

PSYC 321 Final Review – Chapters 9, 10, 11, 12, 13

Chapter 9: Psychosocial Theories

The psychosocial perspective: has its roots partly in Freud's psychoanalytic perspective, as part of his work emphasized how people's primary tasks in life concern relationships.

- Examining how infants interact with and are affected by other people, and carrying over this theme onward to the rest of life

- Object Relations Theories (Neoanalytic Theories)
 - "object" = person
 - Focus on one person's relation to others
 - Bonds between people focused on the ego and its functions, rather than Freud's view that focused more on the Id
 - 2 main points:
 - A person's pattern of relating to others is laid down in early childhood
 - These patterns tend to recur over and over throughout life
 - Mahler's Theory:
 - Child's identity rests on a three-stage relationship with his//her mother
 - 1 – Infants have basic needs cared for by mother (3-4 weeks)
 - 2 – Development of a safe symbiotic relation or 'fusion' with mother (< 6 months)
 - Differentiation between self and mother does not exist
 - 3 – Emerge from mom's protective circle and establish a separate individuality (< 36 months)
 - *separation anxiety = if separation occurs too quickly
 - Through separation, an infant becomes an individual
 - This creates an object relation that is internalized, allowing the child to generalize the image of his mother to other people, acting around them in the same way they would if it was their mother
 - Kohut's Theory (Self-Psychology):
 - Relationships form the structure for the self
 - Initial needs involving others are narcissistic
 - Selfobject = someone who helps satisfy your needs (i.e. parents)

- Once more, the emphasis is put on early childhood, as parents' mirroring must be balanced for their child to develop properly
 - Mirroring: responding to a child's narcissistic needs in an empathic accepting way to establish a sense of self
 - In a healthy personality, this mirroring, creating a sense of grandiosity, eventually evolves into ambition and self-esteem
 - On the flip side, failure in mirroring can lead to narcissism
 - Love is also a form of *mirroring*
 - Transference: transferring the orientation you've developed to your parents to other people
- Attachment Theory and Personality (Ainsworth)
 - Attachment: a secure emotional connection to someone else
 - The theory holds that:
 - Clinging and following of the infant is important – it creates a secure base for the child, as he knows that his mother is *dependable*
 - The child builds implicit mental 'working models' of the self, others and the nature of relationships
 - These models are later used to relate to the world
 - The mother therefore serves as a secure have, secure base and proximity maintenance
 - Ainsworth's 'strange situation'
 - Secure attachment
 - Insecure attachment
 - Ambivalent (*anxious-resistant*) – learned that sometimes needs are met, these infants look for security that they don't always get
 - Avoidant (*anxious-avoidant*) – learned that caregiver will not help, therefore these infants learn to take care of themselves
 - Timing is important → how quickly a mother responds to its child's cries corresponds to the secure, avoidant and ambivalent patterns
 - Attachment seems moderately stable over fairly long periods of time
 - Different people show different patterns of attachment, and sometimes the same person can be attached differently to each of his parents

- Erikson's Theory of Psychosocial Development

- A theory of psychosocial development describing the impact of social phenomena across the different stages of life (birth to old age)
- Erikson believed that personality *evolved* throughout life
- No part of life is more important than any other
- Life-span development
- Central theme: ego identity (the consciously experienced sense of self) and its development, as a person constantly responds to events throughout their life
- Each stage is characterized by the presence of a central *psychosocial crisis*
 - This crisis is the struggle to attain some psychological quality
 - Each crisis is present every stage, but only becomes focal during particular stages

Old Age	Ego integrity vs. despair
Adulthood (to 60s)	Generativity vs. stagnation
Young Adulthood (mid-20s)	Intimacy vs. isolation
Adolescence (12-20)	Identity vs. role confusion
School Age (6-11)	Industry vs. inferiority
Preschool (3-5)	Initiative vs. guilt
Early Childhood (2-3)	Autonomy vs. shame and doubt
Infancy (first year)	Trust vs. mistrust

- Stage 1: Infancy (age 0-1)
 - Conflict: trust vs. mistrust
 - Established in relationship with parents
 - Basis of proving the world is predictable, especially relationships
 - Virtue: hope
 - Enduring belief that wishes are attainable; optimism
- Stage 2: Early Childhood (age 2-3)
 - Conflict: autonomy vs. shame/doubt
 - Basis for feelings of control/independence and competency
 - Virtue: will
 - Determination to exercise free choice

- Stage 3: Preschool (age 3-5)
 - Conflict: initiative vs. guilt
 - Basis for sense of power in life → can you make things happen?
 - Initiative = explore, manipulate, ask questions
 - Constantly exerting power can cause disapproval; therefore, initiative must be tempered by restraint
 - Virtue: purpose
 - Courage to pursue valued goals without fear of punishment
- Stage 4: School Age (age 5-11)
 - Conflict: industry vs. inferiority
 - Basis for a sense of value and citizenship → are the things you do valued, appropriate, respectable
 - Children must feel they are mastering tasks in a socially acceptable way
 - Danger = inferiority; feel performance is inadequate or wrong
 - Virtue: competence
 - Sense that one can do things that others value
- Stage 5: Adolescence (age 12-20)
 - Conflict: identity vs. role confusion
 - Sense of private and social self → who am I, where do I fit in the adult world?
 - Consolidation of self-views from previous stages
 - Developing an identity that others recognize in you as well
 - Role confusion may occur if an identity is not built properly, this is reflected in an inability to pick a career
 - Virtue: fidelity
 - Being true to yourself despite of contradictions
- Stage 6: Young adulthood (age 20-29)
 - Conflict: intimacy vs. isolation
 - Basis for close, warm relationships (sexual & non-sexual)
 - Intimacy: close, warm, openness and sense of commitment
 - Strong sense of self helps in being able to be intimate

