

Disorders:

Concepts of mental illness: yesterday and today:

- Criteria for defining mental disorders include statistical rarity, subjective distress, impairment, societal disapproval and biological dysfunctions
- The demonic model of mental illness was followed by the medical model in the renaissance. In the early 1950's, medications to treat schizophrenia led to deinstitutionalisation. Some psychological conditions are culture-specific. Still, many mental disorders can be found in most cultures
- Misconceptions include the ideas that a diagnosis is nothing more than pigeon-holing, and that diagnoses are unreliable and stigmatising
- Most mentally ill patients are not at greatly heightened risk for violence. Well under 1% of criminals are acquitted on the basis of mental disorder defence. Involuntary commitment to a psychiatric facility can occur when patients pose a serious threat to their own or other's health, safety or property, and no less restrictive treatment can be provided

Demonic model: view of mental illness in which odd behaviour, hearing voices or talking to oneself was attributed to evil spirits infesting the body

Medical model: perception that regarded mental illness as due to a physical disorder requiring medical treatment

Asylums: institutions for the mentally ill created in the 15th century

Moral treatment: approach to mental illness calling for dignity, kindness and respect for the mentally ill

Deinstitutionalisation: 160s and 70s governmental policy that focused on releasing hospitalised psychiatric patients into the community and closing mental hospitals

Bulimia nervosa: eating disorder associated with a pattern of bingeing and purging in an effort to lose or maintain weight

Anorexia nervosa: eating disorder associated with excessive weight loss and the irrational perception that one is overweight

Labelling theorists: scholars who argue that psychiatric diagnoses exert powerful negative effects on people's perceptions and behaviours

Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM): diagnostic system containing the American Psychiatric Association criteria for mental disorders

Prevalence: percentage of people within a population who have a specific mental disorder

Axes: dimensions of functioning

Comorbidity: co-occurrence of two or more diagnoses within the same person

Categorical model: model in which a mental disorder differs from normal functioning in degree rather than kind

Dimensional model: model in which a mental disorder differs from normal functioning in degree rather than kind

Insanity of mental disorder defence: legal defence proposing that people should not be held legally responsible for their actions if they were not of 'sound mind' when committing them

Anxiety disorders: the many faces of worry and fear:

- Panic involves intense yet brief rushes of fear that are out of proportion to the actual threat. People with GAD spend much of their day worrying. Fears are highly focused in phobias. In PTSD, highly aversive events produce enduring anxiety. People with OCD experiences intensely disturbing thoughts, senseless or irrational rituals, or both.
- Learning theory proposes that fears can be learned via conditioning and observation. Anxious people tend to catastrophise or exaggerate the likelihood of negative events. Many anxiety disorders are genetically influenced.

Somatoform disorders: conditions marked by physical symptoms that suggest an underlying medical illness, but they are actually psychological in origin

Hypochondriasis: an individual's continual preoccupation with the notion that they are suffering from a serious physical disease

Panic attacks: brief, intense episodes of extreme fear characterised by sweating, dizziness, light-headedness, racing heartbeat and feelings of impending death or going crazy

Panic disorder: repeated and unexpected panic attacks along with either persistent concerns about future attacks or a change in personal behaviour in an attempt to avoid them

GAD: continual feelings of worry, anxiety, physical tension and irritability across many areas of life functioning

Phobia: intense fear of an object or situation that is greatly out of proportion to its actual threat

Agoraphobia: fear of being in a place or situation from which escape is difficult or embarrassing, or in which help is unavailable in the event of a panic attack

Specific phobia: intense fear of objects, places or situations that are greatly out of proportion to its actual threat

Social phobia: marked fear of public appearances in which embarrassment or humiliation is possible

PTSD: marked emotional disturbance after experiencing or witnessing a severely stressful event

OCD: condition marked by repeated and lengthy immersion in obsessions or compulsions, at least for an hour a day

Obsessions: persistent ideas, thoughts or impulses that are unwanted and inappropriate, causing marked distress

Compulsions: repetitive behaviours or mental acts performed to reduce or prevent stress

Anxiety sensitivity: fear of anxiety-related sensations

Mood disorders and suicide:

- The sad mood of major depression is the mirror image of the expansive mood associated with a manic episode, seen in bipolar disorder

- Risk factors for suicide include a previous attempt, male gender, family history of suicide, depression and hopelessness
- Stressful life events are linked to depression. Depressed people may face social rejection, which can amplify depression. According to Lewinsohn's behavioural model, depression results from a low rate of response-contingent positive reinforcement. Aaron Beck's cognitive model holds that negative expectations play an important role in depression, whereas Martin Seligman's model emphasises learned helplessness. Genes exert a moderate effect on the risk of developing depression

Major depressive episode: state in which a person experiences a lingering depressed mood or diminished interest in pleasurable activities along with symptoms that include weight loss and sleep difficulties

