work place and in social relationship.
- These skills help us live in harmony with ourselves and others around us, select the goods from the bad, choose gold from soil, simplify life that is full of troubles otherwise etc.
- Development of life skills is, therefore, a lifelong process where one has to update his/her skills and knowledge of dealing with life events.
- Life skills are generally applied in the context of academics, workplace and social events.

- Developing life skills can produce the following effects:
  - ✓ lessened violent behaviour
  - ✓ increased pro-social behaviour and decreased negative, self-destructive behaviour;
  - ✓ Increased ability to plan ahead and choose effective solutions to problems;
  - ✓ improved self-image, self-awareness, social and emotional adjustment;
  - ✓ increased acquisition of knowledge;
  - ✓ improved classroom behaviour;
  - ✓ gains in self- control and handling of interpersonal problems and coping with anxiety; and
  - ✓ improved constructive conflict resolution with peers, impulse control and popularity.

CHAPTER NINE
INTRA-PERSONAL AND INTERPERSONAL SKILLS

At the end of the chapter, you are expected to:

- ✓ Define self-concept, self-awareness, self-esteem, and self-confidence and illustrate with real life examples
- ✓ Describe features of emotional intelligence and anger management and demonstrate with examples from your experience;
- ✓ Explain resilience and coping with stress by taking different stressors as an example;
- ✓ Explain critical and creative thinking, problem solving and decision making by taking hypothetical/real life stories

Self-Concept and Self-Awareness

A. Self-concept

- The self is a reflexive phenomenon that develops in social interaction and is based on the social character of human language(Gecas, 1982).
- The concept of self provides the philosophical underpinning for social-psychological inquiries into the self-concept.
- The "self-concept," on the other hand, is a product of this reflexive activity.
- It is the concept the individual has of himself/herself as a physical, social, and spiritual or moral being.

Self-concept has the following important features:

- ✓ It is the totality of ideas that a person holds about the self
- ✓ It includes everything the person believes to be true about himself/herself
- ✓ It is composed of relatively permanent self-assessments that of course changes over time with life experiences and relationships
- ✓ It is not restricted to the present. It also includes past and future selves
- ✓ It is a multi-dimensional construct that refers to an individual's perception of "self" in relation to a number of characteristics, such as academics, gender roles, racial identity, and many others
- ✓ It guides our actions, motivations, expectations and goals for future

B. Self-awareness

- Self-awareness is having a clear perception of your personality, including strengths, weaknesses, thoughts, beliefs, motivation, and emotions.
- It is an attribute of one‘s self-concept that allows understanding other people‘s attitudes and responses to them.
- High self-awareness is a solid predictor of good success in life, perhaps because a self-aware person knows when an opportunity is a good fit for them and how to make an appropriate enterprise work well.
- However, most of us are hardly aware of why we succeed or fail; or why we behave as we do.

Here are some suggestions to start building self-awareness:

- Practice mindfulness
- Become a good listener
- Become more self-aware
- Open your mind to new perspectives
- Develop self-esteem
- Look at yourself objectively
- Take feedback from others
- Know your strengths and weaknesses
- Set intentions and goals

Self-esteem and self-confidence

A. Self-esteem

- ✓ "Esteem" is derived from the Latin aestimare, meaning "to appraise, value, rate, weigh, and estimate,"
- ✓ Self-esteem is our cognitive and, above all, emotional appraisal of our own worth.
- ✓ It is the matrix through which we think, feel, and act, reflects and determines our relation to ourselves, to others, and to the world.
- ✓ Self-esteem deals with the evaluative and emotional/affective dimensions of the self-concept.
- ✓ *Self-esteem refers to an individual's overall self-evaluation.*
- ✓ *It is the judgment or opinion we hold about ourselves.*
- ✓ *Its the extent to which we perceive ourselves to be worthwhile and capable human beings.*

Bases of self-esteem

A. Self-esteem based on a sense of competence, power, or efficacy and

B. Self-esteem based on a sense of virtue or moral worth.

- ✓ The importance of this distinction lies in the suggestion that these two bases of self-esteem may be a function of different processes of self-concept formation and that they constitute different sources of motivation.
- ✓ Briefly, competency-based self-esteem is tied closely to effective performance.
- ✓ As a result, it is associated with self-attribution and social comparison processes.
- ✓ Self-esteem based on virtue (termed self-worth) is grounded in norms and values concerning personal and interpersonal conduct e.g. justice, reciprocity, and honour.