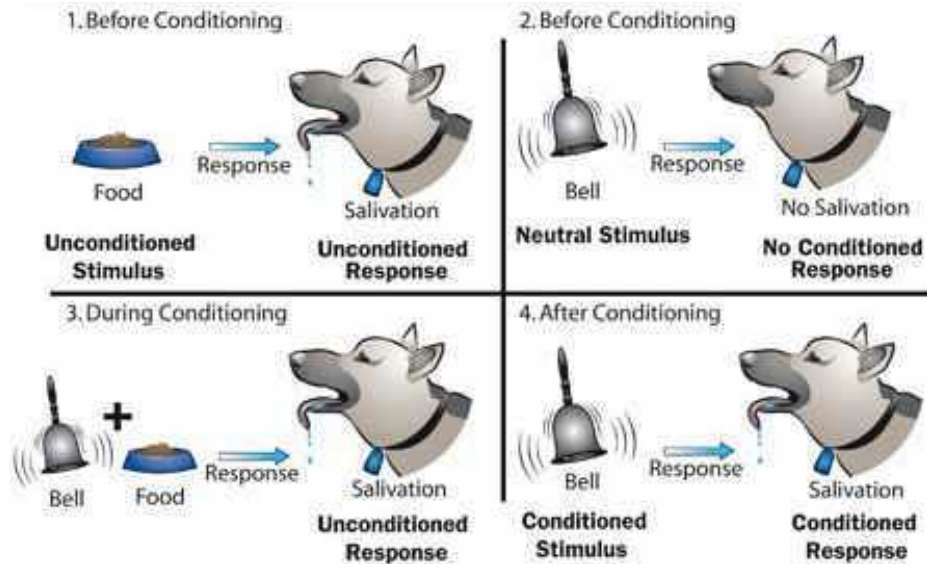
- If not, can lead to *isolation* (unable to commit, leading social and emotional isolation from others)
 - Virtue: love
 - Sharing oneself with others
- Stage 7: Adulthood (age 30-mid 60s)
 - Conflict: generativity vs. stagnation
 - Basis for positively influencing the future
 - Can you assist in the legacy of humanity, can you assist in the process of rebirth (through children or work)?
 - Generativity: desire to create things in the world that will outlive you, symbolically ensuring continuation into future
 - Stagnation: inability/unwillingness to give oneself to future; preoccupied with own concerns; self-centered
 - Virtue: care
 - Concern about nurturing what exists
- Stage 8: Old Age (65+)
 - Conflict: integrity vs. despair
 - Did you have a meaningful life with no regrets?
 - Ego integrity: life has order, meaning, acceptance of choices
 - Despair: feeling of bitterness, regret and life wasted
 - Virtue: wisdom
 - Active concern with life and continued personal growth
- The epigenetic circle
 - According to Erikson, every core issue of each conflict exists simultaneously, but are particularly focal at given stages
 - Implications:
 - Earlier crises influence orientations of later ones
 - By resolving core crises, you are preparing for upcoming crises
 - Resolutions of previous crises are revisited and reshaped at each new stage

- Assessment
 - Object relations, attachment and the focus of assessment
 - The psychosocial approach places a greater emphasis than other approaches on assessing the person's orientation to relationships
 - Mental models of relationships may be assessed via
 - Self-reports → Bell Object Relations Inventory assessing different attachment types, open ended description of mother and father
 - Because childhood experience is so determinant, childhood assessment is also done, sometimes via 'play situations'
- Problems in behavior and behavior change
 - Problems are reflected in relation difficulties according to psychosocial theorists
 - Therefore:
 - Narcissism may stem from frustrated narcissistic needs during development like:
 - Inadequate childhood mirroring (Kohut)
 - Insecure attachment creates risk for depression
 - Avoidant attachment pattern produced by neglect and rejection results in sadness, despair
 - Passed down generationally through behavioral channels
- Therapy
 - Play therapy for children
 - Child plays as he/she wishes
 - Can have distance from others, can play out anger
 - Chance to bring feelings to surface, deal with them, change model of relationships/self in positive ways
 - Emphasis on role of relationships: emphasize relationships as part of therapeutic process
 - Desire to restore sense of connectedness with others
 - Therapist uses role to allow patient to reorganize problematic parts of self and ways of relating to others
 - Undoing problematic experiences from the past

- By modifying the representations of relationships that were built in the past, they permit the development of more satisfying relationships in the future
- Problems and prospects
 - All focus on aspects that other theories do not
 - Provides insights into how personality plays out in social relations and across the entire lifespan
 - Attachment patterns correspond well to genetically-influenced traits
 - Avoidants-introverts; secures-extraverts; ambivalents-neuroticism
 - Parenting or genetically determined? Much debate

Chapter 10: The Learning Perspective

- Classical Conditioning (Pavlov)
 - Personality results from learning, it is acquired over the experiences of life
 - Basic elements or ‘conditions’
 - The organism must already respond to some class of stimuli reflexively
 - The stimulus in the reflex must become associated in time and place with another stimulus
 - The pairing of a neutral stimulus with an unconditioned stimulus a number of times until it is capable of bringing about a previously unconditioned response
 - The 4 stages of classical conditioning
 - Situation before conditioning: a stimulus leads reliably to a particular response, only this reflex exists
 - Pairing of stimulus: a neutral stimulus (CS) is paired with the (US) at the same time or slightly before and paired repeatedly and frequently
 - Development of the (CR): US and CS are paired frequently, creating a gradual change, as the CS acquires the ability to produce a response of its own, the conditioned response (CR)
 - CR may be identical or very similar to UR, but less intense
 - Completed conditioning: conditioned stimulus (CS) produces conditioned response (CR) without unconditioned stimulus (US)



