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PSYCHOLOGY ATAR

UNIT 3 AND 4 CONTENT NOTES

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CONTENTS

BIOLOGICAL BASIS OF BEHAVIOUR

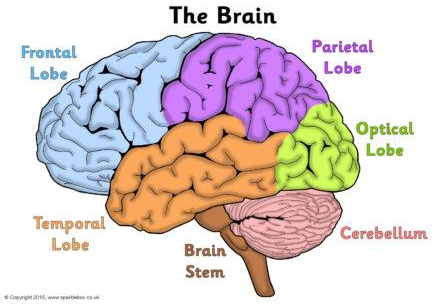
LOBES OF THE CEREBRAL CORTEX:

Frontal: primary motor cortex –

- Largest lobe, taking up 2/3 of the human brain – located in the upper forward section.
- Personality control centre: responsible for problem solving, memory, language, judgement, planning, emotional expression, and sexual regulation.
- Association areas: higher mental functioning – reasoning, abstract thinking, planning and judgement, using initiative.

Parietal: primary sensory cortex –

- Top centre of the brain, between frontal and occipital lobes, running laterally across the brain.
- Involved in functions such as sense of touch, detection of movement, locations of objects in surrounding environments.
- Association areas: sense of the body in space (using information from the visual and auditory cortex.



Occipital: primary visual cortex –

Temporal: primary auditory cortex –

BROCA'S AREA:

Associated with the production of clear, fluent, and articulate speech. Damage to this area can result in 'Broca's Aphasia' – a language disorder characterised by the impaired ability to use the correct movements to produce speech.

WERNECK'S AREA:

Associated with the comprehension of speech – important for language development. Damage can result in the ability to use words, but not connect meaning to them – 'Receptive, Fluent Aphasia'.

HEMESPHERIC CONTROL:

Contralateral: one side of the brain effects the opposite side of the body.

Ipsilateral: one side of the brain effects the same side of the body.

CENTRAL NERVOUS SYSTEM:

The integration and command centre of the nervous system – interprets sensory input and issues commands based on stimuli.

- Forebrain: consists of four structures –
    - Thalamus: relaying sensory input and motor information, regulating sleep and consciousness.
    - Hypothalamus: maintaining homeostasis (monitoring water and hormone concentration, bodily temperature, hunger, and thirst)
    - Limbic system – emotional brain. Thalamus, hypothalamus, amygdala, hippocampus (assisting in transferring present experience into long term memory – damage: inability to create long term memories), septum (separates brain hemispheres).
    - Cerebrum: controls motor and mental activities. Receives sensory information from sensory systems, spinal cord, and brain. Coordinates voluntary movement, posture, balance, smooth movement.
- Brainstem: connects the brain to the spinal cord – four parts:
    - Pons: transmitter to the brain.
    - Medulla: controls involuntary functions, transmits messages from brain to spinal cord.
    - Midbrain: associated with vison, hearing and motor control – sleep and wake cycles, alertness, temperature regulation.
    - Reticular system: assisting with sleep cycles and filtration of relevant stimuli.
- Spinal cord: begins at the brainstem and is responsible for sending messages from the brain to the body.
    - 31 segments containing 31 pairs of nerves.
    - 12 pairs of cranial nerves – carrying sensory information from the face and head.

NEURON TYPES:

Afferent Neurons: sensory neurons – messages from the body to the brain.

Efferent Neurons: motor neurons – messages from the brain to the body.

PERIPHERAL NERVOUS SYSTEM:

Includes all the nerves located outside of the central nervous system – connecting the central nervous system to the rest of the body and communicated messages from the rest of the body to the brain. There are two branches to this system:

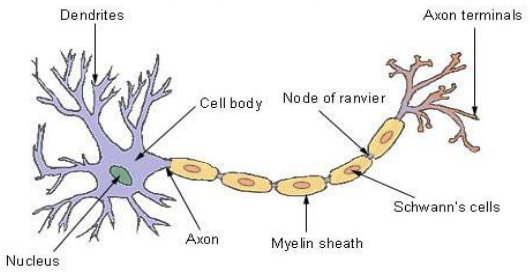
- Somatic Nervous System: communicates sensory information to the central nervous system and motor messages from the central nervous system to the skeletal muscles. Monitors bodily functions and controls voluntary movements.
- Autonomic Nervous System: transmits messages from the central nervous system to the smooth and cardiac muscles in the lungs, heart, blood vessels, glands, and other organs. This system is further broken into two compartments:
    - Sympathetic Nervous System: regulates fight or flight response and prepares the body to expel energy at a stimulus. Accelerates heart rate, dilates pupils, increases breathing rate, boosts blood flow to muscles.
    - Parasympathetic Nervous System: rest and digest system. Allows the body to return to normal resting state. Helps maintain normal bodily functions and conserves resources when the body is relaxed or feeding. Returns the body to homeostasis.

NEURONS:

Parts of the neuron:

- Cell body: contains the nucleus and controls the cell.

- Dendrites: receives information and communicates to the cell body.
- Axon: transmits information from the cell body to other neurons, cells, or muscles.
- Myelin sheath: protects the axon and speeds up transmission.
- Synapse: where signals between neurons occur.



Role of the synapse: synaptic transmission – the transmission of information that occurs through chemical signals triggered by an electrical impulse from a neuron. Chemical signals are passed from one to the other through the synaptic cleft.

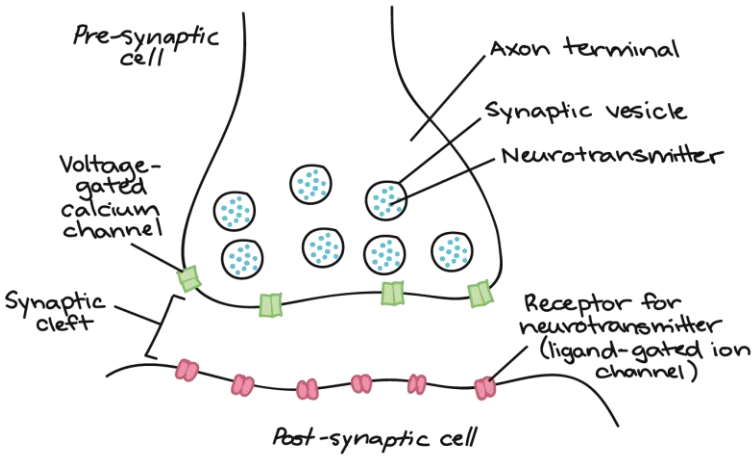
Presynaptic Neuron: the neuron that initiates the signal.

Postsynaptic Neuron: the neuron that receives the signal.

NEURAL TRANSMISSION:

A four-step process –

1. Neurotransmitters stored in vesicles wait for action potential, which triggers their release.
2. Action potential arrives at the presynaptic neuron, triggering the release of neurotransmitters from the vesicle to the synaptic cleft.
3. Receptors on the membrane of the postsynaptic neuron interact with the neurotransmitters, releasing action potential into the postsynaptic neuron.
4. Neurotransmitters are then cleared from the synaptic cleft and are then either sent back to the presynaptic neuron (uptake), or they drift away (diffusion).



NEUROTRANSMITTERS:

Neurotransmitters are chemicals that transmit across neurons in the synaptic cleft.

NEUROTRANSMITTERS	PHYSIOLOGICAL	PYSCHOLOGICAL
DOPAMINE	Attention, learning, control of smooth movement.	Happiness, zest for life, joy, motivation seeking, pleasure seeking

SEROTONIN	Sleep, appetite, digestion, sexual function	Mood, sexual desire, social behaviours.
ENDOMORPHINS	Perception of pain	Regulates feelings, positive mood.
NORADRENALINE	Threat/danger response, memory retrieval.	Stress

When dopamine is low, symptoms such as lack of motivation, procrastination, fatigue, memory loss, inability to feel pleasure, sleep problems, mood swings and self-destructive behaviours occur.

Schizophrenia and Dopamine Hypothesis: high levels of dopamine are linked with schizophrenic symptoms. When schizophrenic patients take medication that blocks dopamine, a prominent reduction in symptoms is experience. Amphetamine use makes the brain think that there is too much dopamine, which results in schizophrenic symptoms.

Serotonin: normal levels of the neurotransmitter result in feelings of increased happiness, greater focus, less anxious, and more emotional stability. Low levels are linked to depressive episodes, anxiety, and insomnia.

Serotonin release and uptake cycle:

1. Synthesis
2. Storage
3. Release
4. Activation
5. Clearing
6. Re-uptake

Selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors are used to treat these conditions, allowing for less serotonin to be reabsorbed, to increase the amount of serotonin in the synaptic gap when the neurons fire again.

Noradrenaline: fight or flight response. Is triggered through the sympathetic nervous system. Low levels result in lethargy, inattentiveness, depression, lack of concentration. Noradrenaline is often used in medications in which improve focus.

Endorphins: natural painkillers. Secreted in moments of stress or pain – rise toward the end of labour for childbirth. Low levels result in excessive sadness, crying easily, and craving guilty pleasures.

HEREDITRY:

The passing of traits from parents to offspring.

GENES:

Genes determine physical growth, bodily pigment, and the regulation of developmental timing.

From cells to a person:

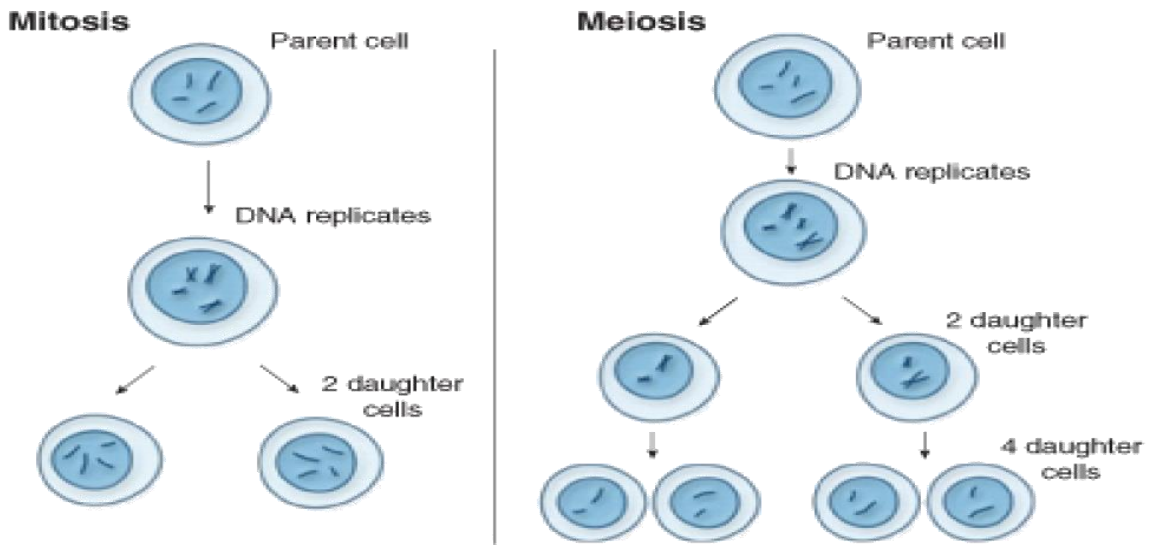
- Gametes: sperm and ova (ova – the eggs in females).
    - Each have 23 chromosomes.
    - MEIOSIS
- Conception: occurs when the sperm penetrates the ova, forming a zygote.
    - Fertilisation.

- Zygote: becomes a multicellular organism through mitosis, which continues throughout the lifespan.

MITOSIS / MEIOSIS:

Mitosis: a process where a germ cell divides to form and egg or sperm, holding half of the number of chromosomes from the parent cell. The genetic material of the cells produced through mitosis are not identical daughter cells.

Meiosis: the name of the process involving the duplication, then split of chromosomes to create identical daughter cells. This process continues throughout growth for the entire lifespan.



Genetic uniqueness occurs as a result of mitosis.

The male sperm determines the sex of the child – occurs in the 23rd chromosome (the sex chromosome).

Epigenetics: the study of genes and behaviours. Suggests that the expression of traits occurs as a result of environmental interaction, not changes in DNA; 'genes are just a recipe for development' – nature versus nurture debate. Environmental influences change the way that genes are expressed.

Monozygotic twins: identical twins – 'mono – one'

Dizygotic twins: fraternal twins

Epigenesis: a process in which development depends on where environmental influence and genes jointly bring forth development.

HORMONES:

Hormones are chemicals produced by the endocrine glands that act as messages and control major systems. Hormones are slow acting but can last for extensive periods of time. Hormone's effect bodily functions such as growth, sexual development, stress, digestion.

Hormones versus neurotransmitters:

HORMONES:	NEUROTRANSMITTERS:

- **Synthesised by the endocrine system.**
- **Carried through the blood stream.**
- **Slow acting, but long lasting.**
- **Often effect all bodily symptoms.**

- **Synthesised by the brain.**
- **Transmitted through the nervous system.**
- **Fast onset, can have long lasting effects.**

The endocrine system: functions toward the maintenance of homeostasis (or chemical equilibrium in the body). The endocrine system is under the control of the central nervous system. Chemical equilibrium may be distributed by under or over activity of the endocrine glands – such imbalances may result in psychological or physiological abnormalities.

ENDOCRINE GLANDS:

Pituitary Gland: master gland. Controls the release of hormones from all other glands. Produces growth hormone (released 60-90 minutes after sleep), responsible for growth and development. Not enough growth hormone leads to short stature in adulthood, or pituitary dwarfism, whereas too much can lead to gigantism.

Sex glands: responsible for pubertal development by increasing levels of follicle stimulating hormone. Stimulates levels of oestrogen and testosterone. When sex hormones reach a critical level, growth hormone is released to produce a growth spurt and sexual maturation – females often two years prior to males; puberty. A decline in sex hormones (women) – menopause; halt in mensural periods and infertility arises.

Adrenal glands: produce both adrenaline and noradrenaline. Involved in the fight or flight response. Adrenaline rush (natural high). Works with the sympathetic nervous system – affects neural functioning and bodily changes in emotion, especially during emergencies and feelings of rage, fear, and anger. Causes people to seek out adrenaline or avoid it, causes people to develop alertness and vigilance in times of danger.

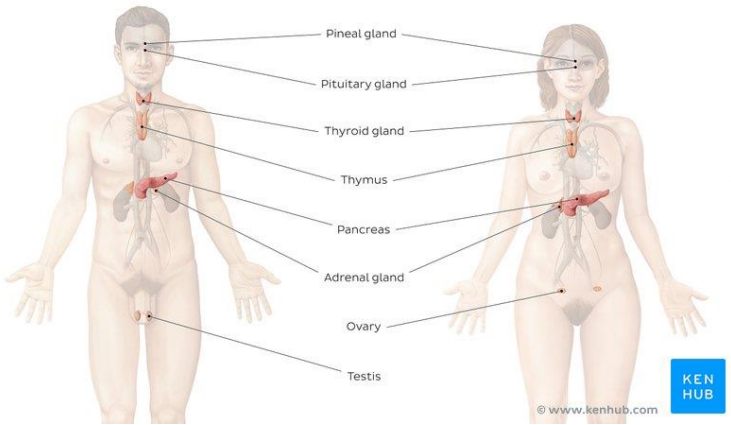
The difference between noradrenaline and adrenaline: both can be neurotransmitters or hormones, however, adrenaline increases energy, and is only released during times of stress, whereas noradrenaline is continually released, however increases in times of stress, and makes a person more alert, aroused, and vigilant.