Cognitive model of depression: theory that depression is caused by negative beliefs and expectations

Learned helplessness: tendency to feel helpless in the face of events we cannot control

Manic episode: experience marked by dramatically elevated mood, decreased need for sleep, increased energy, inflated self-esteem, increased talkativeness and irresponsible behaviour

Bipolar disorder: condition marked by a history of at least one manic episode

Dissociative disorders: the divided self:

- Depersonalisation is characterised by feelings of detachment from the self, including the sense of observing the body from the perspective of an outsider or living in a movie or dream
- In dissociative amnesia, people are unable to recall important information which is personal and that is not due to normal forgetting. In dissociative fugue people forget significant events in their lives and flee their stressful circumstances
- The role of severe child abuse in DID is controversial. The socio-cognitive model holds that social influences, including the media and suggestive procedures in psychotherapy, same symptoms of DID

Dissociative disorders: conditions involving disruptions in consciousness, memory, identity or perception

Depersonalisation disorder: condition marked by multiple episodes of depersonalisation

Dissociative identity disorder (DID): condition characterised by the presence of two or more distinct identities of personality states that recurrently take control of the person's behaviour

Dissociative amnesia: inability to recall important personal information following a stressful experience, cannot be explained by ordinary forgetfulness

Dissociative fugue: sudden, unexpected travel away from home or the workplace, accompanied by amnesia for significant life events

The enigma of schizophrenia

- The symptoms of schizophrenia include delusions, hallucinations, disorganised speech and grossly disorganised behaviour or catatonia

- People with schizophrenia are prone to relapse when their relatives display high expressed emotion such as hostility and over involvement
- Scientists have discovered brain abnormalities in patients with schizophrenia, including enlarged ventricles, frontal lobe underactivity and abnormal dopamine transmission

Schizophrenia: severe disorder of thought and emotion associated with a loss of contact with reality

Delusions: strongly held, fixed beliefs that have no basis in reality

Psychotic symptoms: psychological problems reflecting serious distortions in reality

Hallucinations: sensory perceptions that occur in the absence of an external stimulus

Catatonic symptoms: motor problems, including extreme resistance to complying with simple suggestions, holding the body in bizarre or rigid postures, or curling up in a foetal position

Diathesis- stress models: perspective proposing that mental disorders are a joint product of genetic vulnerability, called diathesis and stressors that trigger this vulnerability

Personality disorders:

- Personality traits can become abnormal when they are stable and inflexible, and lead to distress and impairment
- Borderline personality disorder is marked by instability in mood, identity and impulse control
- Psychopaths are guiltless, dishonest, callous and self-centred
- Substance dependence is associated with symptoms of tolerance and withdrawal

Personality disorder: condition in which personality traits, appearing first in adolescence, are inflexible, stable, expressed in a wide variety of situations and lead to distress or impairment

Borderline personality disorder: condition marked by extreme instability in mood, identity and impulse control

Psychopathic personality: condition marked by superficial charm, dishonesty, manipulateness, self-centredness and risk-taking

Antisocial personality disorder: condition marked by a lengthy history of irresponsible and/or illegal actions

Psychological and biological treatments to disorders:

Psychotherapy: patients and practitioners:

- Individuals with anxiety and minor and temporary problems are likely to benefit from therapy. Socioeconomic status, gender, age, ethnicity do not predict treatment outcome-therapists treat people of all ages and social, cultural and ethnic backgrounds with not discrimination
- Unlicensed paraprofessionals with no formal training, as well as licensed professionals, can be equally effective as therapists
- Warmth, selecting important topics to discuss, not contradicting patients and the ability to establish a positive relationship are more important determinants of a therapist's effectiveness

Psychotherapy: a psychological intervention designed to help people to resolve emotional, behavioural and interpersonal problems and improve the quality of their lives.

Paraprofessional: psychotherapies including humanistic existential approaches with the goal of expanding awareness or insight

Insight therapies: acquiring understanding

- The core beliefs of psychodynamic therapists are the importance of the unconscious, childhood experiences, expressing emotions and re-experiencing past events, and acquiring insight
- Post-Freudians place less emphasis on the unconscious and greater emphasis on cultural and interpersonal influences on behaviour
- Psychodynamic therapies are based largely on patient's childhood memories, small and highly select patient samples, anecdotal studies and the questionable curative value of insight
- Humanistic-existential therapies hold that self-actualisation is a universal human drive, and adopt an experience-based, phenomenological approach
- Research suggests that genuineness, unconditional positive regard and empathic understanding are necessary but not sufficient for improvement

Insight therapies: technique in which patients express themselves without censorship of any sort

Free association: attempts to avoid confrontation and anxiety associated with uncovering previously repressed thoughts, emotions and impulses

