

PSY 102
Introduction to Personality, Social and Life
Span

PROPERTY OF DISTANCE LEARNING CENTRE, UNIVERSITY OF IBADAN

Ibadan Distance Learning Centre Series

PSY 102
Introduction to Personality, Social and Life
Span

By

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Published by
Distance Learning Centre
University of Ibadan

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University of Ibadan
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First Published 2008

ISBN 978-021-339-2

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Typeset @ Distance Learning Centre, University of Ibadan

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Vice-Chancellor's Message

I congratulate you on being part of the historic evolution of our Centre for External Studies into a Distance Learning Centre. The reinvigorated Centre, is building on a solid tradition of nearly twenty years of service to the Nigerian community in providing higher education to those who had hitherto been unable to benefit from it.

Distance Learning requires an environment in which learners themselves actively participate in constructing their own knowledge. They need to be able to access and interpret existing knowledge and in the process, become autonomous learners.

Consequently, our major goal is to provide full multi media mode of teaching/learning in which you will use not only print but also video, audio and electronic learning materials.

To this end, we have run two intensive workshops to produce a fresh batch of course materials in order to increase substantially the number of texts available to you. The authors made great efforts to include the latest information, knowledge and skills in the different disciplines and ensure that the materials are user-friendly. It is our hope that you will put them to the best use.

A handwritten signature in dark ink, appearing to read 'Olufemi A. Bamiro', is written on a light blue background. The signature is stylized and cursive.

Professor Olufemi A. Bamiro, FNSE

Vice-Chancellor

Foreword

The University of Ibadan Distance Learning Programme has a vision of providing lifelong education for Nigerian citizens who for a variety of reasons have opted for the Distance Learning mode. In this way, it aims at democratizing education by ensuring access and equity.

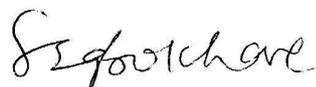
The U.I. experience in Distance Learning dates back to 1988 when the Centre for External Studies was established to cater mainly for upgrading the knowledge and skills of NCE teachers to a Bachelors degree in Education. Since then, it has gathered considerable experience in preparing and producing course materials for its programmes. The recent expansion of the programme to cover Agriculture and the need to review the existing materials have necessitated an accelerated process of course materials production. To this end, one major workshop was held in December 2006 which have resulted in a substantial increase in the number of course materials. The writing of the courses by a team of experts and rigorous peer review have ensured the maintenance of the University's high standards. The approach is not only to emphasize cognitive knowledge but also skills and humane values which are at the core of education, even in an ICT age.

The materials have had the input of experienced editors and illustrators who have ensured that they are accurate, current and learner friendly. They are specially written with distance learners in mind, since such people can often feel isolated from the community of learners. Adequate supplementary reading materials as well as other information sources are suggested in the course materials.

The Distance Learning Centre also envisages that regular students of tertiary institutions in Nigeria who are faced with a dearth of high quality textbooks will find these books very useful. We are therefore delighted to present these new titles to both our Distance Learning students and the University's regular students. We are confident that the books will be an invaluable resource to them.

We would like to thank all our authors, reviewers and production staff for the high quality of work.

Best wishes.



Professor Francis O. Egbokhare

Director

LECTURE ONE

Psychology of Life Span

Introduction

This lecture introduces the student to the concept of development and the term used to describe it – maturation, growth and learning.

Objectives

At the end of the lecture, you should be able to:

1. highlight the relationship between growth, learning and maturation; and
2. examine what it means to take a life-span perspective on development and also see the contribution of science to the field.

Pre-Test

What is development?

CONTENT

Life span involves how individuals change over time and the processes that create those changes. Virtually all of us – Queen Elizabeth, President Yar Adua, Alhaji Dokubo, you and I – began walking around age 1, talking by age 2 and as children we engaged in social play in preparation for life's serious work. We all smile, cry, love and hate, and occasionally ponder the fact that someday we will die. Although, the early years of life are when many new developmental events occur, thus, psychologists are interested in changes across the entire lifespan.

Three main process or concepts give our understanding of human development. They are Growth, Maturation and Learning.

Growth is one of the most noticeable features of early development, that is increase in size that occurs with changing age. Growth takes place through metabolic processes from within. Most organisms get larger as they become older. For some including human beings, growth levels off as they approach sexual maturity.

Maturation is another aspect of development. It concerns the more or less automatic unfolding of biological potential in a set, irreversible sequence. Both growth and maturation entail biological change. But whereas growth refers to the increase in an individual's cells and tissue, maturation concerns the development of his or her organs and limbs to the point where they become functional. In other words, maturation reflects the unfolding of genetically prescribed, or "preprogrammed" patterns of behaviour. Such changes are relatively independent or environmental even as long as environmental conditions remain normal.

The two main processes that cause individuals to change across their lifetimes are maturation and learning. Maturation refers to developmental changes that occur as a result of the aging process, not from injury, illness or other life experience, including learning. Maturation information is encoded in an individual's genes. On the other hand, learning is a relatively permanent change in behaviour (or potential behaviour) as a result of experience or practice.

When discussing any type of development, most theorists break it down into specific stages. These stages are typically progressive. In other words, you must pass through one stage before you can get to the next. How did a child learn running? He/she had to learn to crawl first, subsequently learn to walk, and finally he/she would have developed the skills needed to run. Without the first two stages, running would be an impossibility.

Included in the lecture series are the most prominent stage theories of Freud's psychosexual and Erikson's psychosocial. Although, a person can fail to complete the stages, the failure, may however result in difficulties later in life according to the theories. Before the theories, let's take a look at the major issues in Developmental Psychology and Principles guiding development.

Theories of Development

Freud's Theory of Psychosexual Development

Sigmund Freud (1856-1939) is probably the most well known theorist when it comes to the development of personality. He was born in

Moravia to Jewish parents, who moved with him to Vienna when he was 4 years old. He practised as a neurologist. Freud was intrigued by the report that psychiatrist Josef Breuer successfully used a “talking cure” to treat conversion hysteria. Breuer found that by encouraging his patients to talk freely about whatever came to mind, they became aware of the psychological causes of their physical symptoms and as a result, experienced emotional release, or *catharsis*. This led to the disappearance of the symptoms. Freud attributed the symptoms of conversion hysteria to unconscious sexual conflicts, which were symbolized in the symptoms. For example, paralyzed legs might represent a sexual conflict. His claim is that sexuality was an important determinant of human behaviour shocked and disgusted many of his contemporaries (Rapp, 1988).

Freud's Stages of Psychosexual Development are, like other stage theories, completed in a predetermined sequence and can result in either successful completion and healthy personality or can result in failure, leading to an unhealthy personality. Freud assumed that personality development depends on changes in the distribution of sexual energy which he called *libido*; in regions of the body he called *erogenous zones*. Stimulation of these regions produces pleasure. His concern was with stages of psychosexual development. Failure to progress smoothly through a particular stage can cause *fixation*, a tendency to continue to engage in behaviours associated with that stage.

In sum, people enter the world as unbridled pleasure seekers. Freud's theory of development has two primary ideas: firstly that everything you become is determined by your first few years - indeed, the adult is exclusively determined by the child's experiences, because whatever actions occur in adulthood are based on a blueprint laid down in the earliest years of life (childhood solutions to problems are perpetuated) and so that the story of development is about how individuals handle anti-social impulses in socially acceptable ways.

Libido was Freud's word for psychic and sexual energy. How libido is expressed depends on the stage of development. But in each stage of development there are frustrations. If those frustrations are not successfully dealt with, then the libido will be tied to that stage of development more than it should. There is so much libido for each person, and to develop successfully, a person cannot use too much of their libido in one stage, because then there will be less for the others. Such overuse will be reflected in later behaviour in one of two ways.

1. Fixation may occur, which would mean that there are lingering desires for pleasure from the source experienced at that stage.
2. Reaction Formation may occur, which would be taking the lingering desire for pleasure from some source and acting in the opposite way.

Freud proposed that there were five stages of development. Freud believed that few people successfully completed all five of the stages. Instead, he felt that most people tied up their libido at one of the stages, which prevented them from using that energy at a later stage.

Oral Stage

It covers the period from birth to 18 months. Freud called the first year of infancy the oral stage of development, because the infant gains pleasure from activities such as biting, sucking, and chewing. The most important social conflict of this stage is weaning. If infant is inadequately weaned, it results in too much or too little oral gratification resulting in an oral fixation or oral personality which is evidenced by a preoccupation with oral activities. Fixation may lead to an oral-dependent personality, marked by passivity, dependency and gullibility. The person will “swallow anything” and might become a “sucker.” Such individual may also fight these urges and develop pessimism and aggression toward others marked by cruelty and sarcasm. This type of personality may have a stronger tendency to excessive use of oral stimulation, smoking, drinking alcohol, over eating, or biting his or her nails.

Anal Stage

A child enters anal stage between 18 months to 2 year. The child's focus of pleasure in this stage is on eliminating and retaining faeces. He/she obtains pleasure from defecation and experiences an important conflict regarding toilet training. Freud claimed that inadequate toilet training, either premature or delayed, can lead to fixation at the anal stage. Anal fixation may lead to two personality types: the anal-retentive personality, marked by compulsive cleanliness, orderliness and fussiness and the anal-expulsive personality, marked by sloppiness, stinginess, stubbornness, carelessness, messiness and informality. In short, the individuals have their first encounter with rules and regulations, as they have to learn to be toilet trained. This encounter with rules and regulations will dictate the later behaviour

with rules and regulations. Essentially, behaviour related to retention and expulsion may be related to experiences at this stage.

Post-Test

What is development?

Summary

The students have learnt the following:

1. Development is described in terms of growth, maturation and learning.
2. Introduced to Sigmund Freud's psychosexual stages of development.
3. The expression of libidinal energy is influenced by the stage of development.

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LECTURE TWO

Freud's Theory of Psychosexual Development (contd)

Introduction

The student, having been exposed to the basic assumptions of Freud's psychosexual stage, will have deeper insight of Freud's theory and the evaluation of the theory.

Objective

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to discuss the short coming and strengths of Freud's theory.

Pre-Test

1. What is Oedipus complex?
2. Why do boys eventually identify with their same sex parent?

CONTENT

Phallic Stage

The child passes through the phallic stage between ages 3 year to 5 year when the pleasure zone switches to the genitals. Freud believed that during phallic stage boys develop unconscious sexual desires for their mother. The stage is associated with the Oedipus complex when the boys become rivals with their father and see them as competitor for the mother's affection. Thus, the boys develop a fear that their father will punish them for these feelings, such as by castrating them. This group of feelings is known as Oedipus complex. Freud noted this conflict in a play *Oedipus Rex* (after the Greek Mythology figure), in

which Oedipus that was abandoned as an infant, later kills his father and marries his mother-without knowing they are his parents.

It was later added that girls go through a similar situation, developing unconscious sexual attraction to their father. Although Freud strongly disagreed with this, it has been termed the Electra complex by more recent psychoanalysts. The oral and anal stages are the same for both girls and boys, so the focus of affection and attention is on the mother for both. At the phallic stage, the focus of the girls' change, from the mother to the father, when the girls realize that they do not have penises, so they develop penis envy. This realization coupled with the knowledge that their mother does not have a penis leads to their thinking that she is unworthy, and thus becoming attracted to their father, as he does have a penis. Because of the penis envy, the girls become angry at their mother, whom they believe caused them to be born without a penis, and thus becomes attracted to their father. This is known as Electra complex; this is named by Carl Jung after a Greek character that had her mother killed (Kilmartin & Dervin, 1997).

