Biological:

Central Nervous System (CNS):
The nervous system is divided into two major parts. The **central nervous system** and the **peripheral nervous system.**
CNS is the **brain** and **spinal** column and the PNS is everything else.

The Brain:
The brain is divided into the **forebrain, cerebellum and brainstem.**
The **forebrain** is the uppermost part of the brain and consists of the cerebrum, limbic system, thalamus and hypothalamus.
The **Cerebrum** is associated with the cerebral cortex, which controls motor and mental activity. It is divided into both the hemispheres.
The **left hemisphere** is associated with language process and the **Right hemisphere** is associated with visual imagery and emotions.
The **Cerebral cortex** is responsible for motor control and body balance.
The **cerebellum** contributes to making movements and actions co-ordinated and precise. It integrates input from the sensory systems of other part of the brain and monitors performance. Damage to the cerebellum can result in unsteady walking and shaky movements.
The **Brainstem** connects the brain to the spinal cord. It has four parts: **The mid-brain, pons, the reticular system** and the **medulla oblongata**.
The **Mid-brain** is at the top of the brainstem and relays messages, via the thalamus, to the rest of the forebrain. It is important in vision and hearing as well as in muscular movement.
The **pons** is responsible for eye movements, chewing and facial expressions.
The **reticular system** involves neurons that extend from the top to the bottom of the brainstem and lead to the thalamus. Important in sleep, arousal and attention.
The **medulla oblongata** is the lower half of the brainstem continuous with the spinal cord. It also links with the pons. It deals with heart rate, breathing and blood pressure.
Overall the **brainstem** takes responsibility for include breathing, sleep patterns, hunger, thirst, blood pressure, heart rhythm and body temperature. It also helps to regulate the central nervous system.

Spinal Cord

The spinal cord sends messages to the rest of the body and transmits messages to the brain.

Peripheral Nervous System
Peripheral nervous system consists of nerves outside of the brain and spinal cord. It connects the CNS to the rest of the body (limbs, skin, muscles and organs).
It is broken up into the **autonomic nervous system** and the **somatic nervous system**
The **somatic nervous system** monitors bodily functions. It receives sensory information from organs and communicates information via the sensory nerves to the CNS. **Controls voluntary movements**.
The **Autonomic nervous system** soothes muscles found in the heart, lungs, blood vessels and glands, **it regulates involuntary functions**.
It is broken up into two parts: **sympathetic** and **parasympathetic** nervous system

The sympathetic nervous system generally arouses the body to perform, act and react while the parasympathetic system works to conserve energy.
The sympathetic nervous system activates bodily systems to react to threat crisis or disaster. (Including rapid heart rate, faster breathing and expanded lung capacity).

The parasympathetic nervous system calms the body down to maintain and conserve energy. Does the opposite to the sympathetic nervous system.

Process of neural transmission

Role of the synapse:
Chemical and electrical transmission of signals between and along neurons.

Role of neurotransmitters:
Chemicals that enable activity to travel across synaptic gap between neurons.
Common neuraltransmitters include **dopamine** which is involved in learning, attention and pleasurable sensations. A deficit of of dopamine can lead to Parkinson's disease. **Serotonin** is involved in sleep and mood. A deficit of serotonin can lead to depression.

Roles of the four lobes of the cerebral cortex
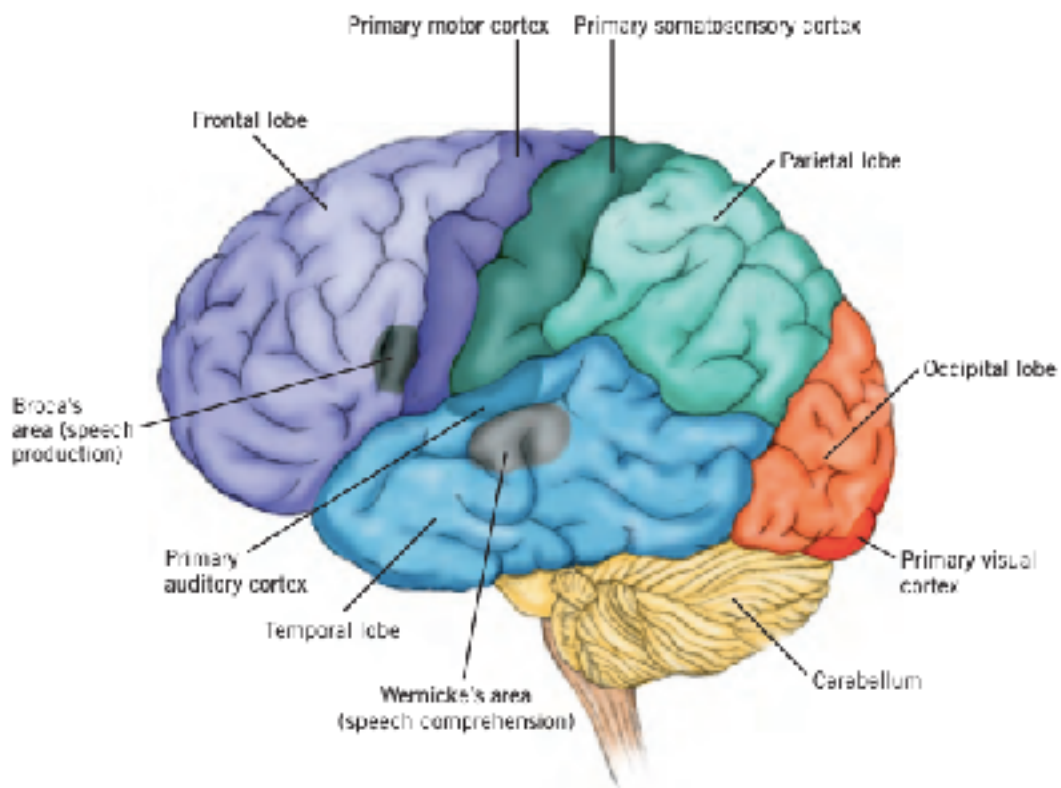
The **Frontal Lobe** contains the **primary motor cortex** and the **Broca's area.** The primary motor cortex controls **planning** and the **execution of movement (control of voluntary movements)**
The frontal lobe is associated with **thinking, decision making, feeling** and **behaviour.**

The **Broca's area** is linked to the production of speech. **Broca's aphasia** is the deficit in language production.

The **parietal lobe** is responsible for bodily sensations, mainly touch, temperature and pain. It also processes these bodily functions. It is also involved in spatial awareness and some aspects of

speech. The **somatosensory cortex** enables individuals to read, write and solve mathematical problems. Damage to this lobe results in loss of imagery, visualisation, spatial relationships, problems in math, reading and writing.

Occipital lobe
Responsible for visual functions of the eyes. The **Primary visual cortex** is located here and this part of the brain receives input from the retina. It is involved in both visual perception and colour recognition. Damage to this lobe can lead to different types of visual problems.

Temporal lobe
Important in **auditory perception** such as hearing as well as language and speech production and memory. Interprets sound.
Wernicke's area is inside this lobe, linked to Broca's area as both are involved in the production of speech. **Wernicke's aphasia** describes a condition in which language comprehension is impaired, while speech production remains relatively normal.

Factors that affect behaviour, emotion and thought
Role of genetics
The genes that we have inherited from our parents guide how we develop physically.
Epigenetics is the study of the transmission of information from one generation to the next through genetic inheritance that affects the traits of offspring without alteration of the DNA and result in cellular changes.

Hormones
Hormone are chemical messengers produced by endocrine glands. They travel through the bloodstream and affect other parts of the body. They influence our moods and affect our growth.
Adrenal glands release hormones that help us to deal with emergency situations and trigger the 'fight or flight' response.
Adrenaline (epinephrine) and noradrenaline (norepinephrine) cause muscle contractions, increased respiration, increased heart rate, deeper and faster breathing and pupil dilation. They work in partnership with the sympathetic nervous system.
Noradrenaline keeps up alert. Adrenaline is heightened in exercise.