Resistance: attempts to avoid confrontation and anxiety associated with uncovering repressed thoughts, emotions and impulses

Transference: projecting intense, unrealistic feelings and expectations from the past onto the therapist

Work through: to confront and resolve problems, conflicts and ineffective coping responses in everyday life

Interpersonal therapy (IPT): treatment that strengthens social skills and targets interpersonal problems, conflicts and life transitions

Humanistic-existential therapy: therapy with an emphasis on the development of human potential and the belief that human nature is positive

Phenomenological approach: perspective in which therapists encounter patients in terms of subjective phenomena in the present moment

Person-centred therapy: therapy centring on the patient's goals and ways of solving problems

Gestalt therapy: therapy that aims to integrate different aspects of personality into a unified sense of self

Experiential therapies: interventions that recognise the importance of awareness, acceptance and expression of feelings

Behavioural approaches: changing maladaptive actions

- Behaviour therapy is grounded in the scientific method and based on learning principles
- Exposure therapies confront people with their fears. Exposure can be gradual and stepwise (systematic desensitisation) or start with the most frightening scenes available (flooding). Exposure can occur by imagining scenes in vivo (real life) or by the way of virtual reality technology
- Modelling techniques, based on observational learning principles, include behavioural rehearsal and role-playing to foster assertiveness
- Token economies and aversion therapies are based on operant conditioning principles. Token economies shape behaviours using tokens that patients can exchange for tangible rewards. Aversion therapies use unpleasant stimuli to decrease undesirable behaviours
- CBT therapists modify irrational beliefs that play a key role in unhealthy feelings and behaviours
- Ellis' rational emotive behaviour therapy, Beck's cognitive therapy and Meichenbaum's stress inoculation, Beck's cognitive therapy and Meichenbaum's stress inoculation training are influential variations of CBT

Behaviour therapist: therapist who focuses on specific problem behaviours, and current variables that maintain problematic thoughts, feelings and behaviours

Systematic desensitisation: teaches patients to relax and are gradually exposed to what they fear in a stepwise manner

Exposure therapy: therapy that confronts patients with what they fear, with the goal of reducing the fear

Dismantling: research procedure for examining the effectiveness of isolated components of a larger treatment

Responsive prevention: technique in which the therapist prevents the patient from performing their typical avoidance behaviours

Participant modelling: technique in which the therapist first models a problematic situation and then guides the patient through steps to cope with it unassisted

Token economy: method in which desirable behaviours are rewarded with tokens that patients can exchange for tangible rewards

Aversion therapies: treatments that use punishment to decrease the frequency of undesirable behaviours

Cognitive behavioural therapies (CBTs): treatments that attempt to replace maladaptive or irrational cognitions with more adaptive rational cognitions

Group family systems therapies: the more, the merrier

- Group methods span all schools of psychotherapy and efficient, time saving and less costly than individual methods. Participants learn from other's experiences, benefit from feedback and modelling others, and discover that problems and suffering are widespread
- AA appears to be no more effective than other treatments, including CBT. Research suggests that controlled drinking approaches can be effective with some people
- Family therapies treat problems in the family system. Strategic family therapists plan changes in the way family interactions are structured

Group therapy: therapy that treats more than one person at a time

AA: 12 step self-help program that provides social support for achieving sobriety

Abstinence violation effect: lapse in sobriety that can lead to continued drinking if people feel ashamed, guilty or discouraged when they lapse

Strategic family therapy: treatment in which therapists deeply involve themselves in family activities to change how family members arrange and organise interactions

Is psychotherapy effective?

- Many therapies are effective. Nevertheless, some therapies, including behavioural and cognitive behavioural treatments, are more effective than other treatments for specific problems, such as anxiety disorders. Still other treatments appear to be harmful
- Common factors in psychotherapy include establishing a strong therapeutic alliance, giving patients hope and providing a clear treatment rationale
- Ineffective therapies can appear to be helpful because of spontaneous remission, the placebo effect, self-serving biases, regression to the mean and retrospective rewriting of the past

Empirically supported therapies (ESTs): treatments for specific disorders supported by high-quality scientific evidence

Biological treatments: drugs, physical stimulation and surgery:

- Medications are available to treat psychotic conditions, bipolar disorder, depression, anxiety and attentional problems
- People who prescribe drugs must be aware of the side effects, not overprescribe medications and carefully monitor the effects of multiple medications
- Contrary to belief, electroconvulsive therapy is not painful or dangerous and does not produce memory loss, personality changes or brain damage. Psychosurgery may be useful as a treatment of absolute last resort

Pharmacotherapy: use of medications to treat psychological problems

Electroconvulsive therapy (ECT): patients receive brief electrical pulses to the brain that produce a seizure to treat serious psychological problems

Psychosurgery: brain surgery to treat psychological problems

Chapter three summary: Cross-Cultural Psychology: how culture affects us

What is culture and how does it influence behaviour?