Freud believed that Oedipus story reflected a universal truth-the sexual attraction of each child to the opposite -sex parent. Resolution of the conflict leads to identification with the same-sex parent. The boy gives up his desire for his mother because of castration anxiety- the fear that his father will punish him by removing his genitals. According to Freud, out of fear of castration and due to the strong competition of his father, boys eventually decide to identify with him rather than fight him. Thus, the boy represses his sexual feelings toward his mother. He then chooses instead to identify with his father as a male and develops masculine characteristics, hoping that someday he will have a relationship with a woman (though not his mother) just like dear old dad has with his mother. A fixation at this stage could result in sexual deviancies (both overindulging and avoidance) and weak or confused sexual identity according to psychoanalysts.

Just as with boys, girls begin to suspect the same-sex parent knows about their attraction to the opposite-sex parent, and they hate them for it. Fearing the loss of maternal love, the girl identifies with her mother, hoping to still attract her father. These feelings go round and round for awhile until the point when the girls renounce their feelings for their fathers and identify with their mothers. Through the process of identification, the boys and girls establish their gender identity and sexual orientation and form their superego.

Latency Stage

Freud called the period between age 5 and puberty, the latency stage. He was relatively uninterested in this stage because he believed that this was a time of little psychosexual development. This period occurs after the Oedipus conflict has been resolved and the feelings that were aroused during that time have subsided. Thus, the sexual urges remain repressed and children interact and play mostly with same sex peers. Freud believed that child develops social skills and friendships as this is a period of rest where there are no developmental events

Genital Stage

The final stage of psychosexual development begins at the start of puberty when sexual urges are once again awakened. Here, the child reaches the genital stage and become sexually attracted to other people. It involves the development of the genitals as libido begins to be used in its sexual role. Gratification is achieved through genital stimulation and development of intimate relationships. However, those feelings for the opposite sex are a source of anxiety, because they are reminders of the feelings for the parents and the trauma that resulted from all that. To Freud, the first three stages are the most important determinants of personality development and that personality is essentially fixed by the age of 5 years.

Evaluation of Freud's Psychosexual Development Theory

This theory is probably the best known while it is most controversial. Some of its evaluations include the followings four points:

1. Difficult to test, but the evidence that has been gathered is not favourable.
2. The crucial events (e.g., how the libido is used) are unobservable, and there are no good means to measure them.
3. There is an awfully long time between the occurrence of the causal stimulus and its presumed effect; relationships between early events and later traits tend to be weak and inconsistent.
4. This theory of development was conceived without studying children; rather, it was developed from patients' recollections, dreams and free associations.

Freud's theory focuses on sex and aggression. During the time period Freud lived in, sex and sexual ideas did not make for socially acceptable topics for dinner conversations, or any other sort of

conversations. Thus, those ideas were unspoken, because they were socially unacceptable.

Some studies are carried out in which people tell negative secrets to the experimenter - in confidence and with confidentiality. A few months later, the well being of the people are measured. People who tell the negative secrets have higher levels of well being than people who did not reveal any negative secrets. One such measure is the number of trips to the university medical office for illness treatment.

The above findings - that confessing negative secrets leads to higher well being - relates to Freud's work by illustrating that people who release some socially unacceptable thought/belief/action feel better as a result. This suggests that Freud may have been correct about "psychic energy" being tied up in negative things, although the exact content of those things may not be sex and aggression. Thus, Freud may have correctly identified an important aspect of well being - the notion that unspoken thoughts can influence our behaviour - but the identifying the content of the thoughts as exclusively sexual and aggressive may be incorrect.

Post-Test

What are the stages of Freud's psychosexual theory? Discuss the contributions of each stage to Personality development.

Summary

In this lecture, the students have learned the following:

1. The three test stages of Freud's psychosexual theory of development.
2. Oedipus complex development and how it is resolved.

LECTURE THREE

Cognitive Development (Piaget, 1954)

Introduction

In this study, the student will learn Erikson's psychosocial theory of development and Piaget's cognitive theory of development.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. expose the student to the various stages of cognitive development.
2. expose the student to the major concepts associated with each stage of cognitive development.

Pre-Test

1. What are schemes, according to Piaget?
2. What is accommodation?

CONTENT

The association areas of the brain are the last to develop (one of the main causes of brain growth after birth is making new connections between already existing neurons), so human's cognitive ability lags behind their physical ability. Cognitive growth is driven by the desire to understand the world around us.

The main theorist regarding cognitive development is Jean Piaget. A Swiss, Piaget got his PhD at 21, which is about the age that most people now get their First Degree. He worked in Paris at Alfred Binet's laboratory school, where the first tests of intellectual ability were developed. Piaget was intrigued at how children answered questions incorrectly, as the mistakes that they made seemed to be consistently different from (the correct) adult responses. He made careful studies of

his own children, and he expanded those studies to larger groups of kids. Piaget was only discovered by North Americans in the 1960s, when some of his work was first translated into English. However, he had been a big name in European psychology since the 1930s.

Piaget suggested that people create schemas, which are mental models of how the world works. Piaget postulated two general processes that governed schema change: **Assimilation**, which is putting new things into old schemas or interpreting new experiences in light of one's schemas as when a toddler calls all four-legged animals "doggie". **Accommodation** is modifying existing schemas to fit new experiences or adjusting ones schemas to fit the particulars of new experiences. The child learns fairly quickly that the original "doggie" schema is too broad and accommodates by refining the category. For instance, when the prejudiced people perceive a minority person through their preconceived ideas, they are assimilating. When experience forces them to modify their former schemas, they are accommodating.

Probably the most cited theory in the cognitive development in children is **Jean Piaget** (1896-1980). As with all stage theories, *Piaget's theory of cognitive development* maintains that children go through specific stages as their intellect and ability to see relationships matures. These stages are completed in a fixed order with all children, even those in other countries. The age range however can vary from child to child.

Piaget theorized that there are 4 stages of human cognitive development. He suggested that the stages occur in an invariant developmental sequence. According to Piaget, the developing child moves from one age-related plateau to the next with each plateau having distinctive characteristics that permit specific kinds of thinking. The difference between these kinds of thinking is qualitative- involve change in the way the child thinks. However, he also suggested that the exact ages that each child will pass from one stage to the next can vary.

Sensorimotor (birth to 2 years): Sensorimotor Stage: This stage occurs between the ages of birth and two years of age, as infants begin to understand the information entering their sense and their ability to interact with the world. During this stage, the child learns to manipulate objects although they fail to understand the permanency of these objects if they are not within their current sensory perception. In other words, once an object is removed from the child's view, he or she is unable to understand that the object still exists.

The major achievement during this stage is that of *Object Permanency*, or the ability to understand that these objects do in fact continue to exist. This includes his ability to understand that when mom leaves the room, she will eventually return, resulting in an increased sense of safety and security. Object Permanency occurs during the end of this stage and represents the child's ability to maintain a mental image of the object (or person) without the actual perception.

According to Piaget, the first responses that infants make in the world occur by chance, so infants discover the responses that they can perform by chance. That is the infants in this stage are limited to sensorimotor intelligence (meaning, their understanding of the world is restricted to their interactions with objects through their senses and motor activity-through looking, touching, sucking, grasping and the like). It is only between 8 and 12 months that infants begin to make intentional actions; here problem solving behaviour first appears, and the child will perform actions as a means to an end. Shortly after this period, children will begin experimenting with new ways of doing things that will satisfy their curiosity. The result of that experimentation will be that children develop ability for inner experimentation, where they can perform an activity in their head before doing it in the world.

Imitation ability beings during this stage as well, and by the end of the sensorimotor stage (18-24 months), children can perform deferred imitation, where the child imitates an actor seen sometime earlier. Others have suggested that the ability to perform deferred imitation appears earlier. There is evidence that 14 month olds can imitate the actions of live models as much as a week after seeing them. Object permanence is also a part of the sensorimotor stage.

Object permanence is the idea that an object is permanently in the world, even if it is removed from view. Infants start out believing that objects placed out of sight are out of existence, and gradually acquire the belief that out of sight does not mean out of this world.

Recently, the time when children develop object permanence beliefs has been questioned as well as other beliefs regarding what Piaget suggested developed during his sensorimotor stage of development. One suggestion as to why Piaget got the timing of abilities wrong is that he relied too much on motor responses as evidence of knowledge, and much of the evidence inconsistent with his beliefs is purely perceptual learning without much (if any) motor responses.

Preoperational (2 years to 6 years): Preoperational Stage: The second stage begins after Object Permanency is achieved and occurs between the ages of two to seven years of age. During this stage, the development of language occurs at a rapid pace. Children learn how to interact with their environment in a more complex manner through the use of words and images. This stage is marked by Egocentrism, or the child's belief that everyone sees the world the same way that she does. They fail to understand the differences in perception and believe that inanimate objects have the same perceptions they do, such as seeing things, feeling, hearing and their sense of touch.

A second important factor in this stage is that of Conservation, which is the ability to understand that quantity does not change if the shape changes. In other words, if a short and wide glass of water is poured into a tall and thin glass. Children in this stage will perceive the taller glass as having more water only because of its height. This is due to the children's inability to understand *reversibility* and to focus on only one aspect of a stimulus (called *centration*), such as height, as opposed to understanding other aspects, such as glass width.

In this stage, the children demonstrate preoperational intelligence. That is, they think about objects without physically interacting with them, which means they can begin to think about objects in a simple symbolic way. The thinking is reflected in the ability to pretend, to think about past events and anticipate future ones, and to begin to use language. The children in preoperational stage are not able to think in a truly logical fashion. For instance, they may figure out that 5 plus 3 is 8 and not instantly realize that 3 plus 5 is also 8.

Infants start life as egocentrics, as they are unable to think of another person's point of view. This egocentrism can explain why children may appear selfish, as they are unable to think of others viewpoint. The notion of egocentrism is related to the idea of whether children can think symbolically. That is, when can a child imagine the other person as another agent in the world, or symbolically think of the other person's actions?

Conservation is another notion that children must learn. Initially, they judge objects on their size rather than content, so changes in the shape of a container will affect their judgment of which is bigger rather than the actual volume. Examples: beads in a row, tiles filling up a square.

Related to the conservation idea, children also do not always distinguish between appearance and reality during this period. The appearance/reality distinction refers to the ability to keep the true

properties of an object in mind even when the appearance of the object changes. For instance, cat/dog with 3 year old and 6 year olds.

Concrete Operations (7 years to 12 years): Concrete Operations

Stage: Occurring between ages 7 and about 12, the third stage of cognitive development is marked by a gradual decrease in centristic thought and the increased ability to focus on more than one aspect of a stimulus. They can understand the concept of grouping, knowing that a small dog and a large dog are still both dogs, or that pennies, quarters, and dollar bills are part of the bigger concept of money.

They can only apply this new understanding to concrete objects (those they have actually experienced). In other words, imagined objects or those they have not seen, heard, or touched, continue to remain somewhat mystical to these children, and abstract thinking is yet to develop.

Children demonstrate concrete operational intelligence. They can perform the mental operations that produce logical thought, but they are able to think logically only about concrete things. Piaget proposed that children begin thinking mentally during this stage. That is, symbolic thinking begins during this stage. For example, given concrete materials, children begin to understand that materials don't change quantity when they change shape. Piaget thought that children in this stage could do many abstract mental operations on objects that were physically present, but that they couldn't reason about objects that were not physically present, such as the Xs, Ys, and Zs used in algebra. However, children seem to develop symbolic thinking earlier than Piaget proposed. Snoopy studies at University of Illinois where 2 year olds were asked to find a big Snoopy doll in a big room after being shown tiny Snoopy in a tiny room; they couldn't find the toy. However, 3 year olds will immediately find the big Snoopy doll.

