UNIT THREE

Neurons are the basic units of the nervous system
- They Receive, integrate, and transmit information
- Operate through electrical impulses
- Communicate with other neurons through chemical signals (NT)

Central Nervous System (CNS) – brain and spinal cord
• Acts as the command centre of the nervous system
Brain:
• Cerebral cortex
• Cerebellum
• Brain stem
Spinal cord

Cerebral Cortex
• The outer surface of the cerebrum is the **cerebral cortex.**
• The cortex is divided into two halves known as cerebral hemispheres, the two hemispheres are connected by the **corpus callosum**
• The corpus callosum allows the two hemispheres to communicate between one another

The cerebral cortex is responsible for processes such as thinking, remembering, planning and analysing information.
Each hemisphere of the cerebral cortex is divided into four regions called lobes:
• Frontal
• Parietal
• Temporal
• Occipital
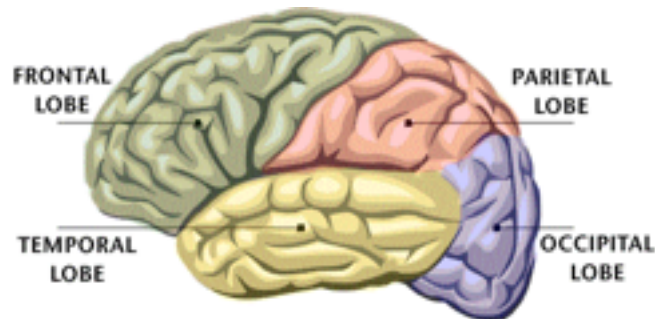
Frontal lobe
Assists in abstract thinking, speech production and personality aspects
• Contains the **primary motor cortex** which controls movements
Broca's Area
This brain area controls motor functions involved with speech production.
• If damaged: can understand language but cannot properly form words or produce speech.

Parietal Lobe
Contains the **primary somatosensory cortex** which processes sensations transmitted by sensory neurons
• This lobe processes information related to touch, pain & temperature,

Occipital Lobe
Contain the **primary visual cortex**, which is responsible for vision.
• This lobe also contains association areas that can help in the visual recognition of shapes and colours.

- Damage to this lobe can cause visual deficits.

Temporal lobes:
Contain the **primary auditory cortex** which is responsible for hearing.
- Allows us to understand language.
Wernicke's Area
It is responsible for the understanding of written and spoken language.
- If damaged: difficulty understanding spoken language but are able to produce sounds, phrases, and word sequences

Brain Stem
Consists of several structures, including:
- **Cerebellum** – plays a role in balance and coordination
- **Pons** – involved in arousal, sleep and dreaming
- **Medulla** – controls vital functions, such as breathing, heart rate and blood pressure

Spinal Cord
- Extends from the brain stem to the lower back
- Conveys information between the brain and the rest of the body
- Made up of sensory neurons which carry information toward the brain and motor neurons which carry motor commands from the brain to the body
- The spinal cord also consists of interneurons which connect sensory and motor neurons

Peripheral Nervous System (PNS) – nerves that extend from brain and spinal cord
- Communicates between the CNS and rest of the body

Sensory Neurons: Send information from sensory receptors towards the CNS
Interneurons: Send information between sensory and motor neurons
Motor Neurons: Send information away from the CNS to muscles or glands
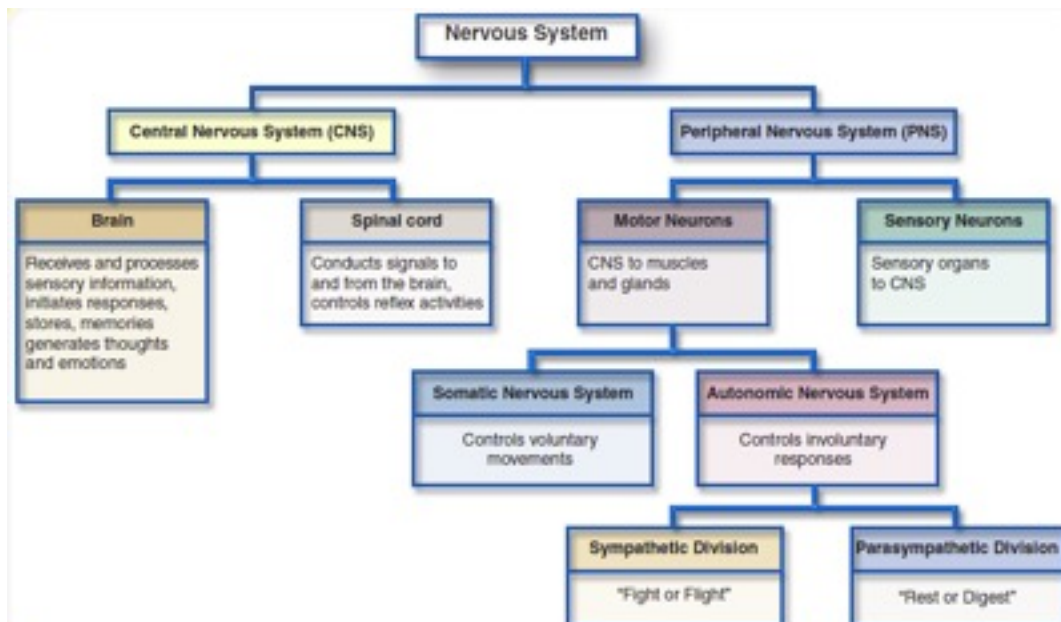
Two Subdivisions of **PNS**
Somatic Nervous System - allows us to consciously or voluntarily control our muscles

Autonomic Nervous System – regulates events that are automatic or involuntary
- **Sympathetic**- mobilises the body during extreme situations (stress, fight or flight)

- **Parasympathetic**- allows us to unwind and conserve energy (active during digestion)

Synapse
Junction between the axon tip of the sending neuron and the dendrite or cell body of the receiving neuron
- tiny gap at this junction is called the synaptic gap or cleft

At the axon terminal:
- Impulse releases neurotransmitter from vesicles
- Neurotransmitter enters synaptic gap through exocytosis
- Neurotransmitter binds to receptors on the receiving neuron
- This can trigger an action potential to occur in the next neuron

Neurotransmitter	Function	Malfunctions
Dopamine	Learning, attention, pleasurable sensations (rewards), movement	Excess dopamine linked to schizophrenia, starved of dopamine - Parkinson's disease
Serotonin	Affects mood, sleep, hunger and arousal	Low levels – depression, affected by use of narcotics

Heredity – the passing of traits from parents to offspring
Hormones are chemical messengers produced by endocrine glands
- **adrenaline** and **noradrenaline** is your flight or fight response '

Three types of recreational drugs:
Depressants – calm the activity of the nervous system and slow body functions
- reduces ability to stop and think
- alcohol is an example

Stimulants – excite the nervous system and arouse body functions
- increases heart rate, breathing rate, appetite decreased, confidence increased
- caffeine, nicotine, speed are examples

Hallucinogens – change your perception and give you sensory images without input from the senses
- increase sensitivity to sounds, colours, tastes
- LSD, marijuana, magic mushrooms are examples
Ecstasy is a stimulant and mild hallucinogen

Memory
Memory is defined simply as **the internal record of some previous event or experience.**
Involves three main aspects:
- Encoding
- Storage
- Retrieval

1. **Encoding -** refers to the conversion of sensory information into a form that can be processed by the brain.
2. **Storage -** refers to the retention of the information

3. **Retrieval -** the recovery of information stored in the brain
*   Retrieval is central to memory, if you can't retrieve a memory, then no evidence it exists.

