

Lectures

Saturday, May 05, 2012
10:43 AM

Chapter 4

Friday, April 06, 2012

1:41 PM

Nature vs. Nurture

Does nature (hereditary/genetic) or nurture (environment/experience) guide development?

- John Locke
 - Saw mind at birth as blank state (tabula rasa)
 - Nurture was important
- Charles Darwin
 - Theory of evolution
 - Nature was important
 - Opposite to John Locke
- Behaviorism Movement
 - Watson
 - Father of behaviorism
 - Defined behaviorism
 - What is ought to be
 - Psychology should be scientific
 - Skinner
 - All behavior is learned, emphasis on nurture
- Interactionism (today's preferred theory)
 - Between hereditary and environment, guides development

Genes

DNA

- Deoxyribonucleic acid
- Molecule that contains genetic information templates for the production of proteins
- Molecule forms double helix
- Nucleotides (C, G, T, A) connect it

Chromosomes

- Structures composed of DNA
- A chain of DNA
- 23 from each parent, 23 pairs or 46 in total

Genes

- Segments of DNA
- A unit of DNA in a chromosome
- Each gene synthesizes a specific protein
- We have the same amount of genes as a chicken

The Cell

- Contains nucleus and cytoplasm bounded by cell membrane
 - Chromosomes and genes are in the nucleus
 - Nucleus contains the genetic code
 - The genetic code is the blueprint for cell development, function, and division

So the nucleus contains the chromosomes which contains the DNA.

Human Genome Project

The Genome

- The complete genetic instructions for making an organism

Double Helix of DNA

- Found by Watson and Crick
- Contains four nucleotides
 - Adenine

- Thymine
- Guanine
- Cytosine
- Only pair up A-T & G-C

Human Genome Project

- Sequencing all three billion pairs of nucleotides for humans

Evolutionary Psychology

- Studies the evolution of behaviors
- Uses principles of natural selection (Darwin)
 - Only a fraction of the population of any species survives and passes on genes
 - Variations increasing survival chances are more likely to be passed on
- Mutations
 - Errors during DNA duplication
 - May cause cancer or disease
 - Are the source of genetic diversity

Behavior Genetics

- An approach
- Study of the influence of genes and environment on behavior
- How much behavior variability is due to
 - Heredity
 - Environment
 - Interaction between both

Twin Studies

- Method used by behavior genetics
- Compare trait and behavior similarities of types of twins
 - **Identical Twins**
 - Develop from a single fertilized egg
 - Identical Genes
 - **Fraternal Twins**
 - Develop from two fertilized eggs
 - Share on average 50% of genes, as do siblings

Temperament Studies

- Method used by behavior geneticists
- Study changes/similarities in temperament over developmental periods and in twin studies

Temperament

- Person's largely innate style of responsiveness to external world
- Includes emotional reactivity
- Dimensions of Temperament
 - Activity
 - Rhythmicity
 - Approach / Withdrawal
 - Adaptability
 - Intensity
 - Threshold
 - Mood
 - Distractibility
 - Attention Span / Persistence

Molecular Genetics

- Study of molecular structure and function of genes
- Applications
 - Risk assessment (genetic screening)
 - Genetic engineering
 - To eliminate childhood diseases, predispositions to diseases, behaviors

- Enhance functioning

Some Issues of Concern

Human Genome Project & Genetic Engineering:

1. Genetic Discrimination
 - Employment
 - Insurance
 - Emergent genetic underclass
2. Shift from Nurture to Nature
 - Directs society's attention away from responsibility for inequities and role, of environment
3. Reduction of Genetic Diversity
 - Recessive traits and mutations important in evolution as "options"
 - Risk depleting genetic pool

Gender

Definitions

- **Sex or Gender** - Biological maleness or femaleness
- **Gender Identity** - Our sense of being male or female
- **Gender Role** - Expected behaviors in culture of each sex
- **Gender Typing** - Acquiring the behaviors and characteristics expected and considered appropriate for each sex in a specific culture
 - Origins of Gender Typing
 - Social Learning Theory
 - Parental modeling and modeling from TV and books is observed and imitated or identified with
 - Parental provision of rewards and punishments for gender-typed behavior

Chapter 5

Thursday, May 03, 2012
5:30 PM

Developmental Issues

Developmental Approach

- Focus is on change over time (over life span)

Developmental Psychologists

- Many areas of study over lifespan
 - Example: physical, social, cognitive

Three Issues

1. Nature/Nurture (CH3)
2. Continuity vs. Stages
 - Is change characterized by:
 - Continuity?
 - A gradual cumulative change
 - A change in quantity
 - Eg. Skinner
 - Stages?
 - A sequence of discontinuous and qualitative changes
 - Eg. Piaget, Kohlberg, Erikson
 - Stage Theories:
 - ◆ Have dominant theme for behaviors at each stage
 - ◆ Each stage has qualitatively different behaviors
 - ◆ All children progress through same stages in same order, not necessarily equally fast in each stage.
3. Stability vs. Change
 - Eg. Does personality change over lifespan or remain stable
 - Research
 - Personality traits seem to stabilize in adulthood
 - Certain characteristics more stable than others
 - Eg. Temperament

The Newborn

Perception

- Reflexes
 - Innate Responses
 - Used to indicate response to the environment
 - Eg. Gaze time, heart rate, sucking rate, head turning
 - Eg. Study
 - Using two sounds as a stimuli
 - Orienting Response: Increased heart rate, so increased attention
 - Habituation Response: Decreased heart rate so decreased attention
 - ◆ Habituation is a decreased responding with repeated stimulation
 - Results: Newborns prefer sights and sounds that facilitate social responsiveness
- Auditory
 - Newborns hear well and can
 - Detect the difference between two tones only one note apart
 - Recognize mother's voice
- Visual
 - Prefer
 - Human faces vs. other patterns (gaze time)
 - Objects 8-12 inches away
- Olfactory
 - Can distinguish odor of own mother
 - Head turning towards gauze soaked in own mother's breast milk

Infancy and Childhood

Physical Development

- Maturation
 - Innate (primarily genetically determined) grown sequences
 - Given an adequate environment there will be a universal pattern and rate of development via maturation
 - Maturation is relatively independent of environment
 - Eg. Order of motor development is fairly consistent across cultures

Cognitive Development

- Piaget's Theory
 - Stage theory of cognitive development
 - I. **Sensorimotor**: 0-2 years
 - Infants know the world through sensory impressions and motor activities (sensory & motor)
 - Interact with objects to establish power over the external world
 - Build schemes or schemas
 - First schemes are action patterns based on reflexes
 - ◆ Eg. Sucking scheme
 - Main developmental achievement of sensorimotor stage is **object permanence**
 - ◆ Awareness that things continue to exist even when not detectable by senses
 - ◆ Develops between 8-12 months
 - ◆ Indicated by searching for toys that are out of sight
 - Piaget thought newborns lacked object permanence, and that objects only exist when one is paying attention to it (otherwise it ceases to exist)
 - II. **Preoperational**: 2-6 years
 - Stage previous to capacity to perform mental operations (use logical rules)
 - Can use symbols
 - ◆ Images, words, gestures to represent the world cognitively
 - Representational thought
 - ◆ Can use internal symbols, words, numbers and images instead of objects and events
 - Three characteristics of preoperational period
 1. Egocentrism
 - ◇ Tendency to perceive/understand and interpret in terms of self
 2. Rigidity of thought
 - ◇ Centration
 - ▶ Focus is on one salient feature of object/event and ignore other events
 - ◇ Conservation
 - ▶ Properties (mass, volume, number) remain the same if only form changed
 - ▶ Like one glass is tall, the other is short. Holds the same amount, but "Johnny got more juice!"
 - ◇ Focus on States
 - ▶ Only think of before and after states
 - ◇ Lack of Reversibility
 - ▶ Cannot mentally reverse events
 3. Limited Social Cognition
 - ◇ Deficits in role taking and communication due to egocentrism
 - ◇ Confusions between natural and human events
 - III. **Concrete operational**: 7-11 years
 - Can perform mental operations
 - ◆ Logical problem solving
 - ◆ **Operation** - internalized action that is part of an organized structure
 - ◆ On a conservation task: conserver believes amount has not changed when changed form
 - ◇ Three mental operations needed to conserve:
 1. Reversibility - argument is inversion
 2. Compensation - argument is compensation
 3. Addition/Subtraction - argument is identity
 - ◆ Preoperational child lacks the three operations above
 - ◆ Notes
 - ◇ Various operations do not develop at the same time
 - ◇ Each cognitive acquisition develops over a period of time

◇ Concrete operations are still concrete as they only apply to concrete objects

IV. **Formal operational**: 12-adult years

- Capacity for abstraction vs. need for concrete material
 - ◆ Can use hypothetical events/relationships
- Three general characteristics of formal operations thinking
 - ◆ Can:
 1. Create **reversal** relationship between reality and possibility
 2. Think in **hypothetical deductive manner**
 - ▶ Operate like a scientist
 3. Think about the **nature of thinking**
- Piaget's Theory Continued
 - Most studies support sequence
 - He tended to underestimate child's capacities average for acquisition of operations tend to be lower
 - Stage transition seems more gradual and continuous than he thought
- Cognition
- Includes all mental activities related to a thinking/intellect
 - Eg. Knowing, remembering, problem solving, reasoning

Social Development

- Attachment
 - Tendency to seek closeness with particular people & to feel secure/bond with them
- Stranger Anxiety
 - Fear of strangers at about 8-9 months
- Origins of Attachment
 - Study of Harry Harlow
 - Separated monkeys from mothers shortly after birth
 - Monkeys had no contact with other monkeys or humans
 - Substituted mother. Monkey had a choice of two mothers
 - A wire mother who gave food
 - A soft mother made of terrycloth who didn't provide food
 - The monkey spent most time with the terrycloth mother, since she provided contact comfort
 - Tactile stimulation
 - Crucial for attachment
 - Feeding is not crucial for attachment
 - In humans, attachment provides:
 - Emotional security enabling child to explore environment
 - Basis for interpersonal relationships
 - Konrad Lorenz
 - Imprinting process study
 - Unhatched duckling eggs
 - Birds saw him and no adult birds
 - Attached to him as they would to the mother
 - Concluded that visual exposure made births imprint
 - ◆ **Imprinting**: process by which animals attach to objects they see during brief period after birth
 - Imprinting is necessary for survival
 - ◆ Stay close to mother for protection and safety
 - Critical period (sensitive period)
 - Optimal period in the early life when events must occur for proper development
 - Imprinting outside this period is more difficult
 - Separation protest
 - In infants 8-9 months old
 - Crying/distress when left by mother with someone else
 - 6-9 months may be sensitive period for attachment
 - Responsive parenting
 - Temperament could interact with child-rearing style of parent to influence quality of attachment
 - Secure attachment
 - About 60% of infants
 - Comfortable playing with mother present
 - Distressed when she leaves

- Seek contact with her when she returns
- Insecure attachment
 - Do not play or tend to cling to mother
 - Very distressed or indifferent when she leaves
 - Ambivalent or ignoring of mother when she returns
- In studies
 - Infant temperaments not significantly related to measures of attachment security
 - Some studies show more insecure attachments when
 - ◆ Combination of
 - ◇ Mothers circumstances/personality that lessen her ability to adapt
 - ◇ Irritable or passive infant
 - ◆ Conclusion
 - ◇ Attachment security affected by both
 - ▶ Maternal care
 - ▶ Infant characteristics
- Transactional approach
 - Characteristics of both children and environment
 - **Current evidence suggests security of attachment depends more heavily on responsiveness of primary caregiver**

Child Rearing Practices

Baumrind's Three Patterns of Parental Authority

1. **Authoritarian** Parents
 - Firmly controlling
 - Impose rules and enforce but unwilling to discuss rules
2. **Authoritative** Parents
 - Firmly controlling
 - Impose rules and enforcement but explain why the rules are there
 - Encourage discussion for rules and demands
3. **Permissive** Parents
 - Set few restrictions on behavior
 - Lacks in enforcing rules
 - Rarely directed behavior

Children with authoritative parents

- High
 - Self Esteem
 - Self-reliance
 - Social competence
 - Seem to achieve sense of

Children with authoritarian parents

- Self-controlled
- Not very secure or confident

Children with permissive parents

- Not very self controlled
- Not self reliant

		Parental Acceptance	
		Low	High
Parental Control	High	Authoritarian	Authoritative
	Low	Neglectful	Permissive

Adolescence

Moral Development

1. Moral thought
 - Reasoning/thinking about rules of ethical conduct
2. Moral behavior
 - Behavior in real-life situations
3. Moral emotion

- Feelings after making moral decision and a behavior

Kohlberg

- Stage theory
- Focus on moral thought/reasoning
- Examined reasons given for decisions about right and wrong in response to moral dilemmas
- Stages are
 - In an unchangeable sequence
 - Universal
 - Qualitatively different
- Theory
 - Three Levels
 1. **Preconventional**
 - Moral decisions made on basis of
 - ◆ Concrete consequences (reward and punishment)
 - ◆ Hedonistic wishes/needs
 2. **Conventional**
 - Moral decision
 - ◆ To conform to expectations of others and win approval
 - ◆ To uphold norms, laws, rules and regulations
 3. **Postconventional**
 - Moral principles
 - ◆ Defined independently from others or authority
 - ◆ Enhance common good
 - ◆ May use universal ethical principle orientation
 1. Justice
 2. Equality of human rights
 3. Respect for the dignity of human beings
 - ◆ Experiences of adult life play a critical role
 - ◆ Usually achieved in adulthood

Moral Development

- Continues up to at least age 65
- Improvement correlated with education, not age
- Usual form of reasoning in America is conventional level
- To attain postconventional moral thinking, need formal operations
- Moral development promoted by
 1. Role-taking experiences
 2. Real-life positions of moral responsibility

Moral Action

- No simple connection between moral judgment and moral conduct
- Moral behavior less studied than moral thought
- To educate moral action in children may use
 - Teaching
 - Empathy
 - Self-discipline
 - Modeling of moral behavior

Social Development

Adolescence to adulthood

- Erikson
 - Life-span approach to development
 - Stages unfold throughout life cycle
 - Focus on psychosocial development
 - Individual in a social system
 - Psychosocial view
 - Maturation has social repercussions
 - Societies evolved ways of meeting child's needs in maturation
 - Psychosocial development and culture
 - Same stage sequence in all cultures but each has own way of directing and enhancing child's behavior at each stage

- Cultures change over time
- Psychosocial development
 - A series of universal stages
 - Specific psychosocial crises
 - Issues or conflicts
 - An interaction of biological, personal, cultural and historical factors produce the crisis
- The eight stages of man
 - Each stage has distinct emotional conflict
 - Conflicts may be resolved in a positive and healthy or a negative and unhealthy way
 - Goals of each stage:
 - Positive dominating negative
 - Each conflict overshadows others for unique period of time
 - Conflicts must be resolved satisfactorily for successful resolution of later ones

Stage	Issue	Description of Task
Infancy (to 1 year)	Trust vs. mistrust	If needs are dependably met, infants develop a sense of basic trust.
Toddlerhood (1-3 years)	Autonomy vs. shame and doubt	Toddlers learn to exercise their will and do things for themselves, or they doubt their abilities.
Preschool (3-6 years)	Initiative vs. guilt	Preschoolers learn to initiate tasks and carry out plans, or they feel guilty about their efforts to be independent.
Elementary School (6 years - puberty)	Industry vs. inferiority	Children learn the pleasure of applying themselves to tasks, or they feel inferior.
Adolescence (teens to 20 years)	Identity vs. role confusion	Teenagers work at refining a sense of self by testing roles and then integrating them to form a single identity, or they become confused about who they are.
Young adulthood (20-40 years)	Intimacy vs. isolation	Young adults struggle to form close relationships to gain the capacity for intimate love, or they feel socially isolated.
Middle adulthood (40-60 years)	Generativity vs. stagnation	People discover a sense of contributing to the world usually through family and work, or they may feel a lack of purpose.
Late adulthood (60+ years)	Integrity vs. despair	Reflecting on his or her life, an older adult may feel satisfaction or failure.

- Must go through all stages
 - Biological and social forces push one along
- Never too late to resolve any crises

Overall Emphasis: Identity

- Main theme of life for Erikson is quest for identity
 - Understanding and acceptance both self and one's society
 - Asking "who am I" throughout life
 - If successful at each stage, then identity is reconfirmed
 - A crisis in adolescence
 - Erikson coined the term "identity crisis"

Description of psychosocial stages from adolescence to adulthood

- **Stage 5: Identity vs. role confusion**
 - Adolescence
 - Identity evolves by integrating capacities/accomplishments
 - At puberty
 - Body changes/sexual urges and social pressures to decide education/occupation
 - Task is to integrate identifications from childhood into a more complete identity

- Identity confusion
 - Lack of integration
 - Personality will be fragmented and lacking a core
- Psychosocial moratorium
 - "Time out" for finding oneself
- Identity foreclosure
 - Premature acceptance of compartmentalized social roles
- **Stage 6: Intimacy vs. Isolation**
 - Young adulthood
 - True Intimacy
 - Willing to share and regulate all important aspects of lives
 - Development of relationships with opposite sex, friends and own feelings and thoughts
 - Intimacy can develop if
 - A reasonably well integrated identity
 - If identity diffused
 - Fear of losing self in someone else
 - Isolation
 - If failure at intimacy
 - Self-absorption and empty relationships
- **Stage 7: Generativity vs. stagnation**
 - Middle adulthood
 - Generativity
 - Interest in establishing and guiding next generation
 - Via:
 - ◆ Child rearing
 - ◆ Creative activities
 - ◆ Productive endeavors
 - Requires
 - Faith in future
 - Belief in species
 - Ability to care for others
 - Stagnation
 - Lack of generativity
 - Self-indulgence, boredom, lack of psychological growth
- **Stage 8: Integrity vs. despair**
 - Late adulthood
 - Losses in elderly
 - Physical
 - Social
 - Economic
 - Status
 - Face own death by looking back on what was done with life
 - Integrity if
 - Positive outlook on preceding emotional conflicts and resolutions
 - Despair if
 - One or more crises resolved
 - Doubt/gloom/despair over worth of one's life
 - Fear of death
 - Sense of self disgust/contempt
 - "The life review" or "reminiscence"
 - Tendency to look back over life

Chapter 10

Tuesday, May 08, 2012

5:33 PM

Origins of Intelligence Testing

- A Test
 - A sample of behavior at a given point in time
- Intelligence Test
 - Method to assess mental aptitudes and compare them numerically with others
 - Alfred Binet (1857 - 1911)
 - French psychologist
 - Devised tests that approximated modern IQ tests
 - Published intelligence scale with Theodore Simon
 - Intelligence should be measured by task, performance, reasoning, and problem solving ability
 - His method:
 - Mental-Age scale
 - ◆ Slow children are like normal ones but retarded in mental growth
 - ◆ Bright children and like older children
 - ◆ Identified
 1. Mental age (MA)
 - ▶ Ability to reason
 2. Chronological Age (CA)
 - ▶ Years since birth
 - ◇ Devised a scale to measure ability to reason
 - Average $MA = CA$
 - Slow $MA < CA$
 - Bright $MA > CA$
 - Lewis Terman (1877-1956)
 - American Professor
 - Revised Binet's test and standardized administration
 - Called it the Stanford-Binet
 - The Intelligence Quotient IQ
 - $IQ = \frac{MA}{CA} * 100$
 - Average is 100
 - Modern IQ tests
 - Age norms used
 - ◆ People compared to others of same age and 100 is the average IQ
 - IQ distribution fits "normal curve"
 - ◆ Bell shaped
 - ◆ Page 447 in text
 - ◆ The normal curve
 - ◇ Mean is 100
 - ◇ 68% of people are between 85 and 115
 - ◇ 96% of cases are between 70 and 130
- Intelligence
 - Socially constructed concept
 - Ability to learn from experience, solve problems, and use knowledge to adapt new situations
- One general ability vs. several
 - Specific abilities general intelligence
 - Intelligence as a general or basic underlying capacity for comprehension and reasoning
 - Believed by Binet and Charles Spearman

- Specific abilities
 - Intelligence tests sample mental abilities that are relatively independent
- Factor analysis
 - A statistical method that identifies the minimum number of factors (clusters) of test items to explain a pattern or set of correlations
 - Developed by Spearman
 - Spearman proposed
 - A g factor plus special factor(s) which were specific to particular abilities/tests
 - Thurstone proposed
 - Eight primary mental abilities
 - When factor analyzed the primary abilities were not entirely independent
 - So evidence of a g factor in support of Spearman
- Assessing intelligence
 - Achievement tests
 - Measure accomplished skills
 - Testing what has been learned
 - Aptitude tests
 - Predict what a person can accomplish
 - Testing capacity to learn
 - Both types of tests are correlated
 - Scores increase together
 - Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale
 - Most widely used
 - Gives overall IQ score
 - Also separate sub-scores for
 1. Verbal scale (6 subtests)
 2. Performance Scale (5 subtests)
 - Differences between verbal and performance scale used to diagnose specific learning problems
- Principles of test construction
 - Establishing a representative sample of scores with a pretested group
 - An individual score can then be compared to the standards defined by this standardization group
 - Gives meaningful comparisons of performance
 - Standardization group fits normal curve distribution
 - Reliability
 - Extent to which test consistently reproduces same results
 - Two examples to assess reliability
 1. Test - Retest
 - ◆ Retest people using the same test or alternate form and see if results correlate
 2. Split - Test
 - ◆ Split test items in half and see if halves correlate
 - Validity
 - Extent to which test measures what it is supposed to
 - Assessing validity
 1. Content validity
 - ◆ Assess degree to which test samples/represents pertinent behavior items
 2. Predictive validity
 - ◆ Assess degree to which test results can predict performance on the criterion
 - ◇ Criterion is a performance test of what behavior is predicted
- Genetic and environmental
 - Influences on Intelligence
 - Genetic influences

- Nature-Nurture controversy
 - ◆ Hereditary vs. Environment
- Some aspects of intelligence are inherited
- Evidence from correlational twin studies
- Genetic determinants are strong but environment also important
- Heritability
 - The proportion of variation of a trait in a specified population that we can attribute genetic differences
 - ◆ Eg. $H = 60\%$ means 60% of the variance in the population is due to genetic differences and 40% due to environmental differences
 - ◆ Refers only to population and not individuals
 - ◆ For intelligence H is estimated to be as low as 50 and as high as 70%
 - Problem with these estimates
 - ◆ Shared environments
 - ◇ With similar environment heredity becomes more important
 - ◇ When you increase range of environments then environmental variation increases

Chapter 12 - Stress and Illness [combined]

Thursday, May 31, 2012
7:12 PM

Stress - process of perception and response to an event (stressor) that is perceived as physically or physiologically threatening or challenging

Understood by how a person appraises a situation in terms of motives & needs and resources for coping.

Two critical processes that determine stressfulness:

1. Cognitive appraisal
2. Coping strategies

"Stress response" - a pattern of physical and psychological responses that occur in different situations. Pattern is nonspecific. Stimulus can be an event or set of circumstances that require unusual response. Eg. Catastrophic events.

Physiological response to stress - An emergency response. Body's response to perceived threat is to prepare for emergency action. Response of sympathetic nervous system. There is an increase in blood sugar, endorphins, stress hormones (epinephrine and norepinephrine), blood pressure, muscle tension, heart rate. Decrease in digestion, saliva production. Reaction known as **fight or flight** reaction.

General adaptation syndrome - Hans Selye. A nonspecific and automatic stress response pattern. Three phases:

1. Alarm reaction
2. Resistance
3. Exhaustion

Alarm reaction

Shock period: temperature decreases, heart rate and blood pressure decreases, muscles go slack.

Alarm period: defenses mobilized for emergency response

Resistance stage: most physiological responses eventually return to normal. Adapt to stressor. Specific resistance to stressor is up but general resistance to stress is down.

Exhaustion stage: if stressor continues over time, the ability to resist it and other stressors collapse

Stress related illnesses - high blood pressure, heart disease

Stressful Life Events

Holmes and Rahe life events scale - to measure effects of life changes. Marriage given arbitrary point value of 50 and put in the middle of scale. Events rated as more or less stressful than 50. Normative group of 400 people. Values summed for a total stress score over a fixed period.