- Culture has many definitions, but the term generally refers to shared values and behaviours between a group of people who often speak the same language
- Culture is transmitted between different generations of a group through the processes of socialisation and enculturation

Nationality: Defines the political entity to which a person owes loyalty

Race: Some form of inherited physical make-up

Ethnicity: A person's historical group origins

Socialisation: Deliberate shaping of an individual's cultural self

Enculturation: Process of learning about and participating in culture

What is cross-cultural psychology and how does it operate?

- It compares human behaviour as it occurs in different world cultures
- Search for cultural universals- those behaviours that are likely to exist in all cultures- and sometimes for differences between cultures
- Measuring behaviour across cultures comes with methodological differences, and researchers strive to minimise the effects of these difficulties

Cross-Cultural Psychology: comparative study of behaviour in different cultures

Universalism: theoretical position that assumes culture is a source of human diversity, but that humans share basic psychological processes.

Equivalence: degree of similarity of experiences or behaviours that allows comparison of them to be meaningful

Concepts of self:

- Culture influences how we understand ourselves and how we learn to interact with others
- How we describe and recognise our feelings is one of the areas where culture has an influence
- There appear to be some personality characteristics common to many cultures, but there are also vast differences, especially between Chinese and non-Chinese cultures

Cognitively based feelings: feelings related to thoughts

Crossing Cultures:

- Each culture has its own distinct pattern of values, attitudes and behaviours
- When people move from one culture to another, or encounter another culture, the differences attitudes and values can come as a shock due to their difference
- Adapting to another culture can be experienced as extreme discomfort
- On the other hand, adapting to another culture can give rise to new culture learning= 'acculturation'

Acculturation: process of adapting to a culture other than the one originally identified with

Humanitarian programs: relocate people who are in danger of death or persecution

Sojourners: people who join a cultural group for a fixed period of time that is not seen as permanent

Cultural syndromes: clusters of attitudes, values, customs and practices that characterise a culture

Integration: form of acculturation where the old culture is valued as well as the new

Assimilation: Form of acculturation where the new culture is valued, but not the old

Separation: Form of acculturation where the old culture is valued, but not the new

Marginalisation: Form of acculturation where neither the old nor the new culture are valued

Culture shock: stressful experience of encountering another culture

U-shaped hypothesis: idea that acculturation starts with positive experiences, proceeds to negative and then returns to being positive over a course of time

Culture learning: acquiring the understanding of, and an ability to share in, the rules and conventions of a culture

Multiculturalism and prejudice:

- Multiculturalism is a term used to describe the composition and structure of a society, while multiculturalism usually refers to a set of social and political policies aimed at creating or maintaining such structures
- Borders between cultures today are becoming less rigid
- One of the challenges of a multicultural society is the provision of community, educational, social and health services that meet the needs of different groups within society.
- Another challenge involves coping with the prejudice and racism that can develop when people of different cultural groups interact with each other

Multicultural: existence of features of more than one culture in a group or an activity

Multiculturalism: set of social and political policies that maintain a multicultural society

Cultural distance: degree of similarity of values, attitudes, customs and practices between people and different cultures

Racism: form of discrimination based on the actual or perceived race of another person or group

Racial socialisation: process of education and training people about the nature and consequences of racism

Indigenous Psychology:

- Early psychological studies on Australian Indigenous peoples was conducted by non-Indigenous researchers, often from outside Australia
- Currently, more research is being done by Indigenous psychologists, who are developing a new Indigenous psychology, based on indigenous traditions and ways of understanding the world. This is paralleled by the development of appropriate health and social services for all Australians

Indigenous: People of Aboriginal or Torres Strait Islander descent

Aboriginal: Those descended from the pre-colonial inhabitants of Australia

Community Psychology: Studies the relationship of individuals to a wider society

The Dreaming: Indigenous worldview that supplies the framework for understanding and interpreting the world

Personality

Personality: what is it and how can we study it?

- There are two key approaches to personality: nomothetic and idiographic approaches focus on the unique patterning of characteristics within a person
- Twin and adoption studies suggest that many personality traits are heritable and point to a key role for non-shared environment, but not shared environment

Traits: relatively enduring predispositions that influence our behaviour across many situations

Nomothetic approach: approach to personality that focuses on identifying general laws that govern the behaviour of all individuals

Idiographic approach: approach to personality that focuses on identifying the unique configuration of characteristics and life history experiences within a person

Molecular genetic studies: rest on two premises (1) genes code for proteins that in turn often influence the functioning of neurotransmitters like dopamine and serotonin and (2) the functioning of many neurotransmitters is associated with certain personality traits for example people with low levels of serotonin activity tend to be more impulsive and aggressive than other persons

Psychoanalytic theory: the controversial legacy of Sigmund Freud and his followers