Multi-store model (Atkinson and Shiffrin model)
Currently preferred idea developed for short-term memory
*   Developed by Richard Atkinson and Richard Shiffrin (1968)
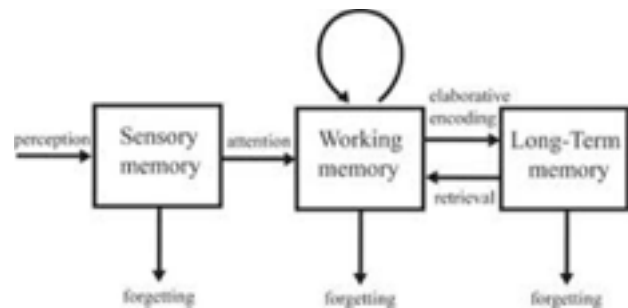
Memory is often split into three different parts
*   Sensory memory **3-5 sec**
*   Short-term memory (STM) **30 sec**
*   Long-term memory (LTM) **permanent**

Sensory memory - refers to memory retained for a very brief period, usually less than 5 seconds
Information rapidly encoded based on your senses.
Sounds - **echoic** memory
Visual - **iconic** memory

All sensory info registered, **most** info discarded and only **important** info passed to short-term memory

Short-term memory - where info is stored about 30sec
Information in STM can be rehearsed to keep it there longer, refers to info that you are aware of (sensory memory, unaware of)
Maintenance rehearsal - repeat it repeatedly in your head to extend the time the memory exists in STM
Elaborative rehearsal - activity processing info in order to shift it into LTM

One way of extending the capacity of STM is through method called **chunking**
*   It is combining material in a larger more meaningful group

Long-term memory
Relatively permanent store of info (from 30s to forever)
*   Info can delay over time, especially if not retrieved often
*   LTM occurs through physical changes in the neutrons and neural networks

The Working Memory Model - Baddeley and Hitch (1974)
*   argued that the multi-store model was far too simple
Working memory is short-term memory. Argued that instead of all information going into one single store, there are different systems for different types of information.

Central Executive - directs attention to relevant info and suppresses irrelevant info
*   **Phonological loop -** stores the sounds of language and rehearses it silently
*   **Visuo-spatial sketchpad -** stores visual and
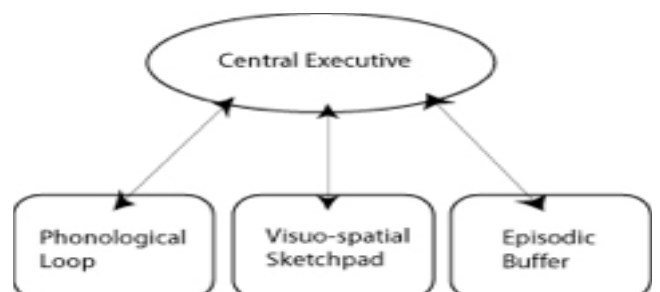
spatial info eg. images, maps, shapes
- **Episodic Buffer -** links info across domains to form integrated units of visual, spatial and verbal info with time such as the memory of a story or movie

In LT memory it is separated into two parts

1. **Procedural memory** - stores the way you do things the "how to" part
   These memories require little effort to retrieve and often take place more or less automatically
   May not be able to explain it to someone else, because you just do it.

2. **Declarative memory -** is the "what" part of memory, able to explain how something is or what you remember
Within this there are two types:
Episodic - personal experiences
Semantic - facts and info

Forgetting
- When we can't remember something did we store it and now can't access it, did we never store it or store it and then delete it

Retrieval Failure
- Inability to retrieve a certain piece of information
- Successful retrieval requires the use of cues and reminders - images, associations
- Without the right cues, is difficult to pull the information out

Interference
- This idea suggests that forgetting is due to competing, similar, information
- Related similar information gets mixed up and prevents or blocks retrieval

Motivated forgetting
- Forgetting because there is some advantage to not remembering
- Self-deception - a protection defence
- Forgetting because you don't want to think about it
- Can be both because the memory is unpleasant and causes anxiety or some other emotion

Decay
- Simply the fading away of memory over time
- Some psychologists claim memories don't decay, they are just unable to be retrieved at certain times
- Has been shown that long forgotten memories can surface with the right cue

Learning
The process of acquiring, through experience, new and relatively enduring information or behaviours

Some terms:
- **Stimulus (or Stimuli)** – an object or event that can be detected by the senses
- **Neutral stimulus (NS)** - a stimulus that does not produce an automatic or specific response
- **Unconditioned Stimulus (UCS)** – a stimulus that triggers a response naturally (e.g food – dog begins to salivate)
- **Conditioned stimulus (CS)** – a normally neutral stimulus that through learning is associated with a specific response (e.g ringing of bell – dog learns to salivate)
- **Response** – the resulting behaviour from a given stimulus
- **Unconditioned Response (UCR)** – a response that is triggered naturally (e.g salivating – dog begins when smells food)

- **Conditioned Response (CR)** – the response that is triggered by the learnt stimulus (e.g salivating again – but happens when bell occurs)

Classical Conditioning
Is a type of learning where two stimuli linked together to produce a new learned response in a person or animal

Associate learning - when a subject links certain events, behaviours or stimuli together in the process of conditioning
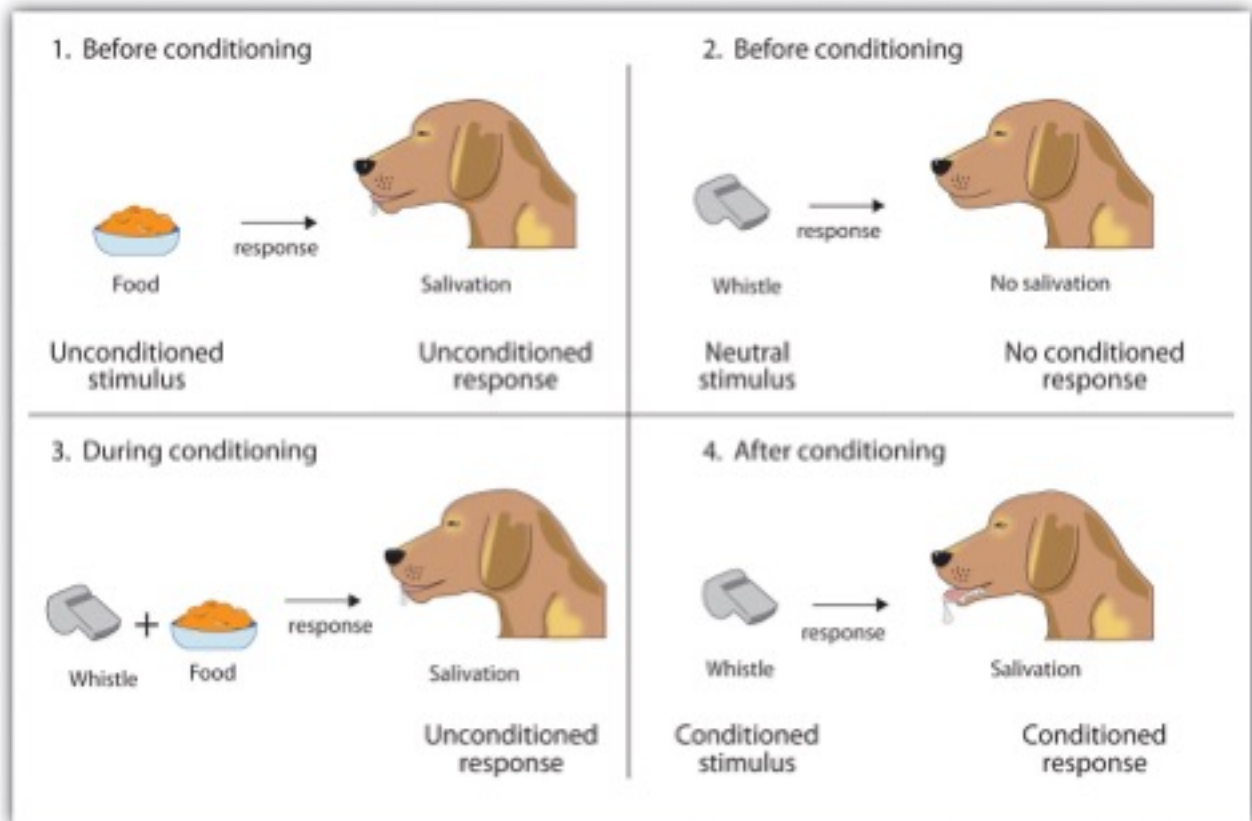
Research
Ivan Pavlov (1849-1936) was a Russian scientist who researched whether dogs would learn to associate the ringing of the bell, with the reviving of the food. He did this by presenting/giving food (UCS) to his dogs and then straight after also ringing a bell (NS). The unconditioned response to seeing the food was for the dogs to start salivating, after a number of repeats of this procedure he tried the bell on it's own. As expected after many times the bell on it's own now caused an increase salivation in the dogs. Results show that the dogs had learned an association between the bell (CS) and the food which a new behaviour has been learnt (CR), the neutral stimulus has become a conditioned stimulus.