- Discrimination and Generalization
 - What happens if a conditioned stimulus (CS) recurs in different form (i.e. similar but not quite the same)? The (CR) adapts to provoke a response
 - *Generalization* = similar response to similar CS
 - *Discrimination* = different response to similar CS
 - Generalization and discrimination are *complementary*, as generalization eventually leads to discrimination as CS becomes more different from the original CS
- Extinction
 - The conditioned response (CR) becomes weaker when a conditioned stimulus (CS) comes repeatedly without the unconditioned stimulus (US)
 - Effects can be muted but not erased
 - Leaves permanent record in nervous system
 - Always the possibility of a ‘spontaneous recovery’ the next day
- Emotional Conditioning
 - Term used to refer to classical conditioning in which the CRs are emotional reactions
 - It is argued – in personality – that people’s likes and dislikes develop through this process
 - Linking a neutral stimulus to an upsetting event creates a dislike, and vice-versa

- Instrumental/Operant Conditioning
 - Classical conditioning is passive, while operant conditioning is *active*
 - Links an action, an outcome and a change in the likelihood of future action
 - Effect of a behaviour determines future behaviour
 - Reinforcement and punishment
 - Reinforcers: events that make the behaviour that came before it more likely to occur → positive (adding something good) or negative reinforcement (removing something bad)
 - Punishers: an undesired event that makes the behaviour that came before it less likely to occur → negative outcome (removing something good)
 - Discrimination
 - The presence of a stimulus leads to an action that is always followed by a reinforce
 - When stimulus is absent, an action is never followed by reinforce
 - Gradually, the presence or absence of a stimulus gives influence over whether or not behaviours happen
 - Therefore, this leads to a the creation of a *discriminative stimulus*: a cue that controls the occurrence of behaviour
 - Behaviour that is cued by discriminative stimuli is said to be *under stimulus control*
 - Generalization
 - Behaviour persists in new settings because of similarities with previous discriminative stimuli
 - A person will therefore behave constantly across time and circumstances if (DS) is constant across times and circumstances
 - You will know how to eat soup if you use a different spoon
 - Extinction
 - Behaviour no longer leads to reinforce, behavioural tendencies fade, but never completely get extinguished
 - Schedules of Reinforcement
 - “variations in the frequency and pattern of reinforcements”
 - Continuous reinforcement leads to behaviours being acquired faster, but extinguished more quickly

- Partial reinforcement → the behaviour is followed by a reinforcer only some of the time, more resistant to extinction
- Social and Cognitive Variations
 - The second generation of learning theories, that focus more on the social aspects of learning and how that may influence personality
 - Represent elaborations of more classical learning theories
 - Emphasis on the social aspect of learning
 - Emphasis on mental events (cognitions, beliefs)
 - Social Reinforcement
 - Less focus on physical needs in the reinforcement of human behaviour
 - We are most affected by social reinforcement, acceptance, smiles, hugs, praise, love, attention, etc.
 - This means we may give ourselves reinforcers as a reward, and react to our own behaviours with approval or disapproval
 - *Vicarious Emotional Arousal*
 - People can experience events vicariously, through someone else
 - A sense in which human learning is social
 - Vicarious emotional arousal
 - One person experiences something directly, another indirectly, creating a feeling of *empathy*, as both end up feeling the same emotion
 - So one learns through classical conditioning as (UR) occurs via empathy
 - Vicarious Reinforcement
 - If you observe someone do something that is followed by positive or negative reinforcement, the more or less likely you are to do it yourself
 - You do not need a direct experience with a stimulus to develop an emotional response towards it
 - Efficacy Expectancies (Bandura)
 - Outcome expectancy: an evaluation of the likelihood a behaviour will lead to a desired outcome
 - Bandura argued that people with problems generally know what actions are needed to reach the outcomes they want, but having the confidence to

partake in these actions is what he called *efficacy expectancy* or *self-efficacy*

- Therefore, reinforcers do not necessarily strengthen the tendencies to do the behaviours that precede them, they provide potential for future motivational state through anticipation
- Role of Awareness
 - Newer studies have found that people are conditioned only if they are aware of the unconditioned stimulus or at least its valence
- Observational Learning
 - Takes place when one person performs an action (model), and another person observes it and thereby acquires the ability to repeat it
 - Occurs as early as first year in one's life
 - Very simple process
- Attention and Retention
 - If a person does not pay attention to the right aspect of the model, the behavior won't be encoded well enough to be remembered
 - Therefore observational learning will work better with some models than others
 - Some acts will more likely be encoded than others

Table 10.2 Four Categories of Variables (and specific examples of each) That Influence Observational Learning and Performance.

Attention for Encoding

- *Characteristics of the model:* Is the model attractive or powerful or an expert?
- *Characteristics of the behavior:* Is the behavior distinctive, clear, and simple?
- *Characteristics of the observer:* Is the observer motivated to attend and capable of attending?

Retention

- Use of imagery as an encoding strategy
- Use of language as an encoding strategy
- Use of mental rehearsal to keep in memory

Production

- Observer's capacity to produce necessary responses
- Observer's prior experience with overall behavior
- Observer's prior experience with components of behavior

Performance

- *Consequences to the model:* Is the model rewarded or punished, or are there no consequences?
- *Consequences to the observer:* Is the observer rewarded or punished, or are there no consequences?

Source: Based on Bandura, 1977a, 1986.

- Production
 - You have to translate what you observed into a form you can produce in your own actions
 - Production competency: possession of skills required to carry out behaviour (influenced by prior skills and knowledge)
- Acquisition vs. Performance
 - People don't always do everything they learn through observation: people learn many things that they never do
 - In order to know whether observational learning will result in behaviour: need to know what outcome the person expects the behaviour to lead to
 - Leads either to spontaneous behaviour (performance)
 - Offered an incentive to show the behaviour (acquisition)
- Assessment
 - Conditioning-based approaches
 - Personality = accumulation of person's conditioned tendencies
 - By adulthood, acquired range of emotional responses to various stimuli which are experienced as attitudes and preferences
 - Focus on Behaviours
 - Physiological assessment
 - Emotional responses are partly physiological; when experience emotion, changes occur in body (HR, muscle tension, BP; PTSD)
 - Behavioural assessment
 - Observing overt behaviours in specific situations; emotions assessed by behavioural indicators (avoidance, trembling)
 - Social-Cognitive approaches
 - Emphasis on cognitions (self-reports vs. behavioural observations)
 - Focus on experiential variables
 - Subjective feelings, thoughts, and expectancies
 - Particular interest in responses to specific categories of situations
 - Personal views of situations (vs. objective definition)
 - People's representations determine how they act...