Eg. Score of 200-300 then a 50% chance of health problems in the following year

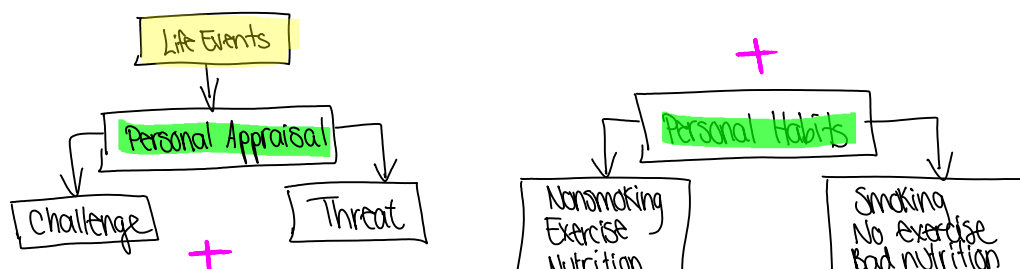
Eg. Score of 300+ then a 70% chance of health problems in the following year

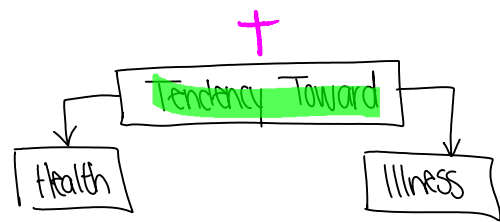
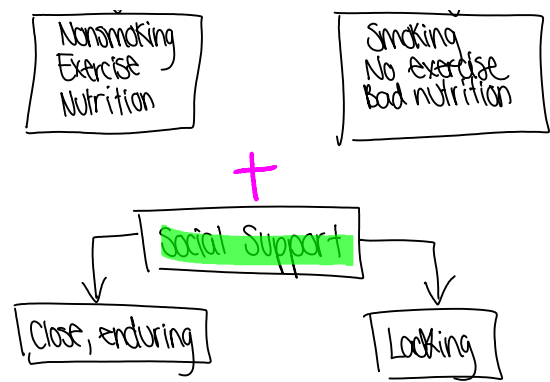
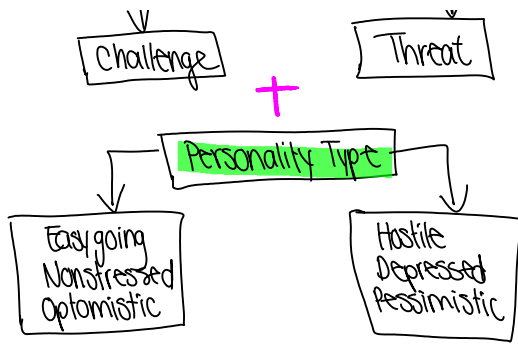
Daily Hassles: even better predictors of emotional and physical health problems than major events

Burnout - physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion as a result of chronic job stress

Characteristics of Stressful Events that Lead to Perceived Stress: all characteristics depend on individual appraisal

1. Controllability - having control reduces severity of stress. Perception of control lessens anxiety even if just a false belief of control.
2. Predictability - ability to predict stressful events reduces severity of stress even if no control. Uncertainty leads to chronic stress. Predictable aversive event preferable to an unpredictable one.
3. Extent to which limits of capabilities and self-concept are challenged - in performance pressure situations and life changes which require adjustment.





Chapter 13 [combined]

Thursday, May 10, 2012

7:09 PM

Personality

- **Personality** - Characteristic patterns of behavior, thought and emotion that determine a person's adjustment to the environment.
- Two main goals of personality psychology
 1. Describe and explain individual differences
 2. Synthesize the influences on a person into an integrated account of the person.
- Four basic approaches to personality theory
 1. Psychoanalytic
 2. Trait
 3. Humanistic
 4. Social-cognitive

Psychoanalytic

- Freud (1856-1939)
 - Characteristics of personality
 - Influenced primarily by early childhood experiences
 - Is often hidden being primarily determined by unconscious mental forces
 - Development occurs in conjunction with frustration and conflict of basic needs
 - Two major areas of contribution to psychology
 1. Clinical psychology
 - Model of personality
 - Psychoanalytic techniques
 - Defense mechanisms
 2. Developmental psychology
 - Stage theory of psychosexual development
 - Importance of the first 5 years of life
 - Biography and historical overview
 - Interest in neurology and in treatment of nervous disorders
 - Fascinated with hysteria
 - Influenced by Jean Charcot who could produce symptoms of hysteria by hypnosis
 - Freud used hypnosis
 - Influenced by Josef Bruer who used the "talking cure"
 - Free association
 - Treatment technique used by Freud
 - Say whatever comes to mind
 - Psychoanalysis
 - Theory and techniques of Freud
 - Models
 - ◆ Topographic model - geographic-type conceptualized of mind
 - ◆ Dynamic model - the motivational forces that direct and initiate behavior
 - ◆ Structural model - basic components of personality
 - Developmental stage approach
 - ◆ Psychosexual stages linking sexual energy with specific bodily organs
 - ◇ Topographic
 - ▶ Parts of the mind have spatial relationships to each other
 - ▶ Three regions
 - Unconscious
 - ◆ Largely unknown territory

- ◆ Thoughts and feelings we are unaware of
 - Preconscious
 - ◆ Can become conscious
 - ◆ Not barred actively from consciousness
 - Conscious
 - ◆ Present awareness
 - ◆ Thoughts slip between consciousness and preconsciousness
- ◇ Dynamic - Psychic energy
 - ▶ Comes from biological energy
 - ▶ Closed energy system
- ◇ Instincts or drives or impulses
 - ▶ Biological drives/needs which cause tension
 - ▶ The reservoir of psychic energy
 - Life instinct
 - ◆ Libido is sex instinct
 - ◆ Self-preservation, love
 - Death instinct
 - ◆ Aggression, hate, destruction
 - ▶ Three major structures of personality
 - **Id**
 - ◆ Reservoir of all instincts
 - ◆ Operates on pleasure principle
 - ◆ Seeks immediate gratification of instinctive desires
 - ◆ Goal is increase pleasure and reduce tension/pain
 - ◆ No contact with reality
 - ◆ Contains all the original psychic energy
 - **Ego**
 - ◆ Mechanism for adaptation to reality
 - ◆ Develops from 6-8 months to 2 years of age
 - ◆ Goal is to satisfy the id but not always immediately or directly
 - ◆ The mediator, director and decider
 - ◆ Operates on reality principle
 - ◆ Achieve pleasure within boundaries of reality
 - ◆ Uses delay or channeling of impulses to cope with reality
 - ◆ Serves three masters
 - ◆ Id, superego, reality of the external world
 - **Superego**
 - ◆ Last structure to develop (ages 3-5)
 - ◆ Represents the norms and standards, the right and wrong of culture
 - ◆ Conscience
 - ◆ Guilt if act is against norms
 - ◆ Ego ideal
 - ◆ Encouragement to become ideal
 - ◆ Opposes both id and ego
 - ◆ Judges actions, demands perfection and produces pride or guilt
 - ◆ May be source of anxiety for id instinct expression
- ▶ Structural relationships of id, ego, superego

- Not sharply defined areas
- Energy not rigidly separated
 - ◆ Ego has no energy of its own
- Lack separation and can combine to produce behavior or thought
- Normally all work together as a team
- Ego is central
 - ◆ Must obey and control id, superego and external reality
- ▶ Relationship of structures to topography
 - All of id is unconscious
 - Both ego and superego span 3 topographic layers
 - ◆ Ego is unaware of its defense mechanisms
- Developmental stage approach
 - ◆ Libidinal energy focused on different bodily organs during different periods in development
 - ◆ Locations called erogenous zones
 - ◆ When focus of libido changes, then behavior changes
 - ◆ Psychosexual stages
 - ◇ Stages of development which represent psychological effects of the movement of early sexual impulses
 - ◇ You can't get stuck in a stage, you have to keep going
 - ◇ Oral Stage (1 to 1 1/2)
 - ▶ Infants sexual energy focus is mouth
 - ▶ Pleasure from satisfaction of oral drives
 - ▶ Libidinal energy "cathected"(or invested) in oral erogenous zone
 - Eg. Behaviors
 - Pleasure sucking
 - Biting
 - ▶ Frustration of oral needs leads to pain and anxiety
 - ▶ Goal is optimal level of oral gratification
 - ▶ Consequences of too much or too little gratification
 - Too little
 - Anxiety
 - Continue seeking oral gratification
 - Pessimism
 - Fixation
 - When a portion of the libido remains tied to a period of development and remains at erogenous zone
 - Because needs were either under or over gratified
 - Too much
 - No reason to progress
 - Fixation
 - ▶ Oral character traits from fixation
 - Overindulgence - Optimism / Gullibility
 - Underindulgence - Pessimism / Suspiciousness
 - ◇ Anal (1 1/2 to 3)
 - ▶ Sexual energy focus is on the anus
 - ▶ Behaviors center around expulsion or retention of feces
 - ▶ Toilet-training stage
 - ▶ Anal stimulation produces pleasure
 - ▶ If toilet training is harsh, premature or overemphasized, then the child has anxiety

- ▶ Goal is optimal self-control
- ▶ Anal character traits from fixation
 - Center around giving and withholding
 - Anal-retentive (withholding)
 - Uptight, orderly, controlled, compulsively neat
 - Anal-expulsive
 - Messy, irresponsible
- ◇ Phallic (3 to 5)
 - ▶ Pleasure from genital area stimulation
 - ▶ Stage of Oedipal crisis
 - Boys pleasure from penis
 - Sexually attracted to mother and hostile towards father
 - Fears that father will castrate from retaliation (Castration anxiety)
 - ▶ Stage of a parallel "Electra complex" for girls
 - Not Freudian in origin
 - ▶ Desires remain unconscious
 - ▶ Anxiety relieved by
 - Identification
 - Incorporate others viewpoints/values qualities
 - Identify with father
 - "Have" mother vicariously through father
 - Leads to superego development
- ◇ Latency (6 to puberty)
 - ▶ Sexual impulses are latent/dormant
 - ▶ Sexual energy channeled into activities and social concerns
- ◇ Genital (puberty)
 - ▶ At puberty, sexual impulses rise
 - ▶ Resolution of this stage is endpoint of psychosexual development
 - ▶ Attraction to opposite sex
 - ▶ Goal is mature, adult sexuality
- Stage approach points
 - ◆ First few years of life are most important and personality is fixed by about age 5
 - ◆ Pioneer of notion that early childhood experience is crucial
 - ◆ Movement from stage to stage is guided by physical maturation
 - ◇ An invariant stage order
- Defense mechanisms
 - ◆ Used by ego when anxiety is so strong that it threatens to engulf the ego
 - ◆ Purpose is to protect from anxiety by avoidance of conscious recognition of instinctual impulse
 - ◆ Operate at unconscious level
 - ◆ Alleviate anxiety by distorting reality
 - ◆ Result is to allow for some indirect gratification of instinctual impulse
 - ◆ Examples of defense mechanisms
 - ◇ Repression
 - ▶ Most basic
 - ▶ Prevent threatening thought from emerging into conscious awareness
 - ◇ Regression
 - ▶ Revert to an earlier level of development

- Sucking your thumb in a crisis or scary situation.
- ◇ Reaction formation
 - ▶ Mask an unacceptable emotion by an often exaggerated focus on the opposite
 - I just love, love, love my new baby brother! When they're actually jealous.
- ◇ Projection
 - ▶ Attribute anxiety - arousing thoughts or impulses to others rather than self
 - "That guy has the hots for you" when you have the hots for them
- ◇ Rationalization
 - ▶ Substitute a socially acceptable reason for our actions
 - A plausible excuse
 - Must clean instead of studying
- ◇ Displacement
 - ▶ Channel instinctual energy into a less threatening substitute object/person and not original object choice
 - Not going to punch your boss in the face
- ◇ Sublimation
 - ▶ Channel impulse energy into socially acceptable activity
 - Becoming a professional boxer to mask your rage
 - Coming to class, apparently
- ◆ A necessary evil
- ◆ Need them to deal with high anxiety but cost is wasting energy and deceiving self
- Personality for Freud
 - The working out of conflicts among id, ego, superego involving the repressions and sublimations of instinctual pressures and resultant compromises across topographic levels of the mind
- Successful psychosexual development
 - Functioning characterized by defenses that minimally distort instinctual reality
 - Developmental failings are produced by fixations
 - Defenses used even in the highest form of functioning
- Assessing the Unconscious
 - The Rorschach (Inkblot)
 - A projective test
 - ◆ Those used to explore private personality by presenting ambiguous stimuli to subject
 - Rorschach developed by Herman Rorschach
 - 10 cards displaying complex inkblot
 - Subject responds to blots
 - Responses scores and interpretations about feelings, conflicts, impulses, and tendencies
 - Interpretation requires a lot of training and experience
 - Multiple scoring systems exist
 - Predictive power is limited
 - ◆ Must use other behavior and test data as well
- Evaluation of theory as scientific
 - Verifiable? Testable?
 - Vague and difficult to test empirically/scientifically
 - Falsifiability?
 - Predicts equally probable but contradictory outcomes

Trait Approach

- Attempts to isolate and describe basic properties of individual that direct behavior
- Puts focus on prediction and description of behavior
- Assumes people vary simultaneously along continuous dimensions or factors/traits
 - Traits or factors seen as continuous versus discontinuous categories
- Rates individuals on a number of scales of factors
- To arrive at global picture of individual look at pattern of traits and amount of each trait
- **Trait** - Any characteristic or disposition that differs from person to person in a relatively permanent and consistent way
- Trait psychologists want
 - A small set of trait descriptors to apply to personality
 - Reliable and valid methods to measure personality traits
 - To find relationship among traits and behavior
- Factor analysis
 - Technique that selects dimensions (called factors) reflecting commonality or shared value between characteristics
 - Examines intercorrelations among measures
 - Groups highly correlated ones into factors
 - Reduces measures to factors via groupings
 - Hans Eysenck
 - Used factor analytic approach
 - Eysenck Personality
 - Introversion/Extroversion (I-E)
 - ◆ Refers to whether orientation is to self (inward) or to external environment (outward)
 - Emotional stability/instability (N for neuroticism)
 - ◆ Refers to whether one is emotionally responsive or emotionally stable
 - The Big Five - How many personality factors are there?
 - Depends on
 - Type of trait scale used
 - Type of factor analysis
 - Amount of reduction desired
 - Consensus emerging that 5 trait dimensions may be most useful
 - **Openness to experience**
 - ◆ Imaginative vs. practical
 - ◆ Preference for variety vs. preference for routine
 - **Conscientiousness (constraint)**
 - **Extraversion (positive emotionally)**
 - ◆ Sociable vs. retiring
 - ◆ Fun-loving vs. sober
 - ◆ Affectionate vs. reserved
 - **Agreeableness**
 - **Neuroticism (negative emotionality)**
 - ◆ Calm vs. anxious
 - ◆ Secure vs. insecure
 - ◆ Self satisfied vs. self pitying
 - They form personality inventory
 - Assessing traits
 - Questionnaires where person reports own reactions or feelings in certain situations
 - A self-report to assess personality traits
 - May be scored by computer
 - Can measure a single dimension or a number of personality traits
 - Different possible methods of test item construction
 - ◆ Rationally derived
 - ◇ Uses theory as a guide to questions
 - ◆ Empirically derived
 - ◇ Items selected because they can discriminate between groups

- such as diagnostic groups
 - MMPI (Minnesota Multipathic Personality Inventory)
 - ◆ A personality inventory
 - ◆ To help diagnose personality disturbances
 - ◆ New version called MMPI-2
 - ◆ Empirically derived
 - ◇ Each item selected on basis of discriminating/differentiating between two groups, normal vs. abnormal
 - ◆ 10 clinical scales
- Evaluation of Trait Approach
 - Not a theory
 - More like an orientation/a set of methods to asses characteristics
 - Still disagreement as to the number of basic dimensions
 - Ranges from two to eight
- Person-situation controversy
 - Trait approach has trouble with predicting behavior
 - Assumes cross-situational consistency. However, behavior varies widely from one situation to the next
 - Scores on trait measures may only predict up to 10% of the variations among behaviors given in situation
 - Need to know the trait-environment interaction to predict behavior
 - Personality consistency vs. situational specificity
 - Stability position
 - Personality traits endure or persist over time
 - Consistency position
 - Behaviors displayed in one situation will be exhibited in others
 - Interactionism
 - Reformulates problem as **which** personality and situational factors **interact** to produce consistent behaviors and which produce variable behaviors
 - Behavior results from reciprocal transactions between personality and situation
 - Empirical research shows
 - ◆ Individuals differ in degree to which behaviors show consistency
 - ◆ Each individual has
 - ◇ Traits fairly resistant to situational influence
 - ◇ Traits that can be readily modified
 - ◆ Consistency only found in traits central to individual's style of functioning
 - Summary of consistency and specificity issue
 - Each person has a small and distinct group of primary traits that persist and endure and exhibit high consistency across situations
 - Personality refers to these enduring (stable) and pervasive (consistent) traits

Humanistic Approach

- Focus on how subjective experiences of a person
 - How the person perceives and interprets the world
- Represents a reaction against unconscious motivation model (psychodynamic)
- Topics of investigation
 - Human choice
 - Creativity
 - Self-actualization
 - Growth to fulfill one's potential
- Believes people are basically "good"
- Abraham Maslow
 - Humanistic psychologist
 - Proposed a hierarchy of needs

- Ranges from basic biological to complex psychological needs
- Needs at least partial satisfaction of lower level needs to move up hierarchy
- Hierarchy (highest to lowest)
 - Self-actualization
 - Esteem (self-respect and feelings of success)
 - Belongingness and love
 - Safety (security, order and stability)
 - Physiological (hunger, thirst and sex)
- Peak experiences
 - Transient moments of self-actualization
 - ◆ State of perfection and goal attainment
 - ◆ Happiness and fulfillment
 - Can occur via appreciation of nature, creative activity, etc
- Maslow identified qualities of self-actualizers
- Carl Rogers
 - Humanistic psychologist
 - Self-actualization
 - Basic force that motivates us to fulfill capacities/potentials within our limits
 - Conditions for growth
 - Genuineness
 - Acceptance
 - Empathy
 - Give acceptance by offering "unconditional positive regard"
 - Valuing person no matter what
 - Central concept for Rogers is the self-concept
 - All thoughts, perceptions, and feelings that characterize the self
 - Also feelings, bodily states and thoughts
- Evaluation
 - Recognizes role of private experience
 - Concentrates on the "whole" healthy person
 - Lacks analysis regarding the causes of behavior
 - Concepts are
 - Vague, subjective, and value laden
 - Difficult to measure
 - Theories built with healthy advantaged people and more suited to the well-functioning

Chapter 14 [combined]

Thursday, May 17, 2012
6:24 PM

Defining Psychological Disorders

- A harmful dysfunction that shows one or more of four criterion (all four usually considered)
 1. Deviation from statistical norms
 - Atypical behavior
 2. Deviation from social norms
 - Behavior is disturbing
 - Note
 - Norms differ from society to society
 - Norms change over time
 3. Maladaptiveness of behavior
 - Does the behavior affect well-being of
 - Individual
 - Social group
 - Personal distress may be the only sign/symptom of abnormality
 4. Rationally unjustifiable behavior
 - Unsupported by popular acceptance
- Insane is a legal term, means whether the person knows right from wrong

Understanding Psychological Disorders

- The Medical Model
 - Sees psychology disorders as similar to physical ones
 - As illnesses
 - Require diagnose based on symptoms
 - Need treatment
- Bio-Psycho-Social Perspective
 - Combining factors interact to produce psychological disorders
 - Factors are biological psychological and sociocultural
 - Ex: anorexia nervosa
- Classifying psychological disorders
 - Advantages
 - Help investigate and uncover causes of different abnormal behaviors
 - Grouping individuals according to similarities in abnormal behavior: help clarify causes
 - Improve communication about people with similar symptoms
 - Help plan treatment based on how similar patients responded
- DSM-IV (Diagnostic and Statistical Manual - Fourth Edition)
 - Defines major diagnostic categories
 - Classification used by most mental health experts in Canada and the U.S.
 - Traditional classification
 - Neuroses and psychoses
 - Neuroses
 - ◆ Group of disorders characterized by anxiety, personal unhappiness, and maladaptive behavior
 - ◆ Assumed to have problems coping with internal conflicts
 - ◆ Individual can usually function in society but not at full capacity
 - Psychoses
 - ◆ Behavior and thought process so disturbed that person is out of touch with reality
 - ◆ Cannot cope with daily life
 - ◆ Usually need hospitalization

- Both are fairly broad categories
- Neither are DSM categories
 - Not precise enough
- Each category contains a number of classifications within DSM
 - Neurotic disorders
 - Anxiety
 - Somatoform
 - Dissociative
 - Affective (mood)
 - Psychotic disorders
 - Schizophrenic
 - Paranoid
 - Affective (certain types)
 - "Psychotic" behavior
 - Ex. Distorted perceptions and irrational ideas

Labeling Psychotic Disorders

- Disadvantages
 - A diagnostic label is not a cause
 - Can overlook differences between people with the same diagnoses and not treat each person as unique
 - Labels can carry stigma
 - Is the behavior not the person being labeled
 - Value judgments can be associated with labels
- Anxiety disorders
 - A group of disorders where anxiety is main symptom
 - Panic disorders
 - Generalized anxiety
 - Also includes disorders where maladaptive behaviors used to control anxiety
 - Phobic
 - Avoidance behavior
 - Obsessive-compulsive
 - Repetitive behavior
 - Generalized Anxiety (GAD) and Panic Disorders
 - GAD
 - High tension each day
 - Feels vaguely uneasy/apprehensive
 - Tend to overreact to mild stressors
 - Symptoms
 - ◆ Inability to relax
 - ◆ Disturbed sleep
 - ◆ Fatigue
 - ◆ Headaches
 - ◆ Dizziness
 - ◆ Rapid heart beat
 - Continuously worries about potential problems
 - Difficulty concentrating and making decisions
 - May also experience panic attacks (panic disorder)
 - ◆ Episodes of acute and overwhelming apprehension or terror
 - ◆ During attacks feel something dreadful is about to happen
 - ◆ Symptoms of anxiety
 - ◇ Heart palpitations
 - ◇ Shortness of breath
 - ◇ Perspiration
 - ◇ Muscle tremors
 - ◇ Faintness

- ◇ Nausea
 - ◆ Severe panic attacks
 - ◇ Person fears they will die
 - Both GAD and panic disorders
 - ◆ Usually person has no clear idea why frightened
 - ◆ This is called "free-floating" anxiety as not triggered by a particular event
- Phobias
 - Fears are specific
 - Phobia - responding with intense fear to stimulus/situation that most people do not consider particularly dangerous
 - Usually realize their fear is irrational
 - Alleviated only by avoiding feared objection/situation
 - Fear diagnosed as a phobia only when avoidance interferes considerably with daily life
 - Three categories
 1. Specific phobia
 - ◆ Fear of a specific object, animal, or situation
 2. Social phobia
 - ◆ Insecure in social situations and exaggerated fear of embarrassing themselves
 3. Agoraphobia
 - ◆ Most common phobia of people seeing professional help and most disabling
 - ◆ Fear of entering an unfamiliar setting
 - ◆ Avoid open spaces, crowds, travelling
 - ◆ Fear of leaving home in extreme cases
 - ◆ Usually a history of panic attacks
 - ◆ Fear incapacitation by panic attack away from security of home and where no help
 - ◆ Usually very dependent
 - ◆ Harder to treat than specific phobias
- Obsessive-compulsive disorder
 - Compelled to think about things they would rather not think about
 - Or compelled to perform acts they do not wish to carry out
 - Obsessions
 - Persistent intrusions of unwelcome thoughts or images
 - Compulsions
 - Irresistible urges to carry out certain acts/rituals
 - Obsessive thoughts may be linked with compulsive acts
 - Thoughts occupy so much time they seriously interfere with daily life
 - Individual recognizes thoughts as irrational but unable to control
 - Typical obsessive thought topics
 - Causing harm (self/others)
 - Fear of contamination
 - Doubts about task completion

Mood Disorders

- Disturbance of mood with emotional extremes
- Includes
 - Major depressive disorder
 - If symptoms last more than two weeks
 - Most depressed episodes are of relatively short duration
 - Tend to spontaneous recovery
 - 1/4 last less than 1 month, 1/2 last less than 3 months, 1/4 last a year or longer (about 10% do not recover and remain chronically depressed)