Operant conditioning
A type of learning in which a behaviour is strengthened if followed by a reinforcer or diminished if followed by a punishment.

Positive and negative reinforcers

- *Positive reinforcers* are favourable events or outcomes that are given to the individual after the desired behaviour. This may come in the form of praise, rewards, etc.
- *Negative reinforcers* typically are characterised by the removal of an undesired or unpleasant outcome after the desired behaviour. A response is strengthened as something considered negative is removed.
- **e.g** You were grounded because you didn't do your chores, you start doing your chores and you are no longer grounded.

The goal in both these cases of reinforcement is for a behaviour to increase.
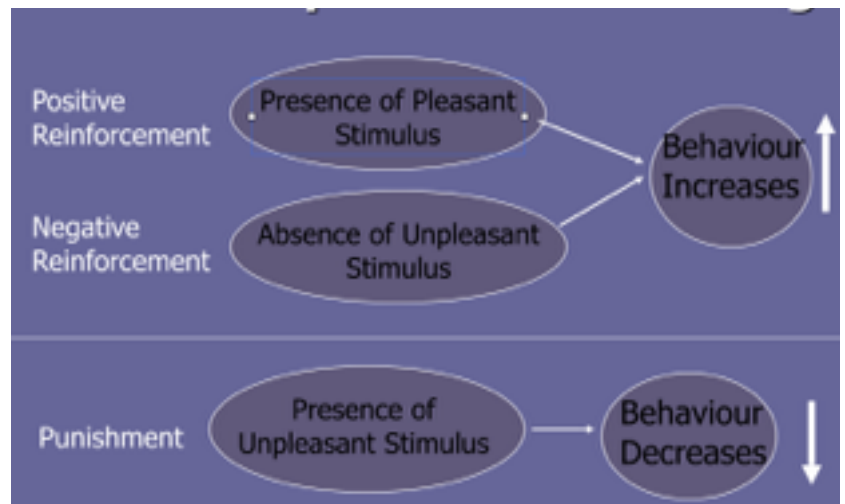
Punishment, on the other hand, is the outcome that causes a decrease in the behaviour it follows. There are two kinds of punishment:

- *Positive punishment,* sometimes referred to as punishment by application, involves the presentation of an unfavourable event or outcome in order to weaken the response it follows.
e.g A child picks his nose so the teacher reprimands him in front of his/her classmates
- *Negative punishment,* also known as punishment by removal, occurs when an favourable event or outcome is removed after a behaviour occurs.
e.g A child enjoys playing soccer for his team or with classmates, child is removed from playing or no longer allowed until his behaviour decreases
In both of these cases of punishment, the behaviour decreases.

Observational Learning
Learning can occur through observing and imitating someones behaviour

Bandura - bobo doll experiment
He recorded a female adult interacting with a bobo doll aggressively by:
- shouting at it
- kicking it
- hitting it with a hammer

There was a group of children who were shown the video of the aggressive behaviour or were not
- after the video was shown they were placed into a room full of toys including a bobo doll

Those who watched the video were more likely to be violent with doll and mimic the same interactions/words as the women in the video did
- were also more likely to use the toy guns in the room

Those who didn't want the video or watched one with a person playing nicely with the doll didn't respond in the same way with their frustration
- later modified that children choose which models they want to mimic based on their beliefs & values

In order to modify behaviour:
System called a **Token Economy** is often used where symbolic markers are used which can then be traded in for rewards
- House points

- Video games
- Frequent fliers, fly buys

Removing phobias is often achieved through something called **systematic desensitisation** which applies classical conditioning to fears and phobias which are considered undesirable behaviours

Systematic desensitisation is a list drawn up of the most fear provoking situations (eg spider on face) to the least (e.g picture of a spider).

Person is taught relaxation techniques and is introduced to the scenario that is the least fear provoking
(e.g drawing a spider)
• They use the techniques until comfortable enough to move onto next scenario
• Happens over time
• Person is reminded of the actual danger (none)
• Is called "**Graded Exposure**"

Psychologists typically use **cognitive-behaviour therapy (CBT)** to modify dysfunctional thoughts, beliefs, feelings and behaviours through a goal-oriented, systematic process.
• CBT is based on idea that cognitions influence feelings and behaviours and that subsequent behaviours and emotions influence thoughts
• helps patients understand, manage and change their thoughts (cognitions) and behaviour from negative to positive

Pros of CBT
• Can replace negative thoughts with positive ones and reinforce positive actions
• Is based on assumption that the way people feel and behave is a large product of the way they think, can chance the way they feel and behave by thinking about a situation in a more balanced & helpful way

Cons of CBT
• Tends to be relatively short-term, structured and focused on the 'here & now" - how current thoughts, feelings and behaviours affecting them now
• Is time-limited therapy e.g 8-12 sessions

There are 3 main methods resolving conflict:
1. Imposed solution
2. Distributive solution
3. Integrative solution

Imposed Solutions
• When a solution is told by either a 3rd party or stronger party
• This leads to one group/person winning and the other losing
• Leads to the losing party being dissatisfied
E.g - Both sons want to use the car, the father tells the oldest one he can use it
- Doesn't mean if both lose or win, only if done by **third party**

Distributive Solutions
• Involves compromise, when an agreement is met in the middle by two people
E.g - A worker wants $40 an hour wage, employer wants to give $30 hour wage, both compromise and agree on $35.

Integrative Solutions
• Often called win-win solutions
• Both sides benefit
• Difficult to reach as it as to take both pates motives, values and goals into play

E.g - Two sisters both want the orange that is left in the bowl. A distributive solution is to cit it in half, the integrative solution looked at why the sisters wanted the orange. One sister wanted the peel for a cake, the other wanted the inside to eat. The integrative solution is for on sister to get all of the peel and the other sister to get all of the insides.

Resolving Conflict
In order to come up with the 3 solutions mentioned, we have to have the parties communicate with each other.
This is accomplished using 3 methods:
1. Counselling
2. Negotiation
3. Mediation and arbitration

Counselling
• One or both of the parties may work with a counsellor to:
Develop skills to help them deal with the conflict
Improve their listening skills
Develop assertiveness so they can express their opinions

Negotiation
• Involves parties that have some shared interests but also some opposed interests talking to each other to reach an agreement.
• Usually arrives at an distributive solution.

Mediation
This involves bringing in 3rd parties to resolve a dispute.
• Mediator help the parties in a dispute to focus on the issues and reach a voluntary solution, either distributive or integrative

"Arbitration" is a type of mediation where a 3rd party hears both sides and hands down a decision (imposes a solution).

Attachment
Attachment theory was formulated by British psychiatrist John Bowlby and was elaborated by psychologist Mary Ainsworth.
• Bowlby defined attachment as a strong affectional tie that binds a person to an intimate companion
Ainsworth and her associates developed the **Strange Situation** as a procedure for measuring the quality of an attachment
• Infants are subjected to eight episodes of gradually escalating stress as adult strangers approach and as a caregiver departs and returns.