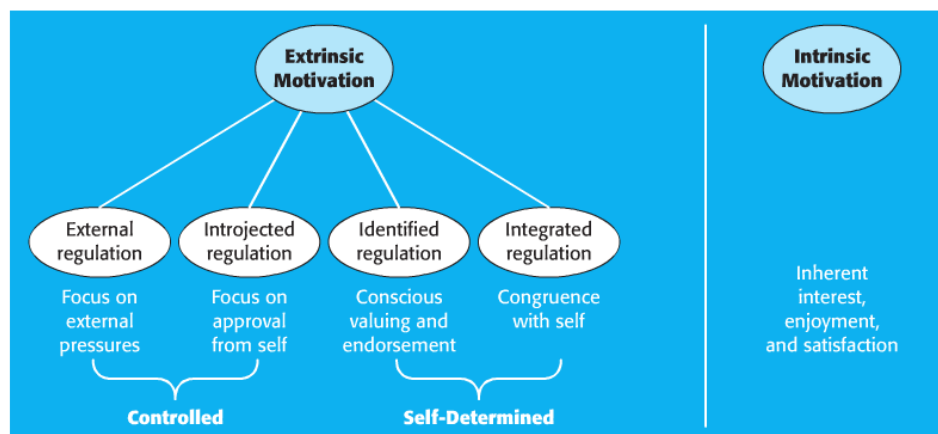
- Problems in Behaviour
 - Conditioning-based approaches
 - If personality can derive from learning, so can problems
 - Learn things that interfere with life
 - Fail to learn things that would make life better
 - Change through:
 - **Behaviour modification/therapy**: a therapeutic approach in which conditioning processes are used to change behaviour
 - Classical conditioning
 - Phobias: intense irrational fears when exposed to a specific stimuli
 - Agoraphobia (open spaces), emetophobia (vomit phobia), acrophobia (heights), animals (dogs, snakes, spiders)
 - Can be tied to almost any stimulus, but some more common than others
 - Classically conditioned
 - Treatment = systematic desensitization through fear hierarchy
 - Instrumental conditioning
 - Reinforcement can lead to undesirable behavioural tendencies
 - Tantrums (parents reinforced)
 - Procrastination
 - How might reinforcement contribute to problems in: Gambling?
 - Social-cognitive approach
 - Problems arise from inappropriate emotional or behavioural tendencies from vicarious & direct learning
 - Effects can be mediated by expectancies
 - Negative expectancies can have broad influence on behaviour, particularly when generalized
 - Develop from direct experience, vicarious experience, things people tell, putting things together in own head
 - Skill deficits can reflect incomplete observational learning or inappropriate models
 - Inability to do something necessary or desirable
- Therapy
 - Importance of modeling: Therapeutic modeling for persons with skills deficits

- Model does action appropriate to situation, observer encouraged to repeat the action (e.g., role play: social situations, assertiveness)
- Treatment of persons with phobias and fears (e.g. OCD)
 - Mastery model expresses no fear of feared object
 - Coping model expresses initial fear, but over comes it
 - Participant modeling: model performs, client repeats it
- Important role of self-efficacy in producing positive treatment outcomes

Chapter 11: Self-Actualization and Self-Determination

- Humanistic Psychology
 - The idea that everyone has the potential for growth and development. The importance of one's own personal experiences
- Self-Actualization
 - Carl Rogers & *actualization*: the potential for positive growth expresses itself in everyone if there are no strong opposing influences
 - Actualization: the tendency to develop capabilities in ways that maintain or enhance the organism
 - Self-actualization: maintenance or enhancement of the self, that enriches your life and enhances creativity, promoting congruence and wholeness
 - Rogers believed that this actualization process is part of human nature
 - The need for positive regard
 - We all have a strong need to experience positive regard from others – to feel wanted, appreciated, respected
 - Positive regard can be unconditional or conditional
 - Conditional self-regard is along the same lines, it makes us behave so as to fit the conditions of worth we are applying to ourselves
 - This all affects the way we choose our behaviours, values, goals, etc.
- Self-Determination
 - Original theory of Deci & Ryan was later adapted by Rogers
 - Deci & Ryan's view: having a life of growth, integrity and well-being means satisfying three needs:
 - Autonomy (self-determination): being the agent of one's behavioural choices; absence of pressure

- Competence: having intended effects on our environment; akin to self-efficacy
- Relatedness: feeling genuinely connected to others and having meaningful interactions; unconditional acceptance
 - True relatedness does not conflict with autonomy, not a connection based on pressure and demand (↓)
- Need for relatedness
 - Deci and Ryan believe that relatedness and autonomy exist side by side and each relate independently to well-being
 - When support for autonomy is part of a relationship, the connection between two people may prove to be richer
 - In other words, being autonomous helps in relationships/socially
- Introjection and Identification
 - Degrees of control and self-determination
 - Introjection regulation: occurs when a person treats a behavior as a “should” or an “ought” – when the person does it to avoid guilt or gain self-approval (a form of controlled behavior)
 - Identified regulation: action is accepted as personally important and meaningful (a form of self-determined behavior)
 - Integrated regulation: goal is fully integrated within the self (a form of self-determined behavior)