Psychoactive drugs
A **psychoactive drug** is a drug that affects our body chemistry
Depressant: They calm the activity of the nervous system and slow the body's functions (such as alcohol)
Stimulants: They excite the nervous system and arouse the body's functions (such as caffeine)
Hallucinogens: They change your perceptions and give us sensory images without input from our senses (such as magic mushrooms)

Cognition:

Memory is defined as the internal record of some previous event or experience.
It is the representing of things we have seen, thought, spoken or experienced without the original stimulus being present.
Memory is sometimes **referred to as 'mental representation'** as memory is the psychological version of the original sound, thought, concept or object
The stage model of memory was developed by Atkinson and Shiffrin (1968)
The stage model has **3 seperate stages**:
Sensory memory, short-term memory and long-term memory
Each memory stage is **characterised by 3 difference**:
Capacity: How much information can be stored?
Duration: How long can the memory be stored
Function: What is done with the memory stored

Sensory memory is memory retained for a brief period, usually less than 5 seconds.
This information is encoded rapidly, based on their physical properties of the stimulation. These are often a sound or a fast visual image.
The sensory memory system stores all incoming sensory information in memory registers for the different senses.
Iconic memory = visual memory
Echoic memory = Auditory memory
Sensory memory is lost very quickly. **Important memory** is passed into the short term memory
Encoding refers to the conversion of sensory information into a form that can be processed by the brain. This information can be encoded visually, acoustically or through meaning (as words are often encoded by what they mean and not by their form)
Storage refers to the retention of the information. This is done via neurons.
Retrieval is the recovery of information stored in the brain

Short-term memory:
Where informations stored for about 30 seconds
Information in the short term memory may be rehearsed for the transfer, if any, of the information into longer-term storage

Short term memory refers to the information you are aware of, and is sometimes called **working memory**, which means that the thoughts, words and images are available for decision-making and problem-solving.
Working memory emphasises the active nature of processing memory.
The original working memory model was developed by Baddely and Hitch (1974). It consists of two slave systems for short term maintenance of information and one central executive responsible for organising information and co-ordinating the slave systems.
The slave systems are the phonological (articulatory) loop and the visuospatial sketchpad.
The central executive directs attention to relevant information and suppresses irrelevant information.
The articulatory loop stores and processes phonological information (Sound of language) and rehearses it silently
The visuospatial sketchpad stores visual and and spatial information, and constructs and manipulates visual images including details of shape, colour, motion, pattern and position and represents mental maps
In 2000, Baddely added a 4th component, the episodic buffer, this is also the **3rd slave** in the system linking the information across domain to form integrated units of visual, spatial and verbal information with time such the memory of a story of movie. It also has links to the long term memory

Rehearsal enables information to be retained in the working memory of longer
2 kinds of rehearsal:
Maintain rehearsal —> You are remembering a number for immediate use. It is not transferred to the long term memory (repeating a number in your head or out loud)

Elaborate rehearsal —> actively process and encode the information, rather than simply repeating it, trying to make the information useful for later.
Working memory can also be increased by chunking. This is when nearby material is combined into larger, meaningful groups. The larger group is based on patterns or regularities in the information being processed.

Long term memory
LTM is a relatively permanent store of information. LTM refers to information storage of greater than 30 seconds to the rest of the life.
Information in here can naturally fade, if the information is not used or retrieved very often.
Information can be interfered with, both during storage and retrieval where associations become confused over time.
Information travels through physical changes in the neurons and neural networks to make the associations and hence the storage permanent.
The two types of Long Term Memory are: procedural memory and declarative memory.
Procedural memory: stores the way you do things. The 'how to'. The memory of actions and skills that have been learned. This is also called **implicit memory** because it is not a conscious memory process and refers to the learning of motor skills.
Procedural memories take very little effort to retrieve and retrieval takes.
Declarative memory: The 'what' of memory. It is also known as the explicit memory and needs conscious effort for retrieval. It allows you to declare how things are.
2 types episodic memory and semantic memory
Episodic memory is the memory for the past personal events and it is an internal representation of an experience in your own life. Specific events such as: birth of brother, first date.
It is linked to particular feelings and sensations, and to a particular time.
Sematic memory is knowledge of facts and information, based on understanding and interpretation. Storing mental representations of the world

Recall, recognition and re-learning
Recall is retrieving information from memory without any prompts or cues
Recognition is identifying the information from a number of alternatives
Re-learning is re - learning information that a person has previously learned. If the concept is taught faster the second time, it is assumed that some information must have been retained

Forgetting: retrieval failure, interference, motivated forgetting, decay
Retrieval failure is the inability to retrieve a certain piece of information
Successful retrieval requires the use of cues that act as mental reminders. These cues cause a search to be activated, transferring likely information from LTM and WM.

Interference suggests that forgetting is a result of retrieval difficulties due to competing, similar, information being stored. Information is not lost from storage, but cannot be successfully retrieved because related or similar information gets mixed up or blocks retrieval
Retro-active interference is when new information interferes retroactively with old information
Pro-active interference is when previously learned information interferes with new learning.

Motivated forgetting is the inability to retrieve information because there is some advantage to not remembering it. This is a self defence mechanism and can be seen as not retrieving information because you do not want to remember it. It is not deliberate.

Decay is the simple fading away of information over time. It is much more evident in sensory storage and WM. Some psychologists claim that memories never deca, they just can't be retrieved at certain times, however a certain stimuli (e.g a noise or a smell or a face can bring back these memories).

Theories of forgetting generally conclude that forgetting occurs as a result of retrieval failure, in one form or another.
Remembering is defined as successful retrieval.
Damage to different parts of the brain can result in different forms of memory loss.

Theories and processes of learning

Stimulus-response is learning as a result of humans responding to stimuli in the environment. It assumes that changes in observed behaviours as a result of the environment were learning

Classical conditioning is caused by the association of two stimuli or the learning of conditional behaviour

An association forms between two stimuli, one of which is not normally associated with the desired response, such that the appearance of that stimulus alone results in the desired response behaviour.

Unconditioned stimulus (UCS) is one that unconditionally, naturally and automatically triggers a response.
Conditioned stimulus (CS) is the previously neutral stimulus
Conditioned response (CR) is a behaviour that does not come naturally, but must be learned by pairing the UCS and CS

Pavlov's experiment:
Food powder was placed in the mouth of a dog. This food was the 'unconditioned stimulus' (UCS), was paired with the sound of a buzzer, the conditioned stimulus (CS) and the amount of dogs saliva was measured. After a while of this, the buzzer was given alone, the dogs still salivated (the conditioned response) (CR). The salivation at the sound of the buzzer was thus considered to be conditional on its pairing with the CS

Operate conditioning is learning by reward/consequence

The law of effect was theorised by E.L.Thorndike (1874-1949) which States that 'Animals learn desired responses that are rewarded and drop other responses that are punished in some way.

J.B Watson and little Albert: this experiment showed how emotions are learned. Albert was presented a white rat (CS) and a loud noise (UCS). After several of these pairings, Albert showed fear (CR) towards the white rat. Later, this fear was generalised to stimuli that were similar to the CS such as a beard or dog.

Skinners Box was by theorist B.F Skinner where he would study the behaviour of small animals (mainly rodents and pigeons). The box had a number of of leaves that could be pressed by the animal, including feeding chambers, it would also sometimes provide a trigger or a buzzer if the wrong buzzer was pressed.

Behavioural Learning was developed by Albert Bandura (1925 - present).

Not only does the environment cause behaviour and learning , behaviour can change the environment. This is called the **Reciprocal Determinism**. Learning also occurs when we observe and imitate the behaviour of others.

Observational learning takes place when a new behaviour s learned or modified as a result of watching others coping their behaviours, or after watching he consequences of the behaviours of others.

Applications of observational learning are found in research on children's aggressive behaviour in playgrounds and in effects of television viewing on children's behaviour.

Techniques for modifying behaviour

Token economies are artificial systems of rewards and reinforcements where symbolic markers , such as coloured counters or fake money, are used to reward behaviours.

These can be exchanged for goods and privileges. They are more effective than simple reinforcements or schemes.

These tokens are not necessarily taken away for bad behaviour, but a different punishment is involved.

Criticisms is that in places like hospitals and prisons, it is hard to maintain behaviour once the patient has left. So these tokens would have to be replaced with other social reinforcements which are usually unsuccessful.

Systematic desensitisation is the application of classical conditioning to fears and phobias in humans. Fears and phobias are considered undesired behaviour and it is the idea to replace them with more desirable behaviour in a frightening situation. The fear response is replaced with a more relaxed response.

The process of systematic desensitisation involves drawing up a list of most fear-provoking situation to the least, then the therapist will introduce these from least fear provoking to most. This is **gradual exposure**.

Behaviour modification is the application of classical and operate conditioning techniques to human behaviour and learning. It uses reinforcement and punishment to modify or change unwanted behaviours and strengthens desirable ones. It can be used to treat psychological problems, such as fears

It builds on the principles of conditioning with the aim of altering the individual's environment and how the person interacts with that environment.

The questions for behaviour modification program is based on the questions:
- What behaviours are desirable and not desirable?
- Are the behaviours measurable and observable?
- What reinforces these behaviours?
- When are the reinforcements applied
- What are the consequences of these reinforcements?
- How can the reinforcement pattern be improved?