On the basis of an infants pattern of behaviour during the Strange Situation, the quality of attachment to a parent can be characterised as one of three types
• Secure Attachment (Type B)
• Anxious-Resistant (Type C)
• Anxious-Avoidant (Type A)

Type A: Anxious Avoidant Attachment
• Up to 15% of 1-year-olds have avoidant attachments
• They seem uninterested in exploring, show little apparent distress when separated from their mothers, and a void contact, ignore or seem indifferent when their mothers return
• Insecurely attached infants are not particularly wary of strangers but sometimes avoid or ignore them, much as they avoid or ignore their mothers

Type B: Secure Attachment
- About 60-65% of 1-year-olds in our society are securely attached to their mothers or primary caregivers
- The securely attached infant actively explores the room when alone with his mother because she serves as a secure base
- When his mother is present, the securely attached child is outgoing with a stranger

Type C: Anxious Resistant Attachment
- About 10% if 1-year-olds show a resistant attachment, an insecure attachment characterised by anxious reactions
- The resistant infant does not venture off to play even when his mother is present, probably because she is not a secure base for exploration
- Resistant infants are also wary of strangers, even when their mothers are present

John Bowlby studied the conflict between infants and mothers
- Children who were close to their mothers avoided predators & grew up to have children
- He believed there was an 'optimal time' where infants can form an attachment bond through contact with mothers
- If they did not have a warm experience with their mother they would have the problem of forming relationships when older

A failure to initiate attachment (monotropy) will lead to negative consequences of reduced intelligence, depression and aggression
- If they didn't have an attachment with mothers it was called 'maternal deprivation"

Experiment - 44 thieves
Wanted to see if maternal deprivation had long-term effects and whether delinquents suffered from deprivation
- 44 juvenile thieves had their IQ tested and emotional attitudes towards the test
- social worker also interviewed parents to find out details of the child's early life

Results
More than half of the juvenile thieves were separated from their mothers for longer than six months before the age of five
- 86% if those with affection-less psychotherapy (no able to care or feel affection from others) experienced long periods of maternal separation

Conclusion
Those with maternal deprivation early in life suffered emotional damage

Harlow
Infants learned a positive emotional response to mothers by associating her with food
- Infant monkeys fed by wire monkey mother or by cuddly cloth covered mother
- Even when wire mother had food, they preferred the cloth one
- Shows that contact comfort is more powerful contributor to attachment than feeding in monkeys

Socialisation
Parenting styles influence the socialisation of a child
There are four types of parenting styles originally set out by researcher **Diana Baumrind:**
- **Authoritative** - Is highly supportive and closely monitors and sets rules
- **Permissive** - highly supportive, makes few rules and trusts rather than monitors
- **Authoritarian** - sets many rules and highly monitors but offers little support

Bernstein - researched language styles and social class

- Claimed that people from working and middle class families used different kinds of language code

Working class used **restricted code:**
- short simple sentences
- few descriptive words
- abstract ideas, barely stressed

Middle class used **elaborative code:**
- complex, precise sentences used
- more descriptive words
- abstract ideas exposed

Children in working class families had "deficit" in language because they used restricted code, disadvantaged in school.

Labov
Strongly opposed bernstein's theory
- Did research into Black English Vernacular (BEV)
- Considered that BEV just as complex and rule-governed as standard english, different not deficit

Tannen
 Deborah Tannen researched gender difference in language
- categorised language into report and rapport talk

Report talk was used by men - used in public speaking, gaining and holding attention of the person listening and to negotiate and maintain status

Rapport talk was used by women - was about establishing relations, developing understanding and negotiating differences
- women enjoyed private conversations more than men, requires sharing experience

Women use 'hmm' or yeah to show they're listening and are more indirect with questions than men

Persuasive Communication
- people are more likely to believe information if it's coming from an expert
- listeners assume those who talk fast are more intelligent
- trustworthiness also persuades people
- ads use emotion instead of reason sometimes, when in a good mood they are more likely to process information carefully
- some ads evoke fear to arouse enough anxiety to listen but not too much as this could lead to ignoring the message

There are two types of people:
1. Those with high need for cognition (weights pros and cons of debate)
2. Those with low need for cognition

Two theories of language:
- Nativist (innate)
- Interactionist (learned)

Noam Chomsky believed that we are born knowing language already which makes learning easier (LAD) - language acquisition device

He believed that we all had something in our brains that allowed us to understand grammar internationally - just needed for this to be stimulated in order to understand it

- Called it Universal grammar - the entire set of rules or linguistic parameters in which specify all human languages

Limitations:
- little evidence to support
- not as rapidly learnt as he states

Bruner (1983) believes that language is learnt through the parents providing a support system (LASS) - language acquisition support system

LASS is a set of strategies that parents employ to help their children learn language
- **Infant-directed speech** is when parents stress important words, speak at a higher pitch and slower
- **Scaffolding** - the deliberate use of language that is slightly beyond what children can comprehend

Criticisms
- different cultures have different strategies of parenting
- parents rarely correct their children on grammar

Research Methods
- **Independent Variable**: The thing you change. This is what is changed or manipulated by the experimenter.
- **Dependent Variable:** The thing you measure. This is what is measured by the experimenter
- **Extraneous Variable:** Other variables, apart from the IV, that might affect the DV.

Operational Hypothesis
Always start with "It is hypothesised" and end with "as measured by …"
Include: The population, the IV, the DV, what you believe will happen in the relationship between the IV and DV and how will you measure the DV.
e.g
It is hypothesised that females aged between 20-55 **(population)** who participate in yoga in a 40 degree room, will report greater strength and flexibility **(DV)** after a 3 month period than participants who didn't do yoga in a 40 degree room **(IV)**, as measured by a self-report of the participants strength and flexibility.

Control group - Is composed of participants who do not receive the experimental treatment
Experimental group - Refers to the group of participants who are exposed to the independent variable. These participants receive or are exposed to the change.
Non-experimental research is research that is done by not changing a variable (No IV).

Reliability of results is very important, so if a study is replicated the findings should be similar.
Validity, does a test measure what it was designed to measure. For example, do IQ tests really measure 'intelligence?
- **Internal validity**, extent to which study is free of design faults, which may affect results.
- **Ecological validity** this is a type of 'external validity'. This means the extent to which generalisation can be made from the test environment to other situations.

Population: The larger group from which individuals are selected to participate in a study
Sample: A smaller subsection of the population
- The purpose of sampling is to gather data about the population in order to make a statement that can be generalised to the population

Informed Consent
Participants should be informed of the particulars of the experiment to give informed consent, this includes:
• confidentiality
• debriefing
• right to withdrawal
• protection of participants
In studies involving children, parents must sign the informed consent on behalf of the children

Subjective qualitative data: Data that is either written or spoken, this is data that given by participants through self-reports or surveys, opinions.
Objective quantitive data: numerical data that is obtained scientifically (heart rate, temperature), things that are facts

Placebo: A substance that has no effect

UNIT FOUR

Piaget
Swiss psychologist who worked on understanding children's cognitive development
• Assumed that learning needs to be done actively rather than simply absorbing information.

Two main stages - **equilibrium** and **disequilibrium**
• Believed that we are motivated to learn when we are in disequilibrium - we want to understand things

Schema
Piaget thought we build our understanding of the world and thinking skills through interaction with our environment and built the concept "Schemas"

A **Schema** is - an idea about what something is and organising the knowledge into "units", relating to one aspect
• **Assimilation -** using an existing schema to deal with a new object or situation.
• **Accommodation** - when the existing schema (knowledge) does not work, and needs to be changed to deal with a new object or situation.