- Freud's psychoanalytic theory rests on three core assumptions: psychic determinism, symbolic meaning and unconscious motivation
- According to Freud, personality results from the interactions among the id, ego and superego. The ego copes with threat by deploying defence mechanisms
- Freud's five psychosexual stages comprised oral, anal, phallic, latency and genital

- Psychoanalytic theory has been criticised for un-testability, failed predictions, lack of evidence and flawed assumptions
- Neo-Freudians shared with Freud an emphasis on unconscious influences and the importance of early experience, but emphasised less sexuality as a driving force in personality

Somatogenic: physiologically caused

Catharsis: feeling of relief following a dramatic outpouring of emotion

Psychogenic: psychologically caused

Psychic determinism: the assumption that all psychological events have a cause

Id: reservoir of our most primitive impulses including sex and aggression

Pleasure principle: tendency of the id to strive for immediate gratification

Ego: psyche's executive and principle decision maker

Reality principle: tendency of the ego to postpone gratification until it can find an appropriate outlet.

Superego: our sense of morality

Defence mechanisms: unconscious manoeuvres intended to minimise anxiety

Repression: motivated inhibition of emotionally threatening memories or impulses

Denial: motivated failure to acknowledge distressing external experiences

Regression: the act of returning psychologically to a younger and typically safer and simpler age

Reaction-formation: transformation of an anxiety provoking emotion into its opposite

Projection: unconscious attribution of our negative characteristics to others

Displacement: directing an impulse from a socially unacceptable target onto a safer and more socially acceptable target

Rationalisation: providing a reasonable-sounding explanation for unreasonable behaviours or failures

Intellectualisation: avoiding emotions associated with anxiety-provoking experiences by focusing on abstract and impersonal thoughts

Identification with the aggressor: process of adopting the characteristics of individuals we find threatening

Sublimation: transforming a socially unacceptable impulse into an admired goal

Erogenous zone: sexually arousing stage of the body

Oral stage: psychosexual stage that focuses on the mouth

Anal stage: psychosexual stage that focuses on toilet training

Phallic stage: psychosexual stage that focuses on the genitals

Oedipus complex: conflict during the phallic stage in which boys supposedly love their mothers romantically and want to eliminate their fathers as rivals

Electra complex: conflict during the phallic stage in which girls supposedly love their fathers romantically and want to eliminate their mothers as rivals

Penis envy: supposed desire of girls to possess a penis

Latency stage: psychosexual stage in which sexual impulses are submerged into the unconscious

Genital stage: psychosexual stage in which sexual impulses awaken and begin to mature into romantic attraction towards others

Neo- Freudian theories: theories derived from Freud's model, but that placed less emphasis on sexuality as a driving force in personality and were more optimistic regarding the prospects for long-term personality growth

Style of life: According to Adler, each person's distinctive way of achieving superiority

Inferiority complex: feelings of low self-esteem that can lead to overcompensation for such feelings

Collective unconscious: according to Jung, our shared storehouse of memories that ancestors have passed down to us across generations

Archetypes: cross-culturally universal emotional symbols

Object relations theorists: followers of Freud who emphasised children's mental representations of others

Behavioural and social learning theories of personality:

- Radical behaviourists view personality as under the control of two major influences: genetic factors and contingencies in the environment. Radical behaviourists, like psychoanalysts, are determinists and believe in unconscious processing, but they deny the existence of the unconscious
- In contrast to radical behaviourists, social learning theorists accord a central role to thinking in causes of personality, and argue that observational learning and a sense of personal control play key roles in personality
- Critics have accused radical behaviourists of going too far in their exclusion of thinking in the causes of personality
- The social learning theory claim that observational learning plays a crucial role in personality runs counter to findings that shared environmental influence on adult personality is minimal

Social learning theorists: theorists who emphasised thinking as a cause of personality

Locus of control: extent to which people believe that reinforcers and punishers lie inside or outside of their control

Humanistic models of personality: the third force:

- Most humanistic psychologists argue that the core motive in personality is self-actualisation
- According to Carl Rodgers, unhealthy behaviour results from the imposition of conditions of worth, which block drives towards self-actualisation

- According to Maslow, self-actualised individuals are creative, spontaneous, accepting and prone to peak experiences
- Critics have attacked humanistic models for being naïve about human nature and for advancing theories that are difficult to test

Self-actualisation: drive to develop our innate potential to the fullest possible extent

Conditions of worth: according to Rogers, expectations we place on ourselves for appropriate and inappropriate behaviour

Incongruence: inconsistency between our personalities and innate dispositions

Peak experiences: transcendent moments of intense excitement and tranquillity marked by a profound sense of connection to the world