Cortisol: regulates metabolism and immune response – is produced by the adrenal glands and regulated by the pituitary gland.

Thyroid gland: produces thyroxin – production begins approximately four months after conception, ensuring that the brain and nervous system develop correctly. Lack of thyroxin in early brain development can result in intellectual deficiencies. Reduction of thyroxin later in development will result in delayed brain development. Thyroxin plays a crucial role in heart function, digestive function, metabolism, development, bone health and muscle control.

Too much thyroxin: irritability, fatigue, increase in bowel movements, weight loss, heat intolerance.

Not enough thyroxin: lower metabolic rate – causing weight gain, memory problems, infertility, fatigue, muscle stiffness.



PSYCHOACTIVE DRUGS:

A psychoactive drug is defined as a chemical substance that changes nervous system function and results in alterations of perception, mood, consciousness, cognition, or behaviour.

Depressants: calm the activity of the nervous system and slow the body – alcohol, cannabis.

Stimulants: excite the nervous system, arousing the body – methamphetamine, crack cocaine.

Hallucinogens: change our perceptions and create sensory images without sensory input.

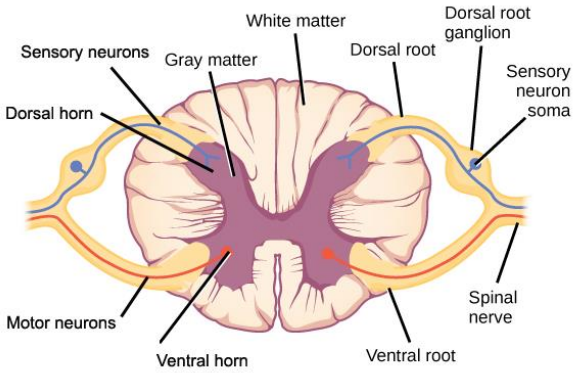
THE SPINAL COLUMN:

Dorsal roots: contain sensory neuron fibres – transmit sensory messages, from the body to the brain.

Ventral roots: contain motor neuron fibres – transmit motor messages away from the brain to the body.

Paraplegia: the loss of movement and sensation of the lower half of the body, particularly characterised by the loss of sensation in the legs and feet.

Quadriplegia: the loss of movement and sensation in all limbs.



Cross Section of Spinal Cord

COGNITION

LEARNING:

The relatively permanent change in behaviours or potential to create a response as a result of experience.

CLASSICAL CONDITIONING: PAVLOV (1988)

A neutral stimulus is paired associated with a natural response.

A type of learning in which an organism responds in a particular way to a stimulus that does not normally bring about that response. A neutral stimulus and an unconditioned stimulus are paired together so that they become associated with one another.

Pavlov (1988) conducted research on the salivation levels of dogs. He classically conditioned dogs to salivate by having them pair the taste/smell of meat powder with a bell until the two stimuli became associated with one another, and the dogs began to salivate at only the bell stimuli.

Terminology:

Neutral stimulus (NS): a stimulus, that before conditioning, does not create a particular response – eg. the bell before the dogs were taught to salivate on command.

Unconditioned stimulus (UCS): a stimulus that automatically produces a response without any previous training – eg. the smell of meat powder makes dogs salivate.

Unconditioned response (UCR): a reaction that is automatically produced when an unconditioned stimulus is presented. An involuntary, reflex action. – eg. salivation upon the sensation of meat powder.

Conditioned stimulus (CS): the stimulus that is neutral at the beginning of training, yet through repeated association with the unconditioned stimulus, triggers a similar response to the unconditioned stimulus.

Conditioned response: a response elicited by the presentation of a conditioned stimulus that has been paired with an unconditioned stimulus. This response is similar to the unconditioned response.

Key processes:

Acquisition: the overall process in which the organism learns to associate two events, known as the training stage. The acquisition phase can be affected by several factors – such as the order of presentation of unconditioned and conditioned stimuli, the intensity of the pairing, the number of times that the pairing occurs (the more times paired and the stronger the intensity – the greater the association).

Extinction: a conditioned stimulus and response can fade overtime or disappeared altogether. Extinction is said to have occurred when the conditioned stimulus no longer produces the conditioned response.

Spontaneous recovery: extinction is not always permanent. Spontaneous recovery is the reappearance of a conditioned response when a conditioned stimulus is present, after extinction is said to have occurred. The response tends to be weaker than it was originally and short lived.

Stimulus generalisation: the tendency for another stimulus, similar to the conditioned stimulus, to produce a conditioned response. The response tends to be weaker when generalisation occurs.

Stimulus discrimination: when an organism responds to one stimulus only, but not to any other stimulus similar to the conditioned one.

EMOTIONAL CLASSICAL CONDITIONING: WATSON

Watson classically conditioned a baby to fear white rats – the procedure is not ethical.

- Unconditioned stimulus: loud bang
- Conditioned stimulus: white rat
- Unconditioned response: crying
- Conditioned response: fear of white rats

Stimulus generalisation occurred as it was discovered over the course of 17 days, that the baby also feared a dog, a white rabbit, and a fur coat.

Many of our fears are classically conditioned.

Phobia: an irrational fear of something that is out of proportion to the danger that it actually possesses.

Aversion therapy: a form of behaviour therapy that applies classical conditioning principles to inhibit or discourage undesirable behaviours, by associating it was aversive stimulus. The aim of the therapy is to suppress or weaken undesirable behaviour and is limited as learned eversion often fails.

Systematic desensitisation: behavioural therapy that attempts to replace anxiety or fear related responses with a relaxation response through a classical conditioning procedure. The conditioned response is extinguished to create a new conditioned response. The basic principle is that the client is gradually desensitised from that particular stimulus and response.

OPERANT CONDITIONING: B.F.SKINNER

Operant conditioning involves a response being increased or decreased as a result of reinforcement or punishment.

The behaviour is followed by a consequence, and the nature of that consequence modifies the organism's nature to repeat the behaviour in the future.

Thorndike: studied the behaviour of hungry animals by placing them in a small chamber called a puzzle box. He theorised the law of effect – the view that reinforcers promote learning, whereas punishment promotes unlearning.

B.F Skinner: influenced by Thorndike and Watson – developed a specialised testing chamber, known as 'skinner's box', to test operant conditioning.

Two processes of operant conditioning:

- Reinforcement: occurs when a consequence strengthens a response or makes it more likely to occur again.
    - Positive reinforcers: when something is added to promote the response.
    - Negative reinforcer: when something is taken away to produce the response.
        - Types of reinforcers:

    - Primary: instinctive behaviour that leads to the satisfaction of basic survival needs.
    - Secondary: doesn't directly satisfy needs but can lead to it – money.
    - Generalised: under more than one set of circumstances, through association with more than one primary reinforcer.
- Punishment: a stimulus that produces a decrease in responding.
    - Positive punisher: something is added to decrease the response.
    - Negative punisher: something is taken away to decrease the response.

The problem with punishment: punished behaviour is removed rather than suppressed. Punishment can cause and increase in aggression if the punishment involves aggression, creates fear that can generalised with other behaviours, and only tells an individual what not to do, rather than suggesting a better response/behaviour.

Mechanisms of operant conditioning:

- Chaining: a required behaviour or task is broken down into small steps for effective learning.
- Shaping: building a chain of responses in a step-by-step process.
- Generalisation: a behaviour may be performed in more than one situation.
- Discrimination: learning that a behaviour will be rewarded in one situation, but not another.

Operant conditioning extinction occurs when a behaviour is no longer followed by a reinforcer.

Schedules of reinforcement:

- Continuous reinforcement: the participant receives a reinforcer each time the target response occurs.
- Intermittent schedules: the reinforcer is not continuous –
    - Ratio schedule: the number of responses determines whether the participant gets a reinforcer, can be fixed or ratio.
    - Interval schedule: reinforced only after a certain interval of time has passed.

Successive approximation: each time the desired behaviour is produced, the requirements to receive a reward shifts closer to the desired behaviour.

OBSERVATIONAL LEARNING: BANDURA (1977)

Learning occurs through the observation and imitation of others. Bandura suggests that a certain amount of learning is in the social cognitive learning category, "monkey see, monkey do".

Modelling: learning that occurs through watching and imitating the specific behaviour of others. An observer's behaviour can be affected by the positive or negative consequences – vicarious reinforcement or punishment – of the role model's behaviour.

Social learning theory spans both cognitive and behavioural frameworks, encompassing attention, memory, and motivation. Through observational learning, we learn how to perform behaviours, and the consequences of these behaviours.

The process:

1. Attention – something in the environment is noticed, observers must pay attention to learn. This is affected by the behaviour of the model.
2. Retention – observer must recognise and remember the behaviour. This stage depends on the observer's ability to process information.

3. Reproduction – what the observer has noticed is duplicated by an action. The observer must be physically and intellectually capable of producing the action.
4. Motivation – the observer performs the action, which is followed by reinforcement or punishment.

Types of reinforcement:

- Direct reinforcement: reinforcement for performing the observed behaviour.
- Vicarious reinforcement: seeing reinforcement take place on a model's behaviour.
- Self-reinforcement: striving to meet personal standards.
- External reinforcement: approval from the external environment.

Token economies: a reward system used in behaviour modification programs. Offers tangible rewards, only usable in that situation for desirable behaviours. Example – individual point system for good behaviour, that can be used in class to redeem for a prize.

MEMORY:

The ability to store and retrieve information from past events; allows us to learn, and visually represent our experiences without stimuli.

MULTISTORE OF MEMORY: ATKINSON AND SHIFFRIN (1968)

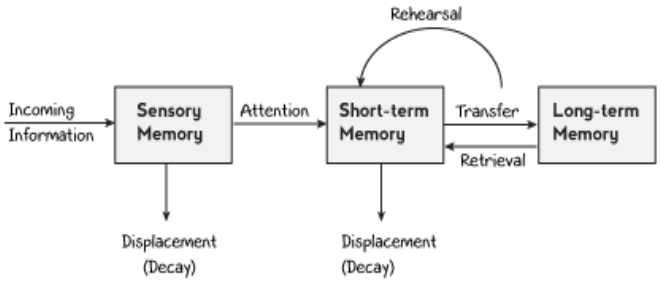
A structural model, that describes how memory is structured or built. Suggests that there are three stores of memory:

- Sensory memory
- Long-term memory
- Short-term memory

Suggests that information flows through in a linear fashion.

Likened to the information processing model – input → processing → output.

Information is detected by our five senses, where sensory information enters the sensory memory. This information is then attended to and enters the short-term memory. Information from the short-term memory is then transferred to the long-term memory if the information is rehearsed. If maintenance does not occur, information is forgotten, and lost from the short-term memory through displacement and decay.



Suggests that each memory store is characterised by three differences:

- Capacity – how much can be stored?
- Duration – how long can it be stored for?
- Function – what is done with the stored information?

SENSORY MEMORY

Haptic – touch

Echoic – hearing

Iconic – sight

Olfactory – smell

Gustatory – taste

Duration: ¼ to ½ a second

Capacity: all sensory experiences

Function: encoding sensory information.

Encoding: conversion of sensory information so that it can be processed by the brain. Information is encoded visually (images), acoustically (sound), semantically (through its meaning).

Sensory information is received from sensory organs.

Needs attention for information to go into the short-term memory.

Modality specific: whichever sense is registered will match the way that it is held, eg. taste is held as taste.

Iconic memory: visual memory.

Echoic memory: auditory memory.

Memories are lost due to decay – the memory fades away.

SHORT-TERM MEMORY: BADDLEY AND HITCH (1974)

Views working memory as the active processing of information. Suggests that working memory consists of a central executive system, and three slave systems:

- Phonological loop: stores and processes phonological information and language (such as silently rehearsing a phone number).
- Visuospatial sketchpad: stores and processes visual information such as shape, colour, pattern, and position.
- Episodic buffer: links information across all domains so that visual, spatial, and verbal information can be integrated in chronological order – processing what happened and the order in which it happened.

The Miller Study (Miller, 1956): theorised the 'magic number 7' – in terms of short-term memory capacity. Found that short-term memory has the capacity for 7 items, or bits – comfortably -, but struggles to hold more than 9. Found that pieces of meaningful information can be grouped into chunks. Short-term memory can hold more information when grouped into chunks but loses accuracy when this occurs (eg – remembering a whole face, rather than a specific eye colour).

Increasing short-term/working memory capacity –

- Rehearsal: repeating the same things over and over.
    - 2 types:

- Maintenance: simple repetition, remembering information for immediate use. Eg – saying a telephone number over and over in your head.
- Elaborative: actively processing and encoding information. Associating the information with other information stored in the long-term memory. The information is made more meaningful.

Chunking: information combined into larger groups based on patterns.

LONG TERM MEMORY:

Duration: unlimited

Capacity: unlimited

Function: information that has been consolidated is stored so that it can be retrieved at a later date when it is needed.

Encoding: mainly semantic but can be visual and auditory.

2 types:

- Procedural memory: the 'how to' memory. Also referred to as the implicit memory. Not a conscious memory – little effort is required for retrieval (mostly automatic). Stores information on how to do things. Memory of motor skills – difficult to describe these processes as they are automatic.
- Declarative memory: the 'what' of memory. Also called the explicit memory, retrieval requires conscious effort.
    - Episodic memory: a type of explicit memory associated with episodes or events that have been experienced. An individual's representation of events. Like the importance of an event to an individual.
    - Semantic: type of explicit memory associated with general facts about the world – the e encyclopedia of memory.

Explicit memory: conscious remembering.

Implicit memory: unconscious remembering.

- Anything remembered for longer than 30 seconds is said to be in the long-term memory.
- Information can be forgotten because memory traces can decay.
    - 'new' information causes confusion and interferes with old information.
    - Information is not often retrieved.
- Decay increases over time:
    - An individual is more likely to recall the names of our classmates 15 years after high school, as opposed to 40.
- Amnesia tends to impact the declarative over procedural memory:
    - Still able to complete motor tasks however are unable to retrieve information from the episodic or semantic memory.

Long term memory is unlimited, so the main constraint is accessibility over availability.

COMMUNICATION:

CONFLICT:

Conflict occurs when there is the perception that two parties have incompatible goals, or when an individual's needs are not being met.

When can conflict arise?

- Unwillingness to solve issues.
- Grudges are held against another person.
- A sense of loss if a solution was found.
- Unwillingness to have judgments challenged – wanting to be right.
- Fear of punishment.

MIRROR IMAGE PERCEPTIONS:

Mirror image perceptions are a phenomenon that occurs during conflict, when each party form reciprocal and distorted perceptions of one another. These perceptions are remarkable alike or mirrored and are that of the opposing party being untrustworthy or incompetent, and evil or immoral, where the party sees themselves as the opposite – trustworthy and moral. These perceptions are biased and can lead to increased hostility, and assumption of negative motives.

SOLUTIONS:

Imposed solutions: solutions that are dictated, where one party (or a third party) has more power than the other and dictates the solution. One party wins the conflict – a win/loss scenario.

Distributive solutions: a solution where neither party may receive everything that they want. Parties may negotiate as an acceptable solution. Examples include industrial disputes over wages, and enterprise agreements, or where to go out for dinner.

Integrative solutions: a win/win situation where both parties benefit. More difficult to achieve than imposed or distributive agreements as the goals, motives ad values of each party need to be understood and upheld. The solution involves focusing on motives rather than specific demands.