Positive and negative reinforcement and punishment:
Reinforcement is a consequence that causes behaviour to occur more frequently.

Positive reinforcement: occurs when a behaviour is rewarded.

Negative reinforcement: occurs when behaviour is followed by the removal of an unpleasant outcome, such as the ceasing of a loud noise

Punishment is a consequence that causes a behaviour to occur less frequently.

Positive punishment is the addition of an aversive consequence (loud noise)

Negative punishment is the removal of a pleasant stimulus

This method is used commonly in sport

Cognitive behaviour therapy:
Technique based on the premise that cognitions (thoughts) influences feelings and behaviours and that subsequent behaviours and emotions influence thought.
The therapist helps the client identify unhelpful thoughts, feelings and emotions that influence thoughts.
They are unhelpful because they are causing distress and distractions to every day living
Cognitive therapy consist of replacing the dysfunctional thoughts with ones that can be managed.
It can be used to treat depression, PTSD, Anxiety, ect.
It can help replace negative thoughts with positive ones, as well as reinforcing positive actions.
It helps in reducing relapses

Relational:

Conflict occurs when these is a perception that two parties, whether individuals or groups, have compatible goals, ideals or behaviour may not in fact be incompatible.

Mirror - image perceptions occur when people are in conflict where each party tends to form reciprocal and distorted perceptions of the other that are remarkably alike. **An example of this is** a mother may think that a son leaves his room messy just to annoy him while the son believes that the mum clean his room to irritate him.

3 solutions to resolve conflict are Imposed solutions, distributive solutions and integrative solutions.

Imposed solutions are dictated solutions. They lead to **one party winning** and **one party being dissatisfied** and the underlying conflict is not resolved. **For example**, a mother resolving a conflict between siblings.

Distributive solutions involve compromise or mutual concessions. **Neither party is happy**

Integrative solutions are often called win-win solutions because both sides can benefit from the decision reached. **It involves** understanding both parties' motives, values and goals. **Both parties** are satisfied with the outcome.

There are 3 techniques for resolving conflict; Mediation, Negotiation and counselling.

Mediation involves bringing a third party to help settle conflict. **Mediators help** the parties in a dispute to focus on the issues and reach a voluntary solution, either distributive or integrative. **Benefits are**, mediators can arrange time, venues and agendas for meetings so it does not fuel conflict, help them see common ground.

Negotiation involves parties who have some shared and opposing interests coming together to try to reach an agreement. **Successful negotiation** arrives at an integrative solution. **Thompson and Hastie (1990)** found that parties go into a negotiation expecting the other party's interests to be completely opposed to their own

Counselling is often sought when conflict arises within families. **Counsellors** help develop skills to help them deal with the conflict or to solve the conflict directly. They help with listening skills, assertiveness.

Socialisation is the acquisition of beliefs, values, and behaviours that are thought to be important and appropriate to function effectively as members of society.

Agents of socialisation are the factors that affect our socialisation. These include parents, grandparents, schools, media, religion and clubs.

Attachment refers to the formation of a strong emotional tie between a primary caregiver and their baby, it is important in the development of later socialisation of the infant.

Harry Harlow conducted experiments to measure the development attachment of infant monkeys to their mothers. He believed that such emotional bonds were important for subsequent healthy development.
The monkeys were put in cages with two surrogate steel wire mothers. One group had a steel wire mother with a baby bottle on it, and the other group had a cloth mother. Regardless of which surrogate mother was dispensing the milk, the monkey spent the most time cuddling and clinging to the cloth mother.
In frightening situations, the infants showed preference for the cloth mother over the wire mother, **Harlow concluded** that 'contact comfort', was more important in the formation of mother-infant attachment than feeding. **He generalised** his findings to a human mother-baby relationship.

Bowlby studied the predisposition of infants for constant contact with their mothers. He did not use experimental methods, he drew on various strands of theoretical thinking and clinical experience as he developed his theory of attachment.

He believed that there was an **optimum period** when infants became imprinted by early contact with their mothers.

Imprinting refers to the precise and permanent learning that occurs very early on in an infant's life to form a bond. (Attachment)

Bowlby believed that mothers have a biological need to be close to their child, which is why mother respond to crying and smiling.

He believed that attachment in infancy was crucial for attachments in adulthood.

Monotropy is attachment as a close bond with just one attachment figure.

Maternal deprivation refers to the separation from, or loss of, the mother, as well as to the failure to develop an attachment.

The primary caregiver acts as a prototype for future relationships via internal working model. There are 3 main features of this internal working model:

1. A model of others such as the mother being experienced as trustworthy
2. A model of the self as being valuable and important to others
3. A model of the self as having been effective when interacting with others, such as with their mothers.

Long term maternal deprivation can lead to; delinquency, reduced intelligence, increased aggression, depression and inability to show affection or concern for others

Criticisms are that Bowlby did not distinguish between deprivation and privation.

Privation is the complete lack of an an attachment bond rather than a loss.

Ainsworth developed ways to measure attachment, classified through 3 different ways;

Type A is anxious-avoidant infants. Showed insecurities when playing with their toys by ignoring their mother, failing to look at her and not trying to be close to her and did not seek contact during reunion

Type B is secure infants. They used their mother as a secure base from which to explore the room when playing with the toys and settled down quickly after reunion.

Type C is Anxious-resistant infants. Show + and - reactions to their mother. They show insecurities by resisting their mothers such as clinging to her but also kicking and pushing away during reunion.

Authoritarian parenting style demand obedience from their children. They are high on control and low on responsiveness. **They set** many rules and give few explanations for them. **Not interested** in alternate viewpoints that their children may have. **They use** power or withdrawal of love to enforce their rules. High demanding and strict with high expectations. Low warmth but high in involvement.

Authoritative parenting is a style that also set limits for the children. High in control and responsiveness. **Parent demands** are reasonable and ensure that the children know why the rules are set there. **More responsive** to their children's viewpoints. **As the children grow older**, they try to involve them in more decision making processes. **They are** warm and responsive in their interactions with their children and expect that the children will follow the rules. **They expect** mature, independant and age-appropriate behaviours from the children.

Permissive parenting is a style that provides parental acceptance of children. **Few rules** or guidelines for the children to follow. **Parents are** low in control and high on responsiveness. **Children's activities are not** closely monitored and parents rarely try to control their behaviour. **Children are able to** express themselves however they want.

Communication:

Communication is the transmission of a message from one person to another
Communication involves both verbal and non-verbal
Basil Bernstein studied the relationship between language style and social class.
He claimed that people from the working and middle class in the UK used different kinds of language codes.
Bernstein said that lower class people relied on preserving traditional roles and ways of interacting - a **restricted code.**
He also said that middle classes wanted to develop ideas in relation to their personal experiences - an **elaborate code.**
Bernstein believed that children in working class families had a language deficit because they could only use the restricted code. He said that this limits their ability to benefit from education.
3 aspects of restricted code is: 'Here and now is stressed', few descriptive words are used, much of the meaning only makes sense if the context is known.
3 aspects of elaborate code is: reference is made to events in the past or future, descriptive words are used frequently, meaning is clear from the sentence alone.
William Labov's ideas were based on his work with children from New York who spoke Black English Vernacular (BEV), or (AAVE).
Labov considered AAVE to be just as complex and rule governed as standard English and **that it should be** considered different not deficit
Labov pointed out that several European languages use double negatives in the same way as AAVE.

Tannen (1990) studied the differences in conversation between men and women and how these might contribute to break downs in communication.
Men tend to Report talk
Report talk is the type of talk used in public speaking and for information sharing. More public talk, talk in turns

When telling jokes or stories, or imparting information, they are comfortable with being centre stage.
They use talk as a way of gaining and holding the attention of their audience and to negotiate and maintain status.

Women tend to rapport talk
Rapport talk is a style of interaction that is based on establishing relationships and intimacy, developing understanding and negotiating differences. —> Focus on personal and small talk, tend to talk over each other or talk simultaneously
Tannen considered that women enjoyed a private conversation more than men, and this requires sharing experiences.
Tannen considered that these sales evolved from childhood where boys and girls are socialised differently in terms of expectations about language styles.
Girls being taught about maintaining relationships through talking
Boys being taught about maintaining relationships through action

Friction between man and women can occur because of a lack of understanding differences in communication styles.

Tannen considered that if men and women simply understand the differences in each other's reasons for talking, a lot of anguish can be avoided.