Formal Operations (12 years onward): Formal Operations Stage:

In the final stage of cognitive development (from age 12 and beyond), children begin to develop a more abstract view of the world. They are able to apply reversibility and conservation to both real and imagined situations. They also develop an increased understanding of the world and the idea of cause and effect. By the teenage years, they are able to develop their own theories about the world. This stage is achieved by most children, although failure to do so has been associated with lower intelligence.

The children enter the stage of formal operational intelligence that they are able to begin to think hypothetically and abstractly. That is, the children begin to be able to reason formally and abstractly, and can do so with purely abstract and symbolic things. One problem that highlights the differences between children who have not reached this stage and children who have is attempting to figure out why a pendulum swings faster or slower. The cause could be either the weight of the pendulum, its initial starting force, or the length of the string it is on.

Children who are not yet in the formal operations stage will vary more than one of these factors, which make accurate conclusions difficult, but children in the formal operations stage will vary only one factor at a time - holding the others constant - to examine exactly the effect of each factor on the pendulum's motion.

Reasoning such as that necessary to answer the pendulum problem is known as hypothetical-deductive reasoning, and it is a general method that can be applied to systematically solve any problem. Some people have suggested that this type of reasoning is used in science.

Erikson's Stages of Psychosocial Development

Like Piaget, [Erik Erikson](#) (1902-1994) maintained that children develop in a predetermined order. Instead of focusing on cognitive development, however, he was interested in how children socialize and how this affects their sense of self. *Erikson's theory of psychosocial development* has eight distinct stages, each with two possible outcomes. According to the theory, successful completion of each stage results in a healthy personality and successful interactions with others. Failure to successfully complete a stage can result in a reduced ability to complete further stages and therefore a more unhealthy personality and sense of self. These stages, however, can be resolved successfully at a later time.

Trust versus Mistrust: From birth to one year, children begin to learn the ability to trust others based upon the consistency of their caregiver(s). If trust develops successfully, the child gains confidence and security in the world around him and is able to feel secured even when threatened. Unsuccessful completion of this stage can result in an inability to trust, and therefore a sense of fear about the inconsistent world. It may result in anxiety, heightened insecurities, and an over feeling of mistrust in the world around them.

Autonomy versus Shame and Doubt: Between the ages of one and three, children begin to assert their independence, by walking away from their mother, picking which toy to play with, and making choices about what they like to wear, to eat, etc. If children in this stage are encouraged and supported in their increased independence, they become more confident and secured in their own ability to survive in the world. If children are criticized, overly controlled, or not given the opportunity to assert themselves, they begin to feel inadequate in their ability to survive, and may then become overly dependent upon others, lack self-esteem, and feel a sense of shame or doubt in their own abilities.

Initiative versus Guilt: Around age three and continuing to age six, children assert themselves more frequently. They begin to plan activities, make up games, and initiate activities with others. If given this opportunity, children develop a sense of initiative, and feel secure in their ability to lead others and make decisions. Conversely, if this tendency is squelched, either through criticism or control, children develop a sense of guilt. They may feel like a nuisance to others and will therefore remain followers, lacking in self-initiative.

Industry versus Inferiority: From age six years to puberty, children begin to develop a sense of pride in their accomplishments. They initiate projects, see them through to completion, and feel good about what they have achieved. During this time, teachers play an increased role in the child's development. If children are encouraged and reinforced for their initiative, they begin to feel industrious and feel confident in their ability to achieve goals. If this initiative is not encouraged, if it is restricted by parents or teacher, then the child begins to feel inferior, doubting his own abilities and therefore may not reach his potential.

Identity versus Role Confusion: During adolescence, the transition from childhood to adulthood is most important. Children are becoming more independent, and begin to look at the future in terms of career, relationships, families, housing, etc. During this period, they explore possibilities and begin to form their own identity based upon the outcome of their explorations. This sense of who they are can be hindered, which results in a sense of confusion ("I don't know what I want to be when I grow up") about themselves and their role in the world.

Intimacy versus Isolation: Occurring in young adulthood, we begin to share ourselves more intimately with others. We explore relationships leading toward longer term commitments with someone other than a family member. Successful completion can lead to comfortable relationships and a sense of commitment, safety, and care within a relationship. Avoiding intimacy, fearing commitment and relationships can lead to isolation, loneliness, and sometimes depression.

Generativity versus Stagnation: During middle adulthood, we establish our careers, settle down within a relationship, begin our own families and develop a sense of being a part of the bigger picture. We give back to society through raising our children, being productive at work, and becoming involved in community activities and organizations. By failing to achieve these objectives, we become stagnant and feel unproductive.

Ego Integrity versus Despair: As we grow older and become senior citizens, we tend to slow down our productivity, and explore life as a retired person. It is during this time that we contemplate our accomplishments and are able to develop integrity if we see ourselves as leading a successful life. If we see our lives as unproductive, feel guilt about our pasts, or feel that we did not accomplish our life goals, we become dissatisfied with life and develop despair, often leading to depression and hopelessness.

Post-Test

Discuss the importance of Piaget's Cognitive Theory to children's educational development-curriculum development and age of entrance to schools – primary and secondary and also Grade/Class appropriate age. What would you say are the limitations of the theory?

LECTURE FOUR

Motor and Physical Developments

Reflexes – Loose Sheets

Introduction

After birth, the child begins to develop. The development covers motor, physical and neural development.

Objective

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to discuss what a child is capable of doing at different months after birth.

CONTENT

Motor Development in Infancy and Childhood

At birth, newborns prefer their mother's voice to another woman's; no preference is shown for the father's voice over other male voices. How that preference is demonstrated is by using a procedure where the newborn has to suckle to play a voice for them to hear. Newborns will suckle more if their suckling results in playing their mother's voice rather than another woman's.

Another aspect of the child that is taken advantage of by researchers is the length of time that they spend looking at objects or displays. Infants can identify novel things. They will look longer at new (or novel) things than at old things. Presenting an infant with a display and the infant will look at it for quite a while, but after that display has been presented a few times, they will not look at it much more. However, present a new display and the infant again looks for quite a while at the display. So, infants are able to tell the difference between things that they have seen and things that are new.

Also, at 4 months, infants prefer complex visual stimuli to simple visual stimuli. Around that time of 4 months, infants are also able to

perceive depth and 3 dimensions. How do we know that they perceive in 3 dimensions? Using a habituation paradigm, we can record how long infants look at events that are possible versus impossible, where a possible event is one where a little car passes in front of a block and an impossible event is one where a little car seems to pass through a block; it's physically impossible for cars to pass through blocks.

Theories of childhood (People generally)

In the past, few distinctions were made between childhood and adulthood. In the 17th and 18th century, schooling was introduced for children, because it was recognized that an educated population would benefit society, as people would be a better labour force.

Thomas Hobbes believed that children are guilty of original sin, as they were intensely selfish egoists, so society must control them.

Jean Jacques Rousseau on the other extreme believed that children have an intuitive sense of right and wrong - or innate purity - and that sense is only misdirected by society. One suggestion is that Rousseau believed children were "noble savages."

John Locke on the other hand suggested that people are born with no tendencies at all - that is, newborn children have minds like tabula rasas or blank slates just waiting to have information written on them.

Most infants develop motor abilities in the same order and at approximately the same age. In this sense, most agree that these abilities are genetically pre-programmed within all infants. The environment does play a role in the development, with an enriched environment often reducing the learning time and an impoverished one doing the opposite.

The following chart delineates the development of infants in sequential order. The ages shown are averages and it is normal for these to vary by a month or two in either direction.

2 months – able to lift head up on his own

3 months – can roll over

4 months – can sit propped up without falling over

6 months – is able to sit up without support

7 months – begins to stand while holding on to things for support

9 months – can begin to walk, still using support or creep/crawl

10 months – is able to momentarily stand on her own without support

11 months – can stand alone with more confidence

- 12 months – begin walking alone without support
- 14 months – can walk backward without support
- 17 months – can walk up steps with little or no support
- 18 months – able to manipulate objects with feet while walking, such as kicking a ball

Physical Development

The creation of a new human being begins with the sperm fertilizing the egg. Those 46 chromosomes develop into a human being. The fertilization marks the beginning of the gestation period, which includes the period between conception and birth. Gestation can be divided up into three stages:

1. Germinal stage (first 2 weeks after fertilization): The fertilized egg becomes implanted in the uterus. During this period the individual is referred to as a zygote.
2. Embryonic stage (3rd to 8th week after fertilization): This is VERY important in the development of the CNS and the internal organs. During this period, the heart starts beating, and the individual is known as an embryo, which is recognizably human.
The most vulnerable period of gestation is the embryonic period, as that is when the CNS and the other organs are being developed as well as limbs and facial features.
3. Foetal period (9 weeks until birth): The individual is now known a foetus. Rapid muscle development occurs, and around 28 weeks the foetus is capable of sustaining life on its own.

Teratogens are any substances that can alter development during the gestation period. Some tetraogens are:

- PCBs (polychlorinated biphenyls) were banned in the '70s, but PCBs had been widely used chemicals. Evidence suggests that PCBs affected development during the embryonic stage as babies exposed to PCBs developed cognitive functioning deficits.
- Alcohol Women who drink excessive amounts of alcohol during pregnancy can result in children born with foetal alcohol syndrome. 50% of alcoholic mothers' children suffer from FAS. Symptoms of FAS include: physical deformities, as well as learning disabilities, behaviour problems, and attention deficits.

FAS children have been born to women who were binge drinkers as well as chronic drinkers.

Neural Development

A human's neurons mostly develop during the first 7 months of gestation, and the rate of neural development is incredible. Hundreds of thousands of neurons are created every minute. Indeed, more than enough neurons are made, and the ones that are not used die off -- that "dying off" continues through adolescence.

Neural development continues after birth, although most neurons exist at birth. The growth in the brain is primarily due to (a) continuing myelination, and (b) creating new synaptic connections between existing neurons. Different parts of the nervous systems are myelinated at different times:

1. Hearing and balance are fully myelinated at birth, while
2. Memory association areas may not be fully myelinated for months or years.

The effect of early experiences on neural development has been studied by putting newborn rats into either impoverished or enriched environments. Rats living in enriched environments developed heavier and thicker brains than the rats living in impoverished environments. A similar finding is that simple stroking of human babies born prematurely will increase brain size and body size faster than premature babies who are not stroked.

The idea here is that increased experiences - via either an enriched environment, or simple physical stimulation - will mean increased stimulation of neurons, and that will translate into more neural development.

Plasticity: From the earlier discussion of critical periods as well as the descriptions of what functions are performed where in the cortex, you may have gotten the impression that the brain is "hard-wired" and different parts of the brain exclusively perform functions that cannot be performed by any other part of the brain. This is not completely true. The brain has some plasticity, or adaptability, inherent in it, which may allow for some brain structures to perform functions they normally do not perform, if needed.

Brain damage can be compensated for by other parts of the brain - to some extent. This is especially true when the brain injury occurs very early in life. For example, brain injuries to the left hemisphere -

the one responsible for language processing in the majority of people - will result in NO language deficit, provided that the injury occurs before the age of 5, because the right hemisphere will take over the language processing role. So, a brain injury that damaged Broca's area would hamper the speech of an individual if the injury occurred at the age of 24 years, but not if it occurred at 24 months.

Indeed, there is one case of an individual who had severe epileptic seizures in his left hemisphere, so they removed his entire left hemisphere. All that is there now is cerebral spinal fluid, which might as well be Play-Doll as far as any nervous system functioning is concerned. Yet this man is now a successful executive; he finished college, and was taking some grad school courses; he has been tested as being above average in intellectual ability, despite having only half a brain - literally. Of course, he is paralyzed on his right side, because he is missing his left hemisphere, which would control right side movement, but cognitively he's fine.