Trait models of personality: consistencies in our behaviour

- Two challenges to trait models are the danger of circularity and reducing the large number of trait terms to a smaller number of primary traits
- Personality traits rarely predict isolated behaviours, but are helpful for predicting long-term behavioural trends
- One influential model of personality is the Big Five, which may be limited as people may not have conscious access to all important features of personality
- There may be significant cultural differences in personality, such as differences in individualism versus collection
- Some models of personality structure including the Big Five, are more descriptive than explanatory

Factor analysis: statistical technique that analyses the correlations among responses on personality inventories and other measures

Big Five: five traits that have surfaced repeatedly in factor analyses of personality measures

Lexical approach: approach proposing that the most crucial features of personality are embedded in our language

Personality assessment: measuring and mismeasuring the psyche

- Structured personality tests consist of questions that people can answer in only one of a few fixed ways. Some are developed empirically, others rationally/theoretically
- Projective tests consist of ambiguous stimuli that the examinee must interpret. Many of these tests lack reliability, validity and incremental validity
- Two common pitfalls in personality assessment are the P.T. Barnum effect and illusory correlation, which highlight the importance of using the scientific method as a safeguard against human error

Structured personality tests: paper-and-pencil tests consisting of questions that respondents answer in one of a few fixed ways

Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI): widely used structured test designed to assess symptoms of mental disorders

Empirical method of test construction: approach to building tests in which researchers begin with two or more criterion groups and examine which items best distinguish them

Face validity: extent to which respondents can tell what the items are measuring

Rational/theoretical method of test construction: approach to building tests that requires test developers to begin with a clear-cut conceptualisation of a trait and then write items to assess that conceptualisation

Projective tests: tests consisting of ambiguous stimuli that examinees must interpret or make sense of

Projective hypothesis: hypothesis that in the process of interpreting ambiguous stimuli, examinees project aspects of their personality onto the stimulus.

Rorschach Inkblot test: projective test consisting of 10 symmetrical inkblots

Incremental validity: extent to which a test contributes information beyond other, more easily collected, measures

Thematic Apperception Test (TAT): projective test requiring examinees to tell a story in response to ambiguous pictures

Graphology: psychological interpretation of handwriting

P.T. Barnum effect: tendency of people to accept high base rate descriptions as accurate

Chapter 13: Stress, coping and health:

What is stress?

- Stress is a part of daily life. Most people experience one or more extremely stressful events in their lifetime. People experience stress when they feel physically threatened, unsafe or unable to meet the perceived demands of life. Stress can be viewed as a stimulus, a response or a transaction with the environment.
- Psychologists often assess life events that require major adaptations and adjustments, such as illness and unemployment. They also assess hassles- annoying, frustrating, daily events, which may be more related to adverse psychological and health outcomes than major stressors

Stress: the tension, discomfort or physical symptoms that arise when a situation strains our ability to cope effectively

Primary appraisal: initial decision regarding whether an event is harmful

Secondary appraisal: perceptions regarding our ability to cope with an event that follow primary appraisal

Problem-focused coping: coping strategy by which we tackle life's challenges head on

Emotion-focused coping: coping strategy that features a positive outlook on feelings or situations accompanied by behaviours that reduce painful emotions

Corticosteroids: stress hormones that activate the body and prepare us to respond to stressful circumstances

Hassles: minor annoyances or nuisances that strain our ability to cope

How we adapt to stress: change and challenge

- The GAS consists of 3 stages- alarm- the autonomic nervous system is activated, resistance-adaptation and coping occur; and exhaustion- when resources and coping abilities are depleted, which can damage organs and engender depression and PTSD
- The tend-and-befriend response is more common in women than in men. In times of stress, women often rely more on social contacts than men

General adaptation syndrome: stress-response pattern proposed by Hans Selye that consists of three stages, alarm, resistance and exhaustion

Fight-or-flight response: physical and psychological reaction that mobilises people and animals to either defend themselves or escape a threatening situation

Tend and befriend: reaction that mobilises people to nurture or seek social support under stress

The brain-body reaction to stress

- The immune system is the body's defensive barrier against disease.
- **Psychoimmunology:** explores the link between the immune system and the nervous system. Stress can decrease resistance to illness, delay healing and impair the immune system

Immune system: the body's defence system against invading bacteria, viruses and other potentially illness-producing organisms and substances

Acquired immune deficiency syndrome: a life-threatening, incurable, yet treatable condition in which the human immunodeficiency virus attacks and damages the immune system

Psychoneuroimmunology: Study of the relationship between the immune system and the CNS

Psychophysiological: illnesses such as asthma and ulcers in which emotions and stress contribute to, maintain or aggravate the physical condition

Biopsychosocial perspective: the view that an illness or a medical condition is the product of the interplay of biological, psychological and social factors

Coronary heart disease: damage to the heart from the complete or partial blockage of arteries that provide oxygen to the heart