B. Self-confidence

- ✓ The term confidence comes from the Latin ‘*fidere*’, "to trust."
- ✓ To be self-confident is to trust in oneself, and, in particular, in one‘s ability or aptitude to engage successfully or at least adequately with the world.
- ✓ Just as self-confidence leads to successful experience, successful experience leads to self-confidence.
- ✓ Although any successful experience contributes to our overall confidence, it is, of course, possible to be highly confident in one area, such as cooking or dancing, but very insecure in another, such as mathematics or public speaking.

- ✓ **Self-confidence** *is the belief in oneself and abilities, which describes an internal state made up of what we think and feel about ourselves.*
- ✓ Sometimes, people use self-confidence and courage interchangeably.
- ✓ However, they have differences. In the absence of confidence, courage takes over.
- ✓ Confidence operates in the realm of the known, whereas courage in that of the unknown, the uncertain, and the fearsome.
- ✓ Strategies help to improve self-confidence are practicing self-acceptance, focus on your achievements, making personal changes, seeking out positive experiences and people, positive affirmations, and rewards and support

Self-control

- Self-control is achieved by refraining from actions we like and instead performing actions we prefer not to do as a means of achieving a long-term goal.

Anger management

- Anger is a state of emotion where a person is irritated by block of interests, loss of possession or threats to personality.
- Techniques for managing anger:
  - ✓ Recognize anger as a signal of vulnerability - you feel devalued in some way.
  - ✓ When angry, think or do something that will make you feel more valuable, i.e., worthy of appreciation.
  - ✓ Do not trust your judgment when angry. Anger magnifies and amplifies only the negative aspects of an issue, distorting realistic appraisal.

- ✓ Try to see the complexity of the issue. Anger requires narrow and rigid focus that ignores or oversimplifies context.
- ✓ Strive to understand other people's perspectives.
- ✓ Do not justify your anger. Instead, consider whether it will help you act in your long-term best interest.
- ✓ Know your physical and mental resources. Anger is more likely to occur when tired, hungry, sick, confused, anxious, preoccupied, distracted, or overwhelmed.
- ✓ Focus on improving and repairing rather than blaming. It's hard to stay angry without blaming and it's harder to blame when focused on repairing and improving.
- ✓ When angry, remember your deepest values.

Emotional intelligence and managing emotion

- Emotional intelligence refers to the ability to identify and manage one‘s own emotions, as well as the emotions of others.
- It includes at least three skills
  - ✓ emotional awareness, or the ability to identify and name one‘s own emotions;
  - ✓ the ability to harness those emotions and apply them to tasks like thinking and problem solving
  - ✓ the ability to manage emotions, which includes both regulating one‘s own emotions when necessary and helping others to do the same.
- *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.
- Individuals have different personalities, wants, needs, and ways of showing their emotions.
- In the most generic framework, five domains of emotional intelligence are divided into personal (self-awareness, self-regulation, and self-motivation) and social (social awareness and social skills) competences.

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.*

- Some stress is necessary for all living systems as it is the means by which you encounter and respond to the challenges and uncertainties of existence.
- However, prolonged or repeated arousal of the stress response, can have harmful physical and psychological consequences, including heart disease, diabetes, anxiety, and depression.

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

Coping with stress

- ✓ There are two ways of dealing with stress: problem focused and emotion-focused.
- ✓ **Problem focused-** when we feel a sense of control over a situation and think we can change the circumstances or change ourselves, we may address stressors directly, with problem - focused coping.
- ✓ **Emotion-focused -** When we cannot handle the problem or believe that we cannot change a situation, we may turn to emotion-focused coping.
- ✓ Several factors affect the ability to cope successfully, including feelings of personal control, outlook, and supportive connections.