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LECTURE FIVE

Characteristics of the Life-span Perspective

Introduction

Development is influenced both by biological factors and environmental factors. Both of these factors play major roles in the development of personality.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. the influence of biological factors on development; and
2. the impact of environment on development of personality.

Pre-Test

1. How much do biological factors contribute to development?
2. How much do environmental factors contribute to development?

CONTENT

Major Issues in Developmental Psychology

Some of the major issues that pervade developmental psychology are:

1. How much is our development influenced by our genetic inheritance and how much by our experience?
2. Is development a gradual, continuous process, or does it proceed through a sequence of separate stages?
3. Do our individual traits persist or do we become different persons as we age?

Nature-Nurture: Our genes are the biochemical units of heredity that make each of us a distinctive human being. Our individual genetic

make-ups explain why one person is outgoing, another shy, or why one person is slow-witted and another smart? The question like these raise an issue of profound importance: Are we more influenced by our genes or by our experience? Or how much of an individual's development is due to nature and how much to nurture? Our answer affects how we view certain social policies.

If we presume that people are the way they are “**by nature**”. You will probably not have much faith in programmes that try to rehabilitate prisoners or compensate for educational disadvantage. And you will probably agree with developmental psychologists that emphasize the influence of our genes. Our genes design an orderly sequence of biological growth processes called maturation. Maturation decrees many of our commonalities: standing before waking, using nouns before adjectives, while extreme deprivation or abuse will retard development, the genetic growth tendencies are inherent.

If you take the nurture side of the debate, you probably will agree with the developmentalists who emphasize external influences. As a potter shapes a lump of clay, our experiences are presumed to shape us. This view was argued by an earlier philosopher John Locke, who proposed that at birth, the child in some ways is empty page on which experience writes its story. Although, few wholeheartedly support Locke's proposition, research provides many examples of nurture's effects.

In reality, nearly everyone agrees that our behaviours are a product of the interaction of:

1. our genes;
2. our past experience; and
3. the present situation to which we are responding.

Moreover, these factors sometimes interact. Typically, developmental psychologists are interested in looking at how these factors interact, rather than trying to decide which is more important.

Continuity-Discontinuity: This is similar to the idea of punctuated equilibrium, but here the question is: Does human development occurs gradually, or occurs in a series of breakthroughs? People who believe that development is a series of stages that people have to work through would be in the discontinuity camp. Generally speaking, researchers that emphasize experience and learning tend to see development as a slow, continuous shaping process. Those who emphasize biological maturation tend to see development as a sequence of genetically

predetermined stages or steps. They believe that depending on an individual's heredity and experiences, progress through the various stages may be quick or slow, but everyone passes through the same stages in the same order.

Quantitative-Qualitative Change: Quantitative changes are changes by degree. For example, little Ernest knows his 2 times multiplication table today, and his 3 times multiplication table tomorrow. Little changes in multiplication ability. Qualitative changes are changes in kind. So, little Ernest can do the 2 times multiplication table today, but tomorrow he can do 3 variable calculi. As you might imagine, continuity theorists tend to argue that development is quantitative, and discontinuity theorists tend to argue that development is qualitative. They suggest that people regularly undergo dramatic, qualitative changes in their abilities/person.

Universality-Particularity Does everyone go through the same developmental processes/stages/aspects or does development vary across people, and cultures. Although people seem to develop abilities at approximately the same age, this view has been called too simplistic. Cultural differences, as well as family differences, may influence development. Development may be much more multifaceted.

Stability or Change?

Psychologists have taken the position that once a person's personality is formed, it hardens and usually remains set for life. The questions are is development characterized more by stability over time or by change? Do the differences among classmates in, say aggressiveness, aptitude, or strivings for achievement persist throughout the life span? In short, to what extent do we grow to be merely older versions of our early selves and to what degree do we become new persons? Most of developmentalists today believe that for certain traits, such as basic temperament, there is an underlying continuity, especially in the years following early childhood. Yet, as age, we also change- physically, cognitively, and socially. Today we have today's life-span view: human development is a lifelong process.

Critical Periods

The idea of Critical Periods is linked to these major issues. A critical period is an age during which the individual has to develop a skill, or that skill will never be developed. Konrad Lorenz did several studies on imprinting in birds, which is the name of the process where birds learn that the first thing they see when they open their eyes is their mother; that is, they imprint on the first thing they see, and take that to be their mother. Do people have critical periods? Not exactly, but sort of.

1. People seem to have sensitive periods for developing language, at least. One case is that of Victor, the wild boy of Aveyron, who was found in 1798, near Aveyron, France. Victor had been raised by wolves, apparently, and he seemed to be about 12 years of age. He was able to learn many of the things that were taught to him, but language was a problem. He seemed to understand language, but did not develop much ability to produce language.
2. Genie was a similar story. Genie was kept in confinement by her father from the age of 1 to age 13. During that time, she had been physically abused by her father, and was not allowed to develop normally, nor did she have any language skills. After being discovered, she was able to make great gains in learning, and did acquire some language skills. However, she didn't learn the full range of language skill that a normal person does. Genie learned language up to the level (approximately) of a 3 or 4 year old, but no further.

The experiences of Genie and Victor suggest that the ability to learn language has some limits, although the limits are not as cut and dried as the prototypical imprinting situation. They were able to learn some language, but not anywhere near their contemporaries. Of course, there are problems with making conclusions based on these cases, because they did not only have a lack of language in their lives. They lacked social interaction with other people. They may have been malnourished. And certainly for Genie, there was a lack of physical stimulation as well. Those factors could also have hampered these individuals ability to learn language.

Other evidence about a critical period for language learning comes from research on second language learning. People who learn a second language later in life do not seem to be able to learn it as well as a native speaker. The time for developing a second language ability that is as good as a native speaker is up to about 12 or 13 years old. So, if

you're interested in speaking Swahili, and you have not started yet, you probably will never be able to speak it as well as a native Swahili speaker.

However, let me emphasize here that although you cannot speak it as well as a native speaker, you can become literate in another language, and learn to speak it quite well. You simply won't be able to speak it as well as your native tongue, or as well as someone whose native tongue it is.

Post-Test

1. How much do biological factors contribute to development?
2. How much do environmental factors contribute to development?

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LECTURE SIX

Personality

Introduction

This study introduces the student to the concept of personality, the structural model of personality and defense mechanisms.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. explain how personality changes over time and the factors that determine personality;
2. relate the relationship between id, ego and superego; and
3. explain and describe the various defense mechanisms.

Pre-Test

1. Does personality have a biological basis?
2. How does personality develop?
3. How does personality change?
4. What are the social determinants of personality?

CONTENT

A person is not just the simple combination of universals of human nature and specific values on two, three, five or even ten independent trait dimensions. A person is also a dynamic information processor whose unique memories and perceptual structures lead to a unique cognitive, affective, and behavioural signature. The word personality comes from the Latin word persona, meaning “mask”. Just as masks distinguish one character from another in ancient Greek and Roman plays, your personality distinguishes you from other people. Your

personality is unique, relatively consistent pattern of thinking, feeling, and behaving? Personality theorists' favour several approaches to this question as they attempt to account for individual behaviour. The approaches to the study of personality differ on several dimensions, including the influence of unconscious motivation, the extent to which we are moulded by learning, the role of cognitive processes, the importance of subjective experience, and the effects of biological factors. In sum, the scope of personality theories is vast. They describe how genetic predisposition's and biological mechanisms combine with experience as children develop into young adults who will show behavioural consistencies over their life span.

Freud's Structural and Topographical Models of Personality

Freud's Structure for the Personality

Sigmund Freud's theory is quite complex and although his writings on psychosexual development set the groundwork for how our personalities developed, it was only one of five parts to his overall theory of personality. He also believed that different driving forces develop during these stages which play an important role in how we interact with the world.

Structural Model (id, ego, superego)

The structure of personality involves three parts: the id, the ego, and the super-ego.

The **id** (Latin for "it"): Is unconscious and consists of our inborn biological drives. These are the drives for pleasure. If humans have instincts, this is where they are. The id wants its wishes immediately and directly fulfilled. In demanding immediate gratification of drives, most notably sex and aggression, the id obeys the *pleasure principle*. Thus, the id is governed by the pleasure principle, which suggests that all processes operate to achieve the maximum amount of pleasure. According to Freud, we are born with our **Id**. The id is an important part of our personality because as newborns, it allows us to get our basic needs met. Freud believed that the id is based on our pleasure principle. In other words, the id wants whatever feels good at the time, with no consideration for the reality of the situation. When a child is hungry, the id wants food, and therefore the child cries. When the child needs attention, the id cries. When the child is uncomfortable, in pain, too hot, too cold, or just wants attention, the id speaks up until his or

her needs are met. The id doesn't care about reality, about the needs of anyone else, only its own satisfaction. If you think about it, babies are not real considerate of their parents' wishes. They have no care for time, whether their parents are sleeping, relaxing, eating dinner, or bathing. When the id wants something, nothing else is important.

The **ego**: Within the next three years, as the child interacts more and more with the world, the second part of the personality begins to develop. Freud called this part the **Ego**. The ego is based on the reality principle. The ego understands that other people have needs and desires and that sometimes being impulsive or selfish can hurt us in the long run. It's the ego's job to meet the needs of the id, while taking into consideration the reality of the situation. Through life experiences, we learn that acting on sexual or aggressive impulse is socially maladaptive. As a consequence, each of us develops an ego (Latin for "I"). The ego obeys the *reality principle*, directing one to express sexual and aggressive impulses in socially acceptable ways. It is the mediator between the id and the superego. The ego tries to reconcile the wishes of the id, and the moral attitudes of the superego. The reconciliation may entail that the ego postpone the immediate gratification demanded by the id for later, and greater, gratification. The ego is in touch with reality, and may do reality testing, which is thinking about what the best course of action is to attain goals of the id and superego. For instance, if a lecturer refuses to change a student's score on an exam that was graded with an incorrect answer key. The student's ego may encourage him/her to argue with the lecturer instead of punching him/her. The ego is governed by the reality principle, which suggests that the person gets as much satisfaction from the world as possible. Finally, the ego is the conscious mind.

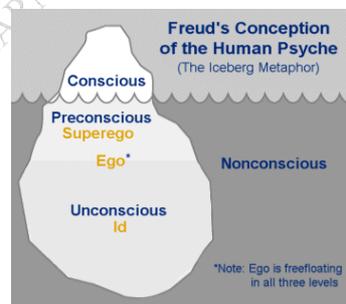
The **superego** (Latin for "over the I"): By the age of five, or the end of the phallic stage of development, the **Superego** develops. The Superego is the moral part of us and develops due to the moral and ethical restraints placed on us by our caregivers. Many equate the superego with the conscience as it dictates our belief of right and wrong. The superego counteracts the id, which is concerned only with immediate gratification, and the ego, which is concerned only with adapting to reality. It contains all of the moral lessons the person has learned in their life. This is the internalized voice of authority. Freud suggested that usually the moral lessons a person has in their superego were learned from their parents, although as the person gets older the lessons may be learned from others as well. Our conscience is in the superego which is partially unconscious. To Freud, your personality is

the outcome of the continual battle for dominance among the id, the ego, and the superego.

In a healthy person, according to Freud, the ego is the strongest so that it can satisfy the needs of the id, not upset the superego, and still take into consideration the reality of every situation. Not an easy job by any means, but if the id gets too strong, impulses and self gratification take over the person's life. If the superego becomes too strong, the person would be driven by rigid morals, would be judgmental and unbending in his or her interactions with the world. You will learn how the ego maintains control as you continue to read.