Type A personality: Personality type that describes people who are competitive, driven, hostile and ambitious

Type D personality: personality type that describes people who experience yet inhibit negative emotions

Asthma: medical condition in which breathing becomes difficult when the bronchial tubes in the lungs become inflamed, spasm and are clogged with mucus

Peptic ulcer: Inflamed area in the stomach lining that can cause pain, nausea and loss of appetite

Coping with stress:

- Social support and the following types of stress control are important: (1) behavioural control (taking action to reduce stress) (2) cognitive control (reappraising stressful events that cannot be avoided) (3) decisional control (choosing between alternatives) (4) informational control (acquiring information about a stressor) and (5) emotional control (suppressing and expressing emotions at will)
- Hardy people view change as challenge, have a deep sense of committed to their life and work, and believe they can control events. Trait self-enhancement- a self-serving tendency to overestimate positive personal qualities- boosts stress resistance, as do spiritually and religious involvement, whereas rumination- the tendency to focus on bad feelings and analyse the causes and consequences of problems- can increase vulnerability to stress

Social support: relationship with people and groups that can provide us with emotional comfort and personal and financial resources

Proactive coping: anticipation of problems and stressful situations that promotes effective coping

Hardiness: set of attitudes marked by a sense of control over events, commitment to life and work, and courage and motivation to confront stressful events

Spirituality: search for the sacred, which may or may not extend to belief in God

Promoting good health- and less stress!

- Behavioural medicine and health psychology study the promotion and maintenance of health, the prevention and treatment of illness, and related dysfunction, health psychologists help them to promote health and minimise risk for smoking and obesity

Health psychology: field of psychology that integrates the behavioural sciences with the practice of medicine.

Language, thinking and reasoning:

How does language work?

- Infants' babbling becomes more sophisticated over the course of their first year, as control over their vocal tracts increases. They also fine-tune their perception of phonemes over the course of the first year of listening to their native language. Children's word and syntax comprehension precedes their production of language
- Most non-human animal communication systems involve aggression and mating displays, but little else
- Sign languages possess the same linguistic features and complexity as spoken languages

Anomia: inability to name things

Language: largely arbitrary system of communication that combines symbols in rule-based ways to create meaning

Phonemes: categories of sounds our vocal apparatus produces

Morphemes: smallest meaningful units of speech

Syntax: grammatical rules that govern how words are composed into meaningful strings

Extra linguistic information: elements of communication that are not part of the content of language but are critical to interpreting its meaning

Dialects: language variations used by groups of people who share geographic proximity or ethnic background

Phonemes: similar-sounding words that have related meanings

Bilingual: proficient and fluent at speaking and comprehending two distinct languages

Babbling: intentional vocalisation that lacks specific meaning

Holophrases: single-word phrases used early in language development to convey an entire thought

Generative: allowing an infinite number of unique sentences to be created by combining words in novel ways

Nativist: account of language acquisition that suggests children are born knowing how language works

Language acquisition device: hypothetical organ in the brain in which nativists believe knowledge of syntax resides

Social pragmatics: account of language acquisition that proposes children infer what words and the sentences mean from context and social interactions

Sign language: language developed by members of deaf communities that uses visual rather than auditory communication

Metalinguistic: awareness of how language is structured and used

Homesign: system of signs invented by deaf children of hearing parents who receive no language input

Do we think in words? Relationship between language and thought

- The notion that language completely determines our thinking has little or no scientific support. Though, evidence supports the idea that language can influence some aspects of our thinking.

Covert speech: subvocal talking

Linguistic determinism: view that all thought is represented verbally and that, as a result, our language defines our thinking

Linguistic relativity: view that characters of language shape our thought processes

Transcranial magnetic stimulation: technique involving a coil that generates a magnetic field that can temporarily block or stimulate neural transmissions within a small brain area

Reading: recognising the written word

- We generally use two reading strategies: whole word recognition and phonetic decomposition. Whole word recognition is more efficient when reading familiar words, but phonetic decomposition is critical for less familiar words
- Before children can begin to read, they must realise that writing is meaningful

Whole word recognition: reading strategy that involves identifying common words without having to sound them out based on their appearance

Phonetic decomposition: reading strategy that involves sounding out words by drawing correspondences between printed letters and sounds

Thinking and reasoning:

- Cognitive economy is a necessary and valuable aspect as we would be unable to function cognitively without some way of streamlining our information processing

Thinking: any mental activity or processing of information including learning, remembering, perceiving, believing and deciding

Artificial intelligence (AI): study and design of computer systems created to mimic human cognitive abilities

Categories: collections of real or imagined objects, actions and characteristics that share core properties.

Problem solving: generating a cognitive strategy to accomplish a goal

Mental set: phenomenon of becoming stuck in a specific problem solving strategy, inhibiting our ability to generate alternatives

Functional fixedness: difficulty conceptualising that an object typically used for more than one purpose can be used for another

Social psychology:

What is it?