A child's capacity to understand certain concepts is based on the child's development stage
Believed that all children develop according to four stages bases on how they see the world
1. **Sensorimotor** (birth - 2 years)
2. **Pre-operational** (approx 2 - 7 years)
3. **Concrete Operational** (approx 7 - 11 years)
4. **Formal operations** (approx 12 - 15 years)

Sensorimotor Stage
The main achievement during this stage is **object performance** - knowing an object still exists, even if it is hidden, requires the ability to form a mental representation of the object.
• Will explore the world through senses & motor activity
• Develop understanding through sensory and motor interactions with the world by touching, looking, listening
• Live in the present - have little understanding that things continue to exist beyond their sight

Pre-operational Stage
During this stage children able to think about things symbolically, ability to make one thing - a word or an object - stand for something other than itself

- Still no logical thinking
- Assume that they can see what you see - only perceive world from their viewpoint
- Relates taller things as having "more" even if they observed the object being stretched - shape is not related to quantity
- Egocentric

Concrete Operational Stage
This stage is a major turning point as it marks the beginning of logical or operational thought
- Can understand conservation of matter, volume and number
- Child can work things out internally in their head and physically try things out in the real world
- Classify objects according to similarities (shape, colour, function)

Formal Operations Stage
- Able to think about hypothetical situations
- Organise information and reason scientifically
- Abstract thinking
- Think about something without having to see it in front of them

 Development happens from one stage to another through interaction with the environment
- Kids will differ in how long they are in each stage
- Development leads to learning

Problems with Piaget's Theory
- Used small research sample who were children of well-educated professionals (including himself) from high socioeconomic status from Western cultures - difficult to generalise findings to a larger population
- Often theorised too much from too little evidence
- Focused on use of logical patterns of reasoning and neglected cognitive processes that are important (e.g creative problem solving and right hemisphere processes - art, etc.)
- Underestimated children's abilities - less egocentric and may reach stages earlier than Piaget thought

Kohlberg
Moral development is the gradual development of an individuals concept of right or wrong

This theory is a stage theory. In other words, everyone goes through the stages in order without skipping any stage

Pre-Conventional Moral Development
- Stage 1
- Stage 2
Conventional Moral Development
- Stage 3
- Stage 4
Post-Conventional Moral Development
- Stage 5
- Stage 6

Stage 1 - Obedience and Punishment
Especially common in young children but adults are capable of expressing this type
- Obeys rules in order to avoid punishment
- Determines a sense of right and wrong by what is punished and what is not punished
- Obeys superior authority and allows them to make rules especially if they have the power to inflict pain

- Is responsive to rules that will affect his/her physical well-being

Stage 2 - Naively egotistical
At this stage children account for individual points of view and judge actions based on how they serve individual needs
- Is motivated by "an eye for an eye" philosophy
- Is self-absorbed while assuring that he/she is generous
- Believes that the end justifies the means
- Will do a favour only to get a favour
- Expects to be rewarded for every non-selfish deed he/she does

Stage 3 - "good boy-good girl" orientation
This stage is focused on living up to social exceptions and roles, has an emphasis on conformity, being "nice" and how consideration of how choices influence relationships
- Finds peer approval very important
- Feels that intentions are as important as deed and expects others to accept intentions or promises in place of deeds
- Begins to put himself/herself in another shoes and think from another perspective

Stage 4 - Law and Social Order
At this stage people begin to consider society as a whole when making judgments, focus on maintaining low and order by following the rules, doing one's duty and respecting authority
- Is a duty doer who believes in rigid rules that should not be changed
- Respects authority and obeys it without question
- Supports the rights of the majority without concern for those in the minority
- Is part of 80% of the population that does not progress past stage 4

Stage 5 - Legalistic Social Contract
People begin to account for differing values, opinions, and beliefs of other people. Rules of law are important for maintaining a society but members of society should agree upon these standards.
- Motivated by the belief in the greatest amount of good for the greatest number of people
- Believes in consensus (everyone agrees), rather than in majority rule
- Respects the rights of the minority especially the rights of the individual
- Believes that change in the law is possible but only through the system

Stage 6 - Universal ethical Principles
Kohlberg's final level is based on universal ethical principles and abstract reasoning. People follow these internalised principles of justice even if they conflict with law and rules
- Believes there are high moral principles than those represented by social rules and customs
- Willing to accept the consequences for disobedience of the social rule they have rejected
- Believes that the dignity of humanity is sacred and that all humans have value

Erikson: The Life-Span Approach
8 successive stages over the lifespan, addresses bio, social, situational, personal influences
- Crisis: must adaptively or maladaptively cope with task in each developmental stage
  - Respond adaptively: acquire strengths needed for next developmental stage
  - Respond maladaptively: less likely to be able to adapt to later problems
- Basic strengths: motivating characteristics and beliefs that derive from successful resolution of crisis in each stage

Stage 1: Basic Trust vs. Mistrust (Can I trust the world?) - Feeding, abandonment
- Birth to age 1
- Totally dependent on others

- Caregiver meets needs: child develops trust
- Caregiver does not meet needs: child develops mistrust
- Basic strength: Hope
  - Belief our desires will be satisfied
  - Feeling of confidence

Stage 2: Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt (Is it okay to be me?) - Toilet training, clothing themselves
- Ages 1-3
- Child able to exercise some degree of choice
- Child's independence is stopped: child develops feelings of self-doubt, shame in dealing with others
- Basic Strength: Will
  - Determination to exercise freedom of choice in face of society's demands

Stage 3: Initiative vs. Guilt (Is it okay for me to do, move, and act?) - Exploring, using tools or making art
- Ages 3-5
- Child expresses desire to take initiative in activities
- Parents punish child for initiative: child develops feelings of guilt that will affect self-directed activity throughout life
- Basic strength: Purpose
  - Courage to envision and pursue goals

Stage 4: Industriousness (task completion) vs. Inferiority (Can i make it in the world of people and things?) - School, sports
- Ages 6-11
- Child develops cognitive abilities to enable in task completion (school work, play)
- Parents/teachers do not support child's efforts: child develops feelings of inferiority and inadequacy
- Basic strength: Competence
  - Exertion of skill and intelligence in pursuing and completing tasks

- **Stages 1-4** - largely determined by others (teachers, parents)
- **Stages 5-8** - Individual has more control over environment and responsibility for crisis resolution in each stage

Stage 5: Identity vs. Role Confusion (Who am I? Who can I be?) - Social relationships
- Ages 12-18
- Form ego identity: self-image
- Strong sense of identity: face adulthood with certainty and confidence
- Identity crisis: confusion of ego identity
- Basic strength: Fidelity
  - Emerges from cohesive ego identity - sincerity, genuineness, sense of duty in relationships with others

Stage 6: Intimacy vs. Isolation (Can I love?) - Romantic relationships
- Ages 18-25 approx
- Undertake productive work and establish intimate relationships
- Inability to establish intimacy leads to social isolation
- Basic strength: Love
  - Mutual devotion in a shared identity
  - Fusing of oneself with another person

Stage 7: Generativity vs. Stagnation (Can I make my life count?) - Work, parenthood
• Ages 35-55 approx
• Generativity: Active involvement in teaching/guiding the next generation
• Stagnation involves no seeking outlets for generativity
• Basic strength: Care
  - Broad concern for others
  - Need to teach others

Stage 8: Ego Integrity vs. Despair (Is it okay to have been me?) - Reflect on life
• Ages 65+ approx
• Evaluation of entire life
• Integrity: Look back with satisfaction
• Despair: Review with anger, frustration
• Basic strength: Wisdom
  - Detached concern with the whole of life

Contributions of Erikson
• Personally develops throughout the lifetime
• Identity crisis in adolescence
• Impact of social, cultural, personal and situational forces in forming personality

Personality
It is defined as the enduring or lasting patterns of behaviour and thought that make us unique. (thoughts, feelings, behaviours)

Trait Theory (60% genetic, 40% environmental)
Trait theory uses two different methods of research
• **Idiographic approach**: Defines traits by studying **individuals** in depth and focuses on the distinctive qualities of their personalities
• **Nomothetic approach**: Studies **groups** of people in the attempt to identity personality traits that tend to appear in clusters. This approach uses the statistical technique called factor analysis

The **five-factor theory** of personality by McCrae and Costa (1997) is the most recent addition to trait theory. They believe in five core dimensions:
• **Openness to Experience** - creative & willing to try new things
• **Conscientiousness** - reliable, responsible, thorough, dependable, hard-working
• **Extraversion** - outgoing, social, active, talkative
• **Agreeableness** - easy to get along with, pleasant, sympathetic, warm, cooperative
• **Neuroticism** - emotional stability
Acronym: OCEAN
(talk about opposite of OCEAN so O is creative, could be uncreative and hates trying new things)

Openness to experience refers to the dimension ranging from outgoing, liberal, interested in new things, and imaginative to reserved, conservative, traditional, and conforming. Like all of these five traits, people will fall somewhere on a continuum, with most falling somewhere in the middle.