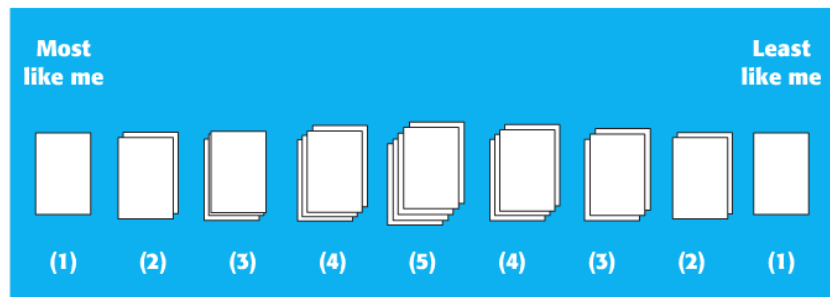
- Self-concordance
 - Goals are not equal in their contributions to well-being. The key is that it is good to pursue goals that are self-concordant, or consistent with your core values
- Free will
 - Humanistic psychologists emphasize the idea that people have freedom to decide for themselves
 - Rogers believes that people are free to choose whether to act in self-actualizing ways or to accept conditions of worth
 - Ryan and Deci believed that people exert their will when they act in self-determination
 - Is this 'will' caused and not 'free'?
- The Self and Processes of Defense
 - Rogers was a self-theorist as he emphasized the importance of the self
 - Incongruity, disorganization and defense
 - Incongruence: disorganization, a fraying of the unitary sense of self
 - Perceiving a gap between real and ideal or experience something that does not fit your image, for Rogers, leads to anxiety
 - Defense
 - Rogers assumed that people defended themselves against even the perception of incongruence, to avoid the anxiety it creates
 - This involves distortion of experience (rationalizing events to make them seem less bad, or explainable)
 - Also involves preventing threatening experiences from reaching awareness, or denial
 - Self-esteem maintenance and enhancement
 - Defenses enhance and protect self-esteem
 - There are two conditions that usually make people deal with threats
 - The event must be attributable to said person
 - The event must be good or bad, thereby having a potential connotation for the person's self-esteem

- Self-handicapping
 - Acting to create the very conditions that tend to produce a failure
 - Another way to protect your self-esteem
 - Seems counter-productive, but people do this to prevent awareness of failing, in other words, people are unaware that they are using it
 - Not a good strategy
 - Stereotype threat
 - The sense of being prejudged occupies a person's mind and promotes negative thinking
 - So a female who thinks she is weak (because of the stereotype), might not perform to their full potential in a push-up challenge, for example
- Self-Actualization and Maslow's Hierarchy of Motives
- He was interested in the qualities of people who seemed to get the most out of life, the healthiest, best adjusted, most fully functioning persons
 - He came to view human needs as forming a hierarchy



- Higher-level motives present more distinctly human characteristics, less animalistic
 - Lower level needs are deficit motivated, high-level needs are growth motivated
 - A lower-level need can cause you to be pulled away from a higher-level need
- For Maslow, everyone has the potential to self-actualize, an intrinsic desire to become more and more the person that they are capable of becoming

- Self-actualizing applies to any person who is in the process of becoming more congruent, more complete or integrated
- Peak experiences: times when actualization is clearly occurring
- Assessment
 - Interviews in assessment
 - For Rogers, and other self-theorists, assessment is a process of finding out *what the person is like*
 - They offer maximum flexibility, allowing a person to say whatever comes up, allows for interviewers to get a subjective sense of a person
 - Problems: not highly structured, meaning comparisons cannot be made
 - Content analysis: grouping the person’s statements in some way and seeing how many statements fall into each group
 - Measuring the self-concept by Q-Sort (preferred by Rogers)
 - Set of statements printed on cards “I am intelligent” – “I am moody,” etc.
 - This set, given to the patient, is meant to be sorted out into piles from most to least “like me”
 - Qualities are compared, forcing an individual to evaluate himself
 - Allows for an inventory of self-actualization, autonomy and control



- Measuring self-determination and control
 - A number of self-reports assess the extent to which a person’s actions tend to be self-determined versus controlled
 - Been used to show that people high in general self-determination have harmony between their needs and goals
- Problems in Behavior, and Behavior Change
 - People attuned to the self-actualizing tendency are not trying to live up to the conditions of worth, they are rather being who they are

- Problems (anxiety) arise from:
 - Incongruity within self-concept, or between self-concept and experience
 - Living in order to meet conditions of worth
 - Not living in ways that promote self-actualization
- Therapy
 - Client-centered therapy
 - The therapist displays empathy and unconditional positive regard, letting the client escape temporarily from conditions of worth and begin exploring aspects of experience that are incongruent with the self
 - Rationale: intrinsic tendency toward self-actualization
 - Conditions of worth that distorted a person's behavior in the past must be lifted
 - Person needs unconditional positive regard
 - Must be accepted for who they think they are
 - Cannot undertake therapy to satisfy a condition of worth (i.e. weight loss), must be self-determined
- Problems and Prospects of Self-Actualization and Self-Determination
 - Pros
 - Intuitively accessible: fits with what many people bring to mind when they think of the word 'personality'
 - Optimistic view of human nature: people are intrinsically good; naturally motivated to be the best they can be
 - Strategy for living that has enriched many lives: importance of appreciating your own life and maintaining close contact with feelings; trying to make one's life better
 - Cons
 - How to study? Lack of precision: hard to generate research from the theories (self-actualization?)
 - Optimistic view: is everyone inherently good?
 - Should everyone's self-actualization be encouraged?
 - At extreme end would be chaos; conflict between people
 - Illusion of free will: Assumption that people can decide for themselves what to do at any point in their lives

Chapter 12: The Cognitive Perspective

- To have broader experiences, you have to integrate and organize bits of information
- The flow of life consists of an elaborate web of decisions, some of them are conscious, but far more of them occur outside awareness
- Personality is reflected in decision-making that goes on in your mind
- Theories on how the mind is organized and how personality thus is structured
- Just like scientists, humans need to predict and understand the world (GEORGE KELLY)