TECHNIQUES FOR RESOLVING CONFLICT:

Techniques for resolving conflict require parties to communicate with each other. Ideally, communication would occur directly between the two parties, however sometimes a third party is needed – a mediator.

Counselling: one or both parties work with a counsellor to develop skills to deal with conflict, and problem solve to solve their problems directly. Counsellors don't offer solutions, but help their clients solve their own problems.

Negotiation: involves parties with both shared and opposing interests reach an agreement. Success becomes an integrated solution. Thompson and Hastie (1990) investigated the negotiation of car sales (participants assigned as a buyer or seller, most negotiators went in with the assumptions that the other party has opposing views to their own and came to solutions that were not ideal. However, when both parties understood that negotiations had a joint gain, solutions were reached sooner with better outcomes). Eg – coming to a trade agreement, bargaining on wages.

Mediation: involves a third party to help solve the conflict. Mediators keep both parties on task by focussing on the main issues and motivations of each party. Parties come to a voluntary solution that is integrative or distributive. Mediators are beneficial as the make arrangements for communication to take place, decreasing further conflict, help parties to see a common ground, and can bring a new perspective to the argument.

Arbitration: both parties present their argument to an arbitrator, who decides on an imposed solution.

DIVORCE MEDIATION: EMERY AND COLLEAGUES (2006)

Longitudinal research conducted over 12 years of study.

Evaluated the effectiveness of mediation over court settlements for divorcing parents.

Randomly assigned mediator or court settlement.

Mediation settled cases faster, saving money, increased compliance, found higher satisfaction with agreement, improved the relationship between divorcing parents and non-residential parents and children.

RELATIONAL INFLUENCES:

SOCIALISATION:

Socialisation is the process in which we acquire our beliefs, values, and behaviours. It is an ongoing process that occurs as we adjust to different roles and challenges. Factors that impact the socialisation process are known as agents of socialisation, with different ages influencing us at different stages of our lives.

ATTACHMENT THEORY: BOWLBY

Emotional bonds, such as child-parent relationships, are biologically based and contribute to the survival of the species.

Attachment: the strong emotional ties that bind a person to an intimate companion, characterised by affection and a desire to maintain proximity (Bowlby, 1969).

Monotropy: the bond formed with one attachment figure; the primary bond shared with a mother.

Key propositions:

1. If children are confident that their primary caregiver will be available to them, they are less likely to experience fear than those who are raised without this confidence.
2. This development of confidence occurs during a critical period of development during the years of infancy, childhood, and adolescence. The expectations that are formed during this period tend to remain unchanged throughout a person's life.
3. Expectations that are formed by children are tied directly to experience. Children develop expectations that their caregivers will be responsive because they have been responsive in the past.

Four distinguishing characteristics of attachment:

1. Proximity maintenance: the desire to be near the people we are attached to.
2. Safe haven: returning to the attachment figure for comfort and safety in the face of fear and threat.
3. Secure base: attachment figure acts as a base of security, from which the child can explore the surrounding environment.
4. Separation distress: anxiety that occurs in the absence of the attachment figure – (Cherry, 2020).

NATURE AND NURTURE OF ATTACHMENT:

Nature: infants are biologically predisposed to form attachments - forming attachments will aid in survival. Imprinting and oxytocin drive this attachment.

Nurture: a consistent, responsive social situation is critical. Unresponsive care givers can negatively impact on attachment.

HARLOWS MONKEYS: HARLOW AND ZIMMERMAN (1959)

Harlow and Zimmerman studied whether attachment to the mother was due to food or contact comfort. The study consisted of 8 monkeys, with wire with food, and cloth mothers.

Independent variable: which mother the monkeys spent more time with.

Results found that all monkeys spent more time with the cloth mother rather than the wire mother, concluding that contact comfort is a more powerful contributor to attachment.

STAGES OF ATTACHMENT: BOWLBY

1. Pre-attachment (BIRTH – 6 WEEKS): Crying and cooing bring the baby closer in proximity to the caretaker. The caretakers smell and voice comfort the baby. The beginning of attachment is forming.
2. Attachment-in-the-making (6 WEEKS – 8 MONTHS): Attachment is getting stronger – infants respond differently to familiar people than they do strangers. Separation anxiety has not yet risen, parents continue to form attachments by meeting the baby's basic needs for food, comfort, and shelter.
3. Clear-cut-attachment (8 MONTHS – 18 MONTHS): Attachment to trusted caregivers continues to strengthen – separation anxiety is likely at the caregiver's absence. Toddlers tend to want to be with their preferred caregiver at all times. Attachment with parents and other important adults in the toddler's life continue to strengthen, reflecting the care of the child's needs.
4. Formation of reciprocal relationships (18 MONTHS – 2 YEARS):Rapid language growth facilitates the understanding of new concepts, and children begin to understand parent's comings and goings. Separation anxiety lessens, although the child tends to prevent the parents from leaving.

MATERNAL DEPRIVATION THEORY: BOWLBY

Separation or loss of the mother results in failure to develop an attachment. Maternal deprivation theory can lead to delinquency, reduced intelligence, increased aggression, depression affectionless psychopathy.

INTERNAL WORKING MODELS:

Early attachments influence later relationships through the development of internal working models. The main features of internal working models are:

- Model of others as being trustworthy:
  - Secure attachment: others are perceived to be reliable/trustworthy.
  - Insecure attachment: perceives others as unreliable.
- Model of self as valuable:
  - Secure attachment: positive self-image and self-confident.
  - Insecure attachment: low self-esteem.
- Model of self as effective when interacting with others:
  - Secure attachment: self-reliant, doesn't need frequent reassurance.
  - Insecure attachment: highly dependent on others, needs frequent reassurance.

THE STRANGE SITUATION: AINSWORTH ET AL (1978)

Developed by Ainsworth and Colleagues to measure the quality of attachment.

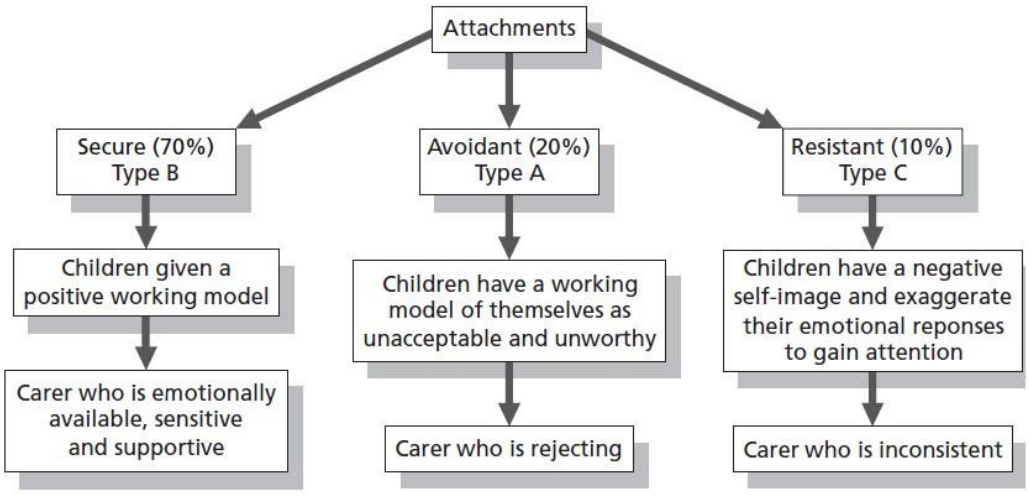
8-episodes, gradually designed to escalate the stress that infants feel when their caregiver leaves or a stranger approach.

Based on infant response, 3 attachment styles were identified.

A. Anxious – avoidant: avoid or ignore the caregiver, showing little emotion when the caregiver departs or returns. Child will not explore very much.

B. Secure: visibly upset when the caregiver leaves and happy when they return. Tends to explore more. When frightened, these children seek comfort from their caregiver.
C. Anxious – resistant: child will explore little, is wary of strangers (even when the caregiver is present), the child is highly stressed when the caregiver departs, but ambivalent when they return.

Limitations of the strange situation: Durkin (1995) suggested that different child rearing practices may impact responses to the strange situation. Children who attend day-care may show varied separation and stranger anxiety. Japanese children are rarely away from their parents, as a result, the strange situation would cause high distress – this would be a reaction to a rare situation rather than an indication of attachment.



FAMILY AS A SOCIAL SYSTEM:

Children influence parents – parental reactions, temperament of the child (easy versus difficult babies).

Marital relationships effect parenting – Cox et al (1989): mothers with a supportive partner are more likely to be patient and nurturing.

PARENTING STYLES: BAUMRIND (1971)

Diana Baumrind's parenting styles are characterised by:

- Acceptance – responsiveness: support, sensitivity to needs, response to changes in autonomy.
- Demandingness and control – parental control in decisions, rules, expectations, response to changes in autonomy.

Four major parenting styles:

- Authoritarian: a parent who relies on coercive techniques to discipline the child and displays a low level of nurturance. Coercive techniques include threats and punishment. Places firm limits and controls the child. Little verbal exchange occurs between the parent and the child. High levels of control, low levels of responsiveness.
    - Effects on the child: does not exhibit a strong sense of social responsibility or sense of independence, appears anxious about social comparison, does not initiate social activity, displays poor communication skills, males tend to be more aggressive – females tend to be

more dependent, effects extending to adolescence include less advanced moral reasoning, less prosocial behaviour, lower self-esteem.

- Authoritative: parents set limits on the child's behaviour using reasoning and explanation that displays a high level of nurturance. Expects the child to behave in a mature manner. Uses more rewards than punishments, communicates expectations clearly and provides explanations to help the child understand the reasoning behind explanations. Listens to what the child has to say, encourages dialogue between the parent and the child. High levels of control, high levels of responsiveness.
    - Effects on the child: self-reliant, socially responsible, friendly with peers, cooperative with adults, independent, effects extending into adolescence include higher academic performance, more prosocial behaviour, higher self-confidence.
- Permissive: the parent sets few limits on the child's behaviour. Makes few demands on mature behaviour. Allows the child to make decisions about routine behaviours. Low level of control, high levels of responsiveness.
    - Effects on the child: displays low self-confidence and low self-reliance. Does not exhibit strong social responsibility or sense of independence. Displays a high tendency to get their own way.
- Neglectful/Uninvolved: sets few rules, does not limit the child's behaviour, is not responsive to the child's needs, provides little nurturance. Expects the child to care for themselves. May be overwhelmed by other aspects of their lives. Does not discipline their child. Unlikely to monitor the behaviour of the child. Low level of control, low level of responsiveness.
    - Effects on the child: Most negative outcomes. Prone to temper tantrums. High levels of aggression. Effects extending into adolescence include being prone to delinquent behaviour, greater likelihood of engaging in criminal activity.

PARENTING STYLES AND ATTACHMENT:

Parenting Styles and Attachment: parenting style strongly influences attachment, a coping strategy in response to parenting.

- Type A: anxious-avoidant attachment – little or excessive stimulation, rejecting, unresponsive.
- Type B: securely attached – responsive, warm, sensitive to a child's needs.
- Type C: anxious resistant – inconsistent, moody, discrepancy.
- Disorganized/disoriented – neglect, maltreatment, abusive, unstable.

TEMPERMENT AND PARENTING STYLES – BRADLEY AND CORWYN (2006)

Suggest that parenting styles can negatively impact children who have a difficult temperament. Inconsistent parenting strategies, and permissive parenting, can lead to undesirable outcomes in children.

- Behavioural and emotional problems.
- Externalising and internalising behaviours.
- Decreased cognitive and academic development.
- Poor self-regulation development.
- Use of aggression and association with conduct disorders.

Having access to experiences that promote coping and build self-regulatory capacities seem particularly valuable for children with difficult temperaments.

WHAT IMPACTS FAMILIES- STANLEY, RICHARDSON, PRIOR (2005)

Suggested that in the 21st century, Australian society has changed in five areas, which has impacted on child development:

- Demographic changes: less children, greater life expectancy.
- Economic changes: globalisation.
- Women in the workforce: childcare needs.
- Change in family structure: divorce, re-marriage, changes in marital rights.
- Increased technologies: internet, computers, tablets. Less physical activity and imaginative play.

GRANDPARENTING: PETERSON (2004)

Differentiated between five different types of grandparenting.

- Formal grandparenting: special outings, birthdays (over 65yrs of age).
- Fun-seeking-grandparents: playing, informal activities (under 50yrs of age).
- Remote grandparents: little social or psychological investment, due to distance.
- Parent-surrogate grandparents: take on the care of the child due to death of a parent, divorce, neglect, etc. 5. “Fonts of wisdom” grandparents: maintain family traditions, storytelling, passing on memory, history, skills, to next generation.

THE CHANGING NATURE OF GRANDPARENTING:

Increased life expectancy and mature age mothers have resulted in grandparents having a changing role in the lives of their grandchildren.

Hayes and Higgins (2014); Brennan and Cass (2014).

- Explored the level of contact grandparents have with their grandchildren. Suggest that’s contact is:
    - Regular during pre-school years, with grandparents providing childcare.
    - Higher when children are younger, decreases as children get older.
    - Impacted by distance, with those further away having less contact. o Also suggests that in the circumstances of divorce or separation, grandparents play an important role and patterns of contact need further exploration in such families.

PERSUASIVE COMMUNICATION:

Persuasive communication is communication that attempts to change the beliefs, values, feelings, or behaviours, of another person or group.

Goals of persuasive communication:

- Learning – the most common or easiest change.
- Attitude change – most common when existing attitudes are not strongly held.
- Behaviour intention – most predictive of actual behaviour.
- Behaviour – difficult to change due to the multiple influences that determine behaviour.

ELABORATION LIKLIHOOD MODEL OF PERSUASION: PETTY AND CACIOPPO (1986)

When a message is received, it requires the receiver to think about the message; or elaborate on it.

Elaboration refers to the "amount of effort an audience member has to use in order to process and evaluate a message, remember it, and the accept it or reject it".

The elaboration likelihood model of persuasion explains different ways messages or stimuli can be processed.

Two routes of persuasion exist:

- The central route: high levels of elaboration – when the receiver actively participates in the process of persuasion. The content of this message is considered thoughtfully and can only occur if the listener is motivated to attend the content of the message and has the motivation and ability to attend the content thoughtfully.
- Peripheral route: low levels of elaboration – the listener is passive. The listener agrees or disagrees with a statement based on additional cues, rather than context. Additional cues may be the source of the message, or the emotion.

ATTITUDE CHANGE: PETTY AND CACIOPPO (1986)

The central route and peripheral route have different effects on attitude change. The central route involves the processing of information or an argument more thoughtfully: there is a more persistent attitude change, greater resistance to counterarguments, and behaviour is more predictable using this route.

PERSUASIVE COMMUNICATION STEPS: HOVELAND (1953)

Identifies four distinct steps in the persuasion process:

1. Attention
2. Comprehension
3. Acceptance
4. Retention

PERSUASIVE COMMUNICATION VARIABLES: HOVELAND (1953)

The source of the message: who is used to send the message? We are more likely to be persuaded by people who we believe are competent. We are more likely to accept the word of someone we believe to be an expert in the area than a non-expert – we are less likely to question the claims of an expert.

- Smith and Shaffer (1995) – exercise is attributed to fast talkers. If the message can be understood, fast speakers are valued as more knowledgeable as they appear that they have more information to get out regarding the subject, and fast speaking does not leave the listener time to evaluate the content.