Conscientiousness refers to the continuum ranging from organised, careful, and determined to careless, and weak willed. Those on the high end of this factor may be seen as stoic, cold, and methodical. Those on the low end may be seen as gullible, followers, or may see the needs of others as always superseding their own.

Extroversion refers to a person who prefers group activities, group sports, large gatherings, lots of friends and acquaintances, loud music, and social endeavours. An introvert prefers more solitude, quiet music, small groups or individual sports and would rather stay at home or engage in a small group activity than attend a party or large social gathering. We've even found that extroverts tend

to get bored more easily and may be followers who seek out others to avoid this boredom. Introverts, on the other hand, tend to become anxious more easily, especially in larger groups, and prefer the individual activity to avoid this anxiety.

Agreeableness represents the extremes of stubborn versus easy going or suspicious versus trusting. Those high in agreeableness are helpful, sympathetic to others, and understanding. Those low on this trait are seen as argumentative, skeptical, and strong-willed.

Neuroticism refers to the dimension of emotional stability. Someone high on neuroticism would exhibit an instability in his or her emotions, interactions, and relationships. They may have frequent and wide mood swings, be difficult to understand, and become more upset over daily stressors and interactions. The person low on neuroticism (Stable) may be seen as reserved, calm, and perhaps even unemotional.

Criticisms
• Circular reasoning: Which comes first the behaviour or the trait?
• Lack of situational consistency - e.g Extroverts can be shy at job interviews
• No explanation for what causes these many different traits to occur
• Lack of agreement on the number and type of traits
• Does not address development

Humanism
Maslow developed his famous "Hierarchy of Needs"
Differentiated between **Deficiency** needs and **Growth** needs
• **Deficiency needs** are the bottom four levels in the hierarchy: these needs must be met or filled before other growth needs can take over
• Maslow believed deficiency needs must be met in the order of the hierarchy - e.g - physiological 1st, safety 2nd, etc.

Growth needs or **being needs** - the highest motive in the hierarchy for human behaviour. This motive takes over only when all other deficiency needs are met.
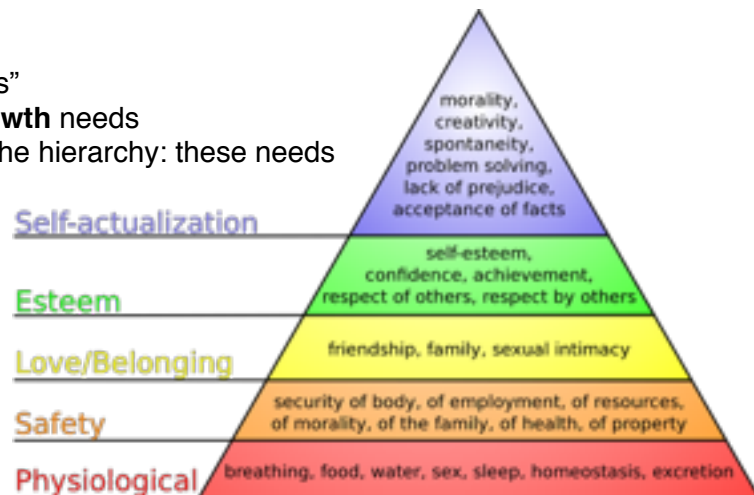
Some growth needs that Maslow discussed are:
• **Truth,** rather than dishonesty
• **Aliveness**, not deadness or the mechanisation of life
• **Uniqueness**, not bland uniformity
• **Perfection** and necessity, not sloppiness, inconsistency, or accident
• **Justice and order**, not injustice and lawlessness
• **Simplicity**, not unnecessary complexity
• **Self-sufficiency**, not dependency

Maslow's Characteristics of Self-Actualisers
• **Reality focused** and **problem-centres**
• The **journey** is often more important than the ends
• They enjoy **solitude**, are comfortable being alone
• Enjoy deeper **personal relations** with a **few** close friends and family members
• Value **autonomy**, a relative independence from physical and social needs
• They have an **un hostile sense of humour** - preferring to joke at their expense and never directing their humour at others
• **Spontaneity and simplicity**: prefer themselves rather than being pretentious or artificial

Carl Rogers: Humanism
Both Maslow and Maslow believed in the same things, **self-actualisation,** view people as basically good
• View people as basically good
• **True self:** who you are today
• **Ideal self:** who you want to become

Social Cognitive theory (Nurture - environment)
Albert Bandura (1925 - present)
A theory of personality that emphasised cognitive processes such as thinking and judging.
• These cognitive processes contribute to learned behaviours that are central to one's personality, by observing an admired role model an individual may choose to adopt and emphasise particular traits and behaviours

Modelling: Vicarious learning: Observational learning: learning by watching others, thoughts matter

There are four processes that form the basis of Social Learning Theory
1. Attention
This process surrounds the acquisition of the attention of the learner. Acquisition can be based on such factors as sensory capacity, arousal level, and post reinforcement
2. Retention
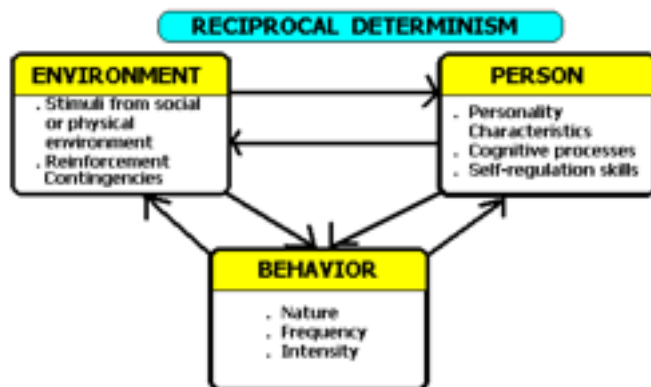Remembering what you paid attention to (rehearsal)
3. Reproduction
Reproducing the image
4. Motivation
Having a good reason to imitate
The main "person" factor that Bandura discussed was **self-efficacy**: the belief in your ability to perform a certain task or function

This all determines human behaviour

**Walter Mischel (agreed with
Bandura - social cognitive theory)**
He deliberately criticised trait theories and proposed that an individuals behaviour in regard to a trait is not always consistent
• Behaviour is not simple the result of his or her traits, but fundamentally dependent on situational cues - the needs of a given situation

Mischel's five competencies
There are five person variables that contribute to the conditions of a specific situation, used to predict how a personal will most likely behave. They are:

1. **Competencies:** skills, problem-solving strategies, concepts about the world, based on experiences; allows for successful adaption

2. **Encoding strategies and personal constructs:** Attentional strategies and individual schemas: what you pay attention to and what meaning you attach to the stimulus to understand the world; this provides consistency in person's behaviour although capable of being changed which accounts for inconsistencies in behaviour
3. **Expectancies:** Behaviour outcome expectancies: if i do this, then can expect that expectancies will be based n past experiences with similar situations; sometimes specific information is available that can create or change expectancies. **Second** kind of expectancy relates to our confidence in our ability to perform competently, called self-efficacy. A **third** kind relates to the stimulus-outcome association: if this happens, I can expect this to follow.
4. **Subjective values:** One's personal values are a variable in one's decision to behave in a certain way. They are essentially the reinforcers for one's behaviour.
5. **Self-regulatory systems and plans:** Behaviours depend on intrinsic reinforcement or punishment, based on our performance standards. Future goals are made and plans are then compatible with these goals.
- In the end, believes that personality per se does not exist, and that our traits are merely cognitive strafers or things that we do for us to obtain the kind of reward we want.