Resilience

- Resilience is about getting through pain and disappointment without letting them crush your spirit.
- In other language, resilience is the quality to come back at least as strong as before after being knocked down by adversity.
- In the process of resilience, individuals focus on finding a way to rise from the failure rather than letting difficulties or failure overcome them.
- It means "bouncing back" from difficult experiences (APA definition).
- *A positive attitude, optimism, the ability to regulate emotions, and the ability to see failure as a form of helpful feedback are resilience strategies*.

- Resilience is not some magical quality but it takes real mental work to transcend hardship.
- Even after misfortune, resilient people are able to change course and move toward achieving their goals
- Being resilient does not mean that a person does not experience difficulty or distress.
- Resilience is not a trait that people either have or do not have. It involves behaviours, thoughts and actions that can be learned and developed in anyone.

Strategy to build resilience

- Making connections with family and friends
- Avoiding seeing crises as insurmountable problems
- Accepting that change is a part of living
- Moving toward your goals
- Taking decisive actions
- Looking for opportunities for self-discovery
- Nurturing a positive view of yourself
- Keeping things in perspectives
- Maintaining a hopeful outlook
- Taking care of yourself.

Critical thinking and creative thinking

- ✓ Critical thinking is "*Purposeful, self-regulatory judgment which results in:*
  - *interpretation,*
  - *analysis,*
  - *evaluation, and*
  - *inference, as well as explanation of the evidential, conceptual, methodological, contextual considerations upon which judgment is based''*
- ✓ It is also regarded as intellectually engaged, skilful, and responsible thinking that facilitates good judgment because it requires the application of assumptions, knowledge, competence, and the ability to challenge one's own thinking.
- ✓ When using critical thinking, individuals step back and reflect on the quality of that thinking

Creative thinking

- ✓ The ability to connect the seemingly unconnected and meld existing knowledge into new insight about some element of how the world works.
- ✓ Creative thinking is seen as imaginative, constructive, and generative thinking.
- ✓ Includes decision-making/problem solving skills and information gathering skills.

Critical thinking

- ✓ Analytic
- ✓ Convergent
- ✓ Vertical
- ✓ Probability
- ✓ Judgment
- ✓ Hypothesis testing
- ✓ Objective
- ✓ Answer
- ✓ Closed
- ✓ Linear
- ✓ Reasoning
- ✓ Logic
- ✓ Yes but

Creative thinking

- ✓ Generative
- ✓ Divergent
- ✓ Lateral
- ✓ Possibility
- ✓ Suspended judgment
- ✓ Hypothesis forming
- ✓ Subjective
- ✓ An answer
- ✓ Open-ended
- ✓ Associative
- ✓ Speculating
- ✓ Intuition
- ✓ Yes and

Attributes of critical thinkers

- Be capable of taking a position or changing a position as evidence dictates
- Remain relevant to the point
- Seek information as well as precision in information
- Be open minded
- Take the entire situation into account
- Keep the original problem in mind
- Search for reasons
- Deal with the components of a complex problem in an orderly manner
- Seek a clear statement of the problem
- Look for options
- Exhibit sensitivity to others' feelings and depth of knowledge
- Use credible sources

Problem solving and decision making

- ✓ Problems are a central part of human life and it is almost impossible to avoid it.

There are two classes of problems:

- **Well-defined problems** are those problems whose goals, path to solution, and obstacles to solution are clear based on the information given.
- **Ill-defined problems** are characterized by their lack of a clear path to solution.
- Such problems often lack a clear problem statement as well, making the task of problem definition and problem representation quite challenging.

- ✓ Problem solving is a process in which we perceive and resolve a gap between a present situation and a desired goal, with the path to the goal blocked by known or unknown obstacles.

Steps in problem solving

- ✓ Recognize or identify the problem.
- ✓ Define and represent the problem mentally.
- ✓ Develop a solution strategy alternatives and select the best one.
- ✓ Organize knowledge about the problem and avail the necessary resources.
- ✓ Allocate mental and physical resources for solving the problem.
- ✓ Monitor his or her progress toward the goal.
- ✓ Evaluate the solution for accuracy

Decision making

- Decision-making is a selection process where one of two or more possible solutions is chosen to reach a desired goal.
- The steps in both problem solving and decision-making are quite similar. In fact, the terms are sometimes used interchangeably (Huitt, 1992).

CHAPTER TEN
ACADEMIC SKILLS