Other characteristics of the message source that aid in persuasion include trustworthiness, likeability, attractiveness, status, and race.

Nature of communication: how the message is delivered. People are more likely to response to messages that they understand (simple messages). Printed advertisements are more at risk of being misunderstood than TV adverts. We react both cognitively and emotionally to messages. Our emotional response to advertisements can influence our motivation to attend to it and to process it. Many advertisements are directed at our emotions.

Positive emotions make us feel good and can make us want to buy a product – but may also hinder our ability to process the message.

Negative emotions: fear evoking message can arouse us sufficiently to attend to the message (fight or flight), however, too much can hinder our ability to attend to and process the information.

Characteristics of the audience: in order to persuade others, we need to understand who we are trying to convince. The content or style of communication may vary depending on who the message is toward, and their characteristics (age, gender, education, cultural background, etc).

Cacioppo and Petty (1982) suggested that the way people evaluate an argument will differ. People with a high need for cognition will enjoy examining the pros and cons of an argument and are more likely to be persuaded by strong arguments rather than weak ones. People with a lower need for cognition are less likely to attend the argument and are more likely to be persuaded by additional cues, such as the expertise of the person presenting the argument.

Cultures often differ in what they continue to be persuasive. Individualistic cultures focus on personal benefits, personal successes, and independence, whereas collectivist cultures focus on group benefits, harmony, and family.

Characteristics of Audience – Culture:

- Yunxia (2000-2001):
  - Examined invitation letters for the world trade fair.
  - China, NZ, AUS, USA.
  - Letters to Western Culture appeared more logical.
  - Letters to the Chinese appealed to logic, and emotions, and were written in a more respectful and formal manner.

COMMUNICATION STYLES:

The style we learn/develop is influenced by the cultural and socioeconomic context we are a part of and grow up within. It involves accents, vocabulary, grammar, and the ideas that we express.

The way we communicate allows us to express ourselves. It can also be an aspect of our identity – it represents how we express our ideas and influences the judgements that people make about us.

IMPACT OF SOCIAL CLASS: BERNSTEIN (1971)

Bernstein examined the relationship between communication styles and social class. His findings suggested that working class people spoke differently to those who are middle class. He developed two codes:

- Restricted code: often spoken by the working class, as the working class preserved traditional roles and ways of communicating. The restricted code is characterised by short, simple sentences, limited vocabulary, frequent use of broad terms, such as ‘you know’. Bernstein suggested that these were due to a language deficit – this accounts for the poor performance in working class education.
- Elaborated code: spoken by the middle class, as the middle class supposedly developed ideas based on experience. Characteristics of the elaborated code include complex sentences, including subordination, extended vocabulary, use of the first person. The use of the elaborated code extends to teachers, which provides and explanation as to why middle-class children tend to do well in education.

Criticism of Bernstein:

- Everyone sues both elaborated and restricted code.
- Everyone experiences position and person-oriented family situations.
- Language is not fixed as implied – we can switch codes.
- Language is on a linguistic and social continuum.
- Restricted code does not mean uneducated, it is a social influence.

LABOV (1970):

William Labov: (1970) –

- Worked with black children in New York – Black English Vernacular.
- Suggested the BEV was as complex as standard English and should not be considered a defect.

Similar to Aboriginal English and Standard Australian English – Malcom et al (2003):

  - Australian curriculum and school characteristics are not conductive to aboriginal culture.
  - Eye contact, asking of questions, shame, etc.

THE IMPACT OF GENDER AND GENDER CHARACTERISTICS: TANNEN

Analysed communication between men and women from a sociolinguistic perspective – an analysis of everyday conversations and their effects on social relationships.

Naturalistic studies, frequently done on convenience samples.

Tannen argues that men and women grow up in different worlds, and as a result, communication between the sexes amounts to cross cultural communication.

GENDER PERSPECTIVES:

In essence, it is suggested that there are two ways to view the world:

1. The Female Perspective: focus on relationships, making connections and interdependence.
2. The Male Perspective: focus on status hierarchies, problem solving and independence.

These differences manifest themselves in conversations between men and women and explain a lot of the 'frustration' felt when men and women communicate.

MESSAGE VS META-MESSAGE:

To analyse messages, Tannen makes a connection between message and meta-message, where:

Message is the context of what is said, and

Meta – message is the way it is expressed, and the meaning behind the message. Meta message is what frames the conversation.

The message may say 'nothing' but the meta – message is much more.

Example – offering someone help can contain the meta-message of caring, or dominance.

TALK - MEN VS WOMEN:

Women – rapport: speak more in private. 'Rapport talk' – used to make connections. Allow conversations to run for a longer period of time, asking proving questions. Women tell stories.

- Use talk to develop and maintain emotional connections.
- Focus on personal and small talk 'chat'.
- Use talk to build up relationships and maintain intimacy.

Tend to talk over and above one another, overlapping and simultaneous talk.

Men – report: speaking more in public + more likely to interrupt. 'Report talk' – used to make an impression. Men make jokes.

- Get more airtime and exchange information with little emotional connection.
- Are more public with their talk.
- Use language to negotiate status and avoid failure.
- Talk in turn.

TALK – ADVICE VS UNDERSTANDING:

Men will often offer advice in conversation; women will often offer understanding.

TALK – INFORMATION VS FEELINGS:

Men are more likely to lecture, giving information, to show what they know and establish status. Women are more likely to gossip.

TALK – ORDER VS PROPOSALS:

Men provide direct orders; women tend to be more indirect.

TALK – CONFLICT VS COMPROMISE:

Men initiate conflict, women tend to avoid and resolve it.

LANGUAGE:

Language is an important tool we use to interact and learn about the world that we live in. We use it to pass down cultural values. Used in our thinking process.

BASIC COMPONENTS TO AQUIRED LANGUAGE:

These basic components must be mastered to develop language.

- Content: knowledge about what to say.
- Form: knowledge about the use of language.

When we communicate successfully, we do so because we are able to understand the content and form for different things.

- Phonemes: we need to be able to perceive and produce sounds that make up a language and convey meanings to other people.
- Semantics: the knowledge of what the words in a language mean.

- Syntax: the ability to put these words together in a grammatically appropriate ways such that others would understand.
- Pragmatics: the knowledge of how to effectively use our language to communicates to others

CRITICAL PERIOD FOR LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT:

It is proposed that a critical period for language development exists - infancy until puberty. Suggests that this is the ideal time window to acquire language in a rich environment, after which language becomes more difficult. If a child is not exposed to a linguistically rich environment during this critical period, language will not fully develop and will not reach it's fully potential.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF LANGUAGE – NATURE (CHOMSKY, 1970/1980):

Theorised that language is innate, and hard wired to develop in all. Chomsky believed that all people were born with a 'black box', that receives input (language) and generates output (language). He theorised that all humans have one, containing knowledge of grammatical rules universal to all cultures. His theory is heavily based on universal grammar and structures for all languages. This black box supposedly allows children to understand the rules of whatever language they are listening to and to acquire language relevant to their surrounds quickly.

Evidence for the LAD: language is developed in a similar sequence across cultures – same age-related errors.

- Children master language skills faster than other abilities.
- Children do not simply copy language or learn all phases, but uncover rules and then create new, unlimited phrases.
    - Making mistakes and correcting them, learning not through imitation.
    - Not all cultures speak to children in the same manner, yet language is still developed.
    - Deep structures (universal grammar) is the same in all languages, therefore is suggested to be genetically determined.
    - Human anatomy is adapted for the production of speech – vocal track, Werneck's and Broca's areas.

Limitations of Language Acquisition Device: it is purely theoretical; no empirical research was conducted. Linguists have failed to specify the nature of universal grammar. Little neurological evidence.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF LANGUAGE – NURTURE: (BRUNER, 1983)

Bruner's theory exists around the central idea that adults help children to learn early language. He conducted a longitudinal study with two boys – from three months of age until they were two – and theorised that children learn language through verbal interactions with their caregiver. During routines, parents guide and support language development.

Bruner theorise the Language Acquisition Support System: LASS.

- LASS needs LAD: child component (innate predisposition), and the interaction with others allows language to be acquired.
- Acquired language is based on cultural, social, and historical groups they are a member of.

Theorised strategies that act as pair to the support system:

- Motherese: when using infant directed speech, parents will speak in a higher pitch, stressing important words, and speak slower.

- Scaffolding: increasing the expectations from the caregiver as time elapses – require more time to gain a response.
- Reference: pairing gestures together with words – eventually words replace the gestures.
- Expansionism: occurs when a parent takes a child's utterance and turns it into a complete sentence. Eg – "mummy, na na", becomes, "would you like a banana?".
- Recast: correcting a child's grammar when expanding on their speech.
- Joint attention: mutual attention, required for the above processes to be successful.
- Shared perceptual experiences: first established through eye contact. Evidence stems from wild children case studies – balances the poverty of the stimulus agreements.

Limitations of the Language Acquisition Support System: parents rarely offer their children direct grammatical feedback – not all parents correct grammatical errors, instead they focus on semantic errors.

DEVELOPMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY

COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT:

Cognitive development focusses on the process that allow people to think, know and understand the world.

SCHEMA:

A schema is an organised pattern of thought that is used to deal with or interpret experiences, similar tp having a set of rules or procedures for the world.

- EXAMPLE: growing up with a dog, you would have experienced that fluffy, brown animals with four legs are dogs. You would assume that a horse is a strange dog upon first introduction.

We apply schemas to make sense of them.

- Disequilibrium/cognitive conflict: lack of understanding – the information does not fit.
- Equilibrium: aligning our schemas to make sense of them.

DEVELOPMENT OF INTELLEGENCE:

Intelligence is said to have two inborn functions:

- Organisation: the tendency to combine and integrate available schemes into more coherent systems of knowledge.
- Adaption: the tendency to adapt to the demands of the environment, enabled by assimilation and accommodation.
    - Assimilation: the process in which people understand and experience based on their own stage of cognitive development and ways of thinking.
    - Accommodation: the process that changes existing ways of thinking in response to encounters with new stimuli or events.

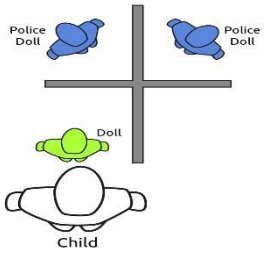
PIAGET:

Piaget's four stages of cognitive development:

SENSORIMOTOR	Birth – 2 years old.	Learning through the senses, object permanence and symbolic capacity.	
PREOPERATIONAL	2 – 6 years old.	Symbolic thought, pretend play, egocentrism	Pretend play is vital in this stage.
CONCRETE OPERATIONS	6 – 11 years old.	Logical thought, conservation, transformational thought.	
FORMAL OPERATIONS	12 years – adulthood.	Hypothetical reasoning, abstract thought, egocentrism.	

Piaget's contributions: Piaget stimulated and continues to guide research. Showed that infants are active in their own development. His cognitive development sequence is widely accepted.

CRITISISMS OF PIAGET:



Donaldson (1978): believed that Piaget was using unfamiliar materials and situations. Developed the Hughes' Policeman Task – asked children to hide a doll where the policeman couldn't see him. Results found that approximately 90% of children answered correctly – lead to the claim that children fail when the situations are unfamiliar with them.

Seigal (1991): believed Piaget used languages that break conversational rules. Believed that children's failure to observe actually stemmed from the experimenter breaking conversational rules. Experimenters asked questions when the answer was obvious, or repeated questions after an answer was given – this leads a child to change their answers.

Failure to distinguish between competence and performance: competence – the ability to complete the task and explain how, performance – the actual answers given to the task. Children may be able to complete the task correctly but cannot give reasoning. Children may know the answer to the task but be physically unable to express that. Example – a baby may have object permanence but be physically unable to life the blanket to show where the toy is.

Seagram and Lendon (1990): do Piaget's tasks measure education or development? Longitudinal study between 1965 – 1978, compared children raised in a mission station in central Australia with Aboriginal children raised in different places and situations all over Australia. Measured cognitive performance using Piagetian tasks – aimed to test if Piaget's theory of development was subject to environment factors or universal. Found that Aboriginal children are just as capable as white children if they are submerged into white culture. If not immersed, they lagged behind. Cross cultural research using these tasks is no longer done, as they are not culturally appropriate.

Dasen (1994): compared Aboriginal children to Piaget's Swiss example. Measured conservation of liquid and spatial tasks. Conservation of liquid was stronger in the Swiss sample, however the level of spatial awareness in the Aboriginal children was higher.

VYGOTSKY:

Development through social influence – Piaget theorised children learn the world on their own, without others. Vygotsky theorised children learn through the social influence of competent peers and adults.

STAGE THEORIES:

Stage theories are utilised throughout development psychology and describe age related change in development. They are explained through a series of distinct steps or stages, which are universally complete in the same or a similar order. Stage theories help explain what we observe and predict behaviour.

MORALITY:

Morality comes in three basic components:

- Affective: feelings regarding right or wrong behaviours.
- Cognitive: conceptualising right and wrong.
- Behavioural: how we behave when faced with a moral decision.

KOHLBERG'S THEORY OF MORAL DEVELOPMENT:

Built on Piaget with a highly influential model of moral development. Using moral dilemmas, Kohlberg analysed the responses of male children within different age groups, suggesting that moral development occurs through a set of three universal levels, each level comprising of two stages. Each stage presents a more complex way of thinking about each dilemma:

LEVEL 1: PRECONVENTIONAL MORALITY: rules are external to the self as they have not been internalised. Judgements and rule obedience are based of punishment and reward. Typically ages 7 and under.

> *STAGE 1*: PUNISHMENT/OBEDIENCE ORIENTATION: whether an act is good or bad depends on the consequence. The harsher the punishment, the worse the act is considered to be.
>
> *STAGE 2*: INSTRUMENTAL HEDONISM: rules are obeyed to gain rewards or satisfy personal needs. Others are only considered in terms of the benefit they may reward.

LEVEL 2: CONVENTIONAL MORALITY: moral values are internalised, judgements are based on the desire to gain approval, uphold law, or maintain social order. Perspective of others is not important regarding moral decision making. Typically ages 7 and over.

> *STAGE 3*: GOOD KID MORALITY: what is considered right is what pleases others or is approved by others – thinking involved reciprocity; "*treat others the way that you want to be treated*".
>
> *STAGE 4*: AUTHORITY AND SOCIAL ORDER: what is right is considered right for the greater whole in order to maintain social order. Reciprocity is applied at a social order – rules are obeyed to respect law.

LEVEL 3: POSTCONVENTIONAL MORALITY: moral judgements are based on abstract understanding of social contracts, and universal principles of justice – which are valid separately to those who view authority figures. We are able to distinguish the difference between what is morally right and what is legal.

> *STAGE 5*: MORALLY ACCEPTED DEMOCRATIC LAW: laws and rules should be developed through consensus and democracy, so they express what is valued by the majority.
>
> *STAGE 6*: MORALITY OF INDIVIDUAL PRINCIPLES OF CONSIOUS: what is considered right and wrong is based upon self-generated principles with many aspects, that can be applied universally.

Strengths of Kohlberg's Theory: a positive correlation has been found between age a level of moral reasoning (Shaffer, 1999). Many cross-sectional studies have found support for the proposed sequence of development, as have there been longitudinal studies (Colby et al, 1983).