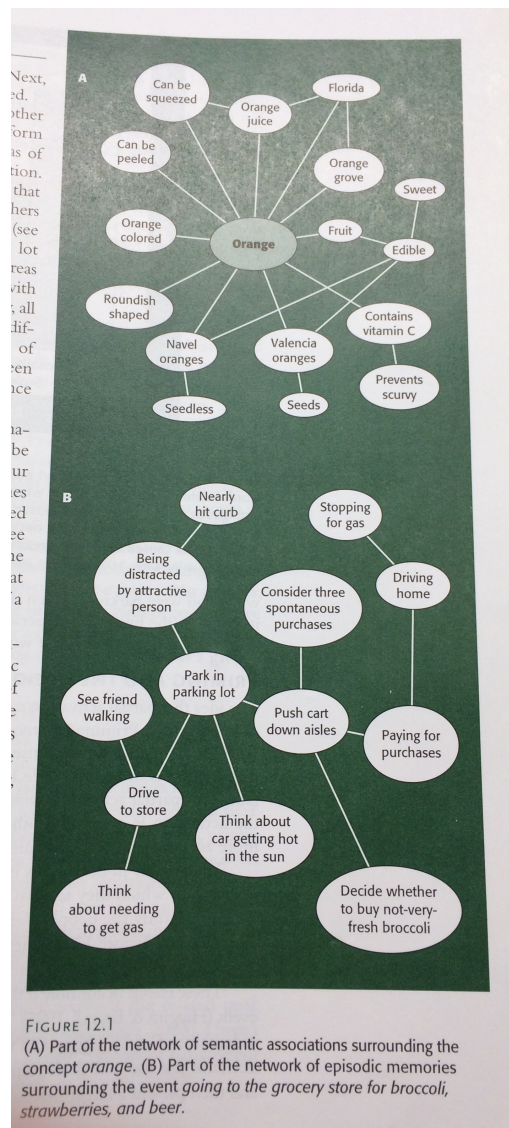
- Representing Your Experience of the World
 - o Schemas and their development
 - Schemas: mental organizations of information (knowledge structures)
 - Roughly, schemas are categories
 - Exemplars: information about specific cases
 - Prototypes: an idealized best member of a category (i.e. birds fly, but not all do)
 - o Fuzzy set: a category defined by a set of attributes that are not absolutely necessary for membership
 - Theories differ, but most treat schemas as having an organizing quality
 - Schemas are therefore the glue that holds bits of info together
 - Effects of schemas:
 - Make it easy to put new information into memory
 - Tells us where in the ongoing experience to look for information
 - They also give you information on what to expect/what is missing from an event → i.e. if joe said he is doing laundry, you would assume he does it with some sort of detergent
 - Semantic memory, episodic memory, scripts, and procedural knowledge
 - Schemas are organized among memories, but memories are organized in several ways
 - Semantic memory: memories organized by meaning or categories of objects and concepts (school: teacher, book, class)

- Episodic memory: memories for events or episodes; memory for experiences in space and time (going to school: waking up, thinking about class, taking the bus, etc.)
- Script: if you experience enough episodes of a given type, a schema for that class of episodes starts to form → refers to well-defined sequences of behavior that tell us what to expect and how to act in certain situations (i.e. wedding, funerals, etc.)
 - Scripts have defaults: things we assume to be true, supplying information to fill in the gaps of a story
- Socially relevant schemas: the application of categories to socially meaningful stimuli (social cognition)
 - Gender roles, types of people, environments, social situations
- Self-schemas: the schema you form of yourself (particularly important)
 - Like any schema, makes it easier to remember things that fit in
 - Can even bias your memories
 - Seems to be larger and more complex than other schemas, incorporating trait labels, info about concrete behaviors, emotion
 - People's schemas differ in complexity
 - Presumably, the very process of thinking about yourself more often cause more growth and articulation of your self-schema
 - Self-Complexity
 - Low: feelings related to a bad event in one aspect of life tend to spill over into other aspects
 - Possible selves (schemas about our personal futures) can be brought to bear as motivators as they provide goals to approach or avoid
- Entity versus incremental schemas
 - For some abilities are an *entity* that are unchanging/fixed, about proving your worth
 - For others, abilities are seen as *malleable*; increasing with experience, about extending and building on your abilities

- Attribution: inferring the cause of an event
 - Done spontaneously without even knowing you're doing it
 - Relies partly on schemas and the nature of a social situation
 - Made about successes and failures based on: ability, effort, luck
 - People tend to attribute success to internal causes and failure to unstable, external causes

- Activation of Memories

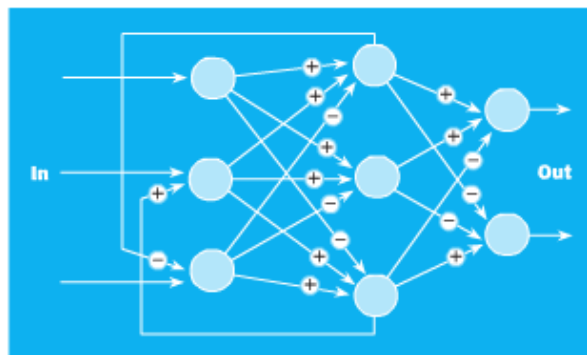
- One view is that memories form from a vast network (nodes or areas of storage, linked by logical connections)
- Others are episodic, linking attributes to that form an event together



- Priming and the use of information
 - Activating a node by a task that precedes the task of interest
 - Can test whether activation of schema leads to its accessibility and use
 - Primes also influence people's actions → activating information that relates to behavior can influence actual behavior
 - These effects occur only if the primed info can plausibly be applied to the later event
- Nonconscious influences on behavior
 - The use of subliminal primes (outside of our awareness) often have the same effects as overt primes
 - You may associate your father to doing well on an exam. If you prime this relationship outside your awareness, it activates the related goal which you then set about pursuing unconsciously
 - Very different view of the unconscious than that of Freud → the *cognitive* unconscious and not the psychodynamic one