- Tend to recur
 - 50% will have another episode
 - 80% chance of recurrence after two episodes
- Bipolar depression
 - Mania (elation) and depression alternate. Mania alone is uncommon
 - Starts with mania
 - Energetic/enthusiastic/high self-confidence
 - Can become confused
 - Delusions
 - ◆ Irrational beliefs
 - ◆ Talks constantly
 - ◆ Rushes from one activity to another
 - ◆ Little need for sleep
 - ◆ Grandiose plans with little attention to practicality
 - ◆ Emotion has a driven quality
 - ◆ Tendency to hostility
 - ◇ Angered by attempts to interfere and can become abusive
 - Usually followed by depressive episode
 - Biological variables seem important
 - Runs in families
 - Early onset
 - Responds to medications
 - Very likely to recur if untreated
 - Represents 5-10% of depressions
 - Equally common in men and women
- Four sets of depressive symptoms
 1. Emotional (mood)
 - Subjective states of sadness, dejection
 - Feeling
 - ◆ Hopeless
 - ◆ Unhappy
 - ◆ Crying spells common
 - ◆ May contemplate suicide
 - ◆ Anhedonia
 - ◇ Joylessness
 - ◇ Loss of pleasure
 - ◇ Loss of gratification
 - ◆ Loses interest in
 - ◇ Hobbies
 - ◇ Recreation
 - ◇ Family activities
 - ◇ Others
 2. Cognitive
 - Negative thoughts
 - Low self esteem
 - Self-blame for failures
 - Hopeless/pessimistic
 - Global and stable internal attributions for failure
 - Specific and unstable external attributions for success
 3. Motivational
 - Low ebb
 - Passivity
 - Difficulty initiating
 4. Physical
 - Loss of appetite
 - Sleep disturbances
 - Fatigue

- Loss of energy

Schizophrenia

- A group of disorders
- Personality is disorganized
- Reality is distorted
- Trouble functioning
- Affects 1% of the population
- Onset
 - Usually about 25-35 years of age
 - May be sudden or gradual
 - Recovery more likely if sudden (acute) onset and main symptom is not withdrawal
- Disturbance of
 - Thought and attention
 - Critical symptom
 - Process and content of thought disturbed
 - "Word salad" is the uttering of meaningless words and phrases
 - **Loose associations** - shifting ideas
 - **Clang associations** - rhyming
 - Delusions of influence
 - Common
 - Feels controlled by an external force
 - Delusions of persecution
 - "Paranoid ideation"
 - May begin with ideas of reference
 - Delusions of grandeur
 - Less common
 - Attention disorder
 - Difficulty keeping focused on relevant stimuli
 - Thought intrusion/ disorganization with no insight info
 - Perception
 - During acute episodes may experience perceptual changes
 - Hallucinations
 - Sensory experiences with no known environmental stimulation
 - Most common are auditory
 - Emotion and action
 - Emotion not appropriate
 - Or "flat affect" meaning emotion is blunted, face is flat, no expression
- Withdrawal from reality
 - Social withdrawal and self-absorption
- Impaired functioning areas
 - Grooming
 - Coping
 - Social
 - Hard to work or keep a job

Personality Disorders

- A group of disorders
- Personality disorder
 - Long standing pattern of maladaptive behaviors that impair social functioning
 - May not be motivated to change
 - No major reality problems or disorganization
 - Antisocial personality disorder (psychopath/sociopath)
 - Lack conscience
 - Little or no sense of guilt
 - Behaviors motivated by own needs

- No empathy or concern for others
- Eight descriptive aspects
 1. Low frustration tolerance/impulsive
 2. Good façade of sincerity
 3. Little evidence of guilt or remorse
 4. Lie effectively
 5. Seek excitement
 6. Hard to change even with punishment
 7. May be intelligent, attractive, charming, manipulative, con artists
 8. True nature is that they cause problems for others
- Is not antisocial behavior
 - Antisocial behavior
 - ◆ Means against society
 - ◆ Usually illegal
 - Acts can be due to
 - ◆ Need for attention
 - ◆ Loss of contact with reality
 - ◆ Inability to control impulses
 - ◆ Membership in a gang or subculture having concern for others and a code of conduct

Chapter 15 [combined]

Thursday, May 24, 2012

5:40 PM

Modern Treatment

Deinstitutionalization

- Since early 60s, antipsychotic medications became widely available
- Increased discharging from hospitals
- Hospital stays shorter now
 - Readmission rate is about 50%

Professions Involved in Psychotherapy

- PHD in psychotherapy does not exist
1. Clinical Psychologist (PHD)
 - 7 years postgraduate study
 - 1 year supervision
 - Pass license exam
 - Cannot yet prescribe in Canada
 2. Psychiatrist
 - MD and mental health residency
 - Can prescribe
 3. Psychiatric social worker
 - MSW (2 years postgraduate)
 4. Psychiatric nurse
 - Nursing degree
 - Training in mental disorders
 5. Psychoanalyst
 - Usually an MD psychiatrist
 - Psychoanalytic training

The Psychological Therapies

Psychotherapy

- To treat by psychological means
- Therapist and client(s) meet to effect change in client(s)
- Change is modification of
 - Thoughts
 - Feelings
 - Behaviors

Eclectic approach

- Uses many approaches/methods/techniques selected for client

Psychoanalysis

- Freud's classical therapeutic technique (lengthy)
- Use a variety of methods to identify and examine conflicts and repressed impulses
 - Seeks self-insight as therapeutic for emotional/behavioral/relationship problems
 - Free association: patient verbally reports ongoing stream of thought out sight of therapist
- Interpretation
 - Analyst's ideas about conflicts, resistances, impulses, and dreams
 - To promote insight
- Transference
 - Patient's transfer to the analyst of a pattern of interaction from significant past relationship

- Interactions are acted out and can be analyzed and a new relationship developed

Psychodynamic therapy

- Many contemporary dynamic therapies are outgrowths of psychoanalysis
 - Characteristics
 - Briefer than psychoanalysis
 - Less intense transference
 - Fixed and defined goals
 - Do not completely reconstruct childhood
 - Direct face-to-face discussion
 - Therapist more active and more direct

Humanistic therapies

- Focus on
 - The present (here and now) and future vs. past
 - Conscious vs. unconscious thoughts
 - Uniqueness and responsibility of individual
 - Growth and self-actualization

Client/person-centered therapy

- Carl Rogers
- Therapist - a non-directive facilitator
 - Eg. Feelings
 1. Clarifies
 2. Empathizes
 3. Acknowledges
- Three important therapist qualities
 1. Empathy/warmth
 - Understand feeling and express understanding
 2. Genuineness
 - Be open and honest
 3. Acceptance
 - Deep unconditional acceptance of individual and potential
- Therapist uses active listening
 - Paraphrase, reflect, and clarify feelings
 - Good for clients who are motivated and highly verbal

Behavior therapies

- A number of methods based on principles of learning and conditioning
- Views maladaptive behaviors as learned
- Goal is modify behavior in specific situation
- Origin of behavior(s) is not important
- Focus is behavior
 - How often?
 - Where?
 - How to change behavior?
- Uses defined and specific goals

Counterconditioning

- Procedure based on classical conditioning
 - Conditions new responses to stimuli that previously led to unwanted responses
 - Systematic desensitization and adverse conditioning both based on counter-conditioning

Systematic desensitization

- Specific method of behavior therapy
- Good for fears and phobias

- Based on use of incompatible/antagonistic responses
 - Weaken an undesirable response by strengthening incompatible one
 - Eg. Relaxation as antagonistic to anxiety
- Based on principles of classical or Pavlovian conditioning
- Four basic steps
 1. Train relaxation exercises
 - Eg. Progressive relaxation of muscle groups
 2. Rank order feared situations
 3. Gradual exposure to feared situation
 - In reality is best
 - Can expose in imagination using imagery
 - Start with situation of least anxiety
 4. Expose at pace at which relaxation is maintained
- An exposure therapy
 - Eg. "Flooding" technique is exposing phobic person to most feared situation and trapping them until anxiety reduces

Cognitive Therapy

- Behaviorally based but attend to teaching more adaptive thinking/reasoning
- Cognitive (thinking) factors
 1. Thoughts
 2. Expectations
 3. Interpretations or events that mediate/change behavior
- Cognitive behavior therapy
 - Combining cognitive and behavior therapy
 - To change thoughts and actions
 - Uses behavior modification techniques and techniques to change maladaptive beliefs
 - Eg. Belief distortions or overgeneralizations
 - Alter using positive self-statements

Group Therapy

- Advantages
 - Saves therapist time
 - Saves client money
 - Provides social support
 - Opportunity for vicarious learning
- Disadvantages
 - Not as affective if client requires direct therapy

Evaluating Psychotherapies

- Three problems of effectiveness evaluation
 1. What is improvement?
 - Spontaneous remission: large percentage improve without professional treatment by
 - Changes in person's life
 - Help of another person
 - Rate of spontaneous remission is 30-60% depending on nature of disorder.
 - Success in psychotherapy - if rate of success is greater than rate of spontaneous remission (baseline rate) then we can conclude success
 - How to measure baseline rate: use wait-list controls
 2. How to measure improvement?
 - Outcome measures are used
 - Eg. Mood measures for affective problems or behavior measures
 - Meta-analysis - a procedure to statistically combine the result of many studies
 - A 1980 meta-analysis combined 475 studies
 - Results
 - Across various therapy types with various outcome measures

- Average psychotherapy patient showed greater improvement than 80% of the untreated group
- 3. What caused improvement? Are different approaches equally effective?
 - Little difference in effectiveness can be shown between therapies
 - Therapy seems superior to no treatment
 - Certain types of therapies may be more well suited for certain types of problems
 - Eg. Systematic desensitization to treat phobias and fears
 - Eg. Psychodynamic therapy for emotional/interpersonal problems

Commonalities Among Psychotherapies

- Effectiveness of many therapies maybe due to common factors across all therapies
- Some nonspecific factors:
 - Interpersonal relationship of warmth and trust
 - Reassurance and support
 - Problems seeming less serious when shared
 - Reinforcement of adaptive responses
 - Understanding or insight
 - Change as "possible" for client induces hope and "hope" facilitates change

Biomedical Therapies

- Based on biological approach to psychological disorders
 - Psychological disorder can be treated at physiological or biomedical level of brain

Drug Therapies

- Psychopharmacology - study of how drugs affect the mind and behavior

Antipsychotic Drugs

- Antipsychotic drugs - family of drugs known as the major tranquilizers like thiorazine, prolixin, clozapine.
 - Used to treat schizophrenia.
 - Blocks dopamine receptors at post-synaptic sites
 - Effectiveness supports DA hypothesis of schizophrenia
 - That too much DA involved in schizophrenia
 - Have calming effect and reduce hallucinations and confusion
 - Not a cure for schizophrenia
 - Seldom abused (useless, people don't take them to get high)
- Dangers/problems of antipsychotics
 - Only control schizophrenia and many symptoms remain like emotional bluntness, withdrawal, attentional problems
 - Side effects can include dryness of mouth, blurred vision, difficulty concentrating. Less side effects with clozapine which also blocks serotonin
 - Long term use problems can include low B.P., involuntary movements of arms, legs, mouth and chin. Parkinsonian symptoms such as difficulty coordinating movements.

Anti-Anxiety Drugs

- Anti-anxiety drugs - family of drugs known as minor tranquilizers like Valium, Librium, Xanax, Ativan. They reduce tension and cause drowsiness. They are central nervous system depressants like alcohol and barbiturates
- Used to treat anxiety disorders like phobias, alcohol withdrawal, stress.
- Should be used in conjunction with appropriate psychotherapy
- Dangers: often over-prescribed, high risk of physical dependency, suicide from overdose by combining with alcohol

Anti-Depressant Drugs

- Anti-depressants - elevate mood in depression
- Increase availability of norepinephrine (NE) and serotonin (SE)

- Increase energy level
- Two major classes
 1. Monoamine oxidase (MAO): inhibitors. Eg. Nardil, parnate. They block the enzyme that destroys NE and SE.
 2. Tricyclic anti-depressants: prevent reuptake of SE and NE and thus prolonging activity of both. Eg. Tofronil and Elavil. Serotonin reuptake inhibitors include Prozac, Zoloft, Paxil. Increase serotonin by blocking reuptake. They're also used to treat obsessive compulsive and panic disorders.
- Problems - require weeks of medication for effect, side effects similar to anti-psychotic medication such as dry mouth, blurred vision, difficulty concentrating. Drop out rate is 1/3 to 1/2. Not as effective as pharmaceutical companies claim.
- Psychotherapy is just as effective, has long term benefits, and no drug side effects.
- Problems with drug reduction: withdrawal must be gradual or severe side effects possible such as headaches, nausea and confusion.
- For bipolar depression, lithium (which is a salt) is used to treat.

Electroconvulsive Therapy

- Treatment for severe depression
- Induce a seizure similar to an epileptic convulsion
- Very popular during the 1940s to 1960s prior to the use of drugs
- Now only in extreme cases
- Works fast
- Very controversial

Modern ECT Treatment Method

1. Anesthesia
2. Muscle relaxant
3. Minimum current to non-dominant hemisphere or bilateral shock
4. Usually 4-6 treatment over several weeks

Main side effect is memory loss; for memories in period up to six months prior to ECT.

How ETC Treatment Works

- Unknown
- Perhaps due to a mass release of neurotransmitters such as NE and SE

Psychosurgery

- Remove or destroy parts of the brain by cutting nerve fibers or by ultrasonic irritation
- **Lobotomy** - usually cut frontal (responsible for decision making and planning) to limbic (responsible for emotion) area connections
 - Get relaxed, lethargic, happy but impaired patient.
 - Extremely controversial
 - Been used for violent tendencies, suicidal tendencies and extreme pain.

Chapter 16 - Social Psychology

Tuesday, June 05, 2012
7:25 PM

Social Thinking

Social Psychology - scientific study of how people relate to, influence, and think about others.

Attributing Behavior to Persons or Situations

Attribution theory - tend to attribute the behavior of others to either internal dispositions or external situations

Fundamental attribution error - people typically overestimate role of personal dispositional factors in controlling behavior. They underestimate the role of situational factors, eg. Come to conclusions about personality traits and disregard situation.

Social Influence

Social influence - attempt by a person or group to change beliefs/attitudes/behaviors. Indirect form of social influence is social norms - the implicit rules and expectations of how to think and behave.

Responses to social influences:

Compliance - conform to wishes of influencing source but do not change private attitudes/beliefs.

Methods to attain compliance: source obtains compliance by setting an example, or wielding authority (obedience because has higher power).

Internalization - change beliefs or behaviors because of genuine belief in influencing source. Changes in what the individual believes in.

Group Pressure and Conformity

Conformity to a majority - peer pressure leads to conformity.

Asch Experiments: Classical studies (1950s). Standard procedure: single subject at table with group of 7-9 confederates. Shown three vertical lines, asked to choose the one that matches to the target line. Answer is obvious. Each person answers in turn. Test subject is next to last to answer. On several critical trials, confederates deliberately chose the incorrect response.

Results - average subject conformed on 32% of critical trials. 74% of all subjects conformed at least once.

Important points - group does not have to be large, 3-4 is effective. Right answer was obvious, no reason for conforming. Does not affect inner attitudes or beliefs. Challenge is to violate the social norm and risk insulting others and being seen as incompetent.

Modifications - one or more confederates breaks with majority. Conformity decreases when unanimity decreases - even when only one breaks with majority, conformity goes from 32% to 6%

Four real subjects, two confederates (a minority) who give consistently wrong responses.

Minority needs to be consistent and not waffle. And needs to be credible. Examination of minority effect on majorities shows that majorities internalize and do not just show obedience to minority. Voice public agreement with majority view but private ratings shift/change towards minority view.

Implications: majorities have social power to approve/disprove/reject/accept and can obtain compliance. Minorities rarely have social power but if have credibility then have power to provide internalization leading to social change.

Conditions that strengthen unanimity - unanimity is more important than the group size.

Social facilitation - when performance facilitated by presence of others. Passive spectators can facilitate or worsen performance.

Improved behaviors: simple, well-learned, highly practiced and instinctive ones. Due to dominant response being correct. High drive generated by social facilitation energizes the dominant response.

Worsened behaviors: complex or being learned behaviors. Due to dominant response not being correct.

Deindividuation - state of anonymity and loss of self-awareness and self restraint in a group situation. Group conditions can produce disinhibited impulsive behavior and cognitive & emotional conditions like unruly mob behavior.

Deindividuated women delivered twice the intensity of shocks as did individuated women

Obedience

Milgram experiment - Obedience to authority studied in classical Milgram experiments by Stanley Milgram

Procedure: Subjects recruited through newspapers, paid \$4 an hour. Subjects told it was a study of memory and the subject is the teacher. Subject watched "learner" (confederate) strapped into wired chair and electrode to learner's wrist. Subject seated in adjoining room in front of panel labeled "shock generator." Shock was given for every wrong answer. There were 30 switches, labeled between 14-450 volts, slight shock to severe shock. Subject given a sample of 45 volt shock. Shocks were simulated. Shocks were increased as more questions were wrong. Confederates shouted and cursed, at 300V kicked the wall, at extremely intense shock was completely silent. When subject wanted to stop, encouraged to go on.

Results: 63% of subjects went all the way to 450V. All went to at least 300V.

Four factors that affect obedience

1. **Social norms** - Milgram's studies involved relying to an ad and agreeing to participate. An implicit contract to cooperate. String social norms to complete a job. Tend to underestimate difficulty of breaking a contract (Dissent = Experimenter is evil = guilt, embarrassment for consenting)
2. **Surveillance** - In Milgram's study, the constant presence of experimenter increases compliance. In 1974, experimenter left room and gave instructions by phone. Obedience dropped from 65% to 21%. Increased cheating. Surveillance is necessary to get high levels of obedience. In obedience, the influence is obtaining public conformity, not private acceptance.
3. **Buffers** - are whatever increases level of remoteness of person from violence. Increased remoteness increases probability of violence. Factors that increase immediacy of contact reduce obedience. Eg. Learner in same room as teacher, the obedience goes from 65% to 40%. Eg. Subject must personally hold learner's hand on the electric plate when obedience goes from 65% to 30%. Factors that decrease immediacy of contact (buffers) will increase obedience. Eg. Teacher is only "link" in chain of others then obedience goes from 65% to 93%.
4. **Ideological justification** - if individual accepts ideology that legitimizes authority of person in charge then ideology justifies following directives.

Milgram ideology - the justification of "science". When experiment moved from university to run-down offices, obedience went from 65% to 48%.

Predictions about results of Milgram studies - College students - 99% said they would not continue shocks over 300V. **Psychiatrists** - predicted only about 4% of subjects would go beyond 300V and less than 1% would go all the way to 450V. Predictions showed that we do not expect situational forces to be as effective as they are. We vastly underestimate compliance rates.

Social Relations

Altruism - an unselfish regard for the welfare of others

Bystander apathy - to describe why bystanders do not come to the aid of others

Bystander effect - tendency for the presence of others to reduce likelihood of a bystander giving aid. Presence of others can: define situation as nonemergency, diffuse responsibility for acting.

Defining the situation: situations may be ambiguous as to whether emergency or not so people tend to wait and see.

Pluralistic ignorance - everyone in a group misleads others by defining situation as nonemergency and leads to non-action.

Experiments support that bystanders can define situations as non-emergencies for one another. Presence of others produces pluralistic ignorance.

Diffusion of responsibility - occurs when emergency is abundantly clear. Each person knows others are present so burden of responsibility does not fall solely on him/her

Textbook

Saturday, May 05, 2012
10:43 AM

Chapter 4 - Nature, Nurture, and Human Diversity

Saturday, May 05, 2012

1:03 PM

Behavior genetics - the study of the relative power and limits of genetic and environmental influences on behavior.

Environment - every nongenetic influence - prenatal nutrition to the people and things around us.

Chromosomes - threadlike structures made of DNA molecules that contain genes.

46 of them in humans, 23 from mother (egg) and 23 from father (sperm)

DNA - deoxyribonucleic acid. Complex molecule containing the genetic information that makes up the chromosomes.

Genes - the biochemical units of heredity that make up the chromosomes; a segment of DNA capable of synthesizing a protein.

Genes can be either active (expressed) or inactive.

Environmental events "turn on" genes.

When turned on, the genes provide the code for creating protein molecules, the building blocks of physical development.

Genome - the complete instructions for making an organism, consisting of all the genetic material in that organism's chromosomes.

Makes us human, rather than chimps or tulips.

Identical twins - develop from the same egg that splits in two

Genes are the same, but the number of copies of those genes isn't.

Share a placenta usually, but 1/3 cases don't.

Same sex only.

On extraversion and neuroticism, identical twins are much more similar than fraternal twins.

Case of the twins Jim Springer and Jim Lewis - separated at birth but still basically identical.

Fraternal twins - develop from two different eggs, genetically no closer than brother and sister, but share a fetal environment.

Temperament - a person's characteristic emotional reactivity and intensity.

Heritability - the proportion of variation among individuals that we can attribute to genes. The hereditary of a trait may vary, depending on the range of populations and environments studied.

Interaction - the interplay that occurs when the effect of one factor depends on another.

Molecular genetics - a subfield of biology that studies the molecular structure and function of genes.

Evolutionary psychology - the study of evolution of behavior and the mind using principles of natural selection.

Natural selection - the principle that, among the range of the inherited trait variations, those that lead to increased reproduction and survival will most likely be passed on to succeeding generations.

Principle developed by Darwin.

Richard Dawkins calls natural selection "arguably the most momentous idea ever to occur to a human mind."

Organisms' varied offspring compete for survival.

Certain biological and behavioral variations increase their reproductive and survival chances in the environment.

Offspring that survive will likely pass their genes on to future generations.

Thus, over time, population characteristics may change.

Mutation - random error in gene replication that leads to a change.

Gender - the biologically and socially influenced characteristics by which people define male and female.

Three criticisms of the evolutionary explanation of human sexuality:

1. It starts with an effect and works backwards to propose an explanation
2. Unethical and immoral men can use such explanations to rationalize their behavior towards

women

3. Overlooks the effects of cultural expectations and socialization

Peer influence - The number of peers who do a certain action correlates to one peer doing a certain action.

Selection effect - adolescents tend to seek out likeminded teenagers. They sort themselves into likeminded groups.

Culture - the enduring behaviors, ideas, attitudes, values, and traditions shared by a group of people and transmitted from one generation to the next.

Norm - an understood rule for accepted and expected behavior. Norms prescribe proper behavior.

Personal space - the buffer zone we like to maintain around our bodies.

Individualism - giving priority to one's own goals and defining one's identity in terms of personal attributes rather than group identifications.

Collectivism - giving priority to goals of one's group (often one's extended family or work group) and defining one's identity accordingly.

Collectivists have deeper/more stable attachments to their groups (family/clan/company).

Place a premium on preserving group spirit.

More shy towards strangers.

Elders and superiors receive more respect.

Priority is we, not me.

<i>Concept</i>	Individualism	Collectivism
<i>Self</i>	Independent (identity from individual traits)	Interdependent (identity from belonging)
<i>Life Task</i>	Discover/express one's uniqueness	Maintain connections, fit in, perform role
<i>What Matters</i>	Me - personal achievement, self esteem, etc	Us - Group goals, family duty, etc
<i>Coping Method</i>	Change reality	Accommodate to reality
<i>Morality</i>	Defined by individuals	Defined by social networks
<i>Relationships</i>	Many, temporary/casual, confrontation acceptable	Few, close and endured, harmony valued
<i>Attributing Behavior</i>	Behavior reflects one's personality and attitudes	Behavior reflects social norms and roles

Aggression - physical or verbal behavior intended to hurt someone.

X-Chromosome - found in both men and women. Females have two, males have one.

Y-Chromosome - only men have this chromosome.

Testosterone - most important male sex hormone. Both males and females have it, but women have far less.

Role - set of expectations /norms about social position, defining how those in the position ought to behave.

Gender role - set of expected behaviors for males and females.

Gender identity - our sense of being male or female.

Gender typing - the acquisition of a traditional masculine or feminine role.

Social learning theory - the theory that we learn social behavior by observing and imitating and by being rewarded or punished.

Biopsychosocial approach:

Biological influences

- Shared human genome
- Individual genetic variations

- Prenatal environment
- Sex-related genes, hormones and physiology

Psychological influences

- Gene-environment interaction
- Neurological effect of early experiences
- Responses evoked by our own temperament, gender, etc.
- Beliefs, feelings and expectations

Socio-cultural influences

- Parental influences
- Peer influences
- Cultural individualism or collectivism
- Cultural gender norms

All the above influences lead to **individual development**.

Chapter 5 - Developing Through the Life Span

Saturday, May 05, 2012

1:06 PM

Developmental psychology - a branch of psychology that studies physical, cognitive, and social change throughout the life span.

Zygote - the fertilized egg; it enters a two-week period of rapid cell division and develops into an embryo.

Embryo - the developing human organism from about two weeks after fertilization until the second month.

Fetus - the developing human organism from 9 weeks after conception to birth.

Teratogens - agents, such as chemicals and viruses, that can reach the embryo or fetus during prenatal development and cause harm.

Fetal alcohol syndrome - physical and cognitive abnormalities in children caused by a pregnant woman's heavy drinking. In severe cases, this can include noticeable facial disproportions.

There is no known safe amount of alcohol that a woman can consume during pregnancy.