A hedge is used in rapport talk.
Hedges are words or phrases that are used to lesson the impact of a statement or request being made

Persuasion is a form of communication that we experience every day.
Persuasion involves attempting to change the beliefs, feelings and behaviour of another
There are 3 aspects for persuasion:
 Source of the message
Content of the message
Audience or the receiver of the message

Petty and Cacioppo state that there are two routes to persuasion: central and peripheral
The central route to persuasion consists of thoughtful consideration of the content of the message by the receiver as an active participant in the process of persuasion. Central processing can only occur when the receiver has both the motivation and the ability to think about the message and its content
The peripheral route to persuasion occurs when the listener decides whether to agree with a message based on cues other than the content of the message. Peripheral cues, like source expertise or a great deal of content in one message, are used as a short cut.
Attitudes that are changed through the central route to persuasion will have different effect from attitudes changed via the peripheral nervous system.

The source of the message is the more likely to accept the word of people with expertise in an area, even without assessing the validity of their claim. We attribute expertise to fast talkers

The nature of communication is the message itself as well as the medium used to communicate between the source and the audience.
When people understand the message and respond favourably to it, they are likely to be persuaded.
We do no simply absorb information we react and interact with it.

Characteristics of the audience:
The content or the presentation style of our message will change depending on a range of characteristics of the audience such as their age, relationship to us, personality, level of education or culture.
Some people are much more likely to be persuaded by strong arguments and unmoved by weak ones.
Other people who are less likely to take the strength of an argument into account are more likely to be swayed by such factors as the expertise or trustworthiness of the person presenting the message.

When presenters are female and tentative, male listeners were more easily persuaded the females.
Male speakers were more easily persuaded then females

People from western cultures were found to appeal strongly to logic.
Chinese readers appealed to both logic and emotions

Kim and colleagues (1998) examined cultural differences in the way attempts at persuasion are evaluated. **They based their study on** known differences between individualistic and collectivist cultures
Kim and colleagues wanted to describe and compare the preferred linguistic forms for the first and second attempt requests by people of different cultural orientations

Features and limitations of theories of language development

Chompsky proposed that language development was innate and would develop automatically when children were exposed to their language environment
Chompsky proposed a language acquisition device (LAD) that was hard wired for language. **It was a theoretical construct** that represents the genetic ability of humans to acquire language.
This proposed that language development was genetically predetermined.

The LAD worked by receiving as input the native language around the child and generating sentences in that same language as output.

The LAD worked by assuming that all languages share similarities for sentence construction. There principles are universal and are the assumptions children bring to the task of learning language.

It was claimed that people are genetically predisposed to learn this universal grammar, so children naturally learned language.

The LAD would make sure children's output increasingly approximated the language of native speakers

This theory paid little attention to the social environment in which the child was developing, except to acknowledge the the primary linguistic input came in the form of language being used in the family and in the community.

Bruner set out a theory that included a role for the language environment in supporting and shaping language learning. **He believed that** children's language development takes place through parents talking to their children.

Such learning involves participation in shared activities where words and meanings develop in routines and activities regularly undertaken. **He proposed** a language acquisition support system (LASS), which described how parents guided and supported their children 's emerging language through interaction. Not only did the children learn to talk, but they learned the language of the particular social, historical and cultural groups in which they grow up in.
He believed that the LASS requires the LAD and that language can only develop through interaction with the other.
There was a child component and an adult component

Scaffolding is the adults providing suitable interactional framework to allow language to develop.
Formats are micro - interactional patterns and include such activities such as meal or bathing.
Reference is how people manage and direct each other's attention, by linguistic means. Developed out of non-linguistic methods of directing attention such as turning your head
Joint attention is the shared focus of two individuals on a object, is first established through eye contact between an infant and his or her mother

Features of a language Acquisition support system (LASS)
1. Adults highlight features of the world that are already salient to the child and which have a simple grammatical form.
2. The adult helps the child by encouraging words (or sounds) and gestures that can be regarded as communication
3. In play that is ritualised, events can be created by language and then later recreated by language
4. Once play rituals are routines, processes can be used and generalised to other events

Developmental:

Stage theories describe development in terms of age-related, discrete qualitatively distinct steps or stages through which all individuals pass in the same set order.

A schema is an idea about what something is and how to deal with it.

Assimilation is when we interpret new experiences and information in terms of our current understanding

Accomodation is when we adjust this new information to fit particulars of new information.

There are 4 stages to Piaget's stage model of cognitive development; **Sensori-motor, pre-operational, concrete operational and formal operational**

Sensori-motor occurs from 0-2, where babies develop their understanding of the world through their sensory and motor interactions with it, through mouthing, looking, listening and touching.
At this stage, the child seems to have little understanding that things continue to exist if they are not within sight
Piaget found that infants do not have **object permanence** until about 8 months of age. He found this through an experiment where he showed an infant an object and then covered it up to see whether the infant would look for it
Object permanence is the concept gained by infants that an object continues to exist even when it cannot be seen.

Pre-operational (ages 2-7) is when children are still not able to carry out the mental operations that would allow them to think logically. **For example,** when susie complained that she did not have enough lemonade, her mother poured that glass of lemonade into a skinnier and taller one. Susie was now satisfied that she had enough lemonade. She was not able to understand the mental process of reversal to understand that the quantity of drink had not changed only its appearance.

During pre-operational, the children are egocentric.
Egocentric is when a person can only perceive the world from their own viewpoint
Piaget tested for egocentrism through two ways: asking a child to choose a present for their fathers and the three mountain task.
The present experiment is when a child is chose to choose a present for their father from a range of alternatives, they are more likely to choose a teddy bear than a ties
The three mountain experiment is when a child sits on one side of a model and determine what the person sitting on the other side of the model can see. This occurs up to the age of 6.

By the concrete operational stage (7-11), children are able to think logically and carry out mental operations, provided they are working with concrete materials - (materials that they can experience with their senses).
Children learn **conservation** during this stage.
Conservation is understanding that an object does not change its weight, mass, volume or area simply because it changes shape.
Piaget tested conservation through showing a child two balls of plasticine that were the same size, he would then all out one of the balls to make a long, thin sausage shape and ask the child if the sausage has more or less plasticine than the ball. Children who can conserve know that there is still the same amount of plasticine in both.

Children in this stage are able to **classify** and **seriate**
Classify is to group objects or events by features that they have in common
Seriate is the ability to order object with respect to common properties, such as height.
Towards the end of this stage, children start to be able to use mental pictures of objects and events, rather than having to use concrete materials to help them solve problems.

At the Formal operational stage (11+), children become capable of **abstract thinking**. **Abstract thinking is** thinking that does not rely on being able to see or handle concrete materials in order to reason about them. Adolescents can discuss *possible* outcomes of actions without having experienced them.

Logical thinking is developed during this stage, **it is** developing strategies to work through problems systematically, developing hypothesis and testing them until a solution is found. He tested this through the **pendulum experiment** where he had weights on different lengths of string. He asked them to identify the factors that influenced that rate of their swing. They could be swung by any amount of force. Children who had achieved logical thinking were able to determine that it was the length of the string that influenced the rate of swinging.

Criticisms of Piaget are that he placed too little emphasis on how children's minds develop through their interactions with others. He later said that social interaction influenced the rate at which children moved from one stage to the next. However some psychologists still considered that he underestimated the role of social and cultural influences.

Other scientists suggested that some of his finding may have been a result of:
- using unfamiliar materials and situations
- Using language that breaks conventional rules
- Failing to distinguish between competence and performance
- Using tasks the measured education, not development

Using unfamiliar materials and situations:
Studies have manipulated Piaget's experiments with familiar materials that are common to young children. These indicate that the children in Piaget's studies may have failed tasks because the lacked familiarities rather than lacking cognitive skills

Using language that breaks conversational rules:
Michael Siegal argued that younger children's apparent inability to conserve can be explained by adults breaking the conventional rules that children hold. He proposed that problems arose when experimenters ask questions where the answer has already been given. As these questions used in Piaget's tests involved this, Seigal suggested that the children thought their first answer was wrong and in an attempt to please the examiner, change their response to an incorrect one.

Failing to distinguish between competence and performance:
There was an issue whether Piaget was actually measuring **competence**
Competence is the ability to understand a question and correctly complete a task. Piaget assumed that if a child failed to complete a task, then they lacked the competence to perform it. However recently, scientists have found that more than competence is a factor on completing a task, such as familiarity. It is also considered that children are capable of doing the reasoning involved in a task but not the explaining.
Piaget's tasks relied on verbal responses to questions, lack of skill in verbal expression may mask competence in reasoning.

Measuring education rather than cognitive development:

Moral development: Kohlberg theory of moral development.
Kohlberg proposed a stage theory to account for the development of moral **reasoning**.
The reasoning is about what constitutes right and wrong that underpins ethical behaviour.
According to Kolhberg, there is a universal sequence to moral development which begins at early stages of childhood. He theorised **6 stages of moral development**.
He measured these through a series of dilemmas that were given to young males.