- Connectionist Views of Mental Organization

- Views that emerged in the 80's that have had a large influence on the way we view cognition and personality
- Connectionism: uses neuronal processes as a metaphor for cognitive processes
- Describes cognition in terms of networks of simple neuron-like units, in which processing means passing activations from one unit to another



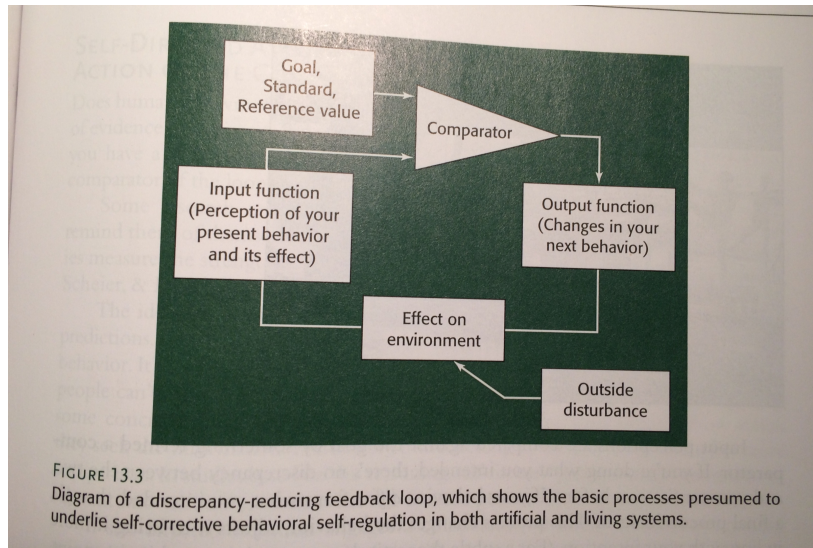
- Each activation can either be excitatory or inhibitory
- Each unit sums its input (+/-) and passes the total onward
- Experiences are constructed from bits of input, the bits activate units in the network and the units place constraints on each other

- Activations get transferred from unit to unit, around and around
 - As an activation pattern is updated over and over, some constraints get stronger and others get weaker
 - The network as a whole settles into a pattern. This pattern is perception
 - When you view an ambiguous figure, or are trying to make a rational decision, you do not blend the possibilities together
 - Requires selection of one possibility from many
 - Output takes the form of only one representation at a given time
 - Dual-process models
 - Assumes that two different modes of cognition (one effortful and one automatic) are involved in cognition
 - Conscious processor: used for effortful reasoning, following programs of instruction → slower, conscious, rational, evolutionarily newer
 - Intuitive processor: used in intuitive and automatic activities/processing → quick, automatic, evolutionarily older, implicit knowledge
 - Epstein believed something similar was applicable to personality, in that we process reality through two different systems known as the rational (consciously) and experiential system (more automatic/intuitive)
 - He argued that both systems are always at work
 - Similar research from Metcalf & Mitchell (hot system that is emotional/impulsive and cool system that is strategic/slower)
- Assessment
- From the cognitive viewpoint, personality assessment emphasizes assessing people's mental structures, ranging from interviews to self-reports
 - Think-aloud, experience sampling, and self-monitoring
 - Think-aloud: assess cognition during problem solving
 - Experience sampling: individual reports on thoughts and behaviors at certain times
 - Event-recording: reports on particular classes of events, noting behavior, emotion, thought pattern

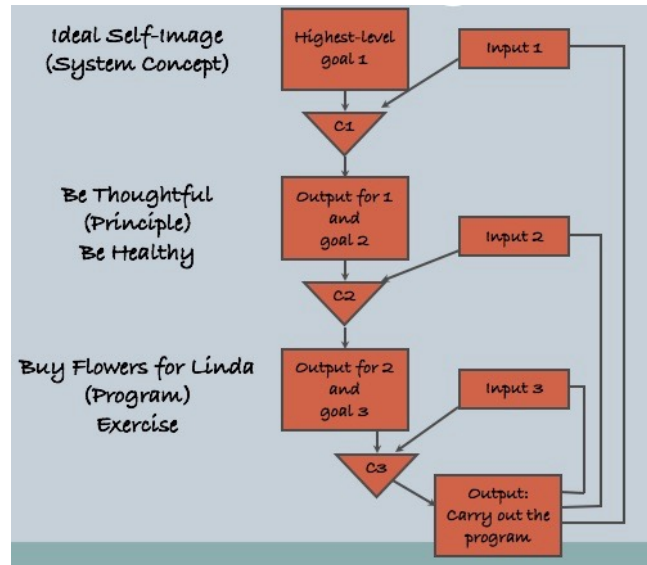
- Problems in Behavior and Behavior Change
 - Deficits in information-processing abilities
 - Problems attending to, extracting, and organizing information (e.g., individuals with schizophrenia need more time recognizing stimuli)
 - Attending to broadly can make it hard to learn, can make you less efficient → anxiety may make it harder to process things for example
 - Faulty schemas of the world
 - Tells you where to look for information; look for information that fits the schema
 - Biased schema can bias the search for cues, lead to incorrect inferences and inappropriate actions (e.g., aggression)
 - Negative schemas about self (cognitive triad)
 - People sometimes develop ideas about the world that are inaccurate or distorted and that lead to adverse effects
 - Use faulty schemas to interpret events
 - Rely on negative preconceptions (schemas) and ignore information that is available in the environment
- Therapy
 - Abandon faulty schemas and build new ones
 - Cognitive restructuring: identify automatic self-defeating thoughts and replace with adaptive thoughts
 - Reality testing: challenge automatic thought patterns to be tested against evidence
- The Cognitive Perspective: Problems and Prospects
 - Cons:
 - Disorganized, many loose ends
 - Cognitive psychology: what does it add? What's gained by knowing that a person's knowledge is schematically organized?
 - Pros:
 - Find's functioning does seem to have important implications for kinds of day-to-day behaviors we think of in terms of personality
 - Understand why people do things for reasons they're unaware of (priming)