Topographical Model

Freud believed that the majority of what we experience in our lives, the underlying emotions, beliefs, feelings, and impulses are not available to us at a conscious level. He believed that most of what drives us is buried in our **unconscious**. If you remember the Oedipus and Electra complex, they were both pushed down into the unconscious, out of our awareness due to the extreme anxiety they caused. While buried there, however, they continue to impact us dramatically according to Freud.



The role of the unconscious is only one part of the model. Freud also believed that everything we are aware of is stored in our **conscious**. Our conscious makes up a very small part of who we are. In other words, at any given time, we are only aware of a very small part of what makes up our personality; most of what we are is buried and inaccessible.

The final part is the preconscious or subconscious. This is the part of us that we can access if prompted, but is not in our active conscious. It's right below the surface, but still buried somewhat unless we search for it. Information such as our telephone number, some

childhood memories, or the name of your best childhood friend is stored in the preconscious.

Because the unconscious is so large, and because we are only aware of the very small conscious at any given time, this theory has been likened to an iceberg, where the vast majority is buried beneath the water's surface. The water, by the way, would represent everything that we are not aware of or have not experienced, and that has not been integrated into our personalities, referred to as the non-conscious.

Ego Defence Mechanisms

We stated earlier that the ego's job was to satisfy the id's impulses, not offend the moralistic character of the superego, while still taking into consideration the reality of the situation. We also stated that this was not an easy job. Think of the id as the 'devil on your shoulder' and the superego as the 'angel of your shoulder.' We don't want either one to get too strong so we talk to both of them, hear their perspective and then make a decision. This decision is the ego talking, the one looking for that healthy balance.

Before we can talk more about this, we need to understand what drives the id, ego, and superego. According to Freud, we only have two drives; sex and aggression. In other words, everything we do is motivated by one of these two drives.

Sex, also called Eros or the Life force, represents our drive to live, prosper, and produce offspring. Aggression, also called Thanatos or our death force, represents our need to stay alive and stave off threats to our existence, our power, and our prosperity.

Now the ego has a difficult time satisfying both the id and the superego, but it does not have to do so without help. The ego has some tools it can use in its job as the mediator; tools that help defend the ego. These are called **Ego Defence Mechanisms** or Defences.

The ego might resort to defence mechanisms, which distort reality, to protect itself from the anxiety caused by id impulses. The ego also might use defence mechanisms to relieve the anxiety caused by unacceptable personal characteristics and unpleasant or even traumatic personal experiences (Bluhm, 1999). Each of us uses defence mechanisms to varying extents, which contributes to the distinctiveness of our personalities. Because all defence mechanisms involve repression, we are not aware when we are using them. According to Freud, there are habits of thought that people use to protect their minds from anxiety. Some of the important defence

mechanisms are: When the ego has a difficult time making both the id and the superego happy, it will employ one or more of these defences:

Denial arguing against an anxiety provoking stimuli by stating it doesn't exist E.g. denying that your physician's diagnosis of cancer is correct and seeking a second opinion

Displacement taking out impulses on a less threatening target E.g. slamming a door instead of hitting a person, yelling at your spouse after an argument with your boss. **Displacement:** The defence mechanisms that direct sexual or aggressive drives in safer directions. A person who fears the consequences of expressing his feelings toward a particular person might express them toward someone less threatening. For example, a worker who hates his boss, but fears criticizing him, might instead abuse his children (Brennan & Andrew, 1990).

Intellectualization avoiding unacceptable emotions by focusing on the intellectual aspects E.g. focusing on the details of a funeral as opposed to the sadness and grief

Projection placing unacceptable impulses in yourself onto someone else E.g. when losing an argument, you state "You're just Stupid;" homophobia. **Projection:** If we cannot accept our own undesirable feelings, we might attribute our undesirable feelings to others. Projection helps a person to attribute their own threatening or worrisome traits/impulses to another person, so as to ignore or overlook those traits/impulses in themselves. For instance, paranoid people, who are unreasonably suspicious of others, might use projection to justify their own hostile feelings (Breman & McCann, 1995).

Rationalization supplying a logical or rational reason as opposed to the real reason E.g. stating that you were fired because you did not kiss up the boss, when the real reason was your poor performance. **Rationalization:** It provides socially acceptable reasons for our inappropriate behaviour. That is, rationalization attributes to oneself a noble motive for an action rather than the real motive that is not so noble. For example, I may say I gave money to the charity because I am a generous person whereas I gave money to charity, so that I could be listed as one of the donors and also gain tax reduction for my

contribution. Also, a student whose semester grades one 6point and three 1point's might blame the three 1point's on studying too much for the course in which he received a 6point.

Reaction formation taking the opposite belief because the true belief causes anxiety E.g. having a bias against a particular race or culture and then embracing that race or culture to the extreme.

Regression returning to a previous stage of development E.g. sitting in a corner and crying after hearing bad news; throwing a temper tantrum when you don't get your way.

Repression pulling into the unconscious E.g. forgetting sexual abuse from your childhood due to the trauma and anxiety **Repression:** Keeps anxiety arousing thoughts out of consciousness. Repression may be voluntary or involuntary. The individual displays immature behaviours that have relieved anxiety in the past. For instance, an adult might respond to job frustrations by crying or throwing temper tantrums. Also there is clinical evidence for repression in cases of multiple personality disorder, where one persona does not have access to another persona. Some suggestions have been made that multiple personalities develop: Because a person experiences bad events and deals with those events by creating another persona that has not suffered them. Also, post-traumatic disorders, such a shell-shock, suggest that person have experiences that they have not completely thought out, and would prefer not to completely think out. So, those experiences are repressed, or pushed out of the person's consciousness.

Sublimation acting out unacceptable impulses in a socially acceptable way E.g. sublimating your aggressive impulses toward a career as a boxer; becoming a surgeon because of your desire to cut; lifting weights to release 'pent up' energy. **Sublimation:** This is the most successful defence mechanism, as it is the expression of sexual or aggressive impulses through indirect, socially acceptable outlets. The sex drive can be sublimated through creative activities, such as painting, ballet dancing, or composing music. And the aggressive drive can be sublimated through sports such as football or field hockey.

Suppression pushing into the unconscious E.g. trying to forget something that causes you anxiety.

Ego defences are not necessarily unhealthy as you can see by the examples above. In fact, the lack of these defences or the inability to use them effectively can often lead to problems in life. However, we sometimes employ the defences at the wrong time or overuse them, which can be equally destructive.

Post-Test

1. Why does personality not remain the same throughout an individual's life time?
2. What is the relationship between the three structures of personality in Freud's theory?

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LECTURE SEVEN

Humanistic Psychology

Introduction

The student is introduced to humanistic psychology – that aspect of psychology that stresses that people strive for self-actualization; humanistic psychologists are remarkably different in their view of how personality develops, from what other psychologists, such as Freud believes.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. distinguish characteristics of a self-actualized person; and
2. explain the wholism and phenomenology, the two characteristics of humanistic psychology.

CONTENT

Freud assumes a very negative view of people. Recall that he believed only a small proportion of people successfully went through all of the stages of psychosexual development. Freud thought most folks used up too much of their libido in the oral or anal stage of development, and were fixated there. Not all personality theorists have such a bad opinion of humanity as Freud did. Specifically, humanistic personality psychologists believed that people are essentially good. Humanistic psychologists believed that people are motivated toward self-actualization. That is, a constant striving to reach one's human potential. Self-actualization motivation is a constructive force. Humanistic approach accepts subjective mental experience (phenomenological experience) as its subject matter. That is we have free will meaning that our actions are not compelled by id impulses or environmental stimuli.

Abraham Lincoln and Albert Einstein are often cited as examples of being self-actualized. Characteristics of self-actualized people are:

1. Being more accepting of themselves, others, and everything around them than the average person; feel that there is something to learn from everyone, regardless of the person's background.
2. Perceive reality efficiently, so they are very perceptive about themselves and others; they act spontaneously and naturally, and do not fake it.
3. Oriented on the problem, not the people involved in the problem (including themselves), so they can be very creative in their solutions to the problem.
4. Act autonomously, as they do not rely on others for their happiness or to fulfil their needs; also, resilient when faced with difficulties.
5. Greater than average set of values and ethics, which includes more respect for privacy than most, although the values may not be consistent with those commonly held in society.
6. Self-actualization is related to peak experience potential, where a peak experience is a feeling of great wonder and understanding that signifies to one that something important and powerful has happened.

Carl Rogers, one of the most prominent humanistic psychologists, pointed out that self-actualization requires acceptance of one's self or self-concept. And that each of us experiences some incongruence between the self and personal experience. We learn to deny our feelings and claim that we are not angry or embarrassed even when we are. This according to Rogers we are not genuine. And the incongruence between our self and our experience causes us anxiety, which in turn motivates us to reduce the incongruence by altering the self or reinterpreting the experience. People that have a great incongruence between the self and experience can develop psychological disorders.

According to Rogers, children who do not receive unconditional positive regard - that is, complete acceptance - from their parents will develop incongruence by denying aspects of their experience. For instance, a boy whose parents insist "boys don't cry" might learn to deny his own painful experiences in order to gain parental approval. Such conditions of worth lead children to become rigid and anxious,

instead of self-actualization, such children might adopt a lifestyle of conformity and ingratiation (Baumesister, 1992).

He therefore suggested that everyone should have unconditional positive regard for each other. Unconditional positive regard for people is the attitude that every human being is worthy of respect and should be regarded in a positive manner. This includes having unconditional positive regard for oneself. The positive regard is unconditional, because respect for another person should not be dependent on that person's actions. This is not to say that one cannot disapprove of another person's actions. You can disapprove of their actions, and you can say so. But in disapproving of those actions, you should not suggest that you now do not respect the other person, or believe the other person to be unworthy, or believe the other person to be less than human.

Psychologically, healthy people have greater congruence between the actual self and ideal self (the person they would like to be). The more self-actualized the person, the less the incongruence between the person's actual self and ideal self and as a result, the greater the person's self-esteem (Moretti & Higgins, 1990).

Two characteristics of the humanistic perspective on personality are holism and phenomenology:

1. **Wholism**, as the humanist perspective considers the whole person rather than simply one or two parts. Thus, there is some influence from Gestalt psychology on humanistic personality psychology. Similar to the Gestalt approach, humanistic personality psychologists believe people are more than the sum of the parts, which are attitudes and behaviours.
2. Second, the humanistic perspective is **phenomenological**, which means humanists emphasize everyone's individual frame of reference or point of view. Humanists consider the subjective view point of each individual, rather than the some 'objective' view point provided by the therapist or (some notion of) reality.

Self is a very important part of Rogers's humanistic personality perspective. Rogers suggests that people's behaviour is consistent with their self-concept, which is their awareness of their self. Rogers suggested that any discrepancy between the present self and the ideal self indicates what the person needs to work on in their lives. Larger discrepancies indicate more changes need to be made, so the person becomes the person that they want to be.

Kohlberg's Stages of Moral Development

Although it has been questioned as to whether it applied equally to different genders and different cultures, Kohlberg's (1973) stages of moral development are the most widely cited. It breaks our development of morality into three levels, each of which is divided further into two stages:

Pre-conventional Level (up to age nine):

Self Focused Morality

1. Morality is defined as obeying rules and avoiding negative consequences. Children in this stage see rules set, typically by parents, as defining moral law.
2. That which satisfies the child's needs is seen as good and moral.

Conventional Level (age nine to adolescence):

Other Focused Morality

3. Children begin to understand what is expected of them by their parents, teacher, etc. Morality is seen as achieving these expectations.
4. Fulfilling obligations as well as following expectations are seen as moral law for children in this stage.