Criticisms of Kohlberg:

- Unrealistic scenarios: sample age was between 10 and 16. Not likely to have married, and unlikely to have been placed in the unlikely scenarios.
- Dilemmas are hypothetical: no real consequences for the dilemmas that threaten responses.
- Poor design: a cross sectional design was used, which reflected the responses of children at different ages, not development over time.
- Culture based: emphasised western philosophy, not eastern, which may not accurately be reflected.
- Gender based (Gilligan, 1982): only men were used in the testing, therefore Kohlberg's theory only reflects the morality of males. Gilligan suggested that male morality is based on abstract principles of law and justice, whereas the morality of women is based on compassion and care. Males were highly associated with stage 4, whereas women were highly associated with stage 3.

- Gilligan's proposed level of moral reasoning:
    1. Self-interest: decisions justified on participants own needs and values.
    2. Self-sacrifice: decisions are justified using the rights of others.
    3. Care as a universal obligation: decisions were a result of a balance between care for others and personal wellbeing.
- Gilligan also criticised for a small sample size and generalisation of Kohlberg.

IDENTITY:

Identity is how we view and define ourselves. It consists of the qualities, beliefs, values, look and expressions that make us who we are. This includes self-assessments, such as knowledge of our skills and abilities, occupations and hobbies, and evaluations of one's physical attributes.

PSYCHOSOCIAL DEVELOPMENT:

Psychosocial development is the approach that encompasses change in our understanding of individuals, interactions with others, and their standings within society. Emphasis is placed upon social influences as drivers of development, rather than biological urges. Development involves systematic stages, that is one stage must be experienced before moving onto the rest. Erikson developed a theory that describes the development of identity across the lifespan.

As a person develops, they work out similarities and differences between themselves and others. Erikson believed that this happens in stages across the lifespan. He suggested that we face specific psychological dilemmas at each stage of the life. Resolving each dilemma creates a new balance between a person and society.

A string of successes over these dilemma's produces healthy development and satisfying life. Unsuccessful resolution can lead to an individual becoming stuck at a particular stage and then not developing normally.

ERIKSON'S STAGE THEORY OF IDENTITY:

Erikson proposed 8 stages or dilemmas:

1. **AGE 0-1: TRUST VS MISTRUST** – trust is established when babies are given adequate warmth, touching, love and physical care – the infants is more likely to develop secure attachment. Mistrust is when inadequate or unpredictable care is given, parents are cold and rejecting. Infants who experience mistrust are more likely to develop insecure attachments, have lower self-confidence, and inability to relate to others.
2. **AGES 1-3: AUTONOMY VS SHAME AND DOUBT** – toddlers are learning to walk, talk, use the toilet, and feed themselves. Success at autonomy can lead to self-confidence, self-control, and mistakes are easy to correct. Overprotection and disapproval from parents can lead to shame and doubt on the toddler's ability to be independent.
3. **AGES 3-6: INITIATIVE VS GUILT** – children's social and motor skills become highly developed during early childhood, and children wish to take on more responsibility for this. Parents can reinforce initiative by giving their children freedom to play, ask questions, use their imagination, and choose activities. Feelings of guilt about initialising activates come from parental criticism for choosing to play, imagining, and asking questions.
4. **AGES 6-12: INDUSTRY VS INFERIORITY** – industry can be regarded as competence, and this can be achieved through learning at school. If the child's efforts are regarded as messy, childish, or inadequate, feelings of inferiority can arise.

5. **AGES 12-18: INDENTIY VS ROLE CONFUSION** – "who am I?", adolescence must build a sense of identity using their talents, skills, life history and relationships. People who fail to build a sense of identity suffer from role confusion.
6. **AGES 18-40: INTIMACY VS ISOLATION** – after developing identity, people feel life they need to build intimate relationships with others. Failure to do this leads to isolation.
7. **AGES 40-65: GENERATIVITY VS ISOLATION** – generativity can be achieved by guiding one's own children or by helping other children, as well as productive or creative work. Failure to do this makes a person feel stagnate.
8. **AGES 65+: INTEGRITY OR DISPAIR** – and older person can face death with integrity, having no regrets, or despair over goals that weren't achieved.

Criticisms of Kohlberg's Theory: Kohlberg was vague on the causes of development – no universal mechanism for crisis resolution was offered. No attention was given to cognitive development – the theory is not scientific. The theory focuses on mostly men over women.

PERSONALITY

PERSONALITY:

Personality is the characteristic ways in which a person thinks, feels, and behaviours. Personality is a construct – it is hard to measure directly. Personality is linked to the idea that some characteristics are persistent and recurring.

TRAIT THEORY: MCRAE AND COSTA (1999)

Trait theory is a perspective in which personality is seen as a combination of the characteristics that people display over time and across situations. Traits predispose us to act a certain way, regardless of the situation. The five-factor theory of personality is one of the most recent additions to trait theory – this includes the belief in five core dimensions:

- Openness to experience – creativeness, willingness to try new things.
- Conscientiousness – reliability, responsibility, thoroughness.
- Extraversion – level of outgoing, activity, talkativeness.
- Agreeableness – ease to get along with, pleasantness, sympathetic, warmth.
- Neuroticism – emotional stability.

Contributions of trait theory: trait theory can be empirically measured, and assumption of individual differences in traits can be made.

Limitations of trait theory: trait theory relies of self-report surveys. There is a lack of situational consistency and no explanation for what causes the traits to occur is offered.

TYPE THEORIES VS TRAIT THEORIES:

Type theories are categorical, distinct, and discontinuous – you are either one thing or the other.

Trait theories are continuous and measured on different scales. They exist on a continuum, and individuals can be high or low in different traits.

CENTRAL TRAITS VS SURFACE TRAITS:

Central traits are the overarching factor/dimension. The broad disposition, make up of a combination of surface traits. Eg – 'openness to experience'.

Surface traits are the personality elements that can be directly observed which make up the central trait. Eg – 'adventurous or unadventurous'.

HEXACO: ASHTON AND LEE (2005)

Ashton and Lee added the 6th factor to the five-factor trait theory. The 'honesty – humility' trait was added, also known as the H factor. Very high scores on this factor reflect people who avoid manipulating people for personal gain, feel little temptation to break rules, and feel no special entitlement. A person with very low scores will flatter others to get what they want, are inclined to break rules for personal profit and feel a strong sense of self-importance.

PREDICTING BEHAVIOUR WITH TRAITS: JIA, JIA, KARAU (2013)

Jia, Jia and Karau examined the big five traits, cyberloafing, work meaningfulness and the presence of an internet policy. The presence of an internet policy in combination with emotional stability and high conscientiousness negatively correlated to cyberloafing. Extraversion had a positive correlation with cyberloafing.

HUMANISTIC PERSPECTIVE:

Emphasises the uniqueness of the individual and focuses on individual experiences. Asserts that people have free will and that people are motivated to achieve personal goals. Portrays that people are born good and strive to achieve their potential.

ROGER'S VIEWPOINT:

Believed that people were born with a huge potential for growth, and that genuineness, acceptance and empathy are needed for this growth. These come from an unconditional positive regard such as a parent's love, and there should be a good connection between ideal self (the person we want to be) and true self (the person we are). Agreed with Maslow – adding that in order for a person to reach their full potential, they must be in an environment that fosters genuineness, acceptance, and empathy.

THE FULLY FUNCTIONING PERSON:

It is suggested that there are 5 characteristics of the fully functioning person:

- Openness to experience: both positive and negative emotions are experienced. Negative emotions are not denied but worked through.
- Existential living: the person is in touch with different experiences as they work through life, avoiding prejudices and preconceptions. Being able to live and fully appreciate the present, not always looking back into the past or future.
- Trust feelings: feelings, instincts or gut reactions are given attention too and trusted. Peoples own decisions are the right ones, and we should trust ourselves to make decisions.
- Creativity: creative thinking and risk-taking feature in a person's life. A person does not play safe all the time. This involves the ability to change, adjust and seek new experiences.
- Fulfilled life: a happy person who is satisfied with life will always look for new experiences.

MASLOW (1943)

Abraham Maslow developed the theory of motivation, and hierarchy of needs – from needs that are basic for survival, to needs that guide behaviour only once has fulfilled needs lower down. Suggested that we work through the levels towards self-actualisation.

The suggested needs are as follows:

1. Physiological needs: hunger and thirst.
2. Safety needs: feeling safe and secure.
3. Love and belonging needs: feeling wanted and accepted.
4. Esteem needs: need for self-esteem, achievement, independence.
5. Self-actualisation needs needing to live up to one's potential.
6. Transcendence needs: helping others to live up to their potential.

MASLOW'S METHODOLOGY:

Maslow examined people who he felt achieved their full potential and looked at the similarities between them.

- Displayed openness, self-awareness, were secure in who they are, enjoyed deep relationships, and tackled problems without worrying about others' opinions.

The idea of self-concept is central to Roger's theory:

- Self-concept is the organised, consistent perceptions about oneself (McLeod, 2014). It consists of three narrower concepts:
    - Self-worth: what we think of ourselves.
    - Self-image: how we see ourselves.
    - Ideal self: who we want to be.
- These are influenced by our experiences and our own interpretations of them, which are sequentially influenced by childhood and the influence of others.

POSTITIVE REGARD AND SELF-WORTH:

Rogers believed that children have 2 basic needs:

- Positive regard: we need to feel valued, respected, treated with affection and love. Conditional positive regard includes praise and approval, unconditional positive regard involves loving a person for who they are.
- Self-worth: self-worth is developed early on based on interactions with caregivers and significant people. High self-worth results in confidence and positive feeling about oneself. Low self-worth results in a lack of confidence, being guarded with others, and avoiding challenged with life.

THE Q SORT:

Ideal self, versus actual self:

A self-report is needed to measure humanistic personality theory.

- Single statements are written on a series of cards, the client is asked to arrange the cards twice once with how they see themselves, once with how they would like to be. A well-adjusted personality will arrange the cards in a similar way both times.

SOCIAL COGNITIVE APPROACH:

Social cognitive theory provides an alternative to psychodynamic and behaviourist theories to explain human behaviour. Main theorists include Bandura and Mischel. Personality does not determine behaviour, it influences it. Internal demands (beliefs, thoughts, and expectations), interact with external determinants (rewards and punishments), to produce behaviour. Social cognitive theory was developed to explain why some people act certain ways in some situations, but not in others.

Bandura: emphasises cognitive processes such as thinking and judging in the development of personality. These cognitive processes contribute to learned behaviours that are central to one's behaviours. By observing an admired role, an individual may choose to adapt and emphasis traits and behaviours. Traditionally, behaviourists focused solely on the impact of the environment – Bandura suggested our choices can exert change onto the situation also.

The chief concept of this theory is reciprocal determinism: the factors are consistently affecting each other.

- Personal factors: cognition, emotional goals, biological events (puberty, illness).
- Behaviour: skills and actions that may be rewarded or punished.
- External environment: physical surroundings and social presence.

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY:

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY:

Social psychology is defined as the understanding of a person's behaviour in a social context, or when they are influenced by others. Focus is placed on the social context, or social situations. Examination of how behaviour is influenced by the presence of others, and the circumstances in which different feelings, and behaviours, occur.

Social psychology additionally attempts to explore whether our behaviours in certain situations are the result of our own personality or tendencies due to our social or situational factors

Social psychology can be used to describe, explain, and optimise areas such as health behaviour, understanding of terrorist activities, anti-social behaviour and terrorist behaviour, stereotypes, and prejudice.

SOCIAL FACILITATION:

Triplett: observed the performance of cyclists riding against the clock, compared with cyclists riding against others, and adolescents reeling in a line alone compared to in competitions with others. Triplett coined the term, social facilitation.

Social facilitation: when the presence of others improves an individual's performance. There are two suggested types of social facilitation:

- Co-Action Effects: When performance increases with the presence of others doing the same task.
- Audience Effects: When the presence of an audience increases performance in a task – evidence: Dashiell (1935), multiplication tasks.

SOCIAL INHIBITION

Social inhibition occurs when the presence of others reduces the performance of a task.

- Audience effects: when the presence of an audience inhibits performance, especially when the performance is being evaluated by the audience.

Yerkes and Dodson (1908): performance is best under conditions of moderate arousal but can be hindered under conditions of under or over arousal. The type of task can impact the level of arousal needed for peak performance.

- Simple or well-learned tasks: higher levels of arousal are better.
- Difficult, more complex, or new tasks: low levels of arousal are best.

OTHER'S INFLUENCING HELPING BEHAVIOUR:

Darley and Latane (1968) – tested participants willingness to seek assistance for others. Two conditions to their investigation - taking part in a discussion via microphone either believing that they were in a discussion with one other person, or they were in a discussion with a group of people.

- The confederate told participants they were epileptic and then began to make strange noises.
- The percentage of people who sought help depended on whom they believed they were in a discussion with:
    - 85% when they believed they and the other person were the only present.
    - 65% when they believed they were in a group of people. 31% went quickly.

THE BYSTANDER EFFECT – DARLEY AND LATANE:

Darley and Latane (1968): research suggested that the more people present during an emergency or situation, the less likely an individual is to take action or provide assistance to others. This phenomenon is believed to be due to diffusion of responsibility – when the responsibility to give attention or assistance is dispersed among the number of people present.

- If you are the only one present, you are more likely to help.
- If many other people are present, your responsibility is assumed to be reduced – "others will help, so I don't need to."

SOCIAL INFLUENCE:

We often change our behaviour in response to others, and the influence of others is stronger if we identify them (Platow et al, 2005).

PEER PRESSURE:

Peers are those who we consider on equal terms to ours (similar age, status, interests). Peers have a high influence on our behaviour.

Peer Pressure: occurs when our peers influence us to think, feel or behave in a certain way. Peer pressure is more influential when a group member feels they have less power or standing than others, often to gain power or standing (approval from peers).

GROUP POLARISATION:

When we are members of a group of people who hold similar beliefs to us, our beliefs, values, ideas, and our opinions can be strengthened by group discussion. This is especially true when there is no conversation moderator present.

This helps us to understand the behaviour of extreme views – extremists, supremacists, etc.

Myers and Bishop (1970): examined students discussion of racial issues.

- They found that when students low in prejudice talked about racial issues, group members became more accepting.
- Found that when students high in prejudice talked about racial issues, the group became more prejudiced.

CONFORMITY:

Conformity: when we change our behaviours or beliefs as a result of peer pressure, we are conforming to a group. Conformity is a type of social influence defined as a change in belief or behaviour in response to a real or imagined social pressure. Our behaviours and beliefs are changed to fit a group to be liked, to be correct, or to be true to a social role. Group pressure may be real (actual presence of others) or imagined (social norms).

There are three types of conformity:

- Compliance – when we conform to receive rewards or avoid punishments. For example – conforming with the norms of a friendship group to avoid being outcasted.
- Internalisation –
- Identification –

Why People Conform: Conformity allows us to predict the behaviour of others.

Normative Influence: allows the socialisation of a group, social and cultural norms – how we learn what is appropriate and what is not. Helps us navigate unfamiliar situations or people by using the cues that exist around us (informative social influence or informative influence).

Factors that Influence Conformity: SEE ASCH – LINE EXPERIMENT

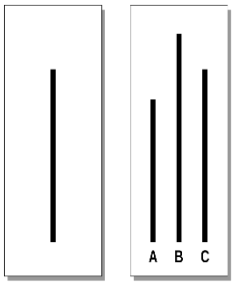
- Group size: conformity increases with group size up to a group of four, after this, size has little influence.
- The presence of an ally: when others in the group are unanimous about their opinions – if one person disagrees, conformity decreases.
- Cultural background: conformity is at its highest in collectivist cultures rather than individualist cultures (Bond and Smith, 1996).
- Task difficulty: the harder the task, the more likely conformity is.
- Answering in public VS private: conformity decreases when we are allowed to answer in private – no pressure, no fear of rejection.