Chapter 13: The Self-Regulation Perspective

- Focuses on how people adopt, prioritize and attain goals → how the cognitions and memories result in behavior
 - Assumed here that people have an organized network of memories (schemas)
- From Cognition to Behavior
 - Schemas help understand others' behavior, and help determine what to do in situations
 - Behavior is directed by intentions and goals
 - Deliberative and implemental mindsets
 - A *deliberative* mindset is when you are considering and weighing the pros and cons of a specific goal intention
 - An *implemental* mindset focuses on implementing the intention to act. It minimizes potential problems and is optimistic
- Self-Regulation and Feedback Control
 - Self-regulation: the extent to which people influence, modify or control their own behavior
 - Behavioural self-regulation
 - How people devise goals
 - How goals are translated into action
 - Monitoring processes
 - What happens when goals are blocked
 - Feedback control
 - A negative feedback *loop* has four parts
 - Self-regulation: a goal, standard of comparison, or reference value for behavior
 - Input: perception of your present behavior and its effects
 - Comparator: input perceptions are compared against the goal by something termed a comparator
 - Output function: leads to changes in next behavior

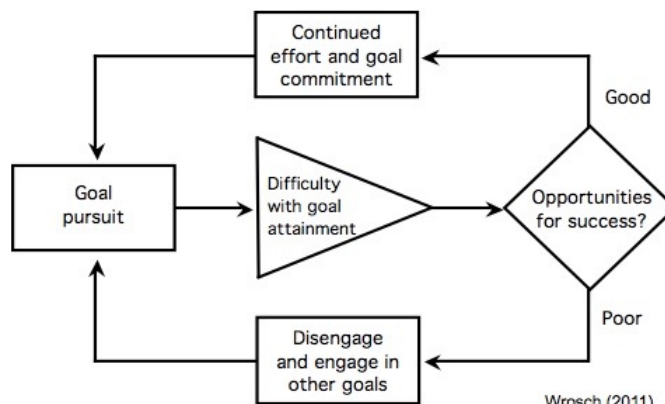


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- Implications of feedback control:
 - Assumes that behavior is purposeful
 - Self-regulation is continuous → every change in output changes current conditions; new conditions checked against a goal
 - Goals may be dynamic over time → continuous interplay between adjusting actions and moving forward
- Hierarchical Organization (Powers)
 - Feedback control is a very simple, single loop, so how do we get an actual physical action out of feedback loops?
 - Superordinate loops provide reference values to subordinate loops → this is known as feedback hierarchy
 - High level loops don't create physical actions; rather provide guides to loops below them
 - So high level loops consist of setting a goal for lower-level loops, as only lower level loops manifest physical action



- Issues related to hierarchical organizations
 - Not all levels may be functional all the time
 - Much behaviour is guided by program levels of control
 - People may go a long time w/o thinking about ideal self
 - Lower levels = functionally superordinate
 - Goals at higher levels can be affected by things that happen while lower levels are “in charge”
 - Program can be good (or cause problems) for principle
 - Goals at any one level may be compatible or incompatible with each other
 - Being environmentally responsible and conscientious
 - Being frugal and being well-dressed
- Emotions
 - Emotions help guide our priorities and are an internal call to rearrange
 - In other words, emotions are produced by a system that *monitors how well things are going toward attaining goals*
 - When things are going really well (goal wise) you feel great, when your goals are not being met, you feel anxiety or stress

- Effects of expectancies of success: effort versus disengagement
 - What happens when people encounter obstacles → negative feelings/emotions that disrupt effort
 - Having confidence in overcoming obstacles leads people back to self-regulatory effort
 - When people feel enough doubt, they are more likely to disengage
- Partial disengagement
 - Between effort and giving up, sometimes the line blurs, people do not always *fully* give up on their goals
 - For example, a man who becomes handicapped used to play football, but now decides to continue *playing a sport* that does not involve his legs
- Pursuing an unattainable goal creates a problem



- Further Themes in Self-Regulation

- Self-Regulation as self-control
 - Acts of self-regulation sometimes entail self-control
 - People sometimes act to restrain behavior aimed at one goal in order to make it possible to attain another goals
 - Self-control always concerns conflicts, because the goals are incompatible
 - I.e. dieters are motive to eat by their feelings of hunger, and they are motivated to restrain eating by their desire to lose weight

- Assessment
 - Assessment of self-regulatory qualities
 - Private self-consciousness: tendency to think about your feelings, motives, and actions (be self-reflective)
 - Rumination-Reflection Questionnaire
 - Two aspects (Trapnell & Campbell, 1999):
 - Reflection: suggesting curiosity, fascination, and inquisitiveness
 - Rumination: suggesting negative feeling states and not being able to put something behind
 - Individual assessment of goals
 - People's goals are unique to them
 - This is assessed by asking people to describe their recurring personal goals in four different areas:
 - School/work
 - Home/family
 - Social
 - Leisure
 - Therapist must then assess how realistic these goals are, and how individuals approach these goals → their effects on their well-being
- Problems in Behaviour
 - Conflicts among goals
 - Lack of strategy or ill-specified goals
 - Identification of abstract, high-level goals but lack of know-how to reach them
 - Inability to disengage
- Therapy
 - Reduce automaticity of problem behaviour: more careful and controlled monitoring of actions
 - Make new, desired behaviours automated in place of problematic responses
 - Become automatic by building into memory redundantly
 - Role play; imagery

- Means-ends analysis
 - Assess difference between current/desired state
 - Identify actions
 - Break actions into subgoals
 - Seek accurate feedback
- Problems and Prospects of the Self-Regulation Perspective
 - Pros:
 - Suggests new information, new places to look for information about how personality works
 - Cons:
 - Feedback principle of behaviour is a model of homeostasis
 - How much sense does it make to think this way about something we know is always changing?
 - Where do the highest goals come from?
 - What does it say about personality?