Habituation - decreasing responsiveness with repeated stimulation.

Maturation - biological growth processes that enable orderly changes in behavior, relatively uninfluenced by experience.

Cognition - all the mental activities associated with thinking, knowing, remembering, and communicating.

Schema - a concept or framework that organizes and interprets the information.

Assimilation - interpreting our new experience with our existing schemas.

Accommodation - adapting our current understandings (schemas) to incorporate new information.

Object permanence - the awareness that things continue to exist even when not perceived.

Stage	Typical Age Range	Developmental Phenomena
Sensorimotor: experiencing life through senses and actions	0-2 years	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Object permanence• Stranger anxiety
Preoperational: representing things with words or images; intuitive rather than logical reasoning	2-6 years	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Pretend Play• Egocentrism
Concrete operational: thinking logically about concrete events, grasping concrete analogies and performing arithmetical operations	7-11 years	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Conservation• Mathematical transformations
Formal operational: abstract reasoning.	12+ years	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Abstract logic• Potential for moral reasoning

Conservation - the principle that properties such as mass, volume, and number remain the same despite changes in the forms of objects.

Egocentrism - the difficulty of taking another's point of view.

Theory of mind - people's ideas about their own and other's mental states - about their feelings, perceptions, and thoughts, and the behaviors these might predict.

Autism - a disorder that appears in childhood and is marked by deficient communication, social interaction, and understanding of others' state of mind.

Harry Harlow - study of the monkeys and the attachment to the cloth mother instead of the mother who provided food.

Konrad Lorenz - did the duckling experiment, the ducklings became attached to him when they didn't see their mother at birth.

Stranger anxiety - the fear of strangers that infants commonly display by around 8 months of age.

Attachment - an emotional tie with another person, shown in young children by their seeking

closeness of the caregiver and showing distress on separation.

When a child is prevented from forming attachments, the child becomes withdrawn, frightened, or even speechless.

Critical period - the period shortly after birth when an organism's exposure to certain stimuli or experiences produces proper development.

Imprinting - the process by which certain animals form attachments during a critical period early in life.

Children do not imprint, but they do become attached.

Secure attachment - the child is comfortable playing in a playroom when the mother is there. They're distressed when she leaves. Seek contact with her when she comes back. 60% of children.

Insecure attachment - unlikely to explore the new environment of the playroom, may cling to mother. When she leaves, they cry loudly and remain upset or are indifferent to her when she comes back. 30% of children.

Basic trust - according to Erik Erikson, a sense that the world is predictable and trustworthy, said to be formed during infancy by appropriate experience with responsive caregivers.

Self-concept - our understanding and evaluation of who we are.

Parenting styles

Authoritarian - parents who impose rules and expect obedience

Permissive - parents who submit to their children's desires.

Authoritative - parents are both demanding and responsive. Explain reasons for rules.

This is the "best" way to parent.

Adolescence - transition period from childhood, extending from puberty to independence.

Puberty - the period of sexual maturation, during which a person becomes capable of reproducing.

Primary sex characteristics - the body structures (ovaries, testes, external genitalia) that make sexual reproduction possible.

Secondary sex characteristics - non-reproductive sexual characteristics, such as female breasts and hips, male voice quality, and body hair.

Menarche - the first menstrual period.

Kohlberg

Preconventional morality - before age 9, most children's morality focuses on self-interest: they obey rules either to avoid punishment or gain concrete rewards.

Conventional morality - by early adolescence, morality focuses on caring for others and on upholding laws and social rules, simply because they are the laws and rules.

Postconventional morality - with abstract reasoning of the formal operational thought, people may reach a third moral level. Actions are judged "right" because they flow from people's rights or from self-defined, basic ethical principles.

These levels form a moral ladder.

Erikson

Stage	Issue	Description of Task
Infancy (to 1 year)	Trust vs. mistrust	If needs are dependably met, infants develop a sense of basic trust.
Toddlerhood (1-3 years)	Autonomy vs. shame and doubt	Toddlers learn to exercise their will and do things for themselves, or they doubt their abilities.
Preschool (3-6 years)	Initiative vs. guilt	Preschoolers learn to initiate tasks and carry out plans, or they feel guilty about their efforts to be independent.
Elementary School (6 years - puberty)	Industry vs. inferiority	Children learn the pleasure of applying themselves to tasks, or they feel inferior.
Adolescence (teens to 20 years)	Identity vs. role confusion	Teenagers work at refining a sense of self by testing roles and then integrating them to form a

		single identity, or they become confused about who they are.
Young adulthood (20-40 years)	Intimacy vs. isolation	Young adults struggle to form close relationships to gain the capacity for intimate love, or they feel socially isolated.
Middle adulthood (40-60 years)	Generativity vs. stagnation	People discover a sense of contributing to the world usually through family and work, or they may feel a lack of purpose.
Late adulthood (60+ years)	Integrity vs. despair	Reflecting on his or her life, an older adult may feel satisfaction or failure.

Identity - our sense of self, according to Erikson, the adolescent's task is to solidify a sense of self by testing and integrating various roles.

Social identity - the "we" aspect of our self-concept; the part of our answer to "who am I?" that comes from our group memberships.

Intimacy - in Erikson's theory, the ability to form close, loving relationships; a primary developmental task in late adolescence and early adulthood.

Phases of Aging and intelligence

1. Cross-sectional evidence for intellectual decline
 - Researchers test and compare people of various ages
 - Researchers consistently find that older adults give fewer correct answers than do younger adults
2. Longitudinal evidence for intellectual stability
 - **Longitudinally** - retesting the same people over a period of years
 - What they found was until late in life, intelligence remained stable, and sometimes even increased
3. It all depends
 - **Crystallized intelligence** - our accumulated knowledge as reflected in our vocabulary and analogies tests- increases up to old age
 - **Fluid intelligence** - our ability to reason speedily and abstractly, decreases slowly up to age 75

Social clock - the culturally preferred timing of social events such as marriage, parenthood and retirement.

Chapter 10 - Intelligence

Tuesday, May 08, 2012
7:58 PM

Reification- viewing an abstract, immaterial concept as if it were a concrete thing; to reify is to invent a concept, give it a name, and then convince ourselves that such a thing objectively exists in the world
Intelligence is a socially constructed concept: cultures deem intelligent whatever attributes enable success in those cultures

Test - a sample of behaviour at a given point in time

Intelligence test - a method for assessing an individual's mental aptitudes and comparing them with those of others, using numerical scores

Intelligence - mental quality consisting of the ability to learn from experience, solve problems, and use knowledge to adapt to new situations

General intelligence (g) - a general intelligence factor that, according to Spearman and others, underlies specific mental abilities and is therefore measured by every task on an intelligence test

Factor analysis - a statistical procedure that identifies clusters of related items on a test; used to identify different dimensions of performance that underlie a person's total score

L.L. Thurstone

Gave 56 different tests to people and mathematically identified seven clusters of primary mental abilities

He did not rank people on a single scale of general aptitude, but when other investigators studied the profiles, they detected a persistent tendency

Those who excelled in one of the seven clusters generally scored well on the others

Gardner's eight intelligences

1. Linguistic
2. Logical-mathematical
3. Musical
4. Spatial
5. Bodily-kinaesthetic
6. Intrapersonal
7. Interpersonal
8. Naturalist

Savant syndrome - a condition in which a person otherwise limited in mental ability has an exceptional specific skill, such as in computation or drawing

Gardner argues that we do not have an intelligence, but rather multiple intelligences

Ninth possible intelligence: existential intelligence- the ability to ponder large questions about life, death and existence

Sternberg's three intelligences

1. Analytical intelligence (academic problem solving)- assessed by intelligence tests, which present well-defined problems having a single right answer. Convergent - one answer questions.
2. Creative intelligence- demonstrated in reacting adaptively to novel situations and generating novel ideas. Divergent - new ideas.
3. Practical intelligence- required for everyday tasks, which may be ill-defined with multiple solutions

Creativity - the ability to produce novel and valuable ideas (Wiles)

Sternberg and his colleagues identified five components of creativity

1. Expertise - a well-developed base of knowledge, furnishes the ideas, images and phrases we use as mental building blocks
2. Imaginative thinking skills - provide the ability to see things in novel ways, to recognize patterns, and to make connections
3. A venturesome personality - seeks new experiences, tolerates ambiguity and risk, and perseveres on overcoming obstacles
4. Intrinsic motivation - is being driven more by interest, satisfaction and challenge than by external pressures

5. A creative environment - sparks, supports, and refines creative ideas

Social intelligence- the know how involved in comprehending social situations and managing oneself successfully

Emotional intelligence- the ability to perceive, understand, manage and use emotions

John Mayer, Peter Salovey, and David Caruso developed a test that assesses **four emotional intelligence components**

1. Perceive emotions (to recognize them in faces, music and stories)
2. Understand emotions (to predict them and how they change and blend)
3. Manage emotions (to know how to express them in varied situation)
4. Use emotions (to enable adaptive or creative thinking)

Alfred Binet

Devised tests that approximated modern IQ tests

Began by assuming that all children follow the same course of intellectual development but that some develop more rapidly

Their goal became measuring each child's mental age: the chronological age that most typically corresponds to a given level of performance.

To raise the capacities of low scoring children, he recommended training that would help develop their attention span and self-discipline

Lewis Terman

Mental age - a measure of intelligence test performance devised by Binet

Stanford-Binet - the widely used American revision of Binet's original intelligence test

Intelligence quotient - defined originally as the ratio of mental age to chronological age multiplied by 100. $(MA/CA \times 100)$ the average performance for a given age is assigned a score of 100

Today, they represent the test-taker's performance relative to the average performance of others the same age

Terman envisioned that the use of intelligence test would ultimately result in curtailing the reproduction of feeble-mindedness and in the elimination of an enormous amount of crime, pauperism, and industrial inefficiency

68% of people fall between an IQ of 85-115

96% of cases are between 70 & 130

Achievement tests - a test designed to assess what a person has learned

Aptitude test - a test designed to predict a person's future performance; aptitude is the capacity to learn

Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale - the most widely used intelligence test; contains verbal and performance subtests.

Standardization - defining meaningful scores by comparison with the performance of a pretested group

Normal curve - the symmetrical bell-shaped curve that describes the distribution of many physical and psychological attributes

Flynn effect - the phenomenon where intelligence scores have been rising steadily.

Reliability - the extent to which a test yields consistent results, as assessed by the consistency of scores on two halves of the test, or on retesting

Validity - the extent to which a test measures or predicts what is it supposed to

Content validity - the extent to which a test samples the behaviour that is of interest

Predictive validity - the success with which a test predicts the behaviour it is designed to predict; it is assessed by computing the correlation between test scores and the criterion behaviour

Mental retardation - a condition of limited mental ability, indicted by an intelligence score of 70 or below and difficulty in adapting to the demands of life

Level	Intelligence Score	Adaptation to demands of life
Mild	50-70	May learn academic skills to a sixth grade level. With assistance, adults may achieve self-supporting social and

		vocational skills.
Moderate	35-50	May progress to a second grade level. Adults may contribute to their own support by labouring in sheltered workshops.
Severe	35-20	May learn to talk and perform simple work tasks under close supervision.
Profound	Below 20	Require constant aid and supervision.

Down syndrome - a condition of retardation and associated physical disorders caused by an extra copy of chromosome 21

Stereotype threat - a self-confirming concern that one will be evaluated based on a negative stereotype

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- **Predictive validity:** the success with which a test predicts the behaviour it is designed to predict; it is assessed by computing the correlation between test scores and the criterion behaviour
- **Mental retardation:** a condition of limited mental ability, indicated by an intelligence score of 70 or below and difficulty in adapting to the demands of life
- **Down syndrome:** a condition of retardation and associated physical disorders caused by an extra copy of chromosome 21
- **Stereotype threat-** a self-confirming concern that one will be evaluated based on a negative stereotype

Chapter 12 - Stress and Health

June-11-12
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Theories of Emotion

Emotion - a response of the whole organism, involving physiological arousal, expressive behaviors, and conscious experience.

James-Lange Theory - theory that says our experience of emotion is our awareness of physiological responses to emotion-arousing stimuli.

Cannon-Bard theory - the theory that an emotion-arousing stimulus simultaneously triggers physiological responses and the subjective experience of emotion.

Two-factor theory - the Schachter-Singer theory that experience of emotion must be physiologically aroused and cognitively label the arousal.

Anger

Catharsis - emotional release. In psychology, the catharsis hypothesis maintains that "releasing" aggressive energy (through action or fantasy) relieves aggressive urges.

Happiness

Feel-good, do-good phenomenon - people's tendency to be more helpful in a good mood.

Subjective well-being - self-perceived happiness or satisfaction with life. Used along with measures of objective well-being (for example, physical and economic indicators) to evaluate people's quality of life.

Adaptation and Comparison

Adaptation-level phenomenon - our tendency to form judgements relative to a neutral level defined by our prior experience.

Relative deprivation - the perception that one is worse off relative to those with whom one compares oneself.

Stress and Health

Behavioural medicine - an interdisciplinary field that integrates behavioral and medical knowledge and applies that knowledge to health and disease

Health psychology - a subfield of psychology that provides psychology's contribution to behavioural medicine

Stress - Process of perception and response to an event that is perceived as physically or psychologically threatening or challenging. Stress understood by how person appraises situation by terms of motivation and needs, resources for coping

Two critical processes that determine stressfulness

1. Cognitive appraisal
2. Coping strategies

The general adaptation syndrome (GAS): Hans Selye. A nonspecific and automatic stress response pattern. 3 gas phases:

1. **Alarm reaction - Shock period:** temperature decreases, blood pressure and heart rate will drop. Differences mobilized for emergency response.
2. **Resistance** - Most psychological responses eventually return to normal. Adapt to stressor. Specific resistance to stressor is up but general resistance is down
3. **Exhaust** - If stressor continues over time the ability to resist it and other stressors collapse. Stress related illnesses: high blood pressure, heart disease.

Stressful Life Events

1. **Catastrophes** - Unpredictable large-scale events that nearly everyone appraises as threatening (war). In disaster's wake, rates of psychological disorders such as depression and anxiety rose an average 17 percent. Their stress is twofold: the trauma of uprooting

and family separation and the challenges of adjusting to a foreign culture's new language, ethnicity, climate and social norms.

2. **Significant life changes** - The death of a loved one, the loss of a job, leaving home, a marriage, a divorce. Life transitions and insecurities are often keenly felt during young adulthood. Experiencing a cluster of crises puts one even more at risk.
3. **Daily hassles** - Everyday annoyances may be the most significant source of stress. People's difficulties in letting go of unattainable goals is another everyday stressor with health consequences. Even better predictors of emotional and physical health problems than major events. Hypertension rates are high among residents of impoverished areas where the stresses that accompany inadequate income, unemployment, solo parenting, and overcrowding are part of daily life for many people. Burnout: physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion as a result of chronic job stress

Stress and the Heart

Coronary heart disease - the clogging of the vessels that nourish the heart muscle; the leading cause of death in many developed countries. Meyer Friedman and Ray Rosenman tested the idea that stress increases vulnerability to heart disease. 9 year study of more than 3000 healthy men aged 35-59; by the time the study was complete, 257 men had suffered heart attacks and 69% were type A. Recent research revealed that type A's toxic core is negative emotions- especially the anger associated with an aggressively reactive temperament. Type A person's blood may contain excess cholesterol and fat that later get deposited around the heart.

Type A: term for competitive, hard-driving, impatient, verbally aggressive, and anger-prone people

Type B: term for easygoing, relaxed people

One study of young and middle aged adults found that those who react with anger over little things are most coronary-prone, and suppressing negative emotions only heightens the risk. Another study followed 13000 middle-aged people for 5 years. Among those with normal blood pressure, people who had scored high on anger were three times more likely to have had heart attacks

Laura Kubzansky studied 1306 initially healthy men who a decade earlier had scored as optimists, pessimists or neither. Pessimists were more than twice as likely as optimists to develop heart disease

Stress and Susceptibility to Disease

Psychophysiological illness - literally mind-body illness; any stress-related physical illness, such as hypertension and some headaches

Psychoneuroimmunology (PNI) - the study of how psychological, neural, and endocrine processes together affect the immune system and resulting health

Psychoneuroimmunology - Your immune system is a complex surveillance system that defends your body by isolating and destroying bacteria, viruses, and other foreign substances.

Lymphocytes - the two types of white blood cells that are part of the body's immune system

B lymphocytes form in the bone marrow and release antibodies that fight bacterial infections

T lymphocytes form in the thymus and other lymphatic tissue and attack cancer cells, viruses, and foreign substances

Two other important agents of the immune system are the **macrophage** (big eater) which identifies, pursues and ingests harmful invaders and worn-out cells, and the **natural killer cells** which pursue diseases cells

Responding too strongly, it may attack the body's own tissues, causing arthritis or an allergic reaction

Underreacting it may allow a dormant herpes virus to erupt or cancer cells to multiply. One study monitored immune response in 43 monkeys over six months; 21 were stressed by being housed with new roommates. The socially disrupted monkeys experienced weakened immune systems

Stress and AIDS

AIDS - Fourth leading cause of death and the number one killer in Africa. An immune disorder - an acquired immune deficiency syndrome caused by the human immunodeficiency virus, which is spread by the exchange of bodily fluids, primarily semen and blood. Researchers have found that stress and negative emotions do correlated with a progression from HIV infections to AIDS and the speed of decline in those infected

HIV-infected men faced with stressful life circumstances exhibit somewhat greater immune suppression and faster disease progression

Stress and Cancer

Some investigators have reported that people are at increased risk for cancer within a year after experiencing depression, helplessness or bereavement

One large Swedish study revealed that people with a history of workplace stress had 5.5 times greater risk of colon cancer than those who reported no such problems

The emerging view seems to be that stress does not create cancer cells. At worst, it may affect their growth by weakening the body's natural defenses against proliferating malignant cells
Mind and body interact; everything psychological is simultaneously physiological

Promoting Health

Coping with Stress

Coping - alleviating stress using emotional, cognitive, or behavioural methods

Problem-focused coping - attempting to alleviate stress directly- by changing the stressor or the way we interact with that stressor

Emotion-focused coping - attempting to alleviate stress by avoiding or ignoring a stressor and attending to emotional needs related to one's stress reaction

We tend to use problem-focused strategies when we feel a sense of control over a situation and think we can change the circumstances or change ourselves

We turn to emotion-focused strategies when we cannot or believe we cannot change a situation

Perceived Control - Uncontrollable threats trigger the strongest stress responses. Perceiving a loss of control, we become more vulnerable to ill health. Workers given control over their work environment also experience less stress. In one study, 843 grave markers in old graveyard in Glasgow, those with the costliest highest pillars tended to have lived the longest. High economic status predicts a lower risk of heart and respiratory diseases. Poverty and diminished control entail physiologically measurable stress even among children. Losing control provokes an outpouring of stress hormones.

Optimism and Health - Optimists also respond to stress with smaller increases in blood pressure, and they recover more quickly from heart bypass surgery. Those who manage to find humour in life's daily events also seem to benefit. Some studies suggest that mirthful humor may defuse stress and strengthen immune activity

Social Support - Seven massive investigations, each following thousands of people for several years, revealed that close relationships predict health. People are less likely to die prematurely if supported by close relationships with friends, family, fellow workers, members of a faith community or other support groups. Studies indicate that married people live longer, healthier lives than the unmarried. In a seven-decades-long Harvard study, a good marriage at age 50 predicted healthy aging better than did a low cholesterol level at 50. Karen Allen reports that pets have been found to increase the odds of survival after a heart attack, to relieve depression among AIDS patients, and to lower the level of blood lipids that contribute to cardiovascular risk. Close relationships give us an opportunity to confide painful feelings, a social support component that has now been extensively studied. Sexually abused women especially those who kept their secret to themselves reported more headaches and stomach ailments. Talking about a stressful event can temporarily arouse people but in the long run it calms them, by calming limbic system activity.

Managing Stress

Aerobic Exercise - Sustained exercise that increases heart and lung fitness; may also alleviate

depression and anxiety. In a Gallup survey non-exercisers were twice as likely as exercisers to report being not too happy. In one experiment by Lisa McCann and David Holmes, after 10 weeks in an aerobic exercise program, those women reported the greatest decrease in depression. Vigorous exercise provides a substantial immediate mood boost reports David Watson. Exercise orders up mood-boosting chemicals from our body's internal pharmacy- neurotransmitters such as norepinephrine, serotonin, and the endorphins. Other research reveals that exercise not only boosts our mood, but also strengthens the heart, increases blood flow, keeps blood vessels open, and lowers both blood pressure and blood pressure reaction to stress. Less exercise means less brain activity in areas essential for reward, motivation and effective coping

Biofeedback - a system for electronically recording, amplifying and feeding back information regarding a subtle physiological state, such as blood pressure or muscle tension. Neal Miller experimented with biofeedback. Biofeedback instruments mirror the results of a person's own efforts, thereby allowing the person to learn techniques for controlling a particular physiological response. National Institutes of Health panel declared that biofeedback works best on tension headaches. Simple methods of relaxation can produce many of the same results biofeedback once promised

Herbert Benson became intrigued with meditative relaxation when he found that experienced meditators could decrease their blood pressure, heart rate, and oxygen consumption and raise their fingertip temperature

The relaxation response is a state of calm marked by relaxed muscles, slowed breathing and heart rate, and decreased blood pressure

Davidson ran baseline brain scans of volunteers who were not experienced meditators- compared with both the control group and their own baseline, the meditation participants exhibited noticeably more left-hemisphere activity and also improved functioning after the training.

Complementary and Alternative Medicine - As yet unproven health care treatments intended to supplement or serve as alternatives to conventional medicine, and which typically are not widely taught in medical schools, used in hospitals, or reimbursed by insurance companies. When research shows a therapy to be safe and effective, it usually then becomes part of accepted medical practice.

Spirituality and Faith Communities - Jeremy Klark compared the death rates for 3900 Israelis either in one of 11 religiously orthodox or in one of 11 matched, non-religious collective settlements. It was reported that belonging to a religious collective was associated with a strong protective effect. In every age group, religious community members were about half as likely to have died as were their non-religious counterparts. Women are more religiously active than men, and women outlive men. This translated into a life expectancy at age 20 of 83 years for frequent attenders and 75 years for infrequent attenders. Religiously active people tend to have healthier life-styles; for example they smoke and drink less. Social support is another variable that helps explain the faith factor. Religion encourages another predictor of health and longevity- marriage

Stress response system: A pattern of physical and psychological responses that occur in different situations. Pattern is nonspecific. Stimulus can be an event or set of circumstances that require unusual response. Walter Cannon confirmed that the stress response is part of a unified mind-body system, and called it fight or flight

Psychological response to stress: An emergency response. Body's response to perceived threat is to prepare for emergency action. Response of sympathetic nervous system. Increase in blood sugar, endorphins, stress hormones such as epinephrine and norepinephrine, blood pressure, respiration, muscle tension, heart rate. Decrease in digestion, saliva production. Reaction known as **fight or flight** reaction. Another response is to seek and give support: **tend and befriend**.

Significant Life Changes: Holmes and Rahe Life Events Scale - To measure effects of life changes. Marriage given arbitrary point value of 50 and put in middle of scale. Events rate as more or less

stressful than marriage. Normative group of 400 people. Values summed for a total stress score over a fixed period. Score of 200-300 then a 50% change of health problems in the following year. Score over 300 than 79% change of illness.

Characteristics of Stressful Events that Lead to Perceived Stress

Controllability- having control reduces severity of stress

Predictability- ability to predict stressful event reduces severity of stress even if no control

Extent to which limits of capabilities and self-concept are challenged

Challenge of limits - performance pressure situations and life changes which require adjustment

All characteristics depend on individual appraisal

Chapter 13 - Personality

Sunday, May 20, 2012

12:18 PM

Personality - an individual's characteristic pattern of thinking, feeling, and acting.

Goals of personality psychology

1. Describe and explain individual differences
2. Synthesize the influences on a person into an integrated account of the person.

Four basic approaches to personality theory: Psychoanalytic, Trait, Humanistic, Social-cognitive

Psychoanalytic Perspective

Freud: Lived (1856-1939). Psychoanalysis was theory and techniques of Freud.

Believed that characteristics of personality: was influenced primarily by early childhood experiences, are often hidden being primarily determined by unconscious mental forces. Development occurs in conjunction with frustration and conflict of basic needs.

Contributed to *clinical psychology* (model of personality, psychoanalytic techniques, defense mechanisms) and *developmental psychology* (stage theory of psychosexual development, importance of the first five years of life)

Biography: Interest in neurology and in treatment of nervous disorders, fascinated with hysteria, Influenced by Jean Charcot who could produce symptoms of hysteria by hypnosis (Freud used hypnosis). Influenced by Josef Bruer who used the "talking cure," free association.