ASCH – THE LINE EXPERIEMENT, 1951:

Aim: to investigate the extent in which social pressure from a majority group could affect a person to conform.

Participants: 50 male students from Swarthmore College, USA.

Procedure: participants were placed in a room with 7 confederates and asked to complete a line judgement task. Participants were presented with an image and asked which of the three lines on the second card were equal to the one on the third card. Participants were asked to state their choice aloud. 18 trials were conducted. In the first few trials, confederates answered correctly, and participants agreed, after the first few, confederates had predetermined incorrect responses.



Results: 75% of participants agreed with the participants and answered incorrectly in at least one trial. 50% agreed with the incorrect responses in 6 or more trials, 25% did not agree and gave the correct response.

OBEDIENCE:

Obedience is a form of social influence where an individual acts in response to a direct order from another individual (who is usually an authority figure). Occurs when you are told to do something (authority), whereas conformity happens through social pressure (the norms of the majority).

Involves a hierarchy of power/status – whereby the person giving the order has the higher status than the person receiving the order.

MILGRAM – MILGRAM'S SHOCK EXPERIMENT, 1974:

Milgram (1974) – "The Nazi extermination of European Jews is the most extreme instance of abhorrent immoral acts carried out in the name of obedience".

Set up a simple experiment at Yale University, advertised through the newspaper. Participants thought their memory and learning were being studied. Participants arrive in pairs and are given paperwork to fill out. One of them is a designated learner, the other is a teacher (the learners are confederates, and the confederate is always a learner – the actual participant is always given the teacher role).

The experimenter explains that the study is concerned with the effects of punishment on learning. The learner is taken to a room, seated in a chair, and his arms are strapped to prevent excessive movement – and an electrode is attached to his wrist. The teacher is given a small jolt at this point – to show that the punishment is real, and the shock machine is working. They are asked to guess the shock voltage they are given – this gives them a sense of what the learner will experience. The learner is told that he is to learn a list of word pairs; whenever he makes an error, he will receive electric shocks of increasing intensity.

The real focus of this experiment is the teacher. After watching the learner be strapped in place, he is taken to the main experimental room and seated before an impressive shock generator. The teacher is told he has to administer the learning test to the man in the other room. When the learner responds correctly, the teacher moves onto the next item. When the learner responds incorrectly, the teacher is to shock him. The teacher is told to start at the lowest shock level and increase the voltage each time the learner makes an error. Each switch is clearly labelled with the respective voltage (slight shock, moderate shock, intense shock, extreme intensity shock, dangerously severe shock, XXX). The teacher is a genuine, naïve subject, who has volunteered to participant.

The learner is a trained actor, who never actually receives any shock. The goal of the experiment is to see how far a person will proceed in a concrete and measurable situation in which he is ordered to inflict increasing pain on a protesting victim. Research question: at what point will the teacher refuse to obey?

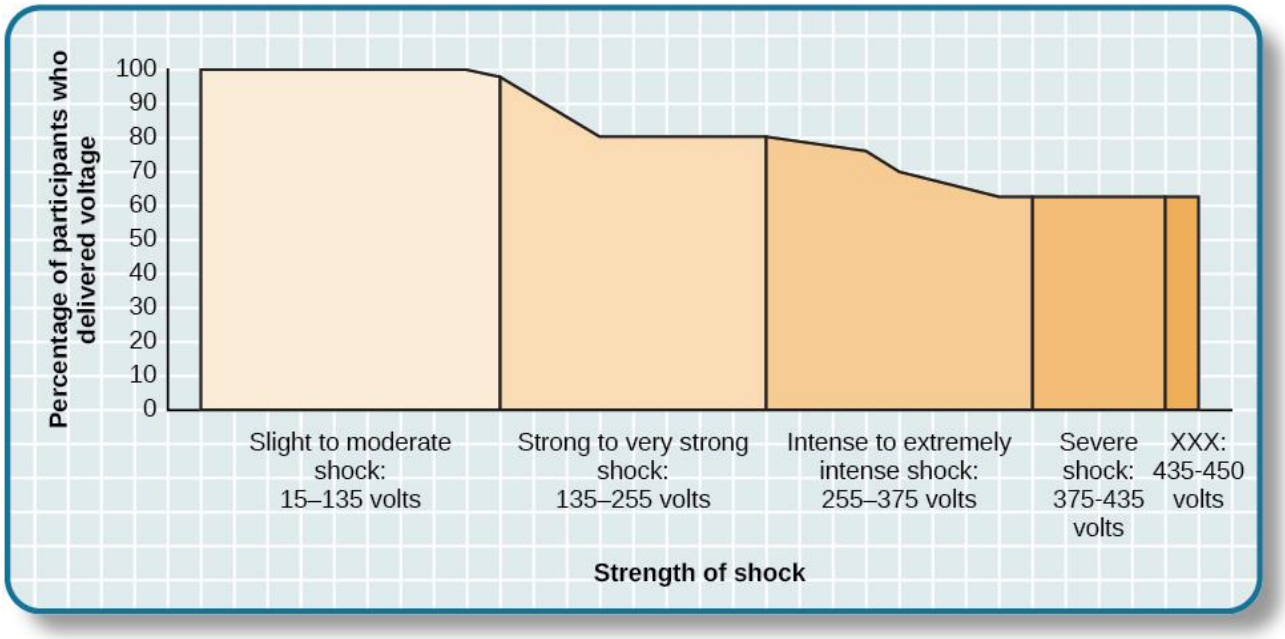
Throughout the experiment, the learner or 'victim' starts to scream in pain and protests to not continue. At various points in the experiment, the subject (teacher) would turn to the experimenter and question whether or not he should continue. The experimenter responded with a sequence of prods, using as many as necessary to get the subject to continue. This series of prods would be used whenever the teacher stopped:

- "Please continue…"
- "The experiment requires that you continue…"
- "It is absolutely essential that you go on…. "
- "You have no other choice; you must go on…"

The vocal response of the victim was taped and coordinated to the specific voltage level on the shock generator. The victim indicated no discomfort until the 75-volt shock rate, at which the victim gives a grunt.

From 150 volts and onward the victim insisted they are let out.

From 330 volts and onwards, the victim was not heard from.



The Shock Experiment and Ethics:

- Deception: breach required for accurate results.
- Informed consent: breach required for accurate results.
- Beneficence: unaddressed regarding psychological harm.
- The right to withdraw: required for accurate results, can be included to a specific extent.

- Debriefing: correctly addressed, paired with additional post check-ins with participants.

AGENCY THEORY:

An agentic state is a state in which a person will allow other people to direct their behaviours and pass responsibility for all of the consequences and behaviours of the person telling them what to do.

People are in an autonomous state when they direct their own actions and are taking responsibility for their actions.

They move into the agentic state when they pass this responsibility to the authority figure.

The shift from an autonomous state to an agentic state is called agentic shift.

During the Milgram experiment, agentic shift can be observed: from the teacher to the administrator insisting they continue.

Milgram suggests two things must be in place for a person to shift states:

- The person giving the orders is perceived as being qualified to direct other people's behaviour. That is, they are seen as legitimate.
- The person being ordered perceives that authority will accept the responsibility of what happens.

ZIMBARDO – STANFORD PRISON EXPERIMENT, 1973.

The experiment was driven by whether the brutality reported among guards in American prisons was due to sadistic (dispositional variables) personalities or had more to do with the prison environment (situational variables).

Aim: to examine how readily people conform to a prisoner or prison guard role in a simulated prison.

Participants: 24 male college students who were chosen from 75 applicants who volunteered for the experiment (based on interviews and personality tests for suitability). They were paid $15 per day.

The procedure:

- Participants were randomly assigned the prisoner or prison guard roles (10 prisoners, 11 guards due to withdrawal). Prisoners were arrested by police officers, taken to the police station, fingerprinted, searched, and taken to a simulated prison set up in a basement of Stanford University. On arrival, prisoners were stripped naked, deloused, and removed of their possessions. They were allocated cells and given bedding to take with them.
- Prisoners were given a uniform and a prisoner number used in place of their real name. Prisoners were chained around one ankle. Prisoners were housed three in a room in the cells.
- Guards were given uniforms, a whistle, and a baton. They wore sunglasses to make eye contact with the prisoners impossible. Prison guards worked alternating shifts, three guards per shift. 8-hour shifts, the other guards remained on call. Guards were instructed to do what was necessary to keep the peace in order within the prison, but they were not permitted to use violence.
- Prisoners could also be placed in a solitary confinement cell for 'misbehaviour'.
- Zimbardo acted as the prison warden and observed the participants.
- Guards began to assert their dominance in the prison very early into the experiment. Guards would wake prisoners up for 'counts' at all hours and appeared to use this as a form of control over the prisoners.
- Prison rules were taken very seriously. Prisoners adopted the prisoner role. Prisoners were dehumanised and subjected to physical punishment.
- On day 2, the prisoners rebelled. As a result, prisoners' beds were removed, and they were stripped naked, and the ring leaders placed in solitary confinement

Results of the experiment: Guards created a privileged cell for well-behaved prisoners. As prisoners became more submissive, guards became more aggressive and assertive. Prisoner 8612 – suffered a mental disturbance – he was released from the experiment. The experiment was meant to last 14 days but was terminated on the 6th day.

Post Study Interviews: Prisoners expressed disbelief at their submissiveness and when asked about the guards, they described the usual three stereotypes that can be found in any prison: some were good, some were tough but fair, and some where cruel. Guards reported disbelief for their brutalising behaviour.

The Stanford Prison Experiment supports situational explanations for behaviour rather than dispositional influences. The experiment revealed how people will readily conform to the social roles they are expected to play, especially if the roles are as strongly stereotyped as those of the prison guards. The experiment also provides evidence for:

- Deindividualization (displayed by guards): occurs when people act differently when they are a part of a group, often in antisocial or impulsive ways. This is a state in which you become so immersed in the norms of your group that you lose your sense of identity or personal responsibility. While certain factors, such as anonymity (the sunglasses) and a lowered sense of responsibility can promote deindividualization, an increased sense of self-awareness can serve to promote deindividualization.
- Learned helplessness (displayed by prisoners): occurs when an animal is repeatedly subjected to a subversive stimulus in which it cannot escape from. Eventually, the animal will stop trying to avoid the stimulus and behave as if it is utterly helpless to avoid the situation. Even when opportunities to escape are presented, this learned helplessness will prevent any action. In the prison experiment, prisoners learned that their actions had little effect on what happened to them. In the mock prison, the unpredictable behaviour of the guards leads the prisoners to give up responding.

This experiment has also been revisited several times in recent years to help to understand maltreatment of prisoners in places such as Guantanamo Bay and Abu Graibe Prison.

Zimbardo Evaluation:

- All male sample – cannot be generalised.
- "Demand characteristics could explain the findings of this study. Most of the guards later claimed they were simply acting".
- Although the experiment prisoner conversations between guards were about prison experiments, about 10% were about life outside the prison. They introduced themselves as their prison number, not their name.
- Guards rarely exchanged personal information during their breaks – discussed 'problem prisoners', other prison topics or did not talk at all. The guards were always on time, and even worked overtime with no additional pay.
- Because the guards and prisoners were playing a role, their behaviour may not be influenced by the same factors which affect behaviour in real life.
    - This means that the study's findings cannot be generalised into real life, such as prison setting (ie. This study has low ecological validity).

ETHICS:

- Informed consent – it was not known what would happen in the study so participants could not be informed.
- Participants did not consent to being arrested at home.
- Beneficence: the participants were not protected from harm.
- Debriefing: interviews and group discussions were conducted.
- All participants returned post-experimental questionnaires several weeks, and then several months later, and then at yearly intervals.
- No long – lasting effects were recorded by Zimbardo

The role of the experimenter: Zimbardo took the role of superintendent and overlooked the abusive behaviours of the jail guards until undergraduate student, Christiana Maslach, voiced objections to the conditions in the stimulated prison and the morality of continuing the experiment.

ATTRIBUTION THEORY - HEIDER (1958)

Attribution is the process of inferring the causes of events or behaviours. Attribution theory is used to explain why we believe people do things the way they do, or meaning we attach to other people's behaviour and our own inferences about behaviour.

Heider suggested that people were naïve psychologists/scientists: We use evidence to explain others' behaviour. We try to understand behaviour by piecing together information to arrive at a conclusion.

Heider: theorised two contributions to behaviour –

- Internal causes of behaviour: if we infer a person's behaviour is the result of their thoughts, attitudes, or traits/personality, then we are making inferences based on internal or dispositional attributions.
- External causes of behaviour: if we infer a person's behaviour is due to pressure or threats from others, then we are making inferences based on external or situational attributions.

FUNDAMENTAL ATTRIBUTION ERROR - JONES AND HARRIS (1967):

Most people tend to focus on an individual's disposition or personality traits when trying to explain their behaviour, rather than focussing on situational or external factors. This tendency is known as the fundamental attribution error.

Supported by research from Jones and Harris (1967):

- Participants read a short piece of writing from a speech or essay on a controversial topic, that was written by another person.
- The piece of writing either supported or opposed the topic, and participants were told that writers were allocated a position to write about.
- They were then asked to judge that person's true attitude.
- The participants inferred that the writer's attitude was the same as their piece of writing.
- Participants focused on dispositional aspects (personal attitudes), rather than situational aspects (being assigned a position to write from).

ATTRIBUTIONS REGARDING OUR OWN BEHAVIOUR:

Can be both dispositional and situational.

- Tendency to make attributions to protect or serve our self-esteem.

Self-serving bias (De Michelle et al., 1998):

- The tendency to preserve facts in order to preserve self-esteem or see ourselves in a favourable light. This occurs particularly when our behaviour is poor or causes discomfort. "I did it because I felt pressured" – situational rather than dispositional.

ATTRIBUTION OF HOSTILE INTENT – CRICK AND DODGE (1994):

Examined reactive aggression (response to provocation or frustration) and proactive aggression (deliberate act, to achieve a desired goal).

Reactive aggression was the result of an attribution bias known as the attribution of hostile intent – the interpretation of a situation or an act as hostile when no hostility is present.

    - Examined reactive aggression (response to provocation or frustration) and proactive aggression (deliberate act, to achieve a desired goal).

KELLY'S COVARIATIONAL MODEL:

A logistical model for judging whether a particular action should be attributed to some characteristic (internal) of the person or the environment (external) and why this happened.

Covariational: people use multiple perspectives to judge behaviour.

- Person (consensus) – do all people do it?
- Time (consistency) – does this person do it all the time?
- Entities (distinctiveness) – does this person react to all things like this?

People make correlations between events and factors – assumption is made that two things go together.

- For example – crying when you are hurt.