The dilemmas focused on the value of honesty, and the importance of upholding contractual agreements with others.
Heinz's dilemma is an example.

Heinz's dilemma: A woman was near death with a unique type of cancer. There is a drug that might save her. The drug costs $4000 per dose. The sick woman's husband Heinz, went to everyone he knew to borrow the money and tried every legal means to raise some money, but he could only get together $2000. He asked the doctor who discovered the drug for a discount or to let him pay later. But the doctor refused saying that he discovered the drug and wanted to make money from it. *Should Heinz break into the laboratory to steal the drug for his wife? Why or why not?*

Stage 1: A person's judgement of whether something is right or wrong depends on the consequences of the action. You should obey authorities to avoid punishment. The greater the punishment, the greater the bad deed. **Moral focus** is on punishment/obedience and egocentrism. **In Heinz's dilemma**, Heinz should not steal the medicine because they will go to prison. **Characteristics/content is** that they do not recognise different points of view and confuses perspectives of authority with one's own.

Stage 2: The individual obeys rules in order to gain rewards or achieve a desired end. A 'what's in it for me' approach. **Moral focus** is on individual, instrumental and concrete. **Characteristics/content is** that they are aware of different interests and that these may conflict and instrumental exchange of services, goodwill and fairness. **In Heinz's dilemma**, Heinz should steal the medicine, because he will be much happier if he saves his wife.

Stage 1 and 2 are referred to as <u>pre-conventional morality</u> because the person at this stage is concerned solely with themselves and the external consequences of their actions. They have not internalised society's conventions about what is right or wrong.

Stage 3: Behaviour that is considered moral is approved by others or intended to please or help them. **Moral focus** is on mutual interpersonal expectations, conformity and relationships. **Characteristics/content is** following rules, living up to the expectations of others, and maintaining trust, gratitude, respect and loyalty. **In Heinz's dilemma,** Heinz should steal the medicine , because his wife expects it. Heinz should not steal the drug because if his wife dies, he can't be blamed; the doctor is the heartless one

Stage 4: The individual considers the perspectives of society as a whole as reflected in law. **Moral focus** is on social system and maintenance of one's conscience. **Characteristics/content is** doing one's duty, taking the view of the system, obeying laws and upholding the social order. **In Heinz's dilemma,** Heinz should not steal the medicine, because the law prohibits stealing. Heinz should steal the the drug because it's his duty to save his wife, but he must take the punishment because he has broken the law.

Stage 3 and 4 are considered <u>conventional morality</u> since the individual who is reasoning at this level tries to obey social rules and laws to maintain social order and be considered a good person.

Stage 5: A person considers that laws that express the viewpoint of the majority and are impartially imposed to be social contracts that one is morally obliged to uphold. **Moral focus** is on Rights and social contract. **Characteristics/content is** asserting and integrating basic rights, values and legal contracts, laws as social contracts. **In Heinz's dilemma,** Heinz should steal the medicine, because everyone has a right to live, regardless of the law. Heinz should not stay the medicine, because the doctor has the right to fair compensation.

Stage 6: Is a stage that few people reach, the individual defines right and wrong on the basis of their own conscience, applying what they consider to be principles of universal justice. **Moral focus** is on universally ethical principles and moral point of view. **Characteristics/content is** commitment to the universal principle of justice. Respect for others. **In Heinz's dilemma,** Heinz should steal the medicine, because saving human life is a more fundamental value than the property right. Heinz should not steal the medicine, because that violates the rule of honesty and respect

Stage 5 and 6 are considered <u>post-conventional morality</u> because they depend on principles of justice that are beyond conventions and could be in conflict with written laws.

Support for Kohlberg:

Multiple longitudinal studies have been found that support Kolhberg's theory of moral development.

Criticism of Kolhberg's theory:
There are two main criticisms: **Gender bias** and **culture bias**

Gender bias:
Only males in his original research and the responses lead him to develop a very western, male-orientated view of moral development. Early research found that males tended to reach stage 4 whereas females tended to reach stage 3, Gilligan suggested the this may be due to different socialisation of males and females resulting in different values being developed, rather than males being more morally developed than females. She argued that female's moral reasoning was not inferior, simply different.
However, Gilligan has been criticised as only interviewing a small number of females and further research into kolhberg's theory has suggested that the theory works on both men and women.

Culture bias:
Shweder considered that Kolhberg's research methods led him to 'impose stage classifications upon informant from other cultures that both distort the meaning of what they have to say and fail to take account of implicit structures in their views of their own social order. It was found that different cultures and religions there are different ideas about what, for example, what constitutes ethical principles, that would lead members to reason different from members of another culture with each group considering this difference indicative of a lower level of moral reasoning.

Erik Erikson:
Erikson developed the stage theory of identity which is the **distinct nature of the self, each individual develops** what is termed a **unique sense of identity.**
Erikson described the development of identity not just in childhood but across the entire lifespan. He considered the development of identity to be a series of continual challenges that have to be met by the individual to move successfully to the next phase of life. There are **eight stages:**

1. **Infancy:** 0-1.
Crisis: Trust vs Mistrust.
Description and outcomes of crisis: Infants are dependant on others for food, warmth and love and must trust others to provide these. If the infants needs are met consistently and responsively, then the infants will develop a secure attachment to their parent or caregiver can lead to mistrust of the world around them.

2. **Toddler:** 1-3
Crisis: Autonomy versus shame and doubt
Description and outcomes of crisis: Toddlers learn to walk, to talk, to feed themselves and to use toilets, so become autonomous and less dependent on others. **Success** at becoming

independant leads to self-confidence and self control and mistakes are easily fixed or corrected. Overprotection by or disapproval from parents can lead to shame and donut in the toddle's ability to be independant

3. Early childhood: 3-6
Crisis: initiative versus guilt
Description and outcomes of crisis: Children's social and motor skills become highly developed during early childhood, and the dilemma for these children is to balance the wish to achieve mare and take more responsibility while accepting parental control and discipline without guilt.

4. Middle children: 6-12
Crisis: Industry versus inferiority
Description and outcomes of crisis: Industry can be regarded as competence and this is achieved through learning at school. Meanwhile, relationships with friends and peers increase. Children who are **rewarded** for their industry and achieve success at school will develop a sense of competence and mastery, while a **failure to achieve** competence may lead to a feeling of inferiority

5. Adolescents: 12-18
Crisis: Identity versus role confusion
Description and outcomes of crisis: To answer the question 'Who am I?' Successfully, an adolescent must integrate all the resolutions to the earlier crises and achieve a sense of identity incorporating all the elements of self. This is the major crisis to be resolved for successful transition to adulthood. **Failure to resolve** the identity conflict can result in role confusion, indecision and avoidance of commitment.

6. Early adulthood: 18-40
Crisis: Intimacy versus isolation
Description and outcomes of crisis: During early adulthood, the achievement of intimacy with another person is important. **A failure to** develop a sense of identity can mean that a young adult is incapable of forming an intimate relationship and thus sinks into isolation.

7. Middle adulthood: 40-65
Crisis: Generativity versus stagnation
Description and outcomes of crisis: In middle adulthood, the main focus is on work and the maintenance of family relationships. Success in both these areas leads to a sense of accomplishment and leaving a legacy for the future. **Failure to resolve** this crisis can lead to self-centredness and stagnation

8. Late adulthood: 65+
Crisis: Integrity versus despair
Description and outcomes of crisis: Towards the end of one's life, there is a time to reflect on one's contribution and to view it as positive and satisfactory or as disappointing and unsatisfactory. **If life is regarded as fulfilled,** an older person can view death with a sense of integrity; if not, death will be despaired and even feared.

Bandura's social learning theory:
Children's behaviour is the result of them modelling or imitating behaviour they have observed. This is social learning.

Bandura considered that children watch other people and copy their behaviour. Through this, children learn complex social behaviours ranging from aggression and altruism to sex roles.

Originally, Bandura proposed that children passively took in information from watching the behaviour of others and then simply copied it. **He concluded this as a result of his BOBO doll experiment.** In his experiment, this doll was beat and bashed and aggressively shouted words at it. This was recorded and shown to groups of young children. The children were then allowed to play with the doll and treated the doll the same way as seen on the tape

In his later experiments, Bandura acknowledged that learners play an active role in the modelling process, choosing which models they attend to and deciding whether the behaviour they are observing is consistent with their beliefs and values and produces wanted outcomes.
The people who's behaviour we choose to model, change as we grow up.
As a young child, a person may model their teacher's or parent's behaviour. In primary school they may choose to model a popular class mate. In later years, we may see a person that we admire or such as a coach and we may decide to copy this behaviour.