Post-Conventional Level (adulthood):

Higher Focused Morality

5. As adults, we begin to understand that people have different opinions about morality and that rules and laws vary from group to group and culture to culture. Morality is seen as upholding the values of your group or culture.
6. Understanding your own personal beliefs allow adults to judge themselves and others based upon higher levels of morality. In this stage what is right and wrong is based upon the circumstances surrounding an action. Basics of morality are the foundation with independent thought playing an important role.

Post-Test

What are the characteristics of humanistic theory?

LECTURE EIGHT

Learning and Behavioural Psychology

Introduction

Learning has been defined as a change in behaviour (overt and covert) as a result of experience and practice. Through learning, we are able to change our behaviour.

Objectives

At the end of the lecture, you should be able to:

1. explain classical conditioning and operant conditioning;
2. explain the terms conditioned stimulus and unconditioned stimulus, conditioned response; and
3. describe different reinforcement schedules

CONTENT

Learning can be defined as the process leading to relatively permanent behavioural change or potential behavioural change. In other words, as we learn, we alter the way we perceive our environment, the way we interpret the incoming stimuli, and therefore the way we interact, or behave. John B. Watson (1878-1958) was the first to study how the process of learning affects our behaviour, and he formed the school of thought known as *Behaviourism*. The central idea behind behaviourism is that only observable behaviours are worthy of research since other abstraction such as a person's mood or thoughts are too subjective. This belief was dominant in psychological research in the United States for a good 50 years.

Perhaps the most well known Behaviourist is B. F. Skinner (1904-1990). Skinner followed much of Watson's research and findings, but believed that internal states could influence behaviour just as external stimuli. He is considered to be a *Radical Behaviourist* because of this

belief, although nowadays it is believed that both internal and external stimuli influence our behaviour.

Behavioural Psychology is basically interested in how our behaviour results from the stimuli both in the environment and within ourselves. They study, often in minute detail, the behaviours we exhibit while controlling for as many other variables as possible. Often a gruelling process, but results have helped us learn a great deal about our behaviours, the effect our environment has on us, how we learn new behaviours, and what motivates us to change or remain the same.

Classical and Operant Conditioning

Classical Conditioning: One important type of learning, Classical Conditioning, was actually discovered accidentally by **Ivan Pavlov** (1849-1936). Pavlov was a Russian physiologist who discovered this phenomenon while doing research on digestion. His research was aimed at better understanding the digestive patterns in dogs.

During his experiments, he would put meat powder in the mouths of dogs who had tubes inserted into various organs to measure bodily responses. What he discovered was that the dogs began to salivate before the meat powder was presented to them. Then, the dogs began to salivate as soon as the person feeding them would enter the room. He soon began to gain interest in this phenomenon and abandoned his digestion research in favor of his now famous Classical Conditioning study.

Basically, the findings support the idea that we develop responses to certain stimuli that are not naturally occurring. When we touch a hot stove, our reflex pulls our hand back. It does this instinctually, no learning involved. It is merely a survival instinct. But why now do some people, after getting burned, pull their hands back even when the stove is not turned on? Pavlov discovered that we make associations which cause us to generalize our response to one stimulus onto a neutral stimulus it is paired with. In other words, hot burner = ouch, stove = burner, therefore, stove = ouch.

Pavlov began pairing a bell sound with the meat powder and found that even when the meat powder was not presented, the dog would eventually begin to salivate after hearing the bell. Since the meat powder naturally results in salivation, these two variables are called the **unconditioned stimulus** (UCS) and the **unconditioned response** (UCR), respectively. The bell and salivation are not naturally occurring; the dog was conditioned to respond to the bell. Therefore,

the bell is considered the **conditioned stimulus** (CS), and the salivation to the bell, the **conditioned response** (CR).

Many of our behaviours today are shaped by the pairing of stimuli. Have you ever noticed that certain stimuli, such as the smell of cologne or perfume, a certain song, a specific day of the year, and results in fairly intense emotions? It's not that the smell or the song are the cause of the emotion, but rather what that smell or song has been paired with...perhaps an ex-boyfriend or ex-girlfriend, the death of a loved one, or maybe the day you met your current husband or wife. We make these associations all the time and often don't realize the power that these connections or pairings have on us. But, in fact, we have been classically conditioned.

Operant Conditioning: Another type of learning, very similar to that discussed above, is called Operant Conditioning. The term "Operant" refers to how an organism operates on the environment, and hence, operant conditioning comes from how we respond to what is presented to us in our environment. It can be thought of as learning due to the natural consequences of our actions.

Let's explain that a little further. The classic study of Operant Conditioning involved a cat who was placed in a box with only one way out; a specific area of the box had to be pressed in order for the door to open. The cat initially tries to get out of the box because freedom is reinforcing. In its attempt to escape, the area of the box is triggered and the door opens. The cat is now free. Once placed in the box again, the cat will naturally try to remember what it did to escape the previous time and will once again find the area to press. The more the cat is placed back in the box, the quicker it will press that area for its freedom. It has learned, through natural consequences, how to gain the reinforcing freedom.

We learn this way every day in our lives. Imagine the last time you made a mistake; you most likely remember that mistake and do things differently when the situation comes up again. In that sense, you've learned to act differently based on the natural consequences of your previous actions. The same holds true for positive actions. If something you did results in a positive outcome, you are likely to do that same activity again.

Reinforcement

The term reinforce means to strengthen, and is used in psychology to refer to anything stimulus which strengthens or increases the probability of a specific response. For example, if you want your dog to sit on command, you may give him a treat every time he sits for you. The dog will eventually come to understand that sitting when told to will result in a treat. This treat is reinforcing because he likes it and will result in him sitting when instructed to do so.

This is a simple description of a **reinforcer** (Skinner, 1938), the treat, which increases the response, sitting. We all apply reinforcers everyday, most of the time without even realizing we are doing it. You may tell your child "good job" after he or she cleans their room; perhaps you tell your partner how good he or she look when they dress up; or maybe you got a raise at work after doing a great job on a project. All of these things increase the probability that the same response will be repeated.

There are four types of reinforcement: positive, negative, punishment, and extinction. We'll discuss each of these and give examples.

Positive Reinforcement: The examples above describe what is referred to as positive reinforcement. Think of it as adding something in order to increase a response. For example, adding a treat will increase the response of sitting; adding praise will increase the chances of your child cleaning his or her room. The most common types of positive reinforcement or praise and rewards, and most of us have experienced this as both the giver and receiver.

Negative Reinforcement: Think of negative reinforcement as taking something negative away in order to increase a response. Imagine a teenager who is nagged by his mother to take out the garbage week after week. After complaining to his friends about the nagging, he finally one day performs the task and to his amazement, the nagging stops. The elimination of this negative stimulus is reinforcing and will likely increase the chances that he will take out the garbage next week.

Punishment: Punishment refers to adding something aversive in order to decrease behaviour. The most common example of this is disciplining (e.g. spanking) a child for misbehaving. The reason we do this is because the child begins to associate being punished with the

negative behaviour. The punishment is not liked and therefore to avoid it, he or she will stop behaving in that manner.

Extinction: When you remove something in order to decrease a behaviour, this is called extinction. You are taking something away so that a response is decreased.

Research has found positive reinforcement is the most powerful of any of these. Adding a positive to increase a response not only works better, but allows both parties to focus on the positive aspects of the situation. Punishment, when applied immediately following the negative behaviour can be effective, but results in extinction when it is not applied consistently. Punishment can also invoke other negative responses such as anger and resentment.

Reinforcement Schedules

Now that we understand the four types of reinforcement, we need to understand how and when these are applied (Ferster & Skinner, 1957). For example, do we apply the positive reinforcement every time a child does something positive? Do we punish a child every time he does something negative? To answer these questions, you need to understand the schedules of reinforcement.

Applying one of the four types of reinforcement every time the behaviour occurs (getting a raise after every successful project or getting spanked after every negative behaviour) is called a Continuous Schedule. It's continuous because the application occurs after every project, behaviour, etc. This is the best approach when using punishment. Inconsistencies in the punishment of children often results in confusion and resentment. A problem with this schedule is that we are not always present when behaviour occurs or may not be able to apply the punishment.

There are two types of continuous schedules:

Fixed Ratio: A fixed ratio schedule refers to applying the reinforcement after a specific number of behaviours. Spanking a child if you have to ask him three times to clean his room is an example. The problem is that the child (or anyone for that matter) will begin to realize that he can get away with two requests before he has to act. Therefore, the behaviour does not tend to change until right before the preset number.

Fixed Interval: Applying the reinforcer after a specific amount of time is referred to as a fixed interval schedule. An example might be getting a raise every year and not in between. A major problem with this schedule is that people tend to improve their performance right before the time period expires so as to "look good" when the review comes around.

When reinforcement is applied on an irregular basis, they are called variable schedules.

Variable Ratio: This refers to applying a reinforcer after a variable number of responses. Variable ratio schedules have been found to work best under many circumstances and knowing an example will explain why. Imagine walking into a casino and heading for the slot machines. After the third coin you put in, you get two back. Two more and you get three back. Another five coins and you receive two more back. How difficult is it to stop playing?

Variable Interval Reinforcing someone after a variable amount of time is the final schedule. If you have a boss who checks your work periodically, you understand the power of this schedule. Because you don't know when the next 'check-up' might come, you have to be working hard at all times in order to be ready.

In this sense, the variable schedules are more powerful and result in more consistent behaviours. This may not be as true for punishment since consistency in the application is so important, but for all other types of reinforcement they tend to result in stronger responses.

Post-Test

What is learning? How is learning related to behaviour?

LECTURE NINE

Basic Concepts in Social Psychology

Introduction

The way we behave, act, think and feel in social settings is the focus of social psychology. It helps us to understand how one influences others and how we are influenced by them.

Objectives

At the end of lecture, you should be able to:

1. discuss the meaning of social behaviour;
2. explain the term 'attitude'; and
3. explain the common concepts in social psychology.

Pre-Test

What is attitude?

CONTENT

Everybody has heard of peer pressure, but most people argue that they are not affected by it, or at least not affected as 'most people.' The truth is, we are all affected by the people we interact with, many of whom we don't even know personally. Our social environments play a significant role in how we view ourselves, and conversely, how we see ourselves impacts our view of the world.

Social psychology is the scientific study of the way people think about, feel, and behave in social situations. It involves understanding how people influence, and are influenced by, others around them. Our perception of ourselves in relation to the rest of the world plays an important role in our choices, behaviours, and beliefs. Conversely, the opinions of others also impact our behaviour and the way we view ourselves. It is a branch of psychology that is concerned with how

social phenomena influence us and how people interact with others. There are some basic aspects of social behaviour that play a large role in our actions and how we see ourselves.

Social Behaviour

Social behaviour is goal-oriented. Our interactions function to serve a goal or fulfil a need. Some common goals or needs include the need for social ties, the desire to understand ourselves and others, the wish to gain or maintain status or protection, and to attract companions. The interaction between the individual and the situation determines the outcome. In many instances, people behaviour varies differently in various situations. Situation plays an important role and has strong influence on our behaviour. People spend a great deal of time considering social situations. Our social interactions help form our self-concept and perception. One method of forming self-concept is through a reflected appraisal process in which we imagine how other people see us. Another method is through a social comparison process whereby we consider how we compare to other people in our peer group.

Attitudes

Attitudes are defined as learned, global evaluations of a person, object, place, or issue that influence thought and action (Perloff, 2003). What are your opinions about insanity defence? Surprise parties? Your answers to these questions would reveal your attitudes. Simply put, attitudes are evaluations of ideas (such as religious belief defence), events (such as emergence meetings), objects (such as abstract art), or people (the Ijebu ethnic group). In other words, attitudes are basic expressions of approval or disapproval, favourability or unfavourability, or likes and dislikes. Examples would include liking chocolate ice cream, being anti-abortion, or endorsing the values of a particular political party. Thus attitudes have emotional, cognitive and behavioural components (Breckler, 1984).