Kelly's General Model of Attribution:

• ANTICENDENTS →	• ATTRIBUTIONS →	• CONSEQUENCES
• Information • Beliefs • Motivation	• Perceived causes	• Behaviour • Affect • Expectancy

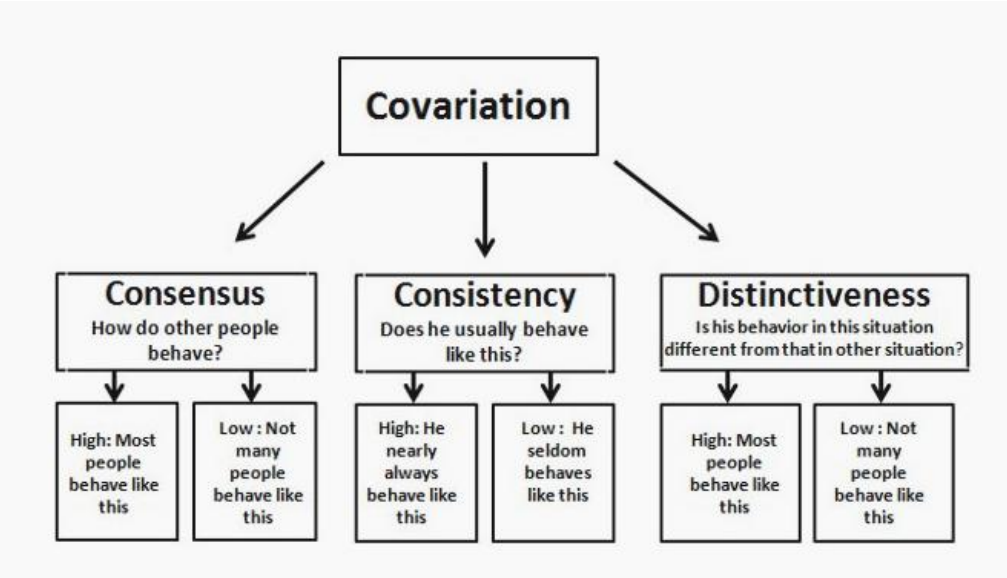
For example, failing a psychology exam:

- Antecedents- attribution link:
  - Person factors:
    - Did not study
    - Does not like psychology
    - Worked very late the night before
    - Very stressed out
  - Time factors:
    - How did you perform on the exam last year?
    - How did you perform in past assessments?
  - Situational factors:
    - This was a difficult exam
    - The exam was not well organised
    - If you studied well, were calm and usually do well in your assessments and exams then your failure may be due to situational factors – the exam was harder than usual
  - Attributions – consequences link:
    - If you failed the exam, would it impact your grade a lot?
    - Are you doing 6 ATAR and doing well in the other 5?
    - Were you invested in your success? Did you care?
    - Were you motivated to pass?
    - If you're doing well in your other subjects and are not planning to use psychology in your ATAR score, perhaps you weren't motivated to do well and did not plan to pass your exam – you failed because you did not put in any effort.

Evidence considered when we determine attributions:

- Example: attributing laughing at a comedian – the comedian is funny.
  - Consensus: do other people behave the same way in a similar situation (is everyone laughing at the comedian or is it just me).
    - High consensus: everyone is laughing at the comedian.
    - Low consensus: X is the only person laughing at the comedian.
  - Consistency: does this person always behave in the same way in similar situations (do I always laugh at things this comedian says or is it just one time).

        - High consistency: X always laughs at this comedian.
        - Low consistency: X rarely laughs at this comedian.
    - Distinctiveness: does this person behave like this every time the situations occurs (does someone laugh at comedians or everything).
        - High distinctiveness: X only really laughs at comedians.
        - Low distinctiveness: X laughs at everything.



- External Attribution: everyone laughs at this comedian, but not others. This comedian gets consistent laughs.
    - High consensus, high consistence, high distinctiveness = stimulus attribution = this comedian is funny.
    - Low/high consensus, low/high distinctiveness, low consistency = circumstance attribution = this comedian was funny at the comedy club that night.
- Internal attribution: not everyone laughs at the comedian, the comedian does not get regular laughs from the audience. X laughs at all comedians.
    - X is laughing because the like to laugh.
    - Low consensus, low distinctiveness, high consistency = personal attribution.
- What happens if we don't have enough information about someone?
    - Kelly states that we will use our past experiences to help make attributions – schema.
    - Multiple necessary causes: both A and B are necessary to produce a given effect.
        - For example:
            - A student did well on their test.
            - We attribute this to the completion of all the notebook activities (cause A), and the completion of their revision booklet (cause B), both are necessary to achieve 100%.
    - Multiple sufficient causes: either cause A or cause B suffice in producing a given effect.
        - For example:
            - A student cheats on a test, why?
            - Maybe they didn't study (cause A), or maybe they wanted to get 100% (cause B), both are sufficient explanations.

EVALUATIONS OF KELLY:

Applications: Has been used in a clinical setting to treat patients with depression by educating them on their attributions during specific events. Used in educational psychology to teach students how to attribute their grades. Used in sport psychology to help teams understand how they attribute their success and failures in the field in order to improve.

Limitations: Does not explain how stereotypes work to filter the information we pay attention to when paying attention to behaviour. Does not outline why some of us use a comprehensive approach considering all evidence where others are more simplistic.

COGNITIVE DISONANCE -FESTINGER (1957):

Explores the relationship between our cognition (beliefs and attitudes) and our behaviour. Festinger focused on the discomfort or tension people feel when their thoughts are in conflict with their actions, or two beliefs held are incompatible. Termed 'cognitive dissonance'.

Defined cognitive dissonance as the feeling of tension we feel when we hold conflicting views or opinions.

REDUCING COGNITIVE DISONANCE:

Cognitive dissonance causes psychological stress. People tend to seek consistency in their beliefs and perceptions – internal consistency. In order to reduce the tension something has to change (thoughts or behaviour) to create consistency and harmony. We try to resolve the consistency either consciously or unconsciously.

- Example – a smoker questioning the validity of research linking smoking and cancer (belief) or will buy some nicotine patch and try and quit (behaviour).

Three key strategies to reduce cognitive dissonance:

- Focus on more supportive beliefs that outweigh the dissonant belief or behaviour.
- Reduce the importance of conflicting belief by adding more harmonious belief.
- Change the conflicting beliefs so that it is consistent with other beliefs or behaviours.

FACTORS INFLUENCING DISONANCE:

The strength of dissonance can depend on several factors:

- Cognitions that are more personal tend to result in greater dissonance.
- The importance of the cognitions – beliefs that are highly valued will result in greater dissonance.
- The ratio between dissonant and consonant (harmonious) beliefs impact the level of dissonance.
    - The greatest dissonance is created when two alternatives are equally attractive.
    - The greater the strength of the dissonance, the more pressure there is to remove the feelings of discomfort.

COGNITIVE DISONANCE AND COVID19 – WAIT (2021):

Currently many governments are using scare tactics to get people to comply with COVID health behaviours and get the vaccine. However, this is not a long-term solution. A more effective approach would be to change people's attitudes so that they are internally motivated to cooperate with anti-Covid 19 measures – suggestion from Wait, 2021.

- Gave participants a "writing assignment that was to invoke cognitive dissonance: if an individual's behaviour goes against their values, the feel dissonance, which puts pressure on them to change either their values of behaviours to that they align."
- Found that participants attitudes toward COVID health measures became more positive.
- Underlies a persons' willingness to admit mistakes and accept scientific finding.

- For example – a person is reluctant to wear a mask or practice social distancing.
  - *Even though scientists have found the actions to be effective in slowing the spread of Covid-19, the cognition, "I don't want to wear a mask" is dissonate with information that suggests not doing so may be dangerous.*
  - *As people justify each step taken after the original decision, they will find it harder to admit they were wrong at the outset. Especially when the end result appears self-defeating or harmful.*
  - *Rather than admitting they were wrong, they would rather risk their health.*

COMMUNITY, CULTURES AND VALUES

COMMUNITY:

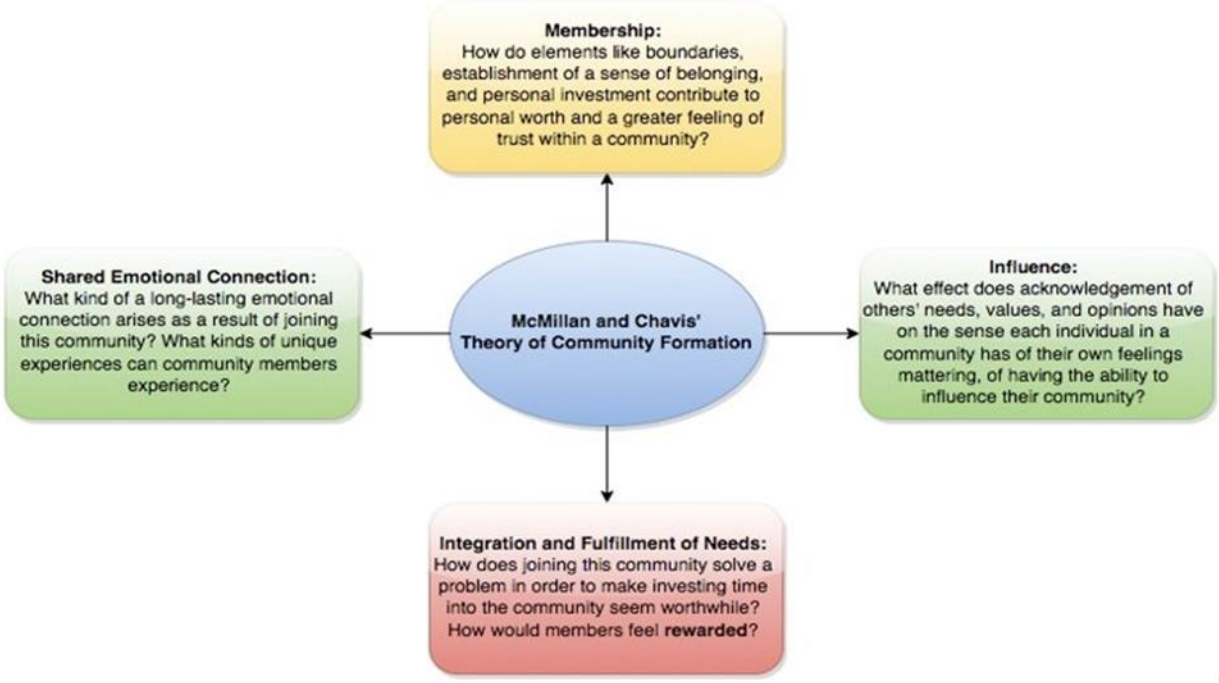
A group of people living in the same place or having a particular characteristic in common. The condition of sharing or having certain attitudes and interests in common. A social group of any size whose members reside in a specific loyalty, shared government, and often have common cultural and historic heritage, eg. Schools, churches, sporting clubs, towns.

4-POINT MODEL OF COMMUNITY SENSE - MCMILLAN AND CHAVIS (1986):

Proposed a model consisting of four criteria in order to feel a sense of community:

- MEMBERSHIP: 5 characteristics that make up membership.
    - Boundaries – who belongs and who does not. Can be obvious, can be subtle.
    - Emotional safety – can we trust them.
    - A common symbol system – recognisable by styles of dress, language, rituals, slang, or professional discourse.
    - A sense of belonging or identification.
    - Personal investment.
- INFLUENCE:
    - McMillan and Chavis suggested that people are more attracted to communities where they have influence within (the feeling of matter to others).
        - Influence comes as a result of acknowledging the opinions of others and being sensitive to their needs rather than being dominating.
    - Membership to the group also requires an individual to be prepared to conform to the group norms rather than ignoring the wishes and ideals of the group.
        - Therefore, influence is bi-directional – people are attracted to groups where they might have influence, but also need to be prepared to conform.
- FULFILMENT OF NEEDS:
    - Membership to a group must be rewarding – "what does joining give me?"
    - Success as a group can bring members closer - it relies upon members knowledge of each other, strengths, and weaknesses. Requires organisation and task delegation needs to compliment known strengths and weaknesses.
    - Competition between members hinders success.
    - Hold shared values and allow members to be true to themselves.
- SHARED EMOTIONAL CONNECTION:
    - A sense of community is created through long-standing connections to others as a result of a shared emotional response to an event or activity.

Communities create a history from interactions that are of mutual importance.



STRESS:

An involuntary physical response. Autonomic nervous system – sympathetic nervous system. Initiates fight or flight response:

1. Amygdala responds to stress
2. The hypothalamus activates the sympathetic nervous system.
3. The adrenal cortex releases cortisol for continued alertness.
    - Physical symptoms include the dilation of the pupils, increased heart rate, increased breath rate, dry mouth, sweating of the palms, tense muscles, slow digestion.

- Cortisol – hormone produced by adrenal glands.
    - Regulated body processes and helps the body respond to stress by increasing alertness and energy.

Beneficial in the short term, however ongoing stress can impact wellbeing.

STRESSFUL EVENTS:

Three main factors in which contribute to an event as being stressful:

- Predictability (Katz and Wykes, 1985): unpredictable events are more stressful than those that are predictable. Unpredictable events tend to have longer lasting impacts. Examples include car accident, armed hold up, extreme weather (although sometimes predictable).
- Controllability (Geer and Maisel, 1972): the extent to which we feel we have control over the situation impacts our stress. Situations in which we feel we have more control over will be considered less stressful than those in which we have no control. For example, you have more control over your safety in a cyclone as opposed to a terrorist attack.
- Experience of threat or loss: we find events where we experience threat or loss more stressful than those in which no loss or stress is experienced/perceived.

STRESS VERSUS TRAUMA: POST TRAUMATIC STRESS DISORDER

Stress is the reaction to life events that are stressful, whereas trauma is the disturbing or distressing psychologically.

- Physical injury or damage
- Threatening to life or safety
- Can be a single event, or an ongoing repetitive event.

Traumatic events are always stressful, but stress is not always traumatic. Stressors may not cause harm, whereas trauma will cause harm.

- It is common for people to experience a strong reaction to trauma; this can involve cognitive, physical, and emotional responses.
    - Physical: disturbed sleep, restlessness, nightmares, exhaustion, headaches.
    - Cognitive: poor concentration, disturbances to attention and memory, flashbacks, intrusive thoughts, disorientation.
    - Emotional: fear, avoidance, anxiety and panic, depression, guilt, withdrawal, fearfulness.

Young people and trauma: young people may react to trauma with regression. For example, bed wetting, thumb sucking, fear of the dark – trust issues may also arise, particularly with the adult who has failed to protect them.

RESILIENCE / THE HARDY QUALITIES – KOBASA (1979):

Responses to stressful events are not always negative.

Hardy qualities found by Kobasa (1979) are similar to those used to describe resilience. Resilience is the ability to remain positive in the face of adversity or difficulty. It is also described as the ability to 'bounce back' after a traumatic event. Characterised by qualities such as the capacity to make the most out of small windows of opportunity, having a deep-rooted faith in a system of meaning, having a healthy social support network, having a wide comfort zone. Studies suggest that resilience is something that we can develop with training – facing challenges with the support of others, allows a learned response to develop. Examples of these programs in Australia are Kidsmatter, MindMatters, The Resilience Project.

COMMUNITY COMPETENCE - (POOLEY, 2006; POOLEY J, COHEN, L, & O'CONNOR, M, 2010):

Five factors are important to promote a positive community response to negative events.

- Sense of community
- Social support and social networks
- Self-efficacy
- Coping
- Community competence.

What makes a competent community and what do they promote?

- Competent communities can identify the needs and issues within the community and work cooperatively to achieve goals and carry out plans.
- Competent communities promote resilience in times of adversity, self-efficacy among its members, social networks, feelings of connections and attachments to the community.

The National Strategy for Disaster Resilience (NEMC, 2009) includes the following, four core features in a resilient community:

- Functioning well under stress.
- Successful adaptation.