For observational learning to occur, it is needed to have:
Attention, retention, reproduction and motivation

Personality:

Personality is the characteristic ways in which a person thinks, feels and behaves.
It is a construct that we infer from people's behaviour.

Trait theories describe the stable forms of behaviour that people display in any and every situation.
Traits are inferred from behaviour and it is expected that people behave in similar ways in different circumstances.
Traits can be used to predict future behaviour
The three main dimensions of personality: Neuroticism, extroversion and psychoticism

McCrae and Costa's trait theory of personality:
Considered there were 5 dimensions to personality: **Extroversion, neuroticism, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness.**

(Scale = low to high)
Extroversion is being related to sociability of the Individual and how easy they found it to assertive and emotionally expressive.
Loner — joiner
Quiet — talkative
Passive — active
Reserved — affectionate

Neuroticism is related to how inward looking the person is and whether their emotions are stable or not.
Calm — anxious
Secure — insecure
Unemotional — emotional
Hardy — vulnerable

Openness to experience is related to whether the individual enjoys new experiences and challenges, meeting new people and trying new activities.
Down to earth — imaginative
Uncreative — creative
Conventional — original
Unadventurous — Daring

Agreeableness describes how good natured, cooperative and trusting the person
Suspicious — trusting
Critical — Lenient
Ruthless — soft hearted
Irritable — good hearted

conscientiousness is related to level of organisation, dependability and preparedness to work hard.
Negligent — Conscientious
Lazy — hardworking
Disorganised — well organised
Late — punctual

Recently, Ashton and Lee (2005) added a sixth dimension (Honesty — Humility)
Obsequious — Sincere
Deceitful — fair minded
Greedy — greed avoidant
Boastful — modest

Recipient of harassment are positively related to factor of neuroticism but negatively associated with extroversion, agreeableness and conscientiousness.
<u>Limitations of trait theories:</u>

Stability:
A claim of all personality traits are that they are stable, enduring characteristics.

Strong evidence suggests that once adulthood is reached, personality becomes stable.

Pullman and her colleagues found that the mean levels of personality traits among adolescents were very similar to adults from the same population.

Longitudinal research found that adolescents were very similar to young adults in the stability of their personality

Mischel found that just because a personality trait is stable, does not mean we act the same way in every situation. He said in his later research that 'the alternatives interact'.

Lack of situational consistency,
lack of agreeable number of traits
Only slightly predict behaviour

Utility compared with contemporary type theories:
Personality tests are used to determine an individual's suitability for a particular job and the compatibility of the workers within teams.

People who have the same cluster of characteristics or traits are said to have the same **personality type.**

A popular personality test to do this is the Myers - Briggs personality test:
Focus is on 4 things:
1. Where would you primarily prefer to direct your energy

Extrovert/introvert

2. How you prefer to process information

Intuition/Sensing

3. How you prefer to make decisions

Thinking/feeling

4. How you prefer to organise your life

Judging/Perceiving

Personality trait tests can be used to help test for health concerns such as possibility for heart attacks. **Rosenman and Friedman** considered that there were two types of personality:

Type A: Ambitious, competitive, pushy, highly motivated, busy and impatient

Types B: Easy going, low levels of; 'time urgency, competitiveness and hostility'

Study of 3524 men found that 257 men had heart attacks. **69%** from type A. Not one from 'pure' type B.

Myertek found that <u>hostility</u> — reactive anger — was the main factor that linked to heart disease

A third personality type was added:

Type C: passive, bland, helpless and appeasing

Humanistic theories of personality:

It is an interest in understanding people in terms of their own experiences, not just as an object of study.

A central belief is that people are not simply motivated by basic drives or needs or totally shaped by their environment but they have the need to develop their capabilities and try to reach their potential throughout their lives

In humanistic theories, Personality results from people striving to achieve their potential

<u>**Maslow:**</u>
Proposed a hierarchy of needs, starting with **basic physiological needs**, such as the need for food, water and sleep, through to **phycological needs** such as need for belongingness, love and self-esteem, to the **self-fulfilment needs** and living up to one's full potential.

Maslow said that an individual must satisfy their more basic needs at least partially, before they are able to address the higher level needs.

Bottom to top:

<u>**Basic physiological needs:**</u>
Physiological needs: Food, water, warmth, rest

Safety needs: Security, safety

<u>**Psychological needs:**</u>
Belongingness and love needs: Intimate relationships, friends

Esteem needs: Prestige and feeling of accomplishment

<u>**Self actualisation needs:**</u>
Self-actualisation: Achieving one's full potential, including creative activities

Maslow was critical of Freud's emphasis on the study of clients with mental health issues as the basis for understanding people and proposed that it was necessary to examine 'good specimens' to understand how people reached their potential.

Maslow studied self-actualised men and women who had made great use of their potential. He originally studied historical figures such as Einstein, Lincoln and Eleanor Roosevelt.

From these people, he developed a list of personal characteristics of self actualisers: **Being idealistic and involved in and working for a cause external to themselves, and devoting their lives to the search for 'being values', ultimate values, such as truth, honesty and goodness.**

Behaviours leading to self-actualisation:
1. Experience life vividly with full concentration and absorption
2. When faced with decisions, make the growth choice, not the fear choice
3. Listen to the 'impulse voices' rather than the voices of authority or tradition and let the self emerge

4. Take responsibility for decisions and actions and be honest rather than posing or playing games
5. Dare to listen to yourself and express your opinion even if it is different, nonconformist and unpopular
6. Work to do well at the things that you want to do and be as good a you can be
7. Set up conditions so that peak experiences are likely to occur
8. Be honest with yourself about you strengths and weaknesses, identify your defences and give them up

Rodgers:

He believed that people are born good and with the potential for enormous growth. Important people in our lives help us grow by providing genuineness, acceptance and empathy.

Genuine people are honest, open with us and do not put on a front.

Accepting people are prepared to take us as we are, with all out short comings; we do not need to change or improve to be valued or accepted. **Rodgers called this type of acceptance unconditional positive regard.**

Empathetic people try to see the world from our own perspective and understand how we feel.

Rodgers considered that we needed to experience these conditions from significant people in our lives (teacher, parents, friends or mentors) in order to feel free to make any changes we want to make in ourselves — to grow and to self - actualise.

Central to Rodgers' theory was the concept of self identity. If we have a **well-adjusted personality**, there needs to be a good match between our **ideal self** (the person we would like to be), our **self image** (the person we think we are) and our **true self** (the person we really, objectively are).

If we are value kindness and think of ourselves as a kind person, we need to act with kindness and compassion.

The greater gap between our ideal self, self image and behaviour, the more likely we are to feel anxious and stressed.

Humanistic theorists consider that personality cannot be measured using rating scales, tests or inventories.

It is measured through a self report known as a Q-sort

A Q-sort is a stack of cards on which are printed statements such as:

'I try hard to please others'

'If I put my mind to it, I can do anything'

'Success is important to me'

These are used to look at the match between the ideal self and self image.

These cards were rearranged twice from most like you to least like you: once for the ideal self and once for that self image.

Rodgers considered that a person with a well adjusted personality would arrange the cards in similar order

Limitations of the Q-sort test:

Sorter of the cards have to be honest and ready to be honest and open and to share what he/she really believes.

Limitations of Humanistic theories:

Vagueness on some of the concepts such as — self actualisation

Vague concepts are difficult to scientifically investigate

Some suggest that Maslow's description of the characteristics of a self-actualised person were — characteristic that he found in his heroes — just a list of values

Theory is overly optimistic and fails to take into account human capacity for evil.
To be realistic, a person must consider the good and the evil in the world.

Contributions of humanistic theories:
Unique focus on how humans serve to find meaning in life
Emphasis on our own subjective view of reality and how we strive to be the best we can be

Social Cognitive theory:

Considers that personality by itself does not determine behaviour, even if it is relatively stable, it only influences behaviour.
Behaviour is a result of the interaction between the **internal** and **external determinate:**
Internal: Personality, beliefs, thoughts and expectations
External: Rewards and punishments
This occurs in an environment and the environment cannot be ignored

Social cognitive theory provides an alternate to psychodynamic and behaviourist theories in explaining human behaviour

Bandura:

Observer must value the behaviour and also had to have the required component skills to produce the behaviour
In his later theory, Bandura proposed a **reciprocal determinism.** It emphasised that not only is behaviour influenced by what we see and what we think and believe, but the converse is also true.

For example: Children who have observed their parents effectively resolving disagreements through discussion **(behaviour)** are likely to believe that this. Is an effective way to deal with disputes **(Cognition)**. In the future, this belief is likely to affect their own behaviour when they find themselves in disagreement with another person. However this interaction occurs within a social context. The same child who has seen discussion as a way of resolving disputes in aggressive means and decide that **in the school context** aggression is more effective than discussion.