Common sense tells us that if we know a person's attitudes, we can accurately predict her or his behaviour. The relationship is not that simple as our behaviour might not always agree with attitudes while the behaviour can sometimes affect our attitudes. Recently, most social psychologists accepted the commonsense notion that our behaviour is consistent with our attitudes. Although, researches have found that attitudes are not as consistent with behaviour as previously believed.

What determines whether our attitudes and behaviours will be consistent? Attitudes that are strongly held (Kraus, 1995) or personally important (Crano & Prislin, 1995) are better predictors of behaviour. Attitude-behaviour consistency is affected by the specificity of the attitude and the behaviour. For instance, your attitude toward safe driving might not predict whether you will obey the speed limit the next day, but it will predict your general tendency, over time, to engage in safe driving behaviours, such as checking your tire pressure, using turn signals, and obeying the speed limit.

Social psychologists have studied attitude formation, the structure of attitudes, attitude change, the function of attitudes, and the relationship between attitudes and behaviour. Because people are influenced by the situation, general attitudes are not always good predictors of specific behaviour. For a variety of reasons, a person may value the environment and not recycle drop waste paper outside the dustbin. Attitudes that are well remembered and central to our self-concept are more likely to lead to behaviour, as measures of general attitudes do predict patterns of behaviour over time.

Post-Test

What is attitude?

LECTURE TEN

Social Perception Our View of Self and Others

Introduction

This lecture focuses on how an individual interpret the behaviour of those around them (i.e. attribution process) and what attracts us to a friend). Basic concepts in social perception are also explored.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. describe and explain the concept of interpersonal attraction;
2. discuss the terms associated with interpersonal attraction; and
3. explain obedience and power and various courses of power.

Pre-Test

What is interpersonal attraction?

CONTENT

The way we look at ourselves plays an important role in how we see the world. The way we see the world plays an important role in how we see ourselves. In this sense, our view of self and others is an ever-changing circle of influence. We know that those who are happy see more positive aspects of the world than those who are depressed. We also know that living in an abusive household or an overly restrictive environment can both lead to depression. This section will explore the social areas of attribution (how we interpret those around us) and attraction (what we seek in a friend or partner). **Self-perception:** According to Bem (1967), with self-perception we infer our attitudes from our behaviour in the same way that we infer other people's

attitudes from their behaviour. When we observe people behaving under no apparent external constraints, we use their behaviour to make inferences about their attitudes. In the same way, when a situation we are in does not place strong constraints on our behaviour, we might infer our attitudes from our behaviour.

There are many important factors in how one perceives oneself. First, self-esteem, a person's positive and negative evaluations of his or her self. People who have low self-esteem can get caught in cycles of self-defeating behaviour, leading to depression or other mental disorders. Self-awareness can encourage people to notice self-discrepancies. Most people find ways to keep up their self-esteem through self-enhancement techniques. These include (but are not limited to) taking credit for success but making excuses for failure, comparing oneself to less fortunate people, and self-handicapping. Research suggests that such positive illusory thinking can maintain mental health, but that too much of it can be self-defeating.

Attribution Theory

We tend to explain our own behaviour and the behaviour of others by assigning attributes to these behaviours. An **attribute** is an inference about the cause of behaviour. According to the Attribution theory, we tend to explain our own behaviour and the behaviour of others by assigning attributes to these behaviours.

There are basically two sources for our behaviour; those influenced by situational (external) factors and those influenced by dispositional (internal) factors. Imagine walking into your boss's office and he immediately tells you, in an angry tone, not to bother him. An external explanation of this behaviour might be, "He's really a nice guy but the stress is overwhelming. He needs a vacation." On the other hand, you might see the same behaviour and say, "what a jerk, I don't know why he is so angry all the time." The same behaviour is given two very opposite explanations.

Many factors play a role in how we assign attributes to behaviours. Obviously our view of the world, our previous experience with a particular person or situation, and our knowledge of the behaviour play an important role. Other factors can influence our interpretation as well, and there are two important errors or mistakes we tend to make when assigning these attributes.

1. Fundamental Attribution Error: This refers to the tendency to overestimate the internal and underestimate the external factors when explaining the behaviours of others. This may be a result of our tendency to pay more attention to the situation rather than to the individual (Heider, 1958) and is especially true when we know little about the other person. For example, the last time you were driving and got cut off did you say to yourself "what an idiot" (or something similar), or did you say "she must be having a rough day." Chances are that this behaviour was assigned mostly internal attributes and you didn't give a second thought to what external factors are playing a role in her driving behaviour.

2. Self-Serving Bias: We tend to equate successes to internal and failures to external attribute (Miller & Ross, 1975). Imagine getting a promotion. Most of us will feel that this success is due to hard work, intelligence, dedication, and similar internal factors. But if you are fired, well obviously your boss wouldn't know a good thing if it were staring her in the face. This bias is true for most people, but for those who are depressed, has low self-esteem, or view themselves negatively, the bias is typically opposite. For these people, a success may mean that a multitude of negatives have been overlooked or that luck was the primary reason. For failures, the depressed individual will likely see their own negative qualities, such as stupidity, as being the primary factor.

Perceiving Others

In regards to how people perceive others, there are a group of theories, called attribution theory.

Attribution Theory: It describes how people attribute the cause of behaviour. A personal or internal attribution is an attribution to a person's characteristic that is from within, such as intelligence or effort. A situational or external attribution is an attribution something outside the individual, such as luck or God. The Fundamental Attribution Error states that in perceiving other people's behaviour, people tend to focus on personal causes and underestimate situational causes. Such thinking can lead people to hold on to bad first impressions as well as stereotypes.

Perceiving Groups

A stereotype is a set of beliefs that associates a whole group of people with a few certain traits. Two different processes are involved in their formation:

1. **Categorization**, sorting individual objects or people in groups, and
2. **Out-group homogeneity effect**, which is a tendency of people to overestimate to similarity of people in the out-groups than people in the in-group.

Although categorization and other short-cut methods of thinking can be very helpful, they also contribute and arise from racism, sexism, and other forms of prejudice and discrimination.

Interpersonal Attraction

Attraction

Why are we attracted to certain people and not others? Why do our friends tend to be very similar to each other? And what causes us to decide on a mate? Many of these questions relate to social psychology in that society's influence and our own beliefs and traits play an important role. Research has found five reasons why we choose our friends:

Proximity - The vast majority of our friends live close to where we live, or at least where we lived during the time period the friendship developed (Nahemow & Lawton, 1975). Obviously friendships develop after getting to know someone, and this closeness provides the easiest way to accomplish this goal. Having assigned seats in a class or group setting would result in more friends who's last name started with the same letter as yours (Segal, 1974).

Association - We tend to associate our opinions about other people with our current state. In other words, if you meet someone during a class you really enjoy, they may get more 'likeability points' then if you met them during that class you can't stand.

Similarity - On the other hand, imagine that person above agrees with you this particular class is the worse they have taken. The agreement or similarity between the two of you would likely result in more attractiveness (Neimeyer & Mitchell, 1988)

Reciprocal Liking - Simply put, we tend to like those better who also like us back. This may be a result of the feeling we get about ourselves knowing that we are likable. When we feel good when we are around somebody, we tend to report a higher level of attraction toward that person (Forgas, 1992; Zajonc & McIntosh, 1992)

Physical Attractiveness - Physical attraction plays a role in who we choose as friends, although not as much so as in who we choose as a mate. Nonetheless, we tend to choose people who we believe to be attractive and who are close to how we see our own physical attractiveness.

This last statement brings up an important factor in how we determine our friends and partner. Ever wonder why very attractive people tend to 'hang around' other very attractive people? Or why wealthy men seem to end up with physically attractive, perhaps even much younger, women? There is some truth to these stereotypical scenarios because we tend to assign "social assets" or "attraction points" to everyone we meet.

These points are divided into categories such as physical attractiveness, sense of humour, education, and wealth. If we view education as very important, we may assign more points to this category making it more likely that our friends or our mate will have more education. If we view wealth as more important then we will be more likely to find a mate who has more money.

We rate ourselves on these same categories and, at least at some level, know our score. We tend to then pick friends and partners who have a similar score that we do. Hence an attractive person hangs with other attractive people; or a wealthy older man gets the beautiful younger woman. Think about your friends and how you would rate them in these categories to find out what is important to you.

Interpersonal attraction can be thought of as force acting between two people tending to draw them together, and resisting their separation. A person or a person's qualities that tend to attract or appeal to another person's desires. When measuring interpersonal attraction, one must refer to the qualities of the attracted as well as the qualities of the attractor to achieve predictive accuracy. Repulsion is also a factor in the process of interpersonal attraction, one's conception of "attraction" to another can vary from extreme attraction to extreme repulsion.

Among the factors that determine attraction are: proximity, familiarity, physical attractiveness and similarity. Proximity, you are

more likely to like someone who lives near you, works with you or attends the same classes as you. For instance, the closer students lived to one another, the more likely they will become friends. It is also important for dating relationships too. Proximity makes us more familiar with certain people, thus the more familiar we become with a stimulus – whether a car, a painting, or a professor- the more we tend to like them (Moreland & Zajonc, 1982). Proximity not only let us become familiar with people, it also lets us note their appearance. We tend to like physically attractive people more than physically unattractive ones. Attractive adults and children are judged more positively and treated more positively by others. Research indicates that we are likely to associate with people who share our attitudes. Drigota, (1993) showed that attitude similarity plays a more important role in interpersonal attraction than attitude dissimilarity does in preventing.

Question: Four factors which determine attraction are:

Obedience and Power

Why do we obey some people and not others? Why are you able to influence your friends? What attributes cause a person to be more influential? These questions are paramount in understanding social order. The answers to these questions also play an important role in many professions, such as sales and marketing and of course politics.

Let's start with a closer look at what 'power' is. Power is typically thought of as having a certain attribute which gives one person more influence over another. This attribute could be intelligence or experience; it could be job title, or perhaps money. According to most social psychologists, there are five types of power: coercive, reward, legitimate, expert, and referent.

Coercive Power means the power punish. Parents are said to have coercive power because they can place their child in time-out, for example; bosses have coercive power because they can fire an employee or assign an employee a less pleasing job.

Reward Power is almost the opposite; it is the power to reward. In that sense parents and bosses have this type of power as well, as do many others in our lives.

Legitimate Power refers to the power granted by some authority, such as the power a police officer has due to the local or state government or the power a professor has due to the rules of a college or university.

Expert Power results from experience or education. Those individuals with more knowledge tend to have more power in situations where that knowledge is important. For instance, the physician will have more power in a medical emergency than the plumber. But, when the pipes explode and the house is being flooded, the physician is not the person to call.

Referent Power refers to admiration or respect. When we look up to people because of their accomplishments, their attitude, or any other personal attribute, we tend to give them more power over us. Imagine being asked to do something by your "hero" or your favourite movie star; we are very likely to comply out of admiration or respect.

Using Power to Influence Others

Now that we know what power is and how people get it, let's talk about how this power is used to influence others. Most of us know that liking and agreeing tend to go together. We agree with our friends about many issues, especially the bigger ones, and often disagree with our opponents. Also, beliefs and behaviours tend to go together. For instance, most people who believe stealing is very immoral would not steal, most who believe littering is wrong, do not litter.