Social Psychology
Social psychology is the scientific study of how people's thoughts, feelings and behaviours are influenced by the actual, imagined or implied presence of others.

Heider
Attribution theory - we want to say that people's behaviour is caused by something
- **Dispositional attribution** - she is doing poorly in class because she is lazy and doesn't study
- **Situational attribution** - she is doing poorly in class because her mum is ill and she must take care of her siblings
Fundamental attribution error - the tendency for people to mistakenly attribute someone's activity based on disposition and not the situation

Kelly's Co-Variation model
He developed a logical model for judging whether a particular action should be attributed to some characteristic of the person or the environment

The term co-variation simply means that a person has information from multiple observations, at different times and situations, and can perceive the co-variation of an observed effect and its causes.
Kelley believed that there were three types of causal information which influenced our judgments:
1. **Consensus**: The extent to which other people behave in the same way in a similar situation. E.g. Alison smokes a cigarette when she goes out for a meal with her friend. If her friend smokes, her behaviour is high in consensus. If only Alison smokes it is low.
2. **Distinctiveness**: The extent to which the person behaves in the same way in similar situations. If Alison only smokes when she is out with friends, her behaviour is high in distinctiveness. If she smokes at any time or place, distinctiveness is low.
3. **Consistency**: The extent to which the person behaves like this every time the situation occurs. If Alison only smokes when she is out with friends, consistency is high. If she only smokes on one special occasion, consistency is low.

If you don't know if the behaviour is consistent over time we fall back on past experience and look for either:
1. **Multiple necessary causes**. For example, we see an athlete win a marathon and we reason that she must be very fit, highly motivated, have trained hard etc. and that she must have all of these to win
2. **Multiple sufficient causes**. For example, we see an athlete fail a drug test and we reason that she may be trying to cheat, or have taken a banned substance by accident or been tricked into taking it by her coach. Any one reason would be sufficient.

Attitude: set of evaluative feelings and beliefs about different aspects of our environment and ourselves

Cognitive dissonance - tension created when our attitudes and actions don't match
• we feel we need to justify our actions so we change our attitudes to match
When someone is forced to do something they really don't want to do, dissonance is created between their cognition (I didn't want to do this) and their behaviour (I did it).

Forced compliance occurs when an individual performs an action that is inconsistent with his or her beliefs. The behaviour can't be changed, since it is already in the past, so dissonance will need to be reduced by re-evaluating their attitude to what they have done. This prediction has been tested experimentally:
Festinger and Carlsmith (1959) asked participants to perform a series of dull tasks (such as turning pegs in a peg board for an hour). As you can imagine, participant's attitudes toward this task were highly negative. They were then paid either $1 or $20 to tell a waiting participant that the tasks were really interesting. Those who were paid $1 were forced to rationalise their own judgments and convinced themselves that what they were doing is enjoyable because they had no other justification. On the other hand, the ones who were paid $20, apparently had the money as their primary justification for carrying out their task.

Social Influence
Conformity is the process of giving in to real or imagined pressure from a group.
Solomon Asch did a famous study that demonstrated that people often conform **(aim)**
Method
He used a lab experiment to study conformity, whereby 50 male students from Swarthmore College in the USA participated in a 'vision test'. Using a line judgment task, Asch put a participant in a room with seven confederates
• The confederates had agreed in advance what their responses would be without the real participant knowing or that they had come to an agreement
• Each person in the room had to state aloud which comparison line (A, B or C) was most like the target line. The answer was always obvious. The real participant sat at the end of the row and gave his or her answer last.
• The experiment also had a control condition where there were no confederates, only a "real participant"
Results: Asch measured the number of times each participant conformed to the majority view. On average, one third (32%) of the participants who were placed in this situation went along and conformed.
• Over the 12 critical trials about 75% of participants conformed at least once, and 25% of participant never conformed. In the control group, with no pressure to conform to confederates, less than 1% of participants gave the wrong answer.
Conclusion: When interviewed after the experiment, most of them said that they did not really believe their conforming answers, but had gone along with the group for fear of being ridiculed or thought "peculiar".
• People conform for two main reasons: because they want to fit in with the group (normative influence) and because they believe the group is better informed than they are (informational influence).

Criticisms
• A biased sample was used of male students who all belonged to the same age group. This means that the study lacks population validity and that the results cannot be generalised to females or older groups of people.
• The study has low ecological validity and the results cannot be generalised to other real life situations of conformity.

- Some critics thought the high levels of conformity found by Asch were a reflection of American, 1950's culture and tell us more about the historical and cultural climate of the USA in the 1950's than then they do about the phenomena of conformity

Social Loafing: When people are working with others a decline in the productivity of the group occurs when some members of the group reduce the effort they invest in a task (putting in less effort).

Diffusion of responsibility contributes to social loafing. A person does not feel as responsible for working on a task if several others are also present, since responsibility is distributed among all those present.

Ways to reduce social loafing
- Make the task interesting
- Increase motivation of group members
- Make individual contributions essential to success
- Monitor each persons performance
- Make sure each individual identifies strongly with the group

Social Facilitation: individuals perform better when other people are present
- Likely to occur on easier tasks
- On difficult tasks, people are likely to perform worse in the presence of others

Deindividuation
It is when people abandon usual restraints to join in group behaviour- Loss of inhibition & a sense of responsibility (ie-rioting)

This is caused by TWO factors:
1. **Anonymity:** When people think they are not easily identified, they act much worse
2. **Shift of attention:** The persons attention is focused on external events, not internal thoughts or evaluations

Zimbardo's anonymity exp.
- Philip Zimbardo did an experiment in which University students were told to give electrical shocks to other students.
- His results found that students who were anonymous (not identifiable) gave shocks that were 2X stronger than students who did not wear a face concealing hood

Zimbardo - Standford Prison Exp.
Aim: To investigate how readily people would conform to the roles of guard and prisoner in a role-playing exercise that simulated prison life

Method: To study the roles people play in prison situations, Zimbardo converted a basement of the Stanford University psychology building into a mock prison.
Participants (24 male college students voluntarily decided to join as offered $15 a day) were randomly assigned to either the role of prisoner or guard in a simulated prison environment. The prison simulation was kept as "real life" as possible.

Results: Within a very short time both guards and prisoners were settling into their new roles, with the guards adopting theirs quickly and easily.
- Within hours of beginning the experiment some guards began to harass prisoners. They behaved in a brutal and sadistic manner, apparently enjoying it. Other guards joined in, and other prisoners were also tormented.

- The prisoners were taunted with insults and petty orders, they were given pointless and boring tasks to accomplish, and they were generally dehumanized. Push-ups were a common form of physical punishment imposed by the guards.
- The prisoners soon adopted prisoner-like behaviour too. They talked about prison issues a great deal of the time. They 'told tales' on each other to the guards. They started taking the prison rules very seriously, as though they were there for the prisoners' benefit and infringement would spell disaster for all of them. Some even began siding with the guards against prisoners who did not obey the rules.

Conclusion: 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 "prison" environment was an important factor in creating the guards' brutal behaviour (none of the participants who acted as guards showed sadistic tendencies before the study). Therefore, the findings support the situational explanation of behaviour rather than the dispositional one.

Milgram - Obedience
Name: Stanley Milgram
Aim: To see how far people would go in obeying an instruction if it involved harming another person
Method: Volunteers were recruited for a lab experiment investigating "learning". Participants were 40 males, aged between 20 and 50, whose jobs ranged from unskilled to professional, from the New Haven area. They were paid $4.50 for just turning up.

There were two rooms - one for the learner (with an electric chair) and another for the teacher and experimenter with an electric shock generator.

The "learner" was strapped to a chair with electrodes. After he has learned a list of word pairs given to him, the "teacher" tests him by naming a word and asking the learner to recall its partner/ pair from a list of four possible choices.