He noted that we not only watch that actions of others, we watch the consequences of those actions, the rules and standards that apply to behaviour in specific situations and the ways in which people regulate their own behaviour.

Environmental factors are important, but so are conscious, self-generated goals and standards that influence our thoughts, feelings and actions.

In the reciprocal determination, each factor influence each other.

Bandura was particularly interested in applying his ideas to classroom learning.

His theory predicts that learning would be shaped by factors in the environment especially reinforcements that students and their peers experienced.
Students own thoughts and beliefs about themselves and their interpretation of what goes on in the classroom would also influence their behaviour.

Their ideas were further developed in Bandura's notion of **self - efficiency.**

self - efficiency is the degree to which you are sure of your own ability and capability to manage and to be effective in meeting the demands of particular situation.
Our self system, compromising to our self-system, compromising our cognitive skills, abilities and attitudes, guides how we perceive, evaluate and control our behaviour.

We can acquire a strong sense of self-efficiency by mastering new skills and meeting new challenges in specific situations.
It develops in early childhood as we learn and master new skills and evolves throughout our lifespan as we meet and conquer new tasks.
People can fail at tasks because they do not believe that they can not do it, even if they possess the skills to complete the task.

Self doubt and imagining dire consequences can prevent successful achievements.

According to Bandura, our self system is very flexible and how we regard ourselves and our abilities varies depending on situations or tasks we face.
Our belief in ourselves will influence the types of challenges we are willing to try, and how persistent we will be in our attempts to succeed or overcome obstacles.
When we succeed in mastering a task, our self efficiency is enhanced
When we fail to manage or deal with a situation or task, our self-efficiency is undermined.

Mischel
He tried to take into account social cognitive factors when considering personality and its impact on behaviour and to reconcile within a single framework both trait and social cognitive approaches to explain human behaviour.

He considered that this was necessary to deal with apparent inconsistencies in personality in varying situations. **For example:** why one person might feel confident in one situation, but shy in another one.

He said that it was essential to take the person and the context into account
A person's characteristics change 'systematically and predictably in different situations,
depending on individual differences: personality, past experience with the situation, ect

Neuroticism affects reactions to stress through both exposure and reactivity to stressful events, scubas conflict with others

Evaluation of social cognitive theory:
Well grounded in scientific research and its concepts have been empirically tested
Influential due to wide applicability and robust theory.
Explains learning and the influence of beliefs on the self and how these affect and are affected by particular situations

Critics claim that it ignores unconscious influences on behaviour and, as such, is not as rich as humanistic theories that study a person as a whole including unconscious elements and irrational behaviour

Social:

Social facilitation is: the tendency for the presence of others to enhance (help) performance on simple tasks but inhibit or impair (hurt) performance on difficult tasks

Social inhibition reduced performance due to the presence of others

Robert Zajonc studied social facilitation. **He proposed that** the presence of others (or a belief that someone is watching) raises our level of arousal. **This arousal influence affects our performance** in different ways, depending on the difficulty of the task being performed.

Psychological arousal is associated with stress and anxiety, and certain bodily responses such as increased heart and breathing rate. **According to Zajonc**, an immediate effect of arousal is to lead us to perform our dominant response, that is the quickest and easiest and best reaction possible for the task at hand.

When a task is simple or well learned the dominant response is most likely to be the correct one so therefore, the presence of others enhance performance

When a task is complex, which involves a selection from a number of appropriate responses, the dominant response is often incorrect. In this case, the presence of others impairs performance.

Bystander effect: the more people present in an emergency, the less likely it is that each person will try to help.

Diffusion of responsibility: If a person is alone, he or she accepts responsibility. If several people are present, each assumes that the other will do something so he or she does not need to take responsibility.

Group polarisation: When individuals are in a group with others who hold similar attitudes or beliefs, discussion within the group tends to strengthen opinions.

Interacting within a group not only influences our behaviour in different ways, it also influences our attitudes, beliefs, opinions and other thoughts.

Conformity: Changing behaviour in response to group pressure.
It also means that: people will assume the behaviour of others in any particular social group without explicitly being told how to behave or act.

Solomon Asch studied conformity

Normative social influence: When we conform to group standards in order to be part of a group and be accepted by the group.

Solomon Asch study: Was a simple visual judgment test consisting of 8 - 10 people. They were shown two cards. On one there were 3 lines of different length and a single line on the other one. Each participant was asked to say which of the three lines were the same that single one. However, only one of the participants were actual, the others were a part of the experiment. There were 18 trials, the first few everyone chose the right one and later on the 'confederates' said the wrong one, even if it was obviously wrong and the participants agreed with them, knowing it was wrong.

Informal social influence: We take sources on how to behave from watching the people around us.

Factors of conformity:

1. Group size: Up to 4 has most influence
2. The degree of unanimity —> when all in the group agree, it is hard to stand out
3. Having a confederate —> the presence of one person who shares one's views or at least does not agree with the other is the group significantly strengthens resistance conformity.

Highest levels of conformity are in collectivist cultures whereas **lowest are** in individualist cultures.

Obedience is: Changing behaviour in response to instruction or direct request by an authority figure.

Stanley Milgrim and Philip Zimbardo studied obedience

Stanley Milgrim's experiment:
There were two participants one was the 'teacher' and the other was the 'learner' (a confederate) in two seperate rooms that were connected by a small vent so they could hear each other.
The learner had to learn lists of pairs of words and the 'teacher' had to give an electric shock each time the learner said the words wrong. The teacher was told to give progressively larger shocks each time they said the word wrong. This ranged from 15 volts to 450 volts. The teacher was in the same room of the 'teacher' to ensure they were doing it correctly. At about 150 volts, the learner would say that they had heart troubles and could not continue with the experiment, whereas the experimenter stayed cool and told the 'teacher' to continue. At increasing volts, the learners distress increased. At 300 volts, the 'learner' stopped responding to the questions. 26/40 participants went to 450 volts.

The main factors influencing obedience in this experiment are:
1. **Immediacy or proximity to the victim (who was not seen)**, if the participants can see the 'victim', obedience drops significantly
2. **Immediacy or proximity to the experimenter**, removing the experimenter from the same room as the teacher reduced obedience
3. **Authority of the experimenter,** outfit and location of the experiment. Non-official setting and informal clothing reduces obedience

Why do people obey authority:
1. **Belief in legitimate authority**
2. **Commitment to successful achievement of the experiment**
3. **Lack of disobedient role models**
4. **Lack of personal responsibility —>** In Milgrim's experiment, the experimenter assured the 'teacher' that they were not personally responsible if anything happened. **The participant was acting on order, removing any personal responsibility for what happened.**

What was Zimbardo's Stanford prison experiment:

Original focus: look at how social norms and social conventions might influences the behaviour of participants who are playing the roles of prisoners and guards.
18 middle class males, all with no previous physical or mental health issues. Completely random assignment to both prisoners and guards through flipping a coin.
The participants were arrested by real police who did mugshots and fingerprints before putting them in prison uniform and putting them in a 'mock prison'. Each prisoner was given a number that they were referred to and an ankle chain to remind them of their prisoner status with mock cells. No windows and clocks to simulate a real prison.
Zimbardo met with the **prison guards** before hand and told them that they were not suppose to harm the prisoners, but they could try to create a situation that provoked fear or loss of individuality. The guards were also given uniforms and batons which were used as **threats** of physical violence, **not actual** and also mirrored sunglasses. They were instructed to refer to the prisoners by their number not their names

The following days, the guards developed rules in order to enforce the rules after the suppression of a rebellion. The prison guards were increasingly brutal, humiliating the prisoners and subjecting ring leaders to solitary confinement. The prisoners became dehumanised and dejected. Some prisoners had to be released due to hysteria, crying, rage and body rash. The experiment was meant to go on for 2 weeks but only lasted 6 days.
The assigned roles were a reality for the participants

The prison experiment found that social roles and social environment played was an extremely influential factor on behaviour than thought before.

Not all people are affected by conformity and obedience, some committed individuals resist group influence.

Social psychology is the scientific study of the nature and causes of individual behaviour in social situations.

Attribution theory:
Fritz Heider theorised attribution theory
Defined as how people infer the reasons behind behaviour of others.
Broken up into two parts: Internal attribution and external attribution

Internal attribution is when we infer something about the person is responsible for the behaviour — their attitudes, motives, personality, ect.

External attribution is when we conclude that some external cause is responsible for the behaviour— peer pressure or threats

Fundamental attribution error is when we do not sufficiently consider the surrounding circumstances — in other words, we favour internal attribution for the cause of the behaviour.