Models of psychoanalysis:

Topographic model (geographic-type conceptualized of mind). Parts of the mind have spatial relationships to each other (unconscious, preconscious, conscious).

Dynamic model(the motivational forces that direct and initiate behavior). Psychic energy (comes from biological energy, closed energy system). Instincts, drives or impulses. *Life instinct:* libido is sex instinct, self-preservation, love. *Death instinct:* aggression, hate, destruction.

Structural model (basic components of personality).Id, ego, superego work as a team. Both ego and superego span three topographic layers. Ego unaware of defense mechanisms.

Personality - The working out of conflicts among id, ego, superego involving the repressions and sublimations of instinctual pressures and resultant compromises across topographic levels of the mind

Free Association - in psychoanalysis, a method of exploring the unconscious in which the person relaxes and says what comes to mind, no matter how trivial or embarrassing.

Psychoanalysis - Freud's theory of personality that attributes thoughts and actions to unconscious motives and conflicts; the techniques used in treating psychological disorders by seeking to expose and interpret unconscious tensions.

Unconscious - According to Freud: a reservoir of mostly unacceptable thoughts, wishes, feelings, and memories. According to contemporary psychologists: information processing of which we are unaware of.

Id - contains a reservoir of unconscious psychic energy that, according to Freud, strives to satisfy basic sexual and aggressive drives. The id operates on the pleasure principle, demanding immediate gratification. (Unconscious)

Ego - the largely conscious, executive part of the personality that, according to Freud, mediates among the demands of the id, superego and reality. The ego operates on the reality principle, satisfying the id's desires in ways that will realistically bring pleasure rather than pain. (Conscious)

Superego - part of the personality that represents internalized ideas and provides standards for judgment (the conscience) and for future aspirations. (Preconscious)

Psychosexual stages - the childhood stages of development during which the id's pleasure-seeking energy focuses on distinct erogenous zones.

Stage	Focus
Oral (0-18 months)	Pleasure centers on mouth - sucking, biting, chewing Oral character traits from fixation: Overindulgence - Optimism / Gullibility, Under-indulgence - Pessimism / Suspiciousness. Too little: Anxiety, Continue seeking oral gratification, Pessimism, Fixation. Too much: No reason to progress, Fixation.
Anal (18-36 months)	Pleasure focuses on bowel and bladder elimination; coping with demands for control. Anal character traits from fixation: Center around giving and withholding. Anal-retentive (withholding): Uptight, orderly, controlled, compulsively neat. Anal-expulsive: Messy, irresponsible
Phallic (3-6 years)	Pleasure zone is the genitals, coping with incestuous sexual feelings)
Latency (6 to puberty)	Dormant sexual feelings
Genital (puberty+)	Maturation of sexual interests

Oedipus complex - a boy's sexual desires toward his mother and feelings of jealousy and hatred for the rival father. For girls it's the Electra complex.

Identification - the process by which children incorporate their parent's values into their developing superegos.

Fixation - a lingering focus of pleasure-seeking energies at an earlier psychosexual stage, in which conflicts were unresolved.

Defense mechanisms - in psychoanalytic theory, the ego's protective methods of reducing anxiety by unconsciously distorting reality.

Repression - the basic defense mechanism that banishes anxiety-arousing thoughts, feelings, and memories from consciousness. Underlies all the other defense mechanisms.

Regression - an individual faced with anxiety retreats to a more infantile psychosexual stage, where some psychic energy remains fixated.

Reaction formation - the ego unconsciously switches unacceptable impulses into their opposites. Thus, people may express feelings that are the opposite of their anxiety-arousing unconscious feelings.

Projection - psychoanalytic defense mechanism by which people disguise their own threatening impulses by attributing them to others.

Rationalization - offers self-justifying explanations in place of the real, more threatening unconscious reasons for one's actions.

Displacement - shifts sexual or aggressive impulses toward a more acceptable or less threatening object or person, as when redirecting anger toward a safer outlet.

Denial - people refuse to believe or even perceive painful realities.

Collective unconscious - Carl Jung's concept of shared inherited reservoir of memory traces from our species' history.

Projective tests - a personality test, such as the Rorschach or TAT, that provides ambiguous stimuli designed to trigger projection of one's inner dynamics.

Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) - a projective test in which people express their inner feelings and interests through the stories they make up about ambiguous scenes.

Rorschach - the most widely used projective test, a set of 10 inkblots. Seeks to identify people's inner feelings by analyzing their interpretations of the blots. By Herman Rorschach.

Evaluation of theory as scientific: Verifiable? Testable? Vague and difficult to test empirically/scientifically. Falsifiability? Predicts equally probable but contradictory outcomes

Terror-management theory - a theory of death-related anxiety, explores people's emotional and behavioral responses to reminders of their impending death.

Humanistic Perspective

Focus on how subjective experiences of a person, how the person perceives and interprets the world
Represents a reaction against unconscious motivation model (psychodynamic)

Topics of investigation: Human choice, Creativity, Self-actualization (Growth to fulfill one's potential
Believes people are basically "good")

Abraham Maslow - proposed that we are motivated by a hierarchy of needs, ultimately seeking self-actualization.

Self-actualization - according to Maslow, one of the ultimate psychological needs that arises after basic psychological needs are met and self-esteem is achieved; the motivation to fulfill one's potential.

Hierarchy: Physiological (hunger, thirst and sex) → Safety (security, order and stability) → Belongingness and love → Esteem (self-respect and feelings of success) → Self-actualization

Carl Rogers - agreed with much of Maslow's thinking. Believed that people are basically good and are endowed with self-actualizing tendencies. People nurture our growth with unconditional positive regard, being accepting and by being empathetic.

Unconditional positive regard - according to Rogers, an attitude of total acceptance toward another person.

Conditions for growth: Genuineness, Acceptance, Empathy

Self-concept - all our thoughts and feelings about ourselves, in answer to the question, "who am I?"

Evaluation

Recognizes role of private experience

Concentrates on the "whole" healthy person

Lacks analysis regarding the causes of behavior

Concepts are, vague, subjective, and value laden; difficult to measure

Theories built with healthy advantaged people and more suited to the well-functioning

Trait Perspective

Attempts to isolate and describe basic properties of individual that direct behavior

Puts focus on prediction and description of behavior

Assumes people vary simultaneously along continuous dimensions or factors/traits. Traits or factors seen as continuous versus discontinuous categories

Rates individuals on a number of scales of factors. To arrive at global picture of individual look at pattern of traits and amount of each trait

Trait psychologists want a small set of trait descriptors to apply to personality, reliable and valid methods to measure personality traits, to find relationship among traits and behavior.

Trait approach is not a theory. More like an orientation/a set of methods to assess characteristics.

Still disagreement to number of personality factors, ranges between two to eight.

Trait approach has trouble with predicting behavior. Scores on trait measures may only predict up to 10% of the variations among behaviors given in situation.

Trait - a characteristic pattern of behavior or disposition to feel and act, as assessed by self-report inventories and peer-pressure.

Hans Eysenck - factor analyst that believed we can reduce many of our normal individual variations to two or three dimensions, including intro or extraversion and emotional (in)stability.

Eysenck personality - Introversion/Extroversion (I-E) / Emotional stability/instability (N for neuroticism)

Personality inventory - a questionnaire on which people respond to items designated to gauge a wide range of feelings and behaviors; used to assess selected personality traits.

Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) - the most widely researched and clinically used of all personality tests. Originally developed to identify emotional disorders (still considered its most appropriate use), this test is now used for many other screening purposes.

MMPI-2 has scales assessing work attitudes, family problems, and anger.

Empirically derived test - a test (such as MMPI) developed by testing a pool of items and then selecting those that discriminate between groups.

The Big Five factors - the five major personality factors.

The traits are quite stable, with some tendencies.

Heritability is about 50 for each trait.

They predict other possible attributes.

Traits lurk in music preferences, dorm rooms and offices, personal websites, an emails.

Trait Dimension	Endpoints of the Dimension	
Openness	Imaginative	Practical
	Preference for variety	Preference for routine
	Independent	Conforming
Conscientiousness	Organized	Disorganized
	Careful	Careless
	Disciplined	Impulsive
Extraversion	Sociable	Retiring
	Fun-loving	Sober
	Affectionate	Reserved
Agreeableness	Soft-hearted	Ruthless
	Trusting	Suspicious
	Helpful	Uncooperative
Neuroticism	Calm	Anxious
	Secure	Insecure
	Self-Satisfied	Self-Pitying

Social Cognitive Perspective

Social-cognitive perspective - views behavior as influenced by the interaction between people's traits (including their thinking) and their social context.

Reciprocal determinism - the interacting influences of behavior, internal cognition, and environment.

1. Different people choose different environments.
2. Our personalities shape how we interpret and react to events.
3. Our personalities help create situations to which we react.

Personal control - the extent to which people perceive control over their environment rather than feeling helpless.

External locus of control - the perception that chance or outside forces beyond your personal control determine your fate.

Internal locus of control - the perception that you control your own fate.

Learned helplessness - the hopelessness and passive resignation an animal or human learns when unable to avoid repeated aversive events.

Attributional style - pessimistic or optimistic.

Positive psychology - the scientific study of optimal human functioning; aims to discover and promote strengths and virtues that enable individuals and communities to thrive.

Exploring the Self

Self - in contemporary psychology, assumed to be the center of personality, the organizer of our thoughts, feelings and actions.

Spotlight effect - overestimating others' noticing and evaluating of our appearance, performance and blunders (as if the spotlight is shining on us).

Self-esteem - one's feelings of high or low self-worth.

Self-serving bias - a readiness to perceive oneself favorably.

Chapter 14 - Psychological Disorders

May-21-12
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Psychological Disorders

Psychological disorder - deviant, distressful, and dysfunctional behaviour patterns.

Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) - a psychological disorder marked by the appearance by age 7 of one or more of the following key symptoms: extreme inattention, hyperactivity, and impulsivity.

Medical model - the concept that diseases, in this case psychological disorders, have physical causes that can be diagnosed, treated, and in most cases cured, often through treatment in a hospital.

DSM-IV-TR - Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, fourth edition, with an updated "text revision," a widely used system for classifying psychological disorders.

Classification used by most mental health experts in Canada and the U.S.

Neurotic disorders: Anxiety, Somatoform, Dissociative, Affective (mood)

Psychotic disorders: Schizophrenic, Paranoid Affective (certain types)

"Psychotic" behavior: Distorted perceptions and irrational ideas

Defining Psychological Disorders

A harmful dysfunction that shows one or more of four criterion (all four usually considered)

- Deviation from statistical norms - atypical behavior
- Deviation from social norms - behavior is disturbing
- Maladaptiveness of behavior - behavior affects well-being of the individual or social group
- Rationally unjustifiable behavior - unsupported by popular acceptance

Insane is a legal term, means whether the person knows right from wrong

Understanding Psychological Disorders

The Medical Model sees psychology disorders as similar to physical ones. Sees disorders as illnesses. Require diagnose based on symptoms and need treatment.

Bio-Psycho-Social Perspective: Combining factors interact to produce psychological disorders. Factors are biological psychological and sociocultural

Advantages to classifying psychological disorders: Help investigate and uncover causes of different abnormal behaviors

Neuroses and psychoses. Both are fairly broad categories. Neither are DSM categories: not precise enough.

Neuroses (Group of disorders characterized by anxiety, personal unhappiness, and maladaptive behavior, Assumed to have problems coping with internal conflicts, Individual can usually function in society but not at full capacity)

Psychoses (Behavior and thought process so disturbed that person is out of touch with reality, Cannot cope with daily life, Usually need hospitalization)

Labeling Psychological Disorders

Disadvantages: A diagnostic label is not a cause, can overlook differences between people with the same diagnoses and not treat each person as unique, Labels can carry stigma.

Anxiety disorders: A group of disorders where anxiety is main symptom (Panic disorders, Generalized anxiety). Also includes disorders where maladaptive behaviors used to control anxiety (Phobic, obsessive compulsive)

GAD: High tension each day, Feels vaguely uneasy/apprehensive, Tend to overreact to mild stressors. Symptoms: Inability to relax, Disturbed sleep, Fatigue, Headaches, Dizziness, Rapid heart beat. Continuously worries about potential problems. Difficulty concentrating and making decisions. May also experience panic attacks (panic disorder): Episodes of acute and overwhelming apprehension or terror. During attacks feel

something dreadful is about to happen. Symptoms of anxiety: Heart palpitations, Shortness of breath, Perspiration, Muscle tremors, Faintness, Nausea. Usually person has no clear idea why frightened. This is called "**free-floating**" anxiety as not triggered by a particular event

Phobias: responding with intense fear to stimulus/situation that most people do not consider particularly dangerous. Usually realize their fear is irrational. Alleviated only by avoiding feared objection/situation. Fear diagnosed as a phobia only when avoidance interferes considerably with daily life. Three categories:

1. **Specific phobia**: Fear of a specific object, animal, or situation
2. **Social phobia**: Insecure in social situations and exaggerated fear of embarrassing themselves
3. **Agoraphobia** : Most common phobia of people seeing professional help and most disabling

Obsessive-compulsive disorder: Compelled to think about things they would rather not think about, or compelled to perform acts they do not wish to carry out

Obsessions - Persistent intrusions of unwelcome thoughts or images

Compulsions - Irresistible urges to carry out certain acts/rituals

Neurotic Disorders

Anxiety Disorders

Anxiety disorders - psychological disorders characterized by distressing, persistent anxiety or maladaptive behaviours that reduce anxiety.

Generalized anxiety disorder -an anxiety disorder in which a person is continually tense, apprehensive, and in a state of autonomic nervous system arousal

Panic disorder - marked by unpredictable minutes-long episodes of intense dread in which a person experiences terror and accompanying chest pain, choking, or other frightening sensations. Panic attacks.

Obsessive compulsive disorder - unwanted repetitive thoughts (obsessions) and/or actions (compulsions)

Phobias - a persistent, irrational fear and avoidance of a specific object or situation.

Specific phobias - fear of things or situation

Social phobias - shyness to an extreme. Scared to be embarrassed.

Agoraphobia - means fear of the market. Most extreme.

Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) - haunting memories, nightmares, social withdrawal, jumpy anxiety, and/or insomnia that lingers for four weeks or more after a traumatic experience.

Post-traumatic growth - positive psychological changes as a result of struggling with extremely challenging circumstances and life crises.

Learning Perspective	<i>Fear Conditioning</i> You're taught all your fears based on various circumstances.	<i>Stimulus generalization</i> Bad experience with one thing makes you fear all things of the same type.
		<i>Reinforcement</i> Maintains phobias and compulsions.
	<i>Observational Learning</i> You're scared of what your parents or people around you are scared of.	
Biological Perspective	<i>Natural Selection</i> We're scared of things that threatened our ancestors. Also can be for evolutionary reasons.	
	<i>Genes</i> Some people are more predisposed	

to anxiety genetically.

Brain

Anxiety can be caused by an over arousal of brain areas involved in impulse control and habitual behaviours.

Somatoform Disorders

Somatoform disorders - psychological disorder in which the symptoms take a somatic (bodily) form without apparently physical abuse

Conversion disorder - a rare somatoform disorder in which a person experiences very specific genuine physical symptoms for which no physiological basis can be found.

Hypochondriasis - a somatoform disorder in which a person interprets normal physical sensations as symptoms of a disease.

Dissociative Disorders

Dissociative disorders - conscious awareness becomes separated (dissociated) from previous memories, thoughts, and feelings.

Dissociative Identity Disorder (DID) - a person exhibits more than one alternating personality. Formerly called multiple personality disorder.

Mood Disorders

Mood disorders - psychological disorders characterized by emotional extremes.

Major depressive disorder - a person experiences two or more weeks of significantly depressed moods, feelings of worthlessness, and diminished interest or pleasure in activities.

If symptoms last more than two weeks. 1/4 last less than 1 month, 1/2 last less than 3 months, 1/4 last a year or longer (about 10% do not recover and remain chronically depressed). Tend to recur: 50% will have another episode, 80% chance of recurrence after two episodes.

Bipolar disorder - a person alternates between the hopelessness and lethargy of depression and the overexcited state of mania.

Mania (elation) and depression alternate. Mania alone is uncommon. Starts with mania (Energetic/enthusiastic/high self-confidence), Usually followed by depressive episode. Biological variables seem important (Runs in families, Early onset, Responds to medications, Very likely to recur if untreated. Represents 5-10% of depressions, Equally common in men and women)

Mania - a hyperactive, wildly optimistic state.

Four sets of depressive symptoms: Emotional, Cognitive, Motivational, Physical

Facts about mood disorders

Many behavioural and cognitive changes accompany depression.

Depression is widespread, causes must be common.

Women are twice as likely as men to experience depression.

Most major depressive episodes self-terminate.

Stressful events related to work, marriage and close relationships often precede depression.

With each new generation, depression strikes earlier and affecting more people.

Biological Perspective *Genetic Influences*
Risk of depression or bipolar disorder increases if you have a sibling or parent with it.

The Depressed Brain

There is less activity in the brain during depressed periods, and more

activity during mania.

Social-Cognitive Perspective	<i>Negative Thoughts and Negative Moods Interact</i>	<i>Learned Helplessness</i>
	Self-defeating beliefs may arise from self-helplessness.	The hopelessness and passive resignation an animal or human learns when unstable to avoid repeated aversive events.

Depression's Vicious Cycle
Stressful experiences leads to negative explanatory style which leads to depressed mood which leads to cognitive and behavioural changes which leads to stressful experiences...

Psychotic Disorders

Schizophrenia

Schizophrenia - a group of severe disorders characterized by disorganized and delusional thinking, disturbed perceptions, and inappropriate emotions and actions.

Disorganized thinking may come from selective attention.

May have hallucinations.

Affects 1% of the population

Onset of schizophrenia: Usually about 25-35 years of age, May be sudden or gradual, Recovery more likely if sudden (acute) onset and main symptom is not withdrawal.

Delusions - false beliefs that may accompany psychotic disorders.

Types of Schizophrenia

Paranoid	Preoccupation with delusions or hallucinations, often with themes of persecution or grandiosity
Disorganized	Disorganized speech or behaviour, or flat or inappropriate emotion
Catatonic	Immobility (or excessive, purposeless movement), extreme negativism and/or parrot-like repeating of another's speech or movements
Undifferentiated	Many and varied symptoms
Residual	Withdrawal after hallucinations and delusions have disappeared

Caused by

- Dopamine over-activity
- Abnormal brain activity and anatomy
- Maternal virus during mid-pregnancy. Increased risk if:
 - During in the middle of fetal development their country experienced a flu epidemic.
 - Born in a densely populated area, where risk of disease is more.
 - Born in a winter or spring months, but the inverse in the southern hemisphere.
 - Mothers report being sick during pregnancy.
- Genetic factors
- Psychological factors

Disturbance of the following:

Thought and attention: Critical symptom. Process and content of thought disturbed. "Word salad" is the uttering of meaningless words and phrases. *Loose associations* - shifting ideas. *Clang associations* - rhyming.

Delusions of influence: Common, Feels controlled by an external force

Delusions of persecution: "Paranoid ideation," May begin with ideas of reference

Delusions of grandeur: Less common

Attention disorder: Difficulty keeping focused on relevant stimuli, Thought intrusion/ disorganization with no insight info.

Perception: During acute episodes may experience perceptual changes. Hallucinations (most common are auditory).

Emotion and action: Emotion not appropriate, or "flat affect" meaning emotion is blunted, face is flat, no expression

Personality Disorders

Personality disorder - psychological disorder characterized by inflexible and enduring behaviour patterns that impair social functioning

Antisocial personality disorder (sociopath or psychopath) - the person (usually a man) exhibits a lack of conscience for wrongdoing, even towards friends or family members. May be aggressive and ruthless or a clever con artist.

Chapter 15 - Therapy

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Eclectic approach - Uses many approaches/methods/techniques selected for client

The Psychological Therapies

Psychotherapy - To treat by psychological means. Therapist and client(s) meet to effect change in client(s). Change is modification of Thoughts, Feelings and/or Behaviors.

Psychoanalysis

Psychoanalysis - Freud's classical therapeutic technique (lengthy). Use a variety of methods to identify and examine conflicts and repressed impulses. Seeks self-insight as therapeutic for emotional/behavioral/relationship problems

Free association - patient verbally reports ongoing stream of thought out sight of therapist

Resistance - the blocking from consciousness of anxiety-laden material.

Interpretation - Analyst's ideas about conflicts, resistances, impulses, and dreams. To promote insight.

Transference - Patient's transfer to the analyst of a pattern of interaction from significant past relationship. Interactions are acted out and can be analyzed and a new relationship developed

Psychodynamic therapy - Many contemporary dynamic therapies are outgrowths of psychoanalysis. **Characteristics:** Briefer than psychoanalysis, Less intense transference, Fixed and defined goals, Do not completely reconstruct childhood, Direct face-to-face discussion, Therapist more active and more direct.

Humanistic Therapies

Humanistic therapies - Focus on the present (here and now) and future vs. past, conscious vs. unconscious thoughts, uniqueness and responsibility of individual, growth and self-actualization.

Insight therapies - a variety of therapies which aim to improve psychological functioning by increasing the client's awareness of underlying motives and defenses.

Client/person-centered therapy - developed by Carl Rogers

Therapist - a non-directive facilitator

- 1) Clarifies
- 2) Empathizes
- 3) Acknowledges

Three important therapist qualities

- i. Empathy/warmth - Understand feeling and express understanding
- ii. Genuineness - Be open and honest
- iii. Acceptance - Deep unconditional acceptance of individual and potential

Active listening - **Paraphrase, reflect, and clarify feelings.** Good for clients who are motivated and highly verbal.

Behavior Therapies

Behavior therapies - A number of methods based on principles of learning and conditioning. Views maladaptive behaviors as learned. Goal is modify behavior in specific situation. Origin of behavior(s) is not important. Focus is behavior: How often? Where? How to change behavior? Uses defined and specific goals.

Counterconditioning - Procedure based on classical conditioning. Conditions new responses to stimuli that previously led to unwanted responses. Systematic desensitization and adverse conditioning both based on counter-conditioning

Exposure therapies - Eg. "Flooding" technique is exposing phobic person to most feared situation and trapping them until anxiety reduces.

Systematic desensitization - Specific method of behavior therapy. Good for fears and phobias. Based on use of incompatible/antagonistic responses. Weaken an undesirable response by strengthening incompatible one. Eg. Relaxation as antagonistic to anxiety. Based on principles of classical or Pavlovian conditioning. Four basic steps:

- 1) Train relaxation exercises. Eg. Progressive relaxation of muscle groups
- 2) Rank order feared situations
- 3) Gradual exposure to feared situation. In reality is best. Can expose in imagination using imagery. Start with situation of least anxiety
- 4) Expose at pace at which relaxation is maintained

Virtual reality exposure therapy - an anxiety treatment that progressively exposes people to simulations of their greatest fears, such as airplane flying, spiders or public speaking.

Aversive conditioning - a type of counterconditioning that associates an unpleasant state with unwanted behavior. May work in the short run.

Token economy - an operant conditioning procedure in which people earn a token of some sort for exhibiting a desired behavior and can later exchange the tokens for various privileges or treats.

Cognitive Therapies

Cognitive Therapy - Therapy that teaches people new, more adaptive ways of thinking and acting, based on the assumption that thoughts intervene between events and our emotional reactions. Behaviorally based but attend to teaching more adaptive thinking/reasoning

Cognitive (thinking) factors: Thoughts, Expectations, Interpretations or events that mediate/change behavior

Cognitive behavior therapy - Combining cognitive and behavior therapy, to change thoughts and actions. Uses behavior modification techniques and techniques to change maladaptive beliefs. Eg. Belief distortions or overgeneralizations. Alter using positive self-statements

Beck's therapy for depression - Gentle questioning seeks to reveal irrational thinking, and then to persuade the person to remove the dark glasses through which they view life.

Group Therapies

Family therapy - treats the family as a system. View's an individual's unwanted behaviors as influenced by other family members.

Group therapy advantages - Saves therapist time, Saves client money, Provides social support, Opportunity for vicarious learning.

Group therapy disadvantages - Not as affective if client requires direct therapy.

Summary

Therapy	Assumed Problem	Therapy Aims	Method
Psychodynamic	Unconscious forces childhood experiences	Reduced anxiety through self-insight	Analysis and interpretation
Client-centered	Barriers to self- understanding and self-acceptance	Personal growth through self-insight	Active listening and unconditional positive regard
Behavior	Maladaptive behavior	Extinction and relearning	Counterconditioning, exposure, desensitization, aversive conditioning, operant conditioning
Cognitive	Negative, self- defeating thinking	Healthier thinking and self-talk	Reveal and reverse self-blaming
Family	Stressful relationships	Relationship healing	Understanding family social system, exploring roles, improved

Evaluating Psychotherapies

Is Psychotherapy Effective?