- The teacher is told to administer an electric shock every time the learner makes a mistake, increasing the level of shock each time. There were 30 switches on the shock generator marked from 15 volts (slight shock) to 450 (danger – severe shock).
  The learner gave mainly wrong answers (on purpose) and for each of these the teacher gave him an electric shock.
- When the teacher refused to administer a shock the experimenter was to give a series of orders / prods to ensure they continued.
- There were 4 prods and if one was not obeyed then the experimenter (Mr. Williams) read out the next prod, and so on. These prods were telling the teacher they must continue in a variety of ways

Results: 65% (two-thirds) of participants (i.e. teachers) continued to the highest level of 450 volts. All the participants continued to 300 volts.

Conclusion: Ordinary people are likely to follow orders given by an authority, even to the extent of killing an innocent human being. Obedience to authority is ingrained in us all from the way we are brought up

Criticisms
- The study lacked 'experimental realism', i.e. participants might not have believed the experimental set-up they found themselves in and knew the learner wasn't really receiving electric shocks.
- Participants in Milgram's study were all male. Do the findings transfer to females?
- Milgram's study cannot be seen as representative of the American population as his sample was self-selected. This is because they became participants only by electing to respond to a newspaper advertisement (selecting themselves).

McMillan & Chavis Model (1986)
A sense of community is defined as "a feeling that members have of belonging, a feeling that members matter to one another and to the group, and a shared faith that members' needs will be met through their commitment to be together."

There are four elements:
The first aspect of "sense of community" is membership
McMilan & Chavis defined 5 elements of **membership**:
• Boundaries (marked things such as dress and ritual that identifies who belongs and who does not)
• Emotional safety (security; willingness to allow others to know one feels)
• A sense of belonging and identification (expectation or faith that I will belong; acceptance by the community)
• Personal investment (working for the community leads to feelings that they have earned \\ \membership which is valuable and meaningful)
• A common symbol system (name, logo; fall, holidays, language)

Influence in a community is bi-directional
• Members of a group must feel empowered to have influence over what the group does (otherwise they would not be motivated to participate)
• Group cohesiveness depends on the group having some influence over group members
People who have the most influence in the group acknowledge that others' values and opinions matters

Integration and Fulfilment of Needs
• Needs-not just 'survival' needs such as food and water, but also what is desired and valued (more like wants)
• Members of groups are rewarded for their participation (called person-environment fit)
• An acknowledged interdependence with others and a willingness to maintain this interdependence by going along with or doing things for the group which foster it

Shared Emotional Connection
McMillan & Chavis called this "the definitive element for true community"
• Contact hypothesis (the more people interact, the more likely they are to become close).
• Quality of interaction (there needs to be positive interaction between members)
• Investment: community becomes more important to someone who has invested time and energy into it
• Honour or Humiliation: reward strengthens sense of community, humiliation inhibits it
• Spiritual bond (intangible connection between members)

Concluding Thoughts
These four elements interact to assist the formation and maintenance of communities
• McMillan & Chavis suggested that their model could be used by creators and planners of groups/ programs to assist in promoting high-quality interaction in a community
• McMillan helped create at SOC index measure "sense of community" in neighbourhoods (and can be applied in other communities)

Impact of <u>Significant</u> Events on Individuals & Communities
Positive responses - resilience and post traumatic growth (PTG)
Negative responses - post traumatic stress disorder (PTSD)

Significant Events
• Trauma
• Natural Disasters - Earthquakes, Tsunami

- Homosexual Marriage
- 9/11
- Vaccination creation
- Olympic Games

Resilience
Most commonly the term means an individual's ability to overcome adversity and continue his or her normal development

General Factors
- Assertiveness
- Self-efficacy
- Positive outlook
- Empathy for others
- Appropriate use of alcohol and drugs

Cultural Factors
- Affiliation with a religious organisation
- tolerance for different ideologies and beliefs
- self-betterment
- having a life philosophy
- being culturally grounded by knowing where you come from and being part of a cultural tradition that is expressed through daily activities

Post Traumatic Growth (PTG)
- Traumatic experiences can also provide a catalyst for significant positive life changes, most commonly referred to as a post-traumatic growth (PTG)
- PTG refers to positive changes in a person's life that can occur because of a traumatic response to an experience
- Is not seen as the opposite end of a mental health outcome continuum; ongoing distress can co-occur with growth
- Neither is PTG an automatic by-product of experiencing trauma or an inevitable outcome

Experiencing a traumatic event, people often report three ways in which their physiological functioning increases:
1. Relationships are enhanced in some way. E.g come to value their friends and family more, increased sense of compassion
2. People change their views of themselves in some way. E.g developing wisdom, personal strength and gratitude
3. People describe changes in their life philosophy (live in present). E.g finding a fresh appreciation for each day and re-evaluating what really matters in life

PTG occur as a result of cognitively engaging in the traumatic material, aim to change the way a person sees the impact of the experience through sharing their experience and having appropriate support. PTG involves the creation of a new narrative and in doing so creates a new neural pathways.

1. Sometimes people who must face major life crises develop a sense that new opportunities have emerged from the struggle, opening up possibilities that were not present before
2. A second area is a change in relationships with others. Some people experience closer relationships with some specific people and they can also experience an increased sense of connection to others who sugar
3. A third area of possible change is an increased sense of one's own strength
4. A fourth aspect of post traumatic growth experienced by some people's is a greater appreciation for life in feral

5. The fifth area involves the spiritual or religious domain. Some individuals experience a deepening of their spiritual lives, however, this deepening can also involve a significant change in one's belief system

Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD)
PTSD is an emotional condition that sometimes follows a traumatic event, particularly one that involves actual or threatened death or serious bodily injuries to oneself or others and that creates intense feelings of fear, helplessness or horror.

Stress
• Stress refers to a challenge to a person's capacity to adapt to inner and outer demands
• Stressful experiences typically produce physiological and emotional arousal
• Stressful experiences typically elicit cognitive and behavioural efforts to cope with the stress

3 Types of Stress:
• Harm or loss - when a person loses a loved one or something of value (e.g job)
• Threat - perceived anticipated harm (e.g expecting to lose your job)
• Challenge - opportunities for growth that may nonetheless be fought with disruption and uncertainty (e.g getting married, starting uni, starting new job).These are positive events but are still perceived as stressful as they involve change and adjustment

Symptoms of psychological trauma
Physical
• Excessive alertness, on the look-out for signs of danger
• Easily startled
• Fatigue/exhaustion
• Disturbed sleep
• General aches and pains

Cognitive
• Intrusive thoughts and memories of the event
• Visual images of the vent
• Nightmares
• Poor concentration and memory
• Disorientation
• Confusion

Behavioural
• Avoidance of places or activities that are reminders of the event
• Social withdrawal and oscillation
• Loss of interest in normal activities

Emotional
• Fear
• Numbness and detachment
• Depression
• Guilt
• Anger and irritability
• Anxiety and panic

Symptoms of PTSD
• People with PTSD often report a general feeling of emotional numbness, experience increased anxiety and vigilance, avoid reminders of trauma such as specific situations, thoughts and feelings

- People with PTSD can also suffer from other psychological problems, particularly depression, anxiety, and drug abuse

PTSD Specifics
- Re-experiencing of the trauma either through upsetting thoughts or memories or, in extreme cases, through a flashback in which the trauma is relived at full emotional intensity
- Avoidance of reminders and numbing of emotional responsiveness
- Hyperarousal - feeling jump and on edge

Risk Factors and Resilience Factors for PTSD
- getting hurt
- childhood trauma
- feeling horror, helplessness, r extreme fear
- having little or no social support after the event
- dealing with extra stress after the event, such as loss of a loved one, pain and injury, loss of a job or home

Treatment of PTSD
- medications
- psychotherapy
- cognitive behaviour therapy
- exercise and sleep therapy

Predictability
Whilst some events are stressful, even if they are unpredictable, it is usually the case that unpredictable events are more stressful and have a longer lasting impact (9/11)

Controllability
- Having no control over events is a major source of stress reported from victims of terrorist attacks and long term residents of refugee camps

Experience of Threat or Loss
- Whether we experience threat or loss also contributes to the stress of the situation
- Media inclusive of social media can make some events ap