Self-serving bias is when we distort the facts and make situational attributions to maintain self esteem.

Kelly's theory of casual attribution:
Was developed to try to explain how people make casual explanations and answer questions about 'why' something happened.
Considers that the antecedents and the consequences of attribution for behaviour need to be considered to fully understand what type of attribution has been made.

Antecedents is what happened before the behaviour: such as information, beliefs and motivation.
Attributions are perceived causes: Internal or external.
Consequences is what happened after the behaviour: such as, behaviour, affect, expectancy.

Kelly considered that the information that people used could relate to persons, are **time factors and relevant information about the situation**

Limitations of attribution theory:
1. Still issues that attribution theory had to address such as: why prior beliefs such as stereotypes affect the intake of information about possible competing causes of behaviour and events.
2. Does not explain why people prefer a casual explanation over ones that take into account all of the person, time and situation information.

Applications of attribution theory:
1. Used in clinical psychology in understanding patient's mindsets and how it influences behaviour. For example, depressed people often overestimate their own role in a negative event, leading to depression and can use this information in treatment.

2. Used in educational psychology when interested in how changing the attribution of both students and teachers for good and bad grades can alter the impact of these attributions in self-esteem and motivation of the student.
3. Used in sport psychology when looking at attributions for winning and losing and their impacts on the player's self-evaluations and motivation as a group.

Cognitive Dissonance theory:

Leon Festinger theorised cognitive dissonance theory

Cognitive dissonance theory is when people experience discomfort when they hold two beliefs that are in conflict or when they behave in ways that are inconsistent with their beliefs.

People attempt to reduce this dissonance either by changing the belief or attitude, or by changing the behaviour.

An example of this is a smoker who believes that smoking is bad for his health may decide that the evidence against smoking being a health hazard is flawed and inconclusive **(change in belief)** or her may join a quit program **(Change in behaviour).**

Applications of cognitive dissonance theory:
1. Is used to help change negative behaviour, such as drink driving, smoking ect.

Culture and values:

McMillan and Chavis proposed 4 criteria that had to be met for an individual to feel a sense of community.
Sense of community is that sense of belonging or attachment to their community that people may have.
The 4 criteria are:
Membership
Influence
Fulfilment of needs
Shared emotional connection

Membership is providing a feeling of belonging, of being a part of something bigger than yourself
The 5 attributes of membership are:
- Boundaries
- Emotional safety
- A common symbol system
- A sense of belonging and identification
- Personal investment

Boundaries are: Important for neighbourhood communities such as walls of gang graffiti signs to indicate territories.
They provide a **sense of emotional safety** by separating our group from the other groups and indicating who can be trusted.

Communities often have a **common symbol system**. This includes outfits, rituals or language to indicate who is a member. Language differences can be jargon rather than new language, creating a sense of inclusion or exclusion.

A sense on belongingness and identification means an environment in which we can be ourselves and where what we express is accepted and valued, as seen through the responses of others in that group

McMillan and Chavis noted that a sense of belonging and identification facilitated the development of a common symbol system, which defines the community's boundaries.

They considered that a sense of belonging and emotional safety led to **personal investment** in the community, which resulted in members feeling that they ad earned the right to be a member.

Influence is a bi-directional concept. While individuals are attracted to become members of a community in which they have influence, community cohesiveness requires members to be prepared to conform.

Conformity and community influence on group members are indicative of the strength of the attachment to the community hat is experience by members.

It was proposed that the pressure for conformity comes from the needs of the individual and the group for **consensual validation.**

consensual validation is an inherit need for the individual to know that the things they experience are experienced in the same way by others, counter balanced by the group's need for the individual to validate the group's world view

Groups are more cohesive when **leaders influence members and the members influence the leader concurrently.**

People who acknowledge others' opinions and need are often more influential than those trying to dominate others and ignore their wishes.

Integration and the fulfilment of needs:

Group success bring group members closer together.
Members need to know each others strengths and weaknesses, roles and tasks need to be assigned and they must ensure that competition is not occurring.

A way to achieve greater co-operation is to make rewards dependant on outcomes by the group

They proposed that a way for integration and fulfilment of need to be met was through being a member of a group of people with shared values, who think and feel similarly to themselves and with whom they can safely be themselves.

Shared emotional connection:
It has two components:
Contact and high quality interaction

Shared emotional connection refers to the feeling that we might have of being connected to another person through a common emotional response to a shared activity or event. **Eg: shared history**.

Shared history is forged through being together over a period of time, but also by the quality and importance of the interaction

They considered that the shared emotional connection experienced by a community is often represented in art: the stories, music and other symbolic expressions of a community that represent its values and traditions.

Impacts of significant events on individuals and communities:
A stressor is and object or event that results in stress.
Stress is a state of physiological or psychological arousal that results from the individual's interpretation of stressors which can occur at and individual or world level.

Individual level can be bad or good, eg; the death of a loved one or the birth of a new baby.

World level are large scale events that affect more than an individual; however, they are often a source of stress. Eg, a natural disaster

Event characteristics contributing to stress:
Three main factors that influence whether we find an experience stressful or not.
1. Predictability: unpredictable events are more stressful and have a longer lasting impact.
2. Controllability: Having no control over events is a major source of stress
3. Experience of threat or loss: If an individual has experienced threat or loss in a situation, then it more stressful.

Positive responses to stressful events: Hardiness, resilience and post traumatic growth.

When people with a **hardy personality** experience low stress situations they have the opportunity to: demonstrate mastery of a challenge, they felt more control of their lives, had a sense of direction in both their work and personal lives.

People with hardy personalities were less likely to develop mental illness as they have more resilience.
Resilient people:

1. have the capacity for making the most of small windows of opportunity
2. Having a deep-rooted faith in a system of meaning
3. Having a healthy social support network
4. Having a wide comfort zone.

Resilience can be developed over time through combining challenges with support.

It was found that influences how individuals respond to major stressful events is their sense of community. A sense of community is important to psychological wellbeing of people of all ages within a community and affects how well they will 'bounce back' after an emergency.

Positive responses by communities to negative events:

Community competence is competence of a community to be able to identify needs and issues, and work co-operatively to carry out plans and achieve goals.

If a person lives in a competent community and have a sense of community, the community is considered to be resilient.

However, the effects of community resilience on outcomes are not direct, eg; a person might increase a sense of self efficiency and social networks, this lead to reduced stress and increased growth.

Trauma is the most distressing forms of stress.

Post traumatic growth is the experience of positive changes that occur as a result of the struggle with the new reality that the person faces after experiencing trauma.

5 factors
1. Greater appreciation of life and a change in previous priorities
2. Changed relationships, with greater intimacy and warmth
3. A sense of increased personal strength
4. An awareness of new possibilities and alternate paths for one's life
5. Spiritual development.

It is a change in people that goes beyond an ability to resist and not to be damaged by highly stressful circumstance; it involves a movement beyond pre-traumatic levels of adaption.

Coping styles involving religious beliefs or a positive reappraisal of the situation had the greatest effect on post traumatic growth.

Negative responses to stressful events: Post-traumatic stress:

There are physical, cognitive and emotional symptoms to stress.

Physical symptoms: Disturbed sleep, nightmares, exhaustion, restlessness and headaches

Cognitive symptoms: Poor concentration, disturbances to attention and memory, flashbacks, intrusive thoughts, disorientation

Emotional symptoms: Fear, avoidance, anxiety, panic, depression, guilt, withdrawal and fearfulness.

Young children may also regress in their behaviour such as: bed wetting, thumb sucking and being scared of the dark. They may also lose their trust in adults who have not been able to protect them from the traumatic event.

PTSD may be formed

Post traumatic stress disorder involves:
1. Past experiences of actual or perceived threats to life, violence or serious injury
2. Presence of distressing symptoms, such as recurring memories, dreams of flashbacks
3. Persistent avoidance of any perceived stimuli perceived to be associated with the original traumic event
4. Negative changes in thoughts and mood associated with the event, such as angry outbursts without provocation, problems with concentration and sleep disturbances.

It may not express straight after the event by may express itself years later.

Early traumatic events such as abuse have been found to make people more susceptible to PTSD.
It is believed that **genetic factor** make people more susceptible to PTSD.
Pre-trauma factors make people more susceptible to PTSD.
Post trauma factors such as availability to social support contribute to different outcomes

Negative responses to stressful events on communities: Vulnerable groups:
Socially disadvantaged groups such as the black, poor and elderly are most vulnerable.
A group's past experience in dealing with different resources needs supplies coupled with their reduced expectations of external help led them to deal with the crisis more easily.