Three problems of effectiveness evaluation:

- a. **What is improvement?** Spontaneous remission: large percentage improve without professional treatment by changes in person's life and help of another person. Rate of spontaneous remission is 30-60% depending on nature of disorder. Success in psychotherapy - if rate of success is greater than rate of spontaneous remission (baseline rate) then we can conclude success. How to measure baseline rate: use wait-list controls
- b. **How to measure improvement?** Outcome measures are used, Eg. Mood measures for affective problems or behavior measures.
Meta-analysis - a procedure to statistically combine the result of many studies. A 1980 meta-analysis combined 475 studies. Results: Across various therapy types with various outcome measures. Average psychotherapy patient showed greater improvement than 80% of the untreated group
- c. **What caused improvement?** Are different approaches equally effective? Little difference in effectiveness can be shown between therapies. Therapy seems superior to no treatment. Certain types of therapies may be more well suited for certain types of problems
Eg. Systematic desensitization to treat phobias and fears
Eg. Psychodynamic therapy for emotional/interpersonal problems

The Relative Effectiveness of Different Therapies

Unsupported approaches: Energy therapies (manipulate people's energy fields), recovered-memory therapies (aims to unearth repressed memories), rebirthing therapies (reenacting supposed trauma), facilitated communication (has an assistant touch their hand of a child), crisis debriefing (rehearse the process of the traumatic experience).

Evidence-based practice - clinical decision-making that integrates the best available research with clinical expertise and patient characteristics and perspectives.

Commonalities Among Psychotherapies

Three elements shared by all forms of psychotherapy: Hope for demoralized people, a new perspective, and an empathetic, trusting, caring relationship.

Effectiveness of many therapies may be due to common factors across all therapies

Some nonspecific factors:

- Interpersonal relationship of warmth and trust
- Reassurance and support
- Problems seeming less serious when shared
- Reinforcement of adaptive responses
- Understanding or insight
- Change as "possible" for client induces hope and "hope" facilitates change

Professions Involved in Psychotherapy

PHD in psychotherapy does not exist.

- a. **Clinical Psychologist (PHD):** 7 years postgraduate study, 1 year supervision, Pass license exam, Cannot yet prescribe in Canada.
- b. **Psychiatrist:** MD and mental health residency, Can prescribe
- c. **Psychiatric social worker:** MSW (2 years postgraduate)
- d. **Psychiatric nurse:** Nursing degree, Training in mental disorders
- e. **Psychoanalyst:** Usually an MD psychiatrist, Psychoanalytic training

The Biomedical Therapies

Biomedical Therapy - prescribed medications or medical procedures that act directly on the patient's nervous system.

Based on biological approach to psychological disorders. Psychological disorder can be treated at physiological or biomedical level of brain.

Drug Therapies

Psychopharmacology - study of how drugs affect the mind and behavior

Antipsychotic drugs - family of drugs known as the major tranquilizers like thiorazine, prolixin, clozapine. Used to treat schizophrenia. Blocks dopamine receptors at post-synaptic sites. Effectiveness supports DA hypothesis of schizophrenia (That too much DA involved in schizophrenia). Have calming effect and reduce hallucinations and confusion. Not a cure for schizophrenia. Seldom abused (useless, people don't take them to get high).

Tardive dyskinesia - involuntary movements of the facial muscles, tongue, and limbs. A possible neurotoxic side effect of long term use of antipsychotic drugs that target dopamine receptors.

Dangers/problems of antipsychotics: Only control schizophrenia and many symptoms remain like emotional bluntness, withdrawal, attentional problems. Side effects can include dryness of mouth, blurred vision, difficulty concentrating. Less side effects with clozapine which also blocks serotonin. Long term use problems can include low B.P., involuntary movements of arms, legs, mouth and chin. Parkinsonian symptoms such as difficulty coordinating movements.

Anti-anxiety drugs - family of drugs known as minor tranquilizers like Valium, Librium, Xanax, Ativan. They reduce tension and cause drowsiness. They are central nervous system depressants like alcohol and barbiturates. Used to treat anxiety disorders like phobias, alcohol withdrawal, stress. Should be used in conjunction with appropriate psychotherapy

Dangers: often over-prescribed, high risk of physical dependency, suicide from overdose by combining with alcohol

Anti-depressants - elevate mood in depression. Increase availability of norepinephrine (NE) and serotonin (SE) Increase energy level. Used to treat depression.

Two major classes

1. **Monoamine oxidase (MAO):** inhibitors. Eg. Nardil, parnate. They block the enzyme that destroys NE and SE.
2. **Tricyclic anti-depressants:** prevent reuptake of SE and NE and thus prolonging activity of both. Eg. Tofronil and Elavil. Serotonin reuptake inhibitors include Prozac, Zoloft, Paxil. Increase serotonin by blocking reuptake. They're also used to treat obsessive compulsive and panic disorders.

Problems - require weeks of medication for effect, side effects similar to anti-psychotic medication such as dry mouth, blurred vision, difficulty concentrating. Drop out rate is 1/3 to 1/2. Not as effective as pharmaceutical companies claim. Psychotherapy is just as effective, has long term benefits, and no drug side effects.

Problems with drug reduction: withdrawal must be gradual or severe side effects possible such as headaches, nausea and confusion.

Mood Stabilizers - For bipolar depression, lithium (which is a salt) is used to treat.

Brain Stimulation

Electroconvulsive Therapy - Treatment for severe depression. Induce a seizure similar to an epileptic convulsion. Very popular during the 1940s to 1960s prior to the use of drugs. Now only in extreme cases. Works fast. Very controversial

Modern ECT Treatment Method

- i. Anesthesia
- ii. Muscle relaxant
- iii. Minimum current to non-dominant hemisphere or bilateral shock
- iv. Usually 4-6 treatment over several weeks

Main side effect is memory loss; for memories in period up to six months prior to ECT.

How ECT Treatment Works - Unknown, perhaps due to a mass release of

neurotransmitters such as NE and SE.

Alternative Neurostimulation Techniques

Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation (rTMS) - the application of repeated impulses of magnetic energy to the brain; used to stimulate or repress brain activity.

Deep-brain stimulation - implanting electrodes and a pacemaker stimulator to excite the neurons that inhibit this negative emotion-feeding activity.

Psychosurgery

Psychosurgery - Remove or destroy parts of the brain by cutting nerve fibers or by ultrasonic irritation

Lobotomy - usually cut frontal (responsible for decision making and planning) to limbic (responsible for emotion) area connections. Get relaxed, lethargic, happy but impaired patient. Extremely controversial. Been used for violent tendencies, suicidal tendencies and extreme pain.

Therapeutic Lifestyle Change

May find relief from depression by activity and focusing on mind and body, by doing a combination of aerobic exercise, getting adequate sleep, light exposure, social connection, anti-rumination, and taking nutritional supplements.

Modern Treatment

Deinstitutionalization - Since early 60s, antipsychotic medications became widely available. Increased discharging from hospitals. Hospital stays shorter now. Readmission rate is about 50%.

Chapter 16 - Social Psychology

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Social Thinking

Social psychology - the scientific study of how we think, influence, and relate to one another.

Attribution theory - the theory that we explain someone's behavior by crediting either the situation or the person's disposition.

Fundamental attribution error - the tendency for observers, when analyzing another's behavior, to underestimate the impact of the situation or overestimate the impact of personal disposition. (Almost like double standard)

Attitudes and Actions

Attitude - feelings, often influenced by our beliefs, that predispose us to respond in a particular way to objects, people and events.

Central route to persuasion - occurs when interested people focus on the arguments and respond with favorable thoughts.

Peripheral route to persuasion - occurs when people are influenced by incidental cues, such as a speaker's attractiveness.

Foot-in-the-door phenomenon - the tendency for people who have first agreed to a small request to comply later with a larger request.

Role - a set of explanations (norms) about a social position, defining how those in the position ought to behave.

Cognitive dissonance theory - the theory that we act to reduce the discomfort (dissonance) we feel when our thoughts are inconsistent. For example, when our awareness of our attitudes and of our actions clash, we can reduce the resulting discomfort by changing our attitudes.

Social Influence

Conformity

Conformity - adjusting one's behavior or thinking to coincide with a group standard.

Conditions that strengthen conformity: one of made to feel incompetent or insecure, the group has at least three people, the group is unanimous, one admires the group's status and attractiveness, one has made no prior commitment to any response, others in the group observe one's behavior, one's culture encourages strongly respect for social standards.

Asch Experiments: Classical studies (1950s). Standard procedure: single subject at table with group of 7-9 confederates. Shown three vertical lines, asked to choose the one that matches to the target line. Answer is obvious. Each person answers in turn. Test subject is next to last to answer. On several critical trials, confederates deliberately chose the incorrect response.

Results - average subject conformed on 32% of critical trials. 74% of all subjects conformed at least once.

Important points - group does not have to be large, 3-4 is effective. Right answer was obvious, no reason for conforming. Does not affect inner attitudes or beliefs. Challenge is to violate the social norm and risk insulting others and being seen as incompetent.

Modifications - one or more confederates breaks with majority.

Normative social influence - influence resulting from a person's desire to gain approval or avoid disapproval.

Informational social influence - influence resulting from one's willingness to accept other's opinions about reality.

Obedience

Milgram experiment - Obedience to authority studied in classical Milgram experiments by Stanley Milgram

Procedure: Subjects recruited through newspapers, paid \$4 an hour. Subjects told it was a study

of memory and the subject is the teacher. Subject watched "learner" (confederate) strapped into wired chair and electrode to learner's wrist. Subject seated in adjoining room in front of panel labeled "shock generator." Shock was given for every wrong answer. There were 30 switches, labeled between 14-450 volts, slight shock to severe shock. Subject given a sample of 45 volt shock. Shocks were simulated. Shocks were increased as more questions were wrong. Confederate shouted and cursed, at 300V kicked the wall, at extremely intense shock was completely silent. When subject wanted to stop, encouraged to go on.

Results: 63% of subjects went all the way to 450V. All went to at least 300V.

Four factors that affect obedience

- a. **Social norms** - Milgram's studies involved relying to an ad and agreeing to participate. An implicit contract to cooperate. String social norms to complete a job. Tend to underestimate difficulty of breaking a contract (Dissent = Experimenter is evil = guilt, embarrassment for consenting)
- b. **Surveillance** - In Milgram's study, the constant presence of experimenter increases compliance. In 1974, experimenter left room and gave instructions by phone. Obedience dropped from 65% to 21%. Increased cheating. Surveillance is necessary to get high levels of obedience. In obedience, the influence is obtaining public conformity, not private acceptance.
- c. **Buffers** - are whatever increases level of remoteness of person from violence. Increased remoteness increases probability of violence. Factors that increase immediacy of contact reduce obedience. Eg. Learner in same room as teacher, the obedience goes from 65% to 40%. Eg. Subject must personally hold learner's hand on the electric plate when obedience goes from 65% to 30%. Factors that decrease immediacy of contact (buffers) will increase obedience. Eg. Teacher is only "link" in chain of others then obedience goes from 65% to 93%.
- d. **Ideological justification** - if individual accepts ideology that legitimizes authority of person in charge then ideology justifies following directives.
Milgram ideology - the justification of "science". When experiment moved from university to run-down offices, obedience went from 65% to 48%.

Predictions about results of Milgram studies - College students - 99% said they would not continue shocks over 300V. **Psychiatrists** - predicted only about 4% of subjects would go beyond 300V and less than 1% would go all the way to 450V. Predictions showed that we do not expect situational forces to be as effective as they are. We vastly underestimate compliance rates.

Group Influence

Social facilitation - stronger responses on simple or well-learned tasks in the presence of others.

Social loafing - the tendency for people in a group to exert less effort when pooling their efforts toward attaining a common goal than when individually accountable.

Deindividuation - the loss of self-awareness and self-restraint occurring in group situations that foster arousal and anonymity.

Group polarization - the enhancement of a group's prevailing inclinations through discussion within the group.

Groupthink - the mode of thinking that occurs when the desire for harmony in a decision-making group overrides a realistic appraisal of alternatives.

The Power of Individuals

Conformity decreases when unanimity decreases - even when only one breaks with majority, conformity goes from 32% to 6%.

Asch Experiments - Modifications.

Four real subjects, two confederates (a minority) who give consistently wrong responses. Minority needs to be consistent and not waffle. And needs to be credible. Examination of minority effect on majorities shows that majorities internalize and do not just show obedience to minority. Voice public agreement with majority view but private ratings shift/change towards minority view.

Implications: majorities have social power to approve/disprove/reject/accept and can obtain compliance. Minorities rarely have social power but if have credibility then have power to provide internalization leading to social change.

Social Relations

Prejudice

Prejudice - an unjustifiable (and usually negative) attitude toward a group and its members. Prejudice generally involves stereotyped beliefs, negative feelings, and a predisposition to discriminatory action.

Stereotype - a generalized (sometimes accurate but overgeneralized) belief about a group of people.

Discrimination - unjustifiable negative behavior toward a group and its members.

Roots of Prejudice

Social: social inequalities, ingroup and outgroup.

Ingroup - "Us." People with whom we share a common identity.

Outgroup - "Them." Those perceived as different or apart from our ingroup.

Emotional: passions from the heart.

Scapegoat theory - the theory that prejudice offers an outlet for anger by providing someone to blame.

Cognitive: categorization, vivid cases, just-world phenomenon.

Other-race effect - the tendency to recall faces of one's own race more accurately than faces of other races.

Just-world phenomenon - the tendency for people to believe the world is just and that people therefore get what they deserve and deserve what they get.

Aggression

Aggression - any physical or verbal behavior intended to hurt or destroy. Can be brought on by genetic influences, neural influences, and biochemical influences (hormones).

Frustration-aggression principle - the principle that frustration - the blocking of an attempt to achieve some goal - creates anger, which can generate aggression.

Attraction

Psychology of attraction: important aspects.

Proximity - how close you are to the person.

Mere exposure effect - the phenomenon that repeated exposure to novel stimuli increases liking of them.

Physical attractiveness: what the person looks like; appearance.

Similarity: how alike you and another person are.

Romantic love: how does romantic love typically change as time passes?

Passionate love - an aroused state of intense positive absorption in another, usually present at the beginning of a love relationship.

Companionate love - the deep affection attachment we feel for those with whom our lives are intertwined.

Equity - a condition in which people receive from a relationship in proportion to what they give to it.

Self-disclosure - revealing intimate aspects of oneself to others.

Altruism

Altruism - unselfish regard for the welfare of others.

Bystander effect - the tendency for any given bystander to be less likely to give aid if other bystanders are present.

Social exchange theory - the theory that our social behavior is an exchange process, the aim of which is to maximize benefits and minimize costs.

Reciprocity norm - the expectation that people will help, not hurt, those who have helped them.

Social-responsibility norm - an expectation that people will help those dependent upon them.

Conflict and Peacemaking

Conflict - a perceived incompatibility of actions, goals, or ideas.

Social trap - a situation in which the conflicting parties, by each rationally pursuing their self-interest, become caught in mutually destructive behavior.

Mirror-image perception - mutual views often held by conflicting people, as when each side sees itself as ethical and peaceful and views the other wise as evil and aggressive.

Subordinate goals - shared goals that override differences among people and require their cooperation.

GRIT - Graduated and Reciprocated Initiatives in Tension-Reduction - a strategy designated to decrease international tensions.

EXAM

June-12-12

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Behavior genetics - the study of the relative power and limits of genetic and environmental influences on behavior.

Environment - every nongenetic influence - prenatal nutrition to the people and things around us.

Chromosomes - threadlike structures made of DNA molecules that contain genes.

46 of them in humans, 23 from mother (egg) and 23 from father (sperm)

DNA - deoxyribonucleic acid. Complex molecule containing the genetic information that makes up the chromosomes.

Genes - the biochemical units of heredity that make up the chromosomes; a segment of DNA capable of synthesizing a protein.

Genes can be either active (expressed) or inactive.

Environmental events "turn on" genes.

When turned on, the genes provide the code for creating protein molecules, the building blocks of physical development.

Genome - the complete instructions for making an organism, consisting of all the genetic material in that organism's chromosomes.

Makes us human, rather than chimps or tulips.

Identical twins - develop from the same egg that splits in two

Genes are the same, but the number of copies of those genes isn't.

Share a placenta usually, but 1/3 cases don't.

Same sex only.

On extraversion and neuroticism, identical twins are much more similar than fraternal twins.

Case of the twins Jim Springer and Jim Lewis - separated at birth but still basically identical.

Fraternal twins - develop from two different eggs, genetically no closer than brother and sister, but share a fetal environment.

Temperament - a person's characteristic emotional reactivity and intensity.

Heritability - the proportion of variation among individuals that we can attribute to genes. The hereditary of a trait may vary, depending on the range of populations and environments studied.

Interaction - the interplay that occurs when the effect of one factor depends on another.

Molecular genetics - a subfield of biology that studies the molecular structure and function of genes.

Evolutionary psychology - the study of evolution of behavior and the mind using principles of natural selection.

Natural selection - the principle that, among the range of the inherited trait variations, those that lead to increased reproduction and survival will most likely be passed on to succeeding generations.

Principle developed by Darwin.

Richard Dawkins calls natural selection "arguably the most momentous idea ever to occur to a human mind."

Organisms' varied offspring compete for survival.

Certain biological and behavioral variations increase their reproductive and survival chances in the environment.

Offspring that survive will likely pass their genes on to future generations.

Thus, over time, population characteristics may change.

Mutation - random error in gene replication that leads to a change.

Gender - the biologically and socially influenced characteristics by which people define male and female.

Three criticisms of the evolutionary explanation of human sexuality:

1. It starts with an effect and works backwards to propose an explanation
2. Unethical and immoral men can use such explanations to rationalize their behavior towards

women

3. Overlooks the effects of cultural expectations and socialization

Peer influence - The number of peers who do a certain action correlates to one peer doing a certain action.

Selection effect - adolescents tend to seek out likeminded teenagers. They sort themselves into likeminded groups.

Culture - the enduring behaviors, ideas, attitudes, values, and traditions shared by a group of people and transmitted from one generation to the next.

Norm - an understood rule for accepted and expected behavior. Norms prescribe proper behavior.

Personal space - the buffer zone we like to maintain around our bodies.

Individualism - giving priority to one's own goals and defining one's identity in terms of personal attributes rather than group identifications.

Collectivism - giving priority to goals of one's group (often one's extended family or work group) and defining one's identity accordingly.

Collectivists have deeper/more stable attachments to their groups (family/clan/company).

Place a premium on preserving group spirit.

More shy towards strangers.

Elders and superiors receive more respect.

Priority is we, not me.

<i>Concept</i>	Individualism	Collectivism
<i>Self</i>	Independent (identity from individual traits)	Interdependent (identity from belonging)
<i>Life Task</i>	Discover/express one's uniqueness	Maintain connections, fit in, perform role
<i>What Matters</i>	Me - personal achievement, self esteem, etc	Us - Group goals, family duty, etc
<i>Coping Method</i>	Change reality	Accommodate to reality
<i>Morality</i>	Defined by individuals	Defined by social networks
<i>Relationships</i>	Many, temporary/casual, confrontation acceptable	Few, close and endured, harmony valued
<i>Attributing Behavior</i>	Behavior reflects one's personality and attitudes	Behavior reflects social norms and roles

Aggression - physical or verbal behavior intended to hurt someone.

X-Chromosome - found in both men and women. Females have two, males have one.

Y-Chromosome - only men have this chromosome.

Testosterone - most important male sex hormone. Both males and females have it, but women have far less.

Role - set of expectations /norms about social position, defining how those in the position ought to behave.

Gender role - set of expected behaviors for males and females.

Gender identity - our sense of being male or female.

Gender typing - the acquisition of a traditional masculine or feminine role.

Social learning theory - the theory that we learn social behavior by observing and imitating and by being rewarded or punished.

Biopsychosocial approach:

Biological influences

- Shared human genome
- Individual genetic variations

- Prenatal environment
- Sex-related genes, hormones and physiology

Psychological influences

- Gene-environment interaction
- Neurological effect of early experiences
- Responses evoked by our own temperament, gender, etc.
- Beliefs, feelings and expectations

Socio-cultural influences

- Parental influences
- Peer influences
- Cultural individualism or collectivism
- Cultural gender norms

All the above influences lead to **individual development**.

Developmental psychology - a branch of psychology that studies physical, cognitive, and social change throughout the life span.

Zygote - the fertilized egg; it enters a two-week period of rapid cell division and develops into an embryo.

Embryo - the developing human organism from about two weeks after fertilization until the second month.

Fetus - the developing human organism from 9 weeks after conception to birth.

Teratogens - agents, such as chemicals and viruses, that can reach the embryo or fetus during prenatal development and cause harm.

Fetal alcohol syndrome - physical and cognitive abnormalities in children caused by a pregnant woman's heavy drinking. In severe cases, this can include noticeable facial disproportions.

There is no known safe amount of alcohol that a woman can consume during pregnancy.

Habituation - decreasing responsiveness with repeated stimulation.

Maturation - biological growth processes that enable orderly changes in behavior, relatively uninfluenced by experience.

Cognition - all the mental activities associated with thinking, knowing, remembering, and communicating.

Schema - a concept or framework that organizes and interprets the information.

Assimilation - interpreting our new experience with our existing schemas.

Accommodation - adapting our current understandings (schemas) to incorporate new information.

Object permanence - the awareness that things continue to exist even when not perceived.

Stage	Typical Age Range	Developmental Phenomena
Sensorimotor: experiencing life through senses and actions	0-2 years	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Object permanence • Stranger anxiety
Preoperational: representing things with words or images; intuitive rather than logical reasoning	2-6 years	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pretend Play • Egocentrism
Concrete operational: thinking logically about concrete events, grasping concrete analogies and performing arithmetical operations	7-11 years	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conservation • Mathematical transformations
Formal operational: abstract reasoning.	12+ years	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Abstract logic • Potential for moral reasoning

Conservation - the principle that properties such as mass, volume, and number remain the same despite changes in the forms of objects.

Egocentrism - the difficulty of taking another's point of view.

Theory of mind - people's ideas about their own and other's mental states - about their feelings, perceptions, and thoughts, and the behaviors these might predict.

Autism - a disorder that appears in childhood and is marked by deficient communication, social interaction, and understanding of others' state of mind.

Harry Harlow - study of the monkeys and the attachment to the cloth mother instead of the mother who provided food.

Konrad Lorenz - did the duckling experiment, the ducklings became attached to him when they didn't see their mother at birth.

Stranger anxiety - the fear of strangers that infants commonly display by around 8 months of age.

Attachment - an emotional tie with another person, shown in young children by their seeking closeness of the caregiver and showing distress on separation.

When a child is prevented from forming attachments, the child becomes withdrawn, frightened, or even speechless.

Critical period - the period shortly after birth when an organism's exposure to certain stimuli or experiences produces proper development.

Imprinting - the process by which certain animals form attachments during a critical period early in life.

Children do not imprint, but they do become attached.

Secure attachment - the child is comfortable playing in a playroom when the mother is there.

They're distressed when she leaves. Seek contact with her when she comes back. 60% of children.

Insecure attachment - unlikely to explore the new environment of the playroom, may cling to mother. When she leaves, they cry loudly and remain upset or are indifferent to her when she comes back. 30% of children.

Basic trust - according to Erik Erikson, a sense that the world is predictable and trustworthy, said to be formed during infancy by appropriate experience with responsive caregivers.

Self-concept - our understanding and evaluation of who we are.

Parenting styles

Authoritarian - parents who impose rules and expect obedience

Permissive - parents who submit to their children's desires.

Authoritative - parents are both demanding and responsive. Explain reasons for rules.

This is the "best" way to parent.

Adolescence - transition period from childhood, extending from puberty to independence.

Puberty - the period of sexual maturation, during which a person becomes capable of reproducing.

Primary sex characteristics - the body structures (ovaries, testes, external genitalia) that make sexual reproduction possible.

Secondary sex characteristics - non-reproductive sexual characteristics, such as female breasts and hips, male voice quality, and body hair.

Menarche - the first menstrual period.

Kohlberg

Preconventional morality - before age 9, most children's morality focuses on self-interest: they obey rules either to avoid punishment or gain concrete rewards.

Conventional morality - by early adolescence, morality focuses on caring for others and on upholding laws and social rules, simply because they are the laws and rules.

Postconventional morality - with abstract reasoning of the formal operational thought, people may reach a third moral level. Actions are judged "right" because they flow from people's rights or from self-defined, basic ethical principles.

These levels form a moral ladder.