What's interesting about this latter concept is what happens when our belief and our behaviour do not correspond. You might think that we would change the way we act, but in the real world, we tend to change our belief about a topic before we would change our behaviour. The person who believes littering is wrong, after throwing a soda can from their car window, might say to himself, "It was only one time," or "look at all the other trash on the freeway." In this sense, his belief has changed; littering is now okay if it is only done once or if others have littered first.

To equate this with influencing others, we see that if we can change the way a person behaves, we can change the way they think or feel. Imagine the car salesman who is able to convince the potential buyer that this new car is the one he wants to buy. The sales man might try to use many different techniques, but one is the 'test drive.' The

theory behind this is that if the person's actions include driving the car, they are more likely to change their belief about the car.

There are other variables associated with influencing others or attitude change. Let's take a look first at what attributes the source or the talker help her influence others. First of all is power, as discussed above. The more types of power and the stronger each of these is, the more influential she will be. Second, a person must be believable in order to influence us. The source must therefore be trustworthy; after all, if we don't believe someone, they're going to have a much more difficult time changing our minds. Finally, attractiveness plays a role in how we are influenced. We tend to be influenced more by attractive people, including physical and social attractiveness, likeability, demeanour, and dress.

The target or listener plays a role in how he will be influenced as well. Those with low self-esteem and/or high self-doubt tend to be more influenced than others. The more we doubt our own ability, the more we look to others for guidance or input. Other factors such as age, IQ, gender, or social status do not appear to play a significant role in how we are influenced by others.

Finally, let's look at the relationship between the source and the target. First of all, there needs to be some similarity between the two people. If the target or listener does not feel any similarity with the talker, he is much less likely to accept what she is saying. After all, we have nothing in common so what could she possibly know about my life. The more similar the two, the greater the influential ability. Second, there needs to be a moderate discrepancy in attitude. If the difference between the two is too large, changing the listener's attitude or belief will be too difficult. If the difference is too small, then no significant change will take place at all. The difference must be great enough that a change is possible but small enough that the listener is open to the change.

Post-Test

What is interpersonal attraction?

LECTURE ELEVEN

The Role of Groups

Introduction

The students will learn how the presence of others facilitates or inhibits the manifestation of certain behaviours.

Objective

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to have a good understanding of terms commonly used to describe behaviour in social setting such as by-stander effect, deindividuation, social loafing and social facilitation.

Pre-Test

What is a group?

CONTENT

Do you think you act differently when alone than when other people are around? The answer to this question is typically a resounding 'yes.' We are concerned with our social image or how other people see us; some more than others, but very few people see no difference in their behaviour. This section will discuss various theories relating to our behaviour in group settings or when others are present.

Social Facilitation

When alone, we tend to be more relaxed, less concerned with the outward expression of our behaviour, and are basically 'ourselves.' Add just one other person, even if we don't know that person, our behaviour tends to change, and not always for the better. Research has found that when others are present, our level of arousal is increased (Zajonc, 1965). In other words, we are suddenly more aware of what's going on

around us. Because of this, we tend to perform better at tasks that are well learned or simple (Guerin, 1993). When completing a difficult or new task, however, our performance level decreases and we tend to do more poorly. This phenomenon is called Social Facilitation (Guerin, 1993), and as we try harder due to the presence of others, our performance actually decreases for difficult or unlearned tasks. Think about learning to play basketball for the first time. If we are alone, we are likely to be more relaxed, and better able to concentrate. However, when others are watching, we are more likely to be self-conscious, and therefore make more mistakes. Professional basketball players, however, because the task is so well learned, perform better when others are watching and they are able demonstrate their confidence and ability.

Social Loafing

Social facilitation is concerned with the effects of others on individual performance. While a decrease in the effort exerted by individuals when working together is a phenomenon known as social loafing. That is a person makes less effort to achieve a goal when they work in a group than when they work alone. This is one of the main reasons that groups sometimes perform less than the combined performance of their members working as individuals. This supports the old saying “many hands make light the work” According to the concept diffusion of responsibility, social loafing occurs when group members feel anonymous; believing that their individual performance is not evaluated, they are less motivated to exert their maximum effort. Social loafing can be reduced by convincing group members that they will be held accountable (Weldon & Gargano, 1988), their individual effort will be evaluated (Hoeksema-Van Order, Gaillard & Buunk, 1998) or their individual effort will matter to the group’s performance. (Shepperd & Taylor, 1999).

Another phenomenon that occurs in groups is referred to as Social Loafing. This theory states that as a group gets larger, the individual contribution decreases disproportionate to the group size (Everett, Smith, & Williams, 1992; Hardy & Latane, 1986; Ingham et al., 1974). This is due to the diffusion of responsibility created as the size of the group increases. Imagine being assigned a project to complete by yourself. Most likely you would complete 100% of it. Now if two people are involved, the percentage will typically not be 50/50. As more people are added to the group, you will end up with a small

percentage doing a large portion of the work and a large percentage doing a much smaller proportion.

Bystander Effect

This last phenomenon is an unfortunate reality which has been observed far too many times in groups and in larger cities. We've all heard stories of people getting mugged, or beaten, or raped in broad daylight while people around offered no assistance. We have found that the internal push to help a person in need decreases as the group gets larger, very similar to Social Loafing. In this instance, however, people tend to be followers and will only get involved if they witness another person getting involved. What results is a group of people witnessing a crime and wondering why nobody is helping. This does not occur if you are the only person witnessing the crime. If nobody else is around, a person will tend to help the victim. The more people, however, the less likely someone will offer assistance.

De-individuation

De-individuation is a state of lowered self-awareness. It can also be viewed as a temporary loss of personal identity. It can happen as a result of becoming part of a group, such as an **army** or **mob**, but it can also occur in other situations in which people feel anonymous. It can have quite destructive effects, sometimes making people more likely to commit a crime (Diener, 1976), or even leading police to use excessive force when making an arrest. Because people in a de-individuated state lose touch with themselves, they are oblivious to outside evaluation, and are not restrained by their normal inhibitions.

Crowd

A crowd is a group of people, also known (especially in the United States) as a mob. The crowd may have a common purpose or set of emotions, such as at a political rally, at a sports game, or during looting, or simply be made up of many people going about their business in a busy area (e.g. shopping, bus stop). The crowd behaves like a granular fluid, and people, having the same aim, are more confined than they would normally choose to be. This induces frustration and loss of manners, possibly up to putting individuals into jeopardy. The social aspects are concerned with the formation, management and control of crowds, both from the point of view of individuals and groups seeking to persuade a crowd to their view (e.g.,

political rallies), and from the point of view of society which usually attempts to contain them in an acceptable manner, or discharge their energies whilst averting excesses or mob behaviour, ultimately a decision made politically and usually executed by law enforcement. While the psychological aspects are concerned with the psychology of the crowd as a group and the psychology of those who allow their will and emotions to be informed by the crowd, and other individual responses to crowds such as crowd-sickness, claustrophobia and agoraphobia.

Post-Test

What is a group?

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LECTURE TWELVE

Group Think and Group Polarization

Introduction

In this lecture, discussion shall be on group think and group polarization.

Objectives

At the end of this lecture, you should be able to:

1. discuss the term 'group think' and 'group polarization';
2. identify sources of conflicts and classify such on the basis of competing tendencies; and
3. discuss the term 'Prisoner's Dilemma'.

Pre-Test

1. What do you understand by the term 'group think' and 'group polarization'?
2. Discuss the sources of conflicts and classify them on the basis of competing tendencies.
3. What is Prisoner's Dilemma?

CONTENT

If you've ever been involved in a group decision making process, you have probably seen one of two things happen: either the group agrees on all of the major issues, or there is significant dissent that splits the group. If the group is cohesive; if they agree on most issues, they tend to stifle dissent because group harmony is the anticipated outcome (Janis, 1972). When we all agree, and are happy with that agreement, we typically do not want to hear opposing arguments. This phenomenon is referred to as **Group Think**. It can lead to impulsive

decisions and a failure to identify and/or consider all sides of an argument. Some classic examples of group decisions going bad include lynch mobs, discrimination among hate groups, and mass riots.

Similar to this, **Group Polarization** refers to a group's tendency to talk itself into extreme positions. In this case, a group gets so focused and energized about a decision that it creates an internal fuel, so to speak, which pushes itself forward faster than originally intended. Imagine a group of protesters, all agreeing and deciding to picket. You can see how this could get out of hand because opposing views (Group Think) are not considered and the push to move forward for the cause is fuelled internally (Group Polarization).

Conflict

There are many sources of conflict in life. One way of classifying conflicts is on the basis of their competing tendencies. Identify sources of conflict in life and classify such on the basis of competing tendencies?

Approach-approach conflict involves two alternatives that are both appealing, so we want to approach them both. However, we cannot have both of the alternatives, because we cannot do two things at once. The conflict is in deciding which of the alternatives is more appealing.

Avoidance-avoidance conflict involves two alternatives that are both unappealing, so we want to avoid them both. People often try to avoid both by trying to escape from the situation. Generally, however, escaping does not work, and we have to choose one of them.

Approach-avoidance conflict involves one alternative that is both appealing and unappealing, so we want to approach it and avoid it. This would be something that we want, but are afraid of. An example of this would be asking someone out, which we want to do. But as we get closer to the person, we get more afraid of asking the person, because we are afraid of rejection. So, we end up not asking.

There are other types of conflict as well. For example, there is role conflict, which involves conflict between expectations for how people will act. This can be a:

Conflict between the person and the role, which would involve a person being assigned a role that they are not comfortable with (e.g. a role that is inconsistent with (in conflict with) their personality).

Intra-role conflict, which would occur when a person feels conflict between the different demands of a single role (e.g. conflict a parent feels between being a friend to their children but also being a disciplinarian).

Inter-role conflict, which occurs when a person feels demands to play more than one role (e.g., an employee being asked to do one set of tasks by one supervisor and another conflicting set of tasks by another supervisor).

There is also conflict between people, which can be caused by many things. One frequent cause of conflict between people is the question of how to divide up resources. For example, if a person uses a little bit more of the common resources than is theirs, the consequences are small. However, if everyone uses a little bit more of the common resources than is theirs, the consequences can be enormous, and may lead to the complete depletion of those resources. This is the tragedy of the commons, as people are acting in their self-interest rather than cooperating and acting the interest of the group.

Prisoner's Dilemma

Consider a trade between yourself and someone else. You have something that she wants, and she has something that you want. You have agreed to the exchange of goods, but the exchange has to happen without the two of you meeting. Thus, you will leave your good in one place, and the other person will leave his/her good in another place, and then you will each pick up the left goods. However, you realize that you could simply not leave the good where you agreed to, but still pick up the good that the other person left. Then you realize that the other person has also realized this. Let's say the potential payoffs for this exchange are as follows:

1. If you cooperate and the other person cooperates, you both are ahead 3 points.
2. If you cooperate and the other person does not, you are ahead nothing (0 points) and the other person is ahead 5 points.

3. If you do not cooperate and the other person cooperates, you are ahead 5 points and the other person is ahead nothing (0 points).
4. If you do not cooperate and the other person does not cooperate, then you both are ahead 1 point.

What do you do? Do you cooperate or not? It is better for the both of you to cooperate. That is, cooperation is the best thing for the collective, because the most points that the two of you get together (collectively) is 6, when you both cooperate. However, each of you has an incentive to not cooperate, or act on the basis of self-interest (regardless of what the other person does, the payoff for the individual is higher if you do not cooperate, and vice versa).

If this relationship was going to be ongoing, is there a possibility of many exchanges, rather than just one? Does this change your opinion of whether to cooperate or defect? This game is known as the prisoner's dilemma, because of the content of the explanation originally proposed with it. However, it has been used extensively in social psychology research involving **group decision making**.

Post-Test

Conflict Management (Brief discussion)

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