- Self-reliance.
- Social capacity.

Therefore, a resilient community is one whose members are connected to one another and work together in ways that enable it to function in the face of stress and trauma. That has the ability to adapt to changes in the physical, social, or economic environment, and the potential to learn from experience and improve over time. Can be self-sufficient, at least for a time, if external assistance is limited or delayed.

- Yarloop fires: small community of 565 south of Perth. In 2016, a fire burned for 17 days and levelled the town.
- Burned more than 69000 hectares of land, and its perimeter was in excess of 392 kilometres. Destroyed 181 properties, including the beef and dairy areas of Harvey, and 2 people lost their lives.

POST-TRAUMATIC GROWTH: TEDESCHI AND CALHOUN:

A theory that explains positive transformations after trauma. Suggests that people who endure psychological struggle following adversity can often see positive growth afterwards.

PTG differs from resilience; occurs to someone who has difficulty bouncing back (low resilience), experiences a traumatic event that changes his or her core beliefs, endures psychological struggle (event a mental illness such as post-traumatic stress disorder). PTG occurs when they ultimately find a sense of personal growth. It's a process that takes a lot of time, energy, and struggle. It's not a direct result of trauma but rather related to how the individual struggles as a result of trauma.

Positive responses to negative events – Kobasa (1979):

- Research question: do personality differences account for differences in responses to stress.
- Participants: 600 executives and managers.
- Method: administered two questionnaires – personality and stressful events and illnesses in the past three years.
- Divided into two groups – above average for illness, below average for illness.
- The level of stress was high for both groups.
    - Compared to the high stress/high illness, the high stress/low illness group:
        - Saw change as a challenge
        - Felt more control over their lives
        - Had a sense of direction in their work life and personal life.
- Conclusions: high stress/low illness executives suggested to have a 'hardy personality' which reduced their likelihood of becoming ill. However, it could be that illness changed personality expression rather than being the result of a less 'hardy' personality.

Kobasa et al - 2 year follow up: supported previous findings, executives with a hardy personality were less likely to become ill.

To evaluate whether and to what extent someone has achieved growth after a trauma we can use PTGI – Post-Traumatic Growth Inventory *(Tedeschi and Calhoun 1996).

It looks for positive responses in five areas:

- Appreciation of life
- Relationship with or connection to others.
- New possibilities in life
- Personal strength, new strengths or skills identified (self-concept)
- Spiritual change or change in philosophy.

VULNERABLE GROUPS - ELLIOT AND PAIS, 2006:

Research conducted following hurricane Katrina (Elliot and Pais, 2006), identified that socially disadvantaged groups are more vulnerable than others.

- Elderly, African American, poor.

Australian research has shown that it is not always these groups that are most effected by disasters.

- Buckle (2001-2002): found elderly people coped better than younger people: Due to past experiences of research management and expectations of external help.
- Elder (1974) – Children of the Great Depression.
    - 167 from Oakland, ages 11-12, USA.
    - Followed over several years – 1953,54,57,58,1964.
    - Tests, questionnaires, and psychiatric assessment.
    - Studied the endured effects of the depression and found that:
        - For children who suffered deprivation during the depression, their achievement later in life was more dependent on their efforts and accomplishments outside of school, rather than in their schooling – this was not the case for children who did not experience deprivation.
        - Health as adults was negatively correlated with economic hardship – with those who experienced more hardships as children experiencing poorer health as adults.

Family values were more conservative and genuine, whereas wealthy families were less connected to family.

RESEARCH METHODS:

SYLLABUS RESEARCH TERMINOLOGY:

Experimental: the experimental method involves manipulating one variable to assess if changes in that variable cause changes in another variable.

Non – experimental: research that lacks manipulation of an independent variable.

Scientific: scientific research is a systematic investigation of scientific theories and hypotheses.

Non – scientific: non-scientific research is acquiring knowledge about the world using techniques that do not follow the scientific method.

Sample: an unbiased number of individuals taken from a population.

Population: a pool of individuals from which a sample is drawn from.

ETHICS IN PSYCHOLOGICAL RESEARCH:

Role of the experimenter: the experimenter's role is subjective to the study, however, universally is to behave in a standardized manner that will not affect experimental results. Experimenters should not affect the study and should have the relevant knowledge and qualifications to carry out the research.

Participants' rights – privacy: can be addressed by awareness of state and federal privacy policies, provide a system detecting and preventing participants from harm, use code names when recording or publishing data.

Anonymity: can be addressed by assuring all data collected is private, and if published, numerical or false identifications are utilised, ensuring no data can be linked back to a specific participant.

Confidentiality: " SEE ANONYMITITY "

Voluntary participation: participants must not be coerced into participation of an experiment. Knowledge of state and federal policy on blackmail.

Withdrawal rights: participants must be made aware that they are able to withdraw from the research sample at any point, and respect must be upheld if they choose to do so.

Informed consent procedures: the process by which experimenters describe their project and gain the participants consent to participate in research based on the subject's understandings of the project's methods and goals.

Deception in research: deception is the deliberate act of deceiving participants in order to obtain true data. Deception is a breach to the ethical code, particularly in emphasis of informed consent.

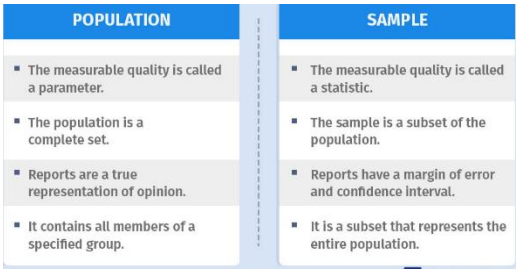
Professional conduct: professional conduct reflects the addressment and upholding of ethical procedures.

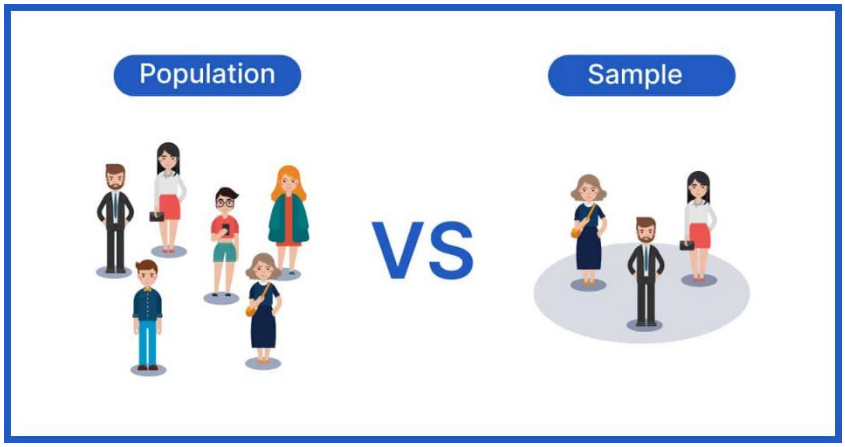
PRACTICAL ISSUES WITH PLANNING AND CONDUCTING RESEARCH:

Practical issues refer to time, money, and logistics. Sometimes the best experimental methods must be rejected as they are too costly, impractical, or too timely. The feasibility of the research method helps to determine whether or not the experiment can be carried out via that method. Eg – longitudinal studies are time costly, and impractical to carry out, however reap detailed results.

SAMPLE VS POPULATION DATA:

A population data set contains all the members of a specific group (the entire list of possible data values) – SEE RESEARCH TERMINOLOGY -, a sample data set contains a part, or subset of the population. The size of the sample is always less than the population from which it is taken.





FEATURES OF EXPERIMENTAL RESEARCH METHODS:

Independent variables: the independent variable is the variable that is being controlled and manipulated by the experimenter.

Dependent variables: the dependent variable is the variable that is being measured.

Operational hypothesis: a operational hypothesis worth full marks should include the predicted direction of research, population, tool used to measure results, and the population or sample being assessed.

Controlled variables: extraneous factors that could impact the experiment that the experimenter controls, however, does not always place particular emphasis on.

Uncontrolled variables: characteristic factors that are not regulated or measured by an experimenter in a study.

Experimental groups: the group of participants who are exposed to the independent variable.

Control groups: the group composed of participants who are not exposed to the independent variable.

Placebo effects: when a person excites a reaction after taking a placebo, or 'dummy'.

Experimenter effects: errors introduced during the collaboration of analysis of experimental data due to the behaviour of the experimenter.

Reliability: the consistence of a measure. There are four types of reliability:

- Test – retest: the same test over time to see if the same results arise.
- Interrater: the same test is conducted by different people to see is the same results arise.

- Parallel forms: different versions of the test which are designed to be equivalent reap the same results.
- Internal consistency: the individual items of a test produce the same result elsewhere.

Validity: how well as test measures what it claims to measure. There are four sections to validity:

- Construct validity: Does the test measure the concept that it's intended to measure?
- Content validity: Is the test fully representative of what it aims to measure?
- Face validity: Does the content of the test appear to be suitable to its aims?
- Criterion validity: Do the results correspond to a different test of the same thing?

Longitudinal designs: A longitudinal design is one that measures the characteristics of the same individuals on at least two, but ideally more, occasions over time. Its purpose is to directly address the study of individual change and variation.

Cross sectional designs: A cross-sectional study is a type of research design in which you collect data from many different individuals at a single point in time. In cross-sectional research, you observe variables without influencing them.

FEATURES OF NON-EXPERIMENTAL (DESCRIPTIVE) RESEARCH METHODS:

Case studies: A case study in psychology is a descriptive research approach used to obtain in-depth information about a person, group, or phenomenon. Case studies use techniques such as personal interviews, direct observation, psychometric tests, and archival records to gather information.

Surveys: A survey is a data collection tool used to gather information about individuals. Surveys are commonly used in psychology research to collect self-report data from study participants. The process involves asking people for information through a questionnaire, which can be either online or offline.

Correlational studies: A correlational research design investigates relationships between two variables (or more) without the researcher controlling or manipulating any of them. Limitations include that correlational studies won't determine which variables have the most influence, and only uncovers relationships, not the reason that they are occurring.

Archival research: a method of collecting data from sources that already exist.

Behaviour variables in correlational studies: Behavioural variables in correlational studies are thus often those that pre-exist and cannot be varied as an independent variable. The strength of the correlation (if that is calculated) describes the relationship, usually as strong, moderate, or weak.

QUALITATIVE METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION:

Advantages: subject materials can be evaluated with higher detail, causation and reasoning can be provided, gathered data has a predictive quality to it, qualitative data is based on human experience and interpretation.

Disadvantages: not a statistically presented form of data collection, relies upon the experience of the researcher, can create misleading conclusions, can be difficult to replicate results for reliability and validity.

- Case study
- One on one interviews
- Focus groups
- Record keeping

OBJECTIVE QUANITITIVE MEASURES IN REASEARCH – PHYSIOLOGICAL:

Physiological measurement involves the direct or indirect observation of variables attributable to normative functioning of systems and subsystems in the human body. ... Used correctly, physiological measurement can produce objective, reliable, and replicable results.

- Heart rate
- Galvanic skin response
- Breath rate
- Electrocardiograph
- Body temperature

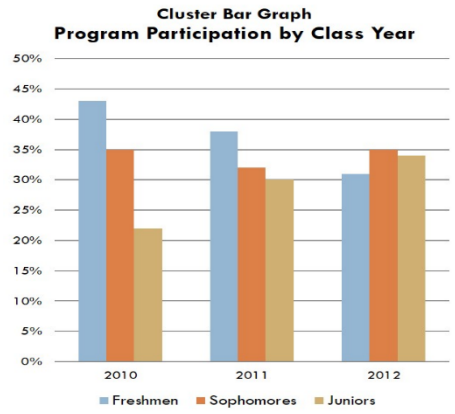
SUBJECTIVE MEASURES IN RESEARCH:

Subjective quantitative measures. Responses on checklists and rating scales. Questionnaires. Responses on checklists and rating scales. Self-reports where participants rate themselves from 1-10, doesn't use any factual evidence.

- Surveys
- Self-reports
- Questionnaires
- Checklist
- Likert scales

METHODS OF DISPLAYING QUANITIATIVE DATA:

- Charts
- Tables
- Graphs (histogram, stem and leaf, bar, time series)
- Maps



MEASURES OF CENTRAL TENDENCY:

Mean: the average of the scores (add all the scores together, and then divide by the number of scores).

Mode: the most frequently occurring score.

Median: the middle score (if an even number, add the two middle scores together, and then divide by 2).

MEASURES OF DISPERSION:

Normal curve: The normal distribution is a continuous probability distribution that is symmetrical on both sides of the mean – it is sometimes known as the bell curve.

Range: the difference between the larges and the smallest numbers, the range of the scores. The midrange is the difference between the average highest score and the average lowest score.

Variance: Variance tells you the degree of spread in your data set. The more spread the data, the larger the variance is in relation to the mean. The variance is a measure of variability. It is calculated by taking the average of squared deviations from the mean.

Standard deviation: A standard deviation is a statistic that measures the dispersion of a dataset relative to its mean and is calculated as the square root of the variance. If the data points are further from the mean, there is a higher deviation within the data set; thus, the more spread out the data, the higher the standard deviation. The process is as follows:

1. Calculate the mean of your data set.
2. Subtract that mean from each of the scores in your data set to determine the individual deviation of each score from the mean.
3. Square each of those individual deviations.
4. Sum all of the squared deviations.
5. Divide that sum by one less than the sample size (N–1)

ROLE OF PROBABILITY:

Probability refers to the likelihood of an event occurring. It can be expressed as a number (0.5) or a percentage (50%). Statistical tests allow psychologists to work out the probability that their results could have occurred by chance, and in general psychologists use a probability level of 0.05.

If something is > (greater) than 0.05 (5%) probability, it is likely that the results did not occur by chance and that the variables are related.

If something is < (less than) 0.05 (5%) probability, it is likely that the results occurred by chance and the variables may not actually have a relationship between them.

CORRELTION AND ESTABILISHING VARIABLE ASSOCIATION:

Correlation means association - more precisely it is a measure of the extent to which two variables are related. Therefore, when one variable increases as the other variable increases, or one variable decrease while the other decreases. An example of positive correlation would be height and weight. The stronger the correlation, the more association between the variables.

SOURCES OF ERROR:

Instrumental error: error that stems from the instruments used in research - can be avoided by using instruments of high precision and improving experimental techniques.

Environmental error: occurs when some factor in the environment, such as an uncommon event, leads to error. Environment error is difficult to avoid.

Procedural error: Procedural error occurs when different procedures are used to answer the same question and provide slightly different answers. If two people are rounding, and one rounds down and the other rounds up, this is procedural error. This can be avoided through effective communication and distinct guidelines to research.

Human error: error due to carelessness or lack of human ability. This can be avoided through training and correct qualifications, and limitation of access to sensitive systems or data.

THE CONCEPT OF STATISTICAL SIGNIGICANCE:

Statistical significance is the term used by research psychologists to indicate whether or not the difference between groups can be attributed to chance or if the difference is likely the result of experimental influences.

If something is > (greater) than 0.05 (5%) probability, it is statistically significant.

If something is < (less than) 0.05 (5%) probability, it is statistically insignificant.

EVALUATION OF WAYS OF IMPROVING RESEARCH:

Understand some of the methodological traditions within educational research that are relevant to practice settings. Understand some of the issues around collecting, analysing, and presenting information/data. Identify the most appropriate way(s) of disseminating your research findings.