Erikson

Stage	Issue	Description of Task
Infancy	Trust vs. mistrust	If needs are dependably met, infants develop a

(to 1 year)		sense of basic trust.
Toddlerhood (1-3 years)	Autonomy vs. shame and doubt	Toddlers learn to exercise their will and do things for themselves, or they doubt their abilities.
Preschool (3-6 years)	Initiative vs. guilt	Preschoolers learn to initiate tasks and carry out plans, or they feel guilty about their efforts to be independent.
Elementary School (6 years - puberty)	Industry vs. inferiority	Children learn the pleasure of applying themselves to tasks, or they feel inferior.
Adolescence (teens to 20 years)	Identity vs. role confusion	Teenagers work at refining a sense of self by testing roles and then integrating them to form a single identity, or they become confused about who they are.
Young adulthood (20-40 years)	Intimacy vs. isolation	Young adults struggle to form close relationships to gain the capacity for intimate love, or they feel socially isolated.
Middle adulthood (40-60 years)	Generativity vs. stagnation	People discover a sense of contributing to the world usually through family and work, or they may feel a lack of purpose.
Late adulthood (60+ years)	Integrity vs. despair	Reflecting on his or her life, an older adult may feel satisfaction or failure.

Identity - our sense of self, according to Erikson, the adolescent's task is to solidify a sense of self by testing and integrating various roles.

Social identity - the "we" aspect of our self-concept; the part of our answer to "who am I?" that comes from our group memberships.

Intimacy - in Erikson's theory, the ability to form close, loving relationships; a primary developmental task in late adolescence and early adulthood.

Phases of Aging and intelligence

1. Cross-sectional evidence for intellectual decline
 - Researchers test and compare people of various ages
 - Researchers consistently find that older adults give fewer correct answers than do younger adults
2. Longitudinal evidence for intellectual stability
 - **Longitudinally** - retesting the same people over a period of years
 - What they found was until late in life, intelligence remained stable, and sometimes even increased
3. It all depends
 - **Crystallized intelligence** - our accumulated knowledge as reflect in our vocabulary and analogies tests- increases up to old age
 - **Fluid intelligence** - our ability to reason speedily and abstractly, decreases slowly up to age 75

Social clock - the culturally preferred timing of social events such as marriage, parenthood and retirement.

Reification- viewing an abstract, immaterial concept as if it were a concrete thing; to reify is to invent a concept, give it a name, and then convince ourselves that such a thing objectively exists in the world

Intelligence is a socially constructed concept: cultures deem intelligent whatever attributes enable success in those cultures

Test - a sample of behaviour at a given point in time

Intelligence test - a method for assessing an individual's mental aptitudes and comparing them with

those of others, using numerical scores

Intelligence - mental quality consisting of the ability to learn from experience, solve problems, and use knowledge to adapt to new situations

General intelligence (g) - a general intelligence factor that, according to Spearman and others, underlies specific mental abilities and is therefore measured by every task on an intelligence test

Factor analysis - a statistical procedure that identifies clusters of related items on a test; used to identify different dimensions of performance that underlie a person's total score

L.L. Thurstone

Gave 56 different tests to people and mathematically identified seven clusters of primary mental abilities

He did not rank people on a single scale of general aptitude, but when other investigators studied the profiles, they detected a persistent tendency

Those who excelled in one of the seven clusters generally scored well on the others

Gardner's eight intelligences

1. Linguistic
2. Logical-mathematical
3. Musical
4. Spatial
5. Bodily-kinaesthetic
6. Intrapersonal
7. Interpersonal
8. Naturalist

Savant syndrome - a condition in which a person otherwise limited in mental ability has an exceptional specific skill, such as in computation or drawing

Gardner argues that we do not have an intelligence, but rather multiple intelligences

Ninth possible intelligence: existential intelligence- the ability to ponder large questions about life, death and existence

Sternberg's three intelligences

1. Analytical intelligence (academic problem solving)- assessed by intelligence tests, which present well-defined problems having a single right answer. Convergent - one answer questions.
2. Creative intelligence- demonstrated in reacting adaptively to novel situations and generating novel ideas. Divergent - new ideas.
3. Practical intelligence- required for everyday tasks, which may be ill-defined with multiple solutions

Creativity - the ability to produce novel and valuable ideas (Wiles)

Sternberg and his colleagues identified five components of creativity

1. Expertise - a well-developed base of knowledge, furnishes the ideas, images and phrases we use as mental building blocks
2. Imaginative thinking skills - provide the ability to see things in novel ways, to recognize patterns, and to make connections
3. A venturesome personality - seeks new experiences, tolerates ambiguity and risk, and perseveres on overcoming obstacles
4. Intrinsic motivation - is being driven more by interest, satisfaction and challenge than by external pressures
5. A creative environment - sparks, supports, and refines creative ideas

Social intelligence- the know how involved in comprehending social situations and managing oneself successfully

Emotional intelligence- the ability to perceive, understand, manage and use emotions

John Mayer, Peter Salovey, and David Caruso developed a test that assesses **four emotional intelligence components**

1. Perceive emotions (to recognize them in faces, music and stories)
2. Understand emotions (to predict them and how they change and blend)
3. Manage emotions (to know how to express them in varied situation)
4. Use emotions (to enable adaptive or creative thinking)

Alfred Binet

Devised tests that approximated modern IQ tests

Began by assuming that all children follow the same course of intellectual development but that some develop more rapidly

Their goal became measuring each child's mental age: the chronological age that most typically corresponds to a given level of performance.

To raise the capacities of low scoring children, he recommended training that would help develop their attention span and self-discipline

Lewis Terman

Mental age - a measure of intelligence test performance devised by Binet

Stanford-Binet - the widely used American revision of Binet's original intelligence test

Intelligence quotient - defined originally as the ratio of mental age to chronological age multiplied by 100. ($MA/CA \times 100$) the average performance for a given age is assigned a score of 100

Today, they represent the test-taker's performance relative to the average performance of others the same age

Terman envisioned that the use of intelligence test would ultimately result in curtailing the reproduction of feeble-mindedness and in the elimination of an enormous amount of crime, pauperism, and industrial inefficiency

68% of people fall between an IQ of 85-115

96% of cases are between 70 & 130

Achievement tests - a test designed to assess what a person has learned

Aptitude test - a test designed to predict a person's future performance; aptitude is the capacity to learn

Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale - the most widely used intelligence test; contains verbal and performance subtests.

Standardization - defining meaningful scores by comparison with the performance of a pretested group

Normal curve - the symmetrical bell-shaped curve that describes the distribution of many physical and psychological attributes

Flynn effect - the phenomenon where intelligence scores have been rising steadily.

Reliability - the extent to which a test yields consistent results, as assessed by the consistency of scores on two halves of the test, or on retesting

Validity - the extent to which a test measures or predicts what it is supposed to

Content validity - the extent to which a test samples the behaviour that is of interest

Predictive validity - the success with which a test predicts the behaviour it is designed to predict; it is assessed by computing the correlation between test scores and the criterion behaviour

Mental retardation - a condition of limited mental ability, indicated by an intelligence score of 70 or below and difficulty in adapting to the demands of life

Level	Intelligence Score	Adaptation to demands of life
Mild	50-70	May learn academic skills to a sixth grade level. With assistance, adults may achieve self-supporting social and vocational skills.
Moderate	35-50	May progress to a second grade level. Adults may contribute to their own support by labouring in sheltered workshops.
Severe	35-20	May learn to talk and perform simple work tasks under close supervision.
Profound	Below 20	Require constant aid and supervision.

Down syndrome - a condition of retardation and associated physical disorders caused by an extra copy of chromosome 21

Stereotype threat - a self-confirming concern that one will be evaluated based on a negative

stereotype

Theories of Emotion

Emotion - a response of the whole organism, involving physiological arousal, expressive behaviors, and conscious experience.

James-Lange Theory - theory that says our experience of emotion is our awareness of physiological responses to emotion-arousing stimuli.

Cannon-Bard theory - the theory that an emotion-arousing stimulus simultaneously triggers physiological responses and the subjective experience of emotion.

Two-factor theory - the Schachter-Singer theory that experience to emotion must be physiologically aroused and cognitively label the arousal.

Anger

Catharsis - emotional release. In psychology, the catharsis hypothesis maintains that "releasing" aggressive energy (through action or fantasy) relieves aggressive urges.

Happiness

Feel-good, do-good phenomenon - people's tendency to be more helpful in a good mood.

Subjective well-being - self-perceived happiness or satisfaction with life. Used along with measures of objective well-being (for example, physical and economic indicators) to evaluate people's quality of life.

Adaptation and Comparison

Adaptation-level phenomenon - our tendency to form judgements relative to a neutral level defined by our prior experience.

Relative deprivation - the perception that one is worse off relative to those with whom one compares oneself.

Stress and Health

Behavioural medicine - an interdisciplinary field that integrates behavioral and medical knowledge and applies that knowledge to health and disease

Health psychology - a subfield of psychology that provides psychology's contribution to behavioural medicine

Stress - Process of perception and response to an event that is perceived as physically or psychologically threatening or challenging . Stress understood by how person appraises situation by terms of motivation and needs, resources for coping

Two critical processes that determine stressfulness

1. Cognitive appraisal
2. Coping strategies

The general adaptation syndrome (GAS): Hans Selye. A nonspecific and automatic stress response pattern. 3 gas phases:

1. **Alarm reaction - Shock period:** temperature decreases, blood pressure and heart rate will drop. Differences mobilized for emergency response.
2. **Resistance** - Most psychological responses eventually return to normal. Adapt to stressor. Specific resistance to stressor is up but general resistance is down
3. **Exhaust** - If stressor continues over time the ability to resist it and other stressors collapse. Stress related illnesses: high blood pressure, heart disease.

Stressful Life Events

1. **Catastrophes** - Unpredictable large-scale events that nearly everyone appraises as threatening (war). In disaster's wake, rates of psychological disorders such as depression and anxiety rose an average 17 percent. Their stress is twofold: the trauma of uprooting and family separation and the challenges of adjusting to a foreign culture's new language, ethnicity, climate and social norms.
2. **Significant life changes** - The death of a loved one, the loss of a job, leaving home, a

marriage, a divorce. Life transitions and insecurities are often keenly felt during young adulthood. Experiencing a cluster of crises puts one even more at risk.

3. **Daily hassles** - Everyday annoyances may be the most significant source of stress. People's difficulties in letting go of unattainable goals is another everyday stressor with health consequences. Even better predictors of emotional and physical health problems than major events. Hypertension rates are high among residents of impoverished areas where the stresses that accompany inadequate income, unemployment, solo parenting, and overcrowding are part of daily life for many people. Burnout: physical, emotional, and mental exhaustion as a result of chronic job stress

Stress and the Heart

Coronary heart disease - the clogging of the vessels that nourish the heart muscle; the leading cause of death in many developed countries. Meyer Friedman and Ray Rosenman tested the idea that stress increases vulnerability to heart disease. 9 year study of more than 3000 healthy men aged 35-59; by the time the study was complete, 257 men had suffered heart attacks and 69% were type A. Recent research revealed that type A's toxic core is negative emotions- especially the anger associated with an aggressively reactive temperament. Type A person's blood may contain excess cholesterol and fat that later get deposited around the heart.

Type A: term for competitive, hard-driving, impatient, verbally aggressive, and anger-prone people

Type B: term for easygoing, relaxed people

One study of young and middle aged adults found that those who react with anger over little things are most coronary-prone, and suppressing negative emotions only heightens the risk. Another study followed 13000 middle-aged people for 5 years. Among those with normal blood pressure, people who had scored high on anger were three times more likely to have had heart attacks

Laura Kubzansky studied 1306 initially healthy men who a decade earlier had scored as optimists, pessimists or neither. Pessimists were more than twice as likely as optimists to develop heart disease

Stress and Susceptibility to Disease

Psychophysiological illness - literally mind-body illness; any stress-related physical illness, such as hypertension and some headaches

Psychoneuroimmunology (PNI) - the study of how psychological, neural, and endocrine processes together affect the immune system and resulting health

Psychoneuroimmunology - Your immune system is a complex surveillance system that defends your body by isolating and destroying bacteria, viruses, and other foreign substances.

Lymphocytes - the two types of white blood cells that are part of the body's immune system

B lymphocytes form in the bone marrow and release antibodies that fight bacterial infections

T lymphocytes form in the thymus and other lymphatic tissue and attack cancer cells, viruses, and foreign substances

Two other important agents of the immune system are the **macrophage** (big eater) which identifies, pursues and ingests harmful invaders and worn-out cells, and the **natural killer cells** which pursue disease cells

Responding too strongly, it may attack the body's own tissues, causing arthritis or an allergic reaction

Underreacting it may allow a dormant herpes virus to erupt or cancer cells to multiply

One study monitored immune response in 43 monkeys over six months; 21 were stressed by being housed with new roommates. The socially disrupted monkeys experienced weakened immune systems

Stress and AIDS

AIDS - Fourth leading cause of death and the number one killer in Africa. An immune disorder-

an acquired immune deficiency syndrome caused by the human immunodeficiency virus, which is spread by the exchange of bodily fluids, primarily semen and blood. Researchers have found that stress and negative emotions do correlated with a progression from HIV infections to AIDS and the speed of decline in those infected

HIV-infected men faced with stressful life circumstances exhibit somewhat greater immune suppression and faster disease progression

Stress and Cancer

Some investigators have reported that people are at increased risk for cancer within a year after experiencing depression, helplessness or bereavement

One large Swedish study revealed that people with a history of workplace stress had 5.5 times greater risk of colon cancer than those who reported no such problems

The emerging view seems to be that stress does not create cancer cells. At worst, it may affect their growth by weakening the body's natural defenses against proliferating malignant cells

Mind and body interact; everything psychological is simultaneously physiological

Promoting Health

Coping with Stress

Coping - alleviating stress using emotional, cognitive, or behavioural methods

Problem-focused coping - attempting to alleviate stress directly- by changing the stressor or the way we interact with that stressor

Emotion-focused coping - attempting to alleviate stress by avoiding or ignoring a stressor and attending to emotional needs related to one's stress reaction

We tend to use problem-focused strategies when we feel a sense of control over a situation and think we can change the circumstances or change ourselves

We turn to emotion-focused strategies when we cannot or believe we cannot change a situation

Perceived Control - Uncontrollable threats trigger the strongest stress responses. Perceiving a loss of control, we become more vulnerable to ill health. Workers given control over their work environment also experience less stress. In one study, 843 grave markers in old graveyard in Glasgow, those with the costliest highest pillars tended to have lived the longest. High economic status predicts a lower risk of heart and respiratory diseases. Poverty and diminished control entail physiologically measurable stress even among children. Losing control provokes an outpouring of stress hormones.

Optimism and Health - Optimists also respond to stress with smaller increases in blood pressure, and they recover more quickly from heart bypass surgery. Those who manage to find humour in life's daily events also seem to benefit. Some studies suggest that mirthful humor may defuse stress and strengthen immune activity

Social Support - Seven massive investigations, each following thousands of people for several years, revealed that close relationships predict health. People are less likely to die prematurely if supported by close relationships with friends, family, fellow workers, members of a faith community or other support groups. Studies indicate that married people live longer, healthier lives than the unmarried. In a seven-decades-long Harvard study, a good marriage at age 50 predicted healthy aging better than did a low cholesterol level at 50. Karen Allen reports that pets have been found to increase the odds of survival after a heart attack, to relieve depression among AIDS patients, and to lower the level of blood lipids that contribute to cardiovascular risk. Close relationships give us an opportunity to confide painful feelings, a social support component that has now been extensively studied. Sexually abused women especially those who kept their secret to themselves reported more headaches and stomach ailments. Talking about a stressful event can temporarily arouse people but in the long run it calms them, by calming limbic system activity.

Managing Stress

Aerobic Exercise - Sustained exercise that increases heart and lung fitness; may also alleviate depression and anxiety. In a Gallup survey non-exercisers were twice as likely as exercisers to report being not too happy. In one experiment by Lisa McCann and David Holmes, after 10

weeks in an aerobic exercise program, those women reported the greatest decrease in depression. Vigorous exercise provides a substantial immediate mood boost reports David Watson. Exercise orders up mood-boosting chemicals from our body's internal pharmacy- neurotransmitters such as norepinephrine, serotonin, and the endorphins. Other research reveals that exercise not only boosts our mood, but also strengthens the heart, increases blood flow, keeps blood vessels open, and lowers both blood pressure and blood pressure reaction to stress. Less exercise means less brain activity in areas essential for reward, motivation and effective coping

Biofeedback - a system for electronically recording, amplifying and feeding back information regarding a subtle physiological state, such as blood pressure or muscle tension. Neal Miller experimented with biofeedback. Biofeedback instruments mirror the results of a person's own efforts, thereby allowing the person to learn techniques for controlling a particular physiological response. National Institutes of Health panel declared that biofeedback works best on tension headaches. Simple methods of relaxation can produce many of the same results biofeedback once promised

Herbert Benson became intrigued with meditative relaxation when he found that experience meditators could decrease their blood pressure, heart rate, and oxygen consumption and raise their fingertip temperature

The relaxation response is a state of calm marked by relaxed muscles, slowed breathing and heart rate, and decreased blood pressure

Davidson ran baseline brain scans of volunteers who were not experienced meditators- compared with both the control group and their own baseline, the meditation participants exhibited noticeably more left-hemisphere activity and also improved functioning after the training.

Complementary and Alternative Medicine - As yet unproven health care treatments intended to supplement or serve as alternatives to conventional medicine, and which typically are not widely taught in medical schools, used in hospitals, or reimbursed by insurance companies. When research shows a therapy to be safe and effective, it usually then becomes part of accepted medical practice.

Spirituality and Faith Communities - Jeremy Klark compared the death rates for 3900 Israelis either in one of 11 religiously orthodox or in one of 11 matched, non-religious collective settlements. It was reported that belonging to a religious collective was associated with a strong protective effect. In every age group, religious community members were about half as likely to have died as were their non-religious counterparts. Women are more religiously active than men, and women outlive men. This translated into a life expectancy at age 20 of 83 years for frequent attenders and 75 years for infrequent attenders. Religiously active people tend to have healthier life-styles; for example they smoke and drink less. Social support is another variable that helps explain the faith factor. Religion encourages another predictor of health and longevity- marriage

Personality - an individual's characteristic pattern of thinking, feeling, and acting.

Goals of personality psychology

1. Describe and explain individual differences
2. Synthesize the influences on a person into an integrated account of the person.

Four basic approaches to personality theory: Psychoanalytic, Trait, Humanistic, Social-cognitive

Psychoanalytic Perspective

Freud: Lived (1856-1939). Psychoanalysis was theory and techniques of Freud.

Personality - The working out of conflicts among id, ego, superego involving the repressions and sublimations of instinctual pressures and resultant compromises across topographic levels of the mind

Free Association - in psychoanalysis, a method of exploring the unconscious in which the person relaxes and says what comes to mind, no matter how trivial or embarrassing.

Psychoanalysis - Freud's theory of personality that attributes thoughts and actions to unconscious motives and conflicts; the techniques used in treating psychological disorders by seeking to expose and interpret unconscious tensions.

Unconscious - According to Freud: a reservoir of mostly unacceptable thoughts, wishes, feelings, and memories. According to contemporary psychologists: information processing of which we are unaware of.

Id - contains a reservoir of unconscious psychic energy that, according to Freud, strives to satisfy basic sexual and aggressive drives. The id operates on the pleasure principle, demanding immediate gratification. (Unconscious)

Ego - the largely conscious, executive part of the personality that, according to Freud, mediates among the demands of the id, superego and reality. The ego operates on the reality principle, satisfying the id's desires in ways that will realistically bring pleasure rather than pain. (Conscious)

Superego - part of the personality that represents internalized ideas and provides standards for judgment (the conscience) and for future aspirations. (Preconscious)

Psychosexual stages - the childhood stages of development during which the id's pleasure-seeking energy focuses on distinct erogenous zones.

Stage	Focus
Oral (0-18 months)	Pleasure centers on mouth - sucking, biting, chewing Oral character traits from fixation: Overindulgence - Optimism / Gullibility, Under-indulgence - Pessimism / Suspiciousness. Too little: Anxiety, Continue seeking oral gratification, Pessimism, Fixation. Too much: No reason to progress, Fixation.
Anal (18-36 months)	Pleasure focuses on bowel and bladder elimination; coping with demands for control. Anal character traits from fixation: Center around giving and withholding. Anal-retentive (withholding): Uptight, orderly, controlled, compulsively neat. Anal-expulsive: Messy, irresponsible
Phallic (3-6 years)	Pleasure zone is the genitals, coping with incestuous sexual feelings)
Latency (6 to puberty)	Dormant sexual feelings
Genital (puberty+)	Maturation of sexual interests

Oedipus complex - a boy's sexual desires toward his mother and feelings of jealousy and hatred for the rival father. For girls it's the Electra complex.

Identification - the process by which children incorporate their parent's values into their developing superegos.

Fixation - a lingering focus of pleasure-seeking energies at an earlier psychosexual stage, in which conflicts were unresolved.

Defense mechanisms - in psychoanalytic theory, the ego's protective methods of reducing anxiety by unconsciously distorting reality.

Repression - the basic defense mechanism that banishes anxiety-arousing thoughts, feelings, and memories from consciousness. Underlies all the other defense mechanisms.

Regression - an individual faced with anxiety retreats to a more infantile psychosexual stage, where some psychic energy remains fixated.

Reaction formation - the ego unconsciously switches unacceptable impulses into their opposites. Thus, people may express feelings that are the opposite of their anxiety-arousing unconscious feelings.

Projection - psychoanalytic defense mechanism by which people disguise their own threatening impulses by attributing them to others.

Rationalization - offers self-justifying explanations in place of the real, more threatening unconscious reasons for one's actions.

Displacement - shifts sexual or aggressive impulses toward a more acceptable or less threatening object or person, as when redirecting anger toward a safer outlet.

Denial - people refuse to believe or even perceive painful realities.

Collective unconscious - Carl Jung's concept of shared inherited reservoir of memory traces from our species' history.

Projective tests - a personality test, such as the Rorschach or TAT, that provides ambiguous stimuli designed to trigger projection of one's inner dynamics.

Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) - a projective test in which people express their inner feelings and interests through the stories they make up about ambiguous scenes.

Rorschach - the most widely used projective test, a set of 10 inkblots. Seeks to identify people's inner feelings by analyzing their interpretations of the blots. By Herman Rorschach.

Evaluation of theory as scientific: Verifiable? Testable? Vague and difficult to test empirically/scientifically. Falsifiability? Predicts equally probable but contradictory outcomes

Terror-management theory - a theory of death-related anxiety, explores people's emotional and behavioral responses to reminders of their impending death.

Humanistic Perspective

Focus on how subjective experiences of a person, how the person perceives and interprets the world

Represents a reaction against unconscious motivation model (psychodynamic)

Topics of investigation: Human choice, Creativity, Self-actualization (Growth to fulfill one's potential
Believes people are basically "good")

Abraham Maslow - proposed that we are motivated by a hierarchy of needs, ultimately seeking self-actualization.

Self-actualization - according to Maslow, one of the ultimate psychological needs that arises after basic psychological needs are met and self-esteem is achieved; the motivation to fulfill one's potential.

Hierarchy: Physiological (hunger, thirst and sex) → Safety (security, order and stability) → Belongingness and love → Esteem (self-respect and feelings of success) → Self-actualization

Carl Rogers - agreed with much of Maslow's thinking. Believed that people are basically good and are endowed with self-actualizing tendencies. People nurture our growth with unconditional positive regard, being accepting and by being empathetic.

Unconditional positive regard - according to Rogers, an attitude of total acceptance toward another person.

Conditions for growth: Genuineness, Acceptance, Empathy

Self-concept - all our thoughts and feelings about ourselves, in answer to the question, "who am I?"

Trait Perspective

Attempts to isolate and describe basic properties of individual that direct behavior

Puts focus on prediction and description of behavior

Assumes people vary simultaneously along continuous dimensions or factors/traits. Traits or factors seen as continuous versus discontinuous categories

Rates individuals on a number of scales of factors. To arrive at global picture of individual look at pattern of traits and amount of each trait

Trait psychologists want a small set of trait descriptors to apply to personality, reliable and valid methods to measure personality traits, to find relationship among traits and behavior.

Trait approach is not a theory. More like an orientation/a set of methods to assess characteristics.

Still disagreement to number of personality factors, ranges between two to eight.

Trait approach has trouble with predicting behavior. Scores on trait measures may only predict up to 10% of the variations among behaviors given in situation.

Trait - a characteristic pattern of behavior or disposition to feel and act, as assessed by self-report inventories and peer-pressure.

Hans Eysenck - factor analyst that believed we can reduce many of our normal individual variations

to two or three dimensions, including intro or extraversion and emotional (in)stability.

Eysenck personality - Introversion/Extroversion (I-E) / Emotional stability/instability (N for neuroticism)

Personality inventory - a questionnaire on which people respond to items designated to gauge a wide range of feelings and behaviors; used to assess selected personality traits.

Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) - the most widely researched and clinically used of all personality tests. Originally developed to identify emotional disorders (still considered its most appropriate use), this test is now used for many other screening purposes.

MMPI-2 has scales assessing work attitudes, family problems, and anger.

Empirically derived test - a test (such as MMPI) developed by testing a pool of items and then selecting those that discriminate between groups.

The Big Five factors - the five major personality factors.

The traits are quite stable, with some tendencies.

Heritability is about 50 for each trait.

They predict other possible attributes.

Traits lurk in music preferences, dorm rooms and offices, personal websites, an emails.

Trait Dimension	Endpoints of the Dimension	
Openness	Imaginative	Practical
	Preference for variety	Preference for routine
	Independent	Conforming
Conscientiousness	Organized	Disorganized
	Careful	Careless
	Disciplined	Impulsive
Extraversion	Sociable	Retiring
	Fun-loving	Sober
	Affectionate	Reserved
Agreeableness	Soft-hearted	Ruthless
	Trusting	Suspicious
	Helpful	Uncooperative
Neuroticism	Calm	Anxious
	Secure	Insecure
	Self-Satisfied	Self-Pitying

Social Cognitive Perspective

Social-cognitive perspective - views behavior as influenced by the interaction between people's traits (including their thinking) and their social context.

Reciprocal determinism - the interacting influences of behavior, internal cognition, and environment.

1. Different people choose different environments.
2. Our personalities shape how we interpret and react to events.
3. Our personalities help create situations to which we react.

Personal control - the extent to which people perceive control over their environment rather than feeling helpless.

External locus of control - the perception that chance or outside forces beyond your personal control determine your fate.

Internal locus of control - the perception that you control your own fate.

Learned helplessness - the hopelessness and passive resignation an animal or human learns when unable to avoid repeated aversive events.

Attributional style - pessimistic or optimistic.

Positive psychology - the scientific study of optimal human functioning; aims to discover and

promote strengths and virtues that enable individuals and communities to thrive.

Exploring the Self

Self - in contemporary psychology, assumed to be the center of personality, the organizer of our thoughts, feelings and actions.

Spotlight effect - overestimating others' noticing and evaluating of our appearance, performance and blunders (as if the spotlight is shining on us).

Self-esteem - one's feelings of high or low self-worth.

Self-serving bias - a readiness to perceive oneself favorably.

Psychological Disorders

Psychological disorder - deviant, distressful, and dysfunctional behaviour patterns.

Attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD) - a psychological disorder marked by the appearance by age 7 of one or more of the following key symptoms: extreme inattention, hyperactivity, and impulsivity.

Medical model - the concept that diseases, in this case psychological disorders, have physical causes that can be diagnosed, treated, and in most cases cured, often through treatment in a hospital.

DSM-IV-TR - Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, fourth edition, with an updated "text revision," a widely used system for classifying psychological disorders.

Classification used by most mental health experts in Canada and the U.S.

Neurotic disorders: Anxiety, Somatoform, Dissociative, Affective (mood)

Psychotic disorders: Schizophrenic, Paranoid, Affective (certain types)

"Psychotic" behavior: Distorted perceptions and irrational ideas

Defining Psychological Disorders

A harmful dysfunction that shows one or more of four criterion (all four usually considered)

- a. Deviation from statistical norms - atypical behavior
- b. Deviation from social norms - behavior is disturbing
- c. Maladaptiveness of behavior - behavior affects well-being of the individual or social group
- d. Rationally unjustifiable behavior - unsupported by popular acceptance

Insane is a legal term, means whether the person knows right from wrong

Understanding Psychological Disorders

The Medical Model sees psychology disorders as similar to physical ones. Sees disorders as illnesses. Require diagnose based on symptoms and need treatment.

Bio-Psycho-Social Perspective: Combining factors interact to produce psychological disorders. Factors are biological psychological and sociocultural

Advantages to classifying psychological disorders: Help investigate and uncover causes of different abnormal behaviors

Neuroses and psychoses. Both are fairly broad categories. Neither are DSM categories: not precise enough.

Neuroses (Group of disorders characterized by anxiety, personal unhappiness, and maladaptive behavior, Assumed to have problems coping with internal conflicts, Individual can usually function in society but not at full capacity)

Psychoses (Behavior and thought process so disturbed that person is out of touch with reality, Cannot cope with daily life, Usually need hospitalization)

Labeling Psychological Disorders

Disadvantages: A diagnostic label is not a cause, can overlook differences between people with the same diagnoses and not treat each person as unique, Labels can carry stigma.

Anxiety disorders: A group of disorders where anxiety is main symptom (Panic disorders, Generalized anxiety). Also includes disorders where maladaptive behaviors used to control anxiety (Phobic, obsessive compulsive)

GAD: High tension each day, Feels vaguely uneasy/apprehensive, Tend to overreact to mild stressors. Symptoms: Inability to relax, Disturbed sleep, Fatigue, Headaches, Dizziness, Rapid heart beat. Continuously worries about potential problems. Difficulty concentrating and making decisions. May also experience panic attacks (panic disorder): Episodes of acute and overwhelming apprehension or terror. During attacks feel something dreadful is about to happen. Symptoms of anxiety: Heart palpitations, Shortness of breath, Perspiration, Muscle tremors, Faintness, Nausea. Usually person has no clear idea why frightened. This is called "**free-floating**" anxiety as not triggered by a particular event

Phobias: responding with intense fear to stimulus/situation that most people do not consider particularly dangerous. Usually realize their fear is irrational. Alleviated only by avoiding feared objection/situation. Fear diagnosed as a phobia only when avoidance interferes considerably with daily life. Three categories:

1. **Specific phobia:** Fear of a specific object, animal, or situation
2. **Social phobia:** Insecure in social situations and exaggerated fear of embarrassing themselves
3. **Agoraphobia :** Most common phobia of people seeing professional help and most disabling

Obsessive-compulsive disorder: Compelled to think about things they would rather not think about, or compelled to perform acts they do not wish to carry out

Obsessions - Persistent intrusions of unwelcome thoughts or images

Compulsions - Irresistible urges to carry out certain acts/rituals

Neurotic Disorders

Anxiety Disorders

Anxiety disorders - psychological disorders characterized by distressing, persistent anxiety or maladaptive behaviours that reduce anxiety.

Generalized anxiety disorder -an anxiety disorder in which a person is continually tense, apprehensive, and in a state of autonomic nervous system arousal

Panic disorder - marked by unpredictable minutes-long episodes of intense dread in which a person experiences terror and accompanying chest pain, choking, or other frightening sensations. Panic attacks.

Obsessive compulsive disorder - unwanted repetitive thoughts (obsessions) and/or actions (compulsions)

Phobias - a persistent, irrational fear and avoidance of a specific object or situation.

Specific phobias - fear of things or situation

Social phobias - shyness to an extreme. Scared to be embarrassed.

Agoraphobia - means fear of the market. Most extreme.

Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) - haunting memories, nightmares, social withdrawal, jumpy anxiety, and/or insomnia that lingers for four weeks or more after a traumatic experience.

Post-traumatic growth - positive psychological changes as a result of struggling with extremely challenging circumstances and life crises.

Learning Perspective	<i>Fear Conditioning</i> You're taught all your fears based on various circumstances.	<i>Stimulus generalization</i> Bad experience with one thing makes you fear all things of the same type.
		<i>Reinforcement</i> Maintains phobias and compulsions.
	<i>Observational Learning</i> You're scared of what your parents or people around you are scared of.	
Biological Perspective	<i>Natural Selection</i> We're scared of things that	

threatened out ancestors. Also can be for evolutionary reasons.

Genes

Some people are more predisposed to anxiety genetically.

Brain

Anxiety can be caused by an over arousal of brain areas involved in impulse control and habitual behaviours.

Somatoform Disorders

Somatoform disorders - psychological disorder in which the symptoms take a somatic (bodily) form without apparently physical abuse

Conversion disorder - a rare somatoform disorder in which a person experiences very specific genuine physical symptoms for which no physiological basis can be found.

Hypochondriasis - a somatoform disorder in which a person interprets normal physical sensations as symptoms of a disease.

Dissociative Disorders

Dissociative disorders - conscious awareness becomes separated (dissociated) from previous memories, thoughts, and feelings.

Dissociative Identity Disorder (DID) - a person exhibits more than one alternating personality. Formerly called multiple personality disorder.

Mood Disorders

Mood disorders - psychological disorders characterized by emotional extremes.

Major depressive disorder - a person experiences two or more weeks of significantly depressed moods, feelings of worthlessness, and diminished interest or pleasure in activities.

If symptoms last more than two weeks. 1/4 last less than 1 month, 1/2 last less than 3 months, 1/4 last a year or longer (about 10% do not recover and remain chronically depressed). Tend to recur: 50% will have another episode, 80% chance of recurrence after two episodes.

Bipolar disorder - a person alternates between the hopelessness and lethargy of depression and the overexcited state of mania.

Mania (elation) and depression alternate. Mania alone is uncommon. Starts with mania (Energetic/enthusiastic/high self-confidence), Usually followed by depressive episode. Biological variables seem important (Runs in families, Early onset, Responds to medications, Very likely to recur if untreated. Represents 5-10% of depressions, Equally common in men and women)

Mania - a hyperactive, wildly optimistic state.

Four sets of depressive symptoms: Emotional, Cognitive, Motivational, Physical

Facts about mood disorders

Many behavioural and cognitive changes accompany depression.

Depression is widespread, causes must be common.

Women are twice as likely as men to experience depression.

Most major depressive episodes self-terminate.

Stressful events related to work, marriage and close relationships often precede depression.

With each new generation, depression strikes earlier and affecting more people.

Biological Perspective	<i>Genetic Influences</i> Risk of depression or bipolar disorder increases if you have a sibling or
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parent with it.

The Depressed Brain

There is less activity in the brain during depressed periods, and more activity during mania.

Social-Cognitive Perspective *Negative Thoughts and Negative Moods Interact*
Self-defeating beliefs may arise from self-helplessness.

Learned Helplessness
The hopelessness and passive resignation an animal or human learns when unstable to avoid repeated aversive events.

Depression's Vicious Cycle
Stressful experiences leads to negative explanatory style which leads to depressed mood which leads to cognitive and behavioural changes which leads to stressful experiences...

Psychotic Disorders

Schizophrenia

Schizophrenia - a group of severe disorders characterized by disorganized and delusional thinking, disturbed perceptions, and inappropriate emotions and actions.

Disorganized thinking may come from selective attention.

May have hallucinations.

Affects 1% of the population

Onset of schizophrenia: Usually about 25-35 years of age, May be sudden or gradual,

Recovery more likely if sudden (acute) onset and main symptom is not withdrawal.

Delusions - false beliefs that may accompany psychotic disorders.

Types of Schizophrenia

Paranoid	Preoccupation with delusions or hallucinations, often with themes of persecution or grandiosity
Disorganized	Disorganized speech or behaviour, or flat or inappropriate emotion
Catatonic	Immobility (or excessive, purposeless movement), extreme negativism and/or parrot-like repeating of another's speech or movements
Undifferentiated	Many and varied symptoms
Residual	Withdrawal after hallucinations and delusions have disappeared

Caused by

- Dopamine over-activity
- Abnormal brain activity and anatomy
- Maternal virus during mid-pregnancy. Increased risk if:
 - During in the middle of fetal development their country experienced a flu epidemic.
 - Born in a densely populated area, where risk of disease is more.
 - Born in a winter or spring months, but the inverse in the southern hemisphere.
 - Mothers report being sick during pregnancy.
- Genetic factors
- Psychological factors

Disturbance of the following:

Thought and attention: Critical symptom. Process and content of thought disturbed.

"Word salad" is the uttering of meaningless words and phrases. *Loose associations* - shifting ideas. *Clang associations* - rhyming.

Delusions of influence: Common, Feels controlled by an external force

Delusions of persecution: "Paranoid ideation," May begin with ideas of reference

Delusions of grandeur: Less common

Attention disorder: Difficulty keeping focused on relevant stimuli, Thought intrusion/ disorganization with no insight info.

Perception: During acute episodes may experience perceptual changes. Hallucinations (most common are auditory).

Emotion and action: Emotion not appropriate, or "flat affect" meaning emotion is blunted, face is flat, no expression

Personality Disorders

Personality disorder - psychological disorder characterized by inflexible and enduring behaviour patterns that impair social functioning

Antisocial personality disorder (sociopath or psychopath) - the person (usually a man) exhibits a lack of conscience for wrongdoing, even towards friends or family members. May be aggressive and ruthless or a clever con artist.

The Psychological Therapies

Eclectic approach - Uses many approaches/methods/techniques selected for client

Psychotherapy - To treat by psychological means. Therapist and client(s) meet to effect change in client(s). Change is modification of Thoughts, Feelings and/or Behaviors.

Psychoanalysis

Psychoanalysis - Freud's classical therapeutic technique (lengthy). Use a variety of methods to identify and examine conflicts and repressed impulses. Seeks self-insight as therapeutic for emotional/behavioral/relationship problems

Free association - patient verbally reports ongoing stream of thought out sight of therapist

Resistance - the blocking from consciousness of anxiety-laden material.

Interpretation - Analyst's ideas about conflicts, resistances, impulses, and dreams. To promote insight.

Transference - Patient's transfer to the analyst of a pattern of interaction from significant past relationship. Interactions are acted out and can be analyzed and a new relationship developed

Psychodynamic therapy - Many contemporary dynamic therapies are outgrowths of psychoanalysis. **Characteristics:** Briefer than psychoanalysis, Less intense transference, Fixed and defined goals, Do not completely reconstruct childhood, Direct face-to-face discussion, Therapist more active and more direct.

Humanistic Therapies

Humanistic therapies - Focus on the present (here and now) and future vs. past, conscious vs. unconscious thoughts, uniqueness and responsibility of individual, growth and self-actualization.

Insight therapies - a variety of therapies which aim to improve psychological functioning by increasing the client's awareness of underlying motives and defenses.

Client/person-centered therapy - developed by Carl Rogers

Therapist - a non-directive facilitator

- 1) Clarifies
- 2) Empathizes
- 3) Acknowledges

Three important therapist qualities

- i. Empathy/warmth - Understand feeling and express understanding
- ii. Genuineness - Be open and honest

iii. Acceptance - Deep unconditional acceptance of individual and potential
Active listening - Paraphrase, reflect, and clarify feelings. Good for clients who are motivated and highly verbal.

Behavior Therapies

Behavior therapies - A number of methods based on principles of learning and conditioning. Views maladaptive behaviors as learned. Goal is modify behavior in specific situation. Origin of behavior(s) is not important. Focus is behavior: How often? Where? How to change behavior? Uses defined and specific goals.

Counterconditioning - Procedure based on classical conditioning. Conditions new responses to stimuli that previously led to unwanted responses. Systematic desensitization and adverse conditioning both based on counter-conditioning

Exposure therapies - Eg. "Flooding" technique is exposing phobic person to most feared situation and trapping them until anxiety reduces.

Systematic desensitization - Specific method of behavior therapy. Good for fears and phobias. Based on use of incompatible/antagonistic responses. Weaken an undesirable response by strengthening incompatible one. Eg. Relaxation as antagonistic to anxiety.

Based on principles of classical or Pavlovian conditioning. Four basic steps:

- 1) Train relaxation exercises. Eg. Progressive relaxation of muscle groups
- 2) Rank order feared situations
- 3) Gradual exposure to feared situation. In reality is best. Can expose in imagination using imagery. Start with situation of least anxiety
- 4) Expose at pace at which relaxation is maintained

Virtual reality exposure therapy - an anxiety treatment that progressively exposes people to simulations of their greatest fears, such as airplane flying, spiders or public speaking.

Aversive conditioning - a type of counterconditioning that associates an unpleasant state with unwanted behavior. May work in the short run.

Token economy - an operant conditioning procedure in which people earn a token of some sort for exhibiting a desired behavior and can later exchange the tokens for various privileges or treats.

Cognitive Therapies

Cognitive Therapy - Therapy that teaches people new, more adaptive ways of thinking and acting, based on the assumption that thoughts intervene between events and our emotional reactions. Behaviorally based but attend to teaching more adaptive thinking/reasoning

Cognitive (thinking) factors: Thoughts, Expectations, Interpretations or events that mediate/change behavior

Cognitive behavior therapy - Combining cognitive and behavior therapy, to change thoughts and actions. Uses behavior modification techniques and techniques to change maladaptive beliefs. Eg. Belief distortions or overgeneralizations. Alter using positive self-statements

Beck's therapy for depression - Gentle questioning seeks to reveal irrational thinking, and then to persuade the person to remove the dark glasses through which they view life.

Group Therapies

Family therapy - treats the family as a system. View's an individual's unwanted behaviors as influenced by other family members.

Group therapy advantages - Saves therapist time, Saves client money, Provides social support, Opportunity for vicarious learning.

Group therapy disadvantages - Not as affective if client requires direct therapy.

Summary

Therapy	Assumed Problem	Therapy Aims	Method
Psychodynamic	Unconscious forces childhood	Reduced anxiety through self-insight	Analysis and interpretation

	experiences		
Client-centered	Barriers to self-understanding and self-acceptance	Personal growth through self-insight	Active listening and unconditional positive regard
Behavior	Maladaptive behavior	Extinction and relearning	Counterconditioning, exposure, desensitization, aversive conditioning, operant conditioning
Cognitive	Negative, self-defeating thinking	Healthier thinking and self-talk	Reveal and reverse self-blaming
Family	Stressful relationships	Relationship healing	Understanding family social system, exploring roles, improved communication

Evaluating Psychotherapies

Is Psychotherapy Effective?

Three problems of effectiveness evaluation:

- What is improvement?** Spontaneous remission: large percentage improve without professional treatment by changes in person's life and help of another person. Rate of spontaneous remission is 30-60% depending on nature of disorder. Success in psychotherapy - if rate of success is greater than rate of spontaneous remission (baseline rate) then we can conclude success. How to measure baseline rate: use wait-list controls
- How to measure improvement?** Outcome measures are used, Eg. Mood measures for affective problems or behavior measures.

Meta-analysis - a procedure to statistically combine the result of many studies. A 1980 meta-analysis combined 475 studies. Results: Across various therapy types with various outcome measures. Average psychotherapy patient showed greater improvement than 80% of the untreated group
- What caused improvement?** Are different approaches equally effective? Little difference in effectiveness can be shown between therapies. Therapy seems superior to no treatment. Certain types of therapies may be more well suited for certain types of problems
 - Eg. Systematic desensitization to treat phobias and fears
 - Eg. Psychodynamic therapy for emotional/interpersonal problems

The Relative Effectiveness of Different Therapies

Unsupported approaches: Energy therapies (manipulate people's energy fields), recovered-memory therapies (aims to unearth repressed memories), rebirthing therapies (reenacting supposed trauma), facilitated communication (has an assistant touch their hand of a child), crisis debriefing (rehearse the process of the traumatic experience).

Evidence-based practice - clinical decision-making that integrates the best available research with clinical expertise and patient characteristics and perspectives.

Commonalities Among Psychotherapies

Three elements shared by all forms of psychotherapy: Hope for demoralized people, a new perspective, and an empathetic, trusting, caring relationship.

Effectiveness of many therapies may be due to common factors across all therapies

Some nonspecific factors:

- Interpersonal relationship of warmth and trust
- Reassurance and support
- Problems seeming less serious when shared
- Reinforcement of adaptive responses
- Understanding or insight
- Change as "possible" for client induces hope and "hope" facilitates change

Professions Involved in Psychotherapy

PHD in psychotherapy does not exist.

- a. **Clinical Psychologist (PHD):** 7 years postgraduate study, 1 year supervision, Pass license exam, Cannot yet prescribe in Canada.
- b. **Psychiatrist:** MD and mental health residency, Can prescribe
- c. **Psychiatric social worker:** MSW (2 years postgraduate)
- d. **Psychiatric nurse:** Nursing degree, Training in mental disorders
- e. **Psychoanalyst:** Usually an MD psychiatrist, Psychoanalytic training

The Biomedical Therapies

Biomedical Therapy - prescribed medications or medical procedures that act directly on the patient's nervous system.

Based on biological approach to psychological disorders. Psychological disorder can be treated at physiological or biomedical level of brain.

Drug Therapies

Psychopharmacology - study of how drugs affect the mind and behavior

Antipsychotic drugs - family of drugs known as the major tranquilizers like thiorazine, prolixin, clozapine. Used to treat schizophrenia. Blocks dopamine receptors at post-synaptic sites. Effectiveness supports DA hypothesis of schizophrenia (That too much DA involved in schizophrenia). Have calming effect and reduce hallucinations and confusion. Not a cure for schizophrenia. Seldom abused (useless, people don't take them to get high).

Tardive dyskinesia - involuntary movements of the facial muscles, tongue, and limbs. A possible neurotoxic side effect of long term use of antipsychotic drugs that target dopamine receptors.

Dangers/problems of antipsychotics: Only control schizophrenia and many symptoms remain like emotional bluntness, withdrawal, attentional problems. Side effects can include dryness of mouth, blurred vision, difficulty concentrating. Less side effects with clozapine which also blocks serotonin. Long term use problems can include low B.P., involuntary movements of arms, legs, mouth and chin. Parkinsonian symptoms such as difficulty coordinating movements.

Anti-anxiety drugs - family of drugs known as minor tranquilizers like Valium, Librium, Xanax, Ativan. They reduce tension and cause drowsiness. They are central nervous system depressants like alcohol and barbiturates. Used to treat anxiety disorders like phobias, alcohol withdrawal, stress. Should be used in conjunction with appropriate psychotherapy

Dangers: often over-prescribed, high risk of physical dependency, suicide from overdose by combining with alcohol

Anti-depressants - elevate mood in depression. Increase availability of norepinephrine (NE) and serotonin (SE) Increase energy level. Used to treat depression.

Two major classes

1. **Monoamine oxidase (MAO):** inhibitors. Eg. Nardil, parnate. They block the enzyme that destroys NE and SE.
2. **Tricyclic anti-depressants:** prevent reuptake of SE and NE and thus prolonging activity of both. Eg. Tofronil and Elavil. Serotonin reuptake inhibitors include Prozac, Zoloft, Paxil. Increase serotonin by blocking reuptake. They're also used to treat obsessive compulsive and panic disorders.

Problems - require weeks of medication for effect, side effects similar to anti-psychotic medication such as dry mouth, blurred vision, difficulty concentrating. Drop out rate is 1/3 to 1/2. Not as effective as pharmaceutical companies claim. Psychotherapy is just as effective, has long term benefits, and no drug side effects.

Problems with drug reduction: withdrawal must be gradual or severe side effects possible such as headaches, nausea and confusion.

Mood Stabilizers - For bipolar depression, lithium (which is a salt) is used to treat.

Brain Stimulation

Electroconvulsive Therapy - Treatment for severe depression. Induce a seizure similar to an epileptic convulsion. Very popular during the 1940s to 1960s prior to the use of drugs. Now only in extreme cases. Works fast. Very controversial

Modern ECT Treatment Method

- i. Anesthesia
- ii. Muscle relaxant
- iii. Minimum current to non-dominant hemisphere or bilateral shock
- iv. Usually 4-6 treatment over several weeks

Main side effect is memory loss; for memories in period up to six months prior to ECT.

How ECT Treatment Works - Unknown, perhaps due to a mass release of neurotransmitters such as NE and SE.

Alternative Neurostimulation Techniques

Repetitive transcranial magnetic stimulation (rTMS) - the application of repeated impulses of magnetic energy to the brain; used to stimulate or repress brain activity.

Deep-brain stimulation - implanting electrodes and a pacemaker stimulator to excite the neurons that inhibit this negative emotion-feeding activity.

Psychosurgery

Psychosurgery - Remove or destroy parts of the brain by cutting nerve fibers or by ultrasonic irritation

Lobotomy - usually cut frontal (responsible for decision making and planning) to limbic (responsible for emotion) area connections. Get relaxed, lethargic, happy but impaired patient. Extremely controversial. Been used for violent tendencies, suicidal tendencies and extreme pain.

Therapeutic Lifestyle Change

May find relief from depression by activity and focusing on mind and body, by doing a combination of aerobic exercise, getting adequate sleep, light exposure, social connection, anti-rumination, and taking nutritional supplements.

Modern Treatment

Deinstitutionalization - Since early 60s, antipsychotic medications became widely available. Increased discharging from hospitals. Hospital stays shorter now. Readmission rate is about 50%.