- The need to belong theory proposes that humans have a biological need for interpersonal connections
- Social facilitation refers to the presences of others enhancing our performance in certain situations
- Attributions refer to our efforts to explain our behaviour; some attributions are internal, others external
- The great lesson of social psychology is the fundamental attribution error- the tendency to overestimate the impact of dispositions on other's behaviour
- According to social comparison theory, we are motivated to evaluate our beliefs, attitudes and reactions by comparing them with the beliefs, attitudes and reactions of others
- Mass hysteria is an outbreak of irrational behaviour spread by social contagion

Social psychology: study of how people influence other's behaviour, beliefs and attitudes

Social facilitation: enhancement of performance brought about by the presence of others

Attribution: process of assigning causes to behaviour

Fundamental attribution error: tendency to overestimate the impact of dispositional influences on other people's behaviour

Social comparison theory: theory that we seek to evaluate our beliefs, attitudes and abilities by comparing our reaction to others'

Mass hysteria: outbreak of irrational behaviour that is spread by social contagion

Social influence: conformity and obedience:

- Conformity refers to the tendency of people to change their behaviour as a result of group pressure. Asch's conformity studies underscore the power of social pressure, although there are individual and cultural differences in conformity
- Deindividuation refers to the tendency of people to engage in atypical behaviour when stripped of their usual identities. The Stanford prison study is regarded as a powerful demonstration of the effects of deindividuation on behaviour.
- Groupthink is a preoccupation with group unanimity that impairs critical thinking. It can be treated by interventions that encourage dissent within the group
- Group polarisation refers to the tendency of group discussion to strengthen the dominant positions of individual group members
- Cults are groups of individuals who exhibit extreme groupthink, marked by intense and unquestioning devotion to a single individual
- Milgram's classic work on authority demonstrates the power of destructive obedience to authority and helps to clarify the situational factors that both foster and impede obedience

Conformity: tendency of people to alter their behaviour as a result of group pressure

Parametric studies: studies in which an experimenter systematically manipulates the independent variable to observe its effects on the dependent variable

Deindividuation: tendency of people to engage in uncharacteristic behaviour when they are stripped of their usual identities

Groupthink: emphasis on group unanimity at the expense of critical thinking and sound decision making

Group polarisation: tendency of group discussion to strengthen the dominant positions held by individual group members

Cults: groups of individuals who exhibit intense and unquestioning devotion to a single cause

Inoculation effect: approach to convincing people to change their minds about something by first introducing reasons why the perspective might be correct and then debunking it

Obedience: adherence to instructions from those of higher authority

Helping and harming others: prosocial behaviour and aggression

- Although common wisdom suggests that there is 'safety in numbers', psychological research suggests otherwise. Bystander non-intervention results from two major factors: pluralistic ignorance and diffusion of responsibility. The first affects whether we recognise ambiguous

situations as emergencies and the second affects how we respond once we have identified situations as emergencies

- People are more likely to help when they are unable to escape from a situation, have adequate time to intervene, are in a good mood, and have been exposed to research on bystander intervention
- A variety of situational variables, including provocation, frustration, aggressive cues, media influences, arousal and temperature, increase the likelihood of aggression
- Men tend to be more physically aggressive than women, although girls are more relationally aggressive than boys; the southern culture of honour may help to explain why murder rates are higher in the southern United States

Pluralistic ignorance: error of assuming that no one in a group perceives things as we do

Diffusion of responsibility: reduction in feelings of personal responsibility in the presence of others

Social loafing: phenomenon whereby individuals become less productive in groups

Altruism: helping others for unselfish reasons

Enlightenment effect: learning about psychological research can change real-world behaviour for the better

Aggression: behaviour intended to harm others, either verbally or physically

Relational aggression: form of indirect aggression prevalent to girls, involving spreading rumours, gossiping, and nonverbal putdowns for the purpose of social manipulation

Attitudes and persuasion: changing minds

- Attitudes are not typically good predictors of behaviour, although attitudes predict behaviour relatively well they are highly accessible
- According to cognitive dissonance theory, a discrepancy between two beliefs leads to an unpleasant state of tension that we are motivated to reduce. In some cases, we reduce this state by altering our attitudes
- According to dual process models of persuasion, there are two routes to persuasion: a central route that involves careful evaluation of arguments and a peripheral route that relies on superficial cues
- Effective persuasion techniques include the foot-in-the-door technique, the door-in-the-face technique and the low-ball technique

Belief: conclusion regarding factual evidence

Attitude: belief that includes an emotional component

Self-monitoring: personality trait that assesses the extent to which people's behaviour reflects their true feelings and attitudes

Cognitive dissonance: unpleasant mental experience of tension resulting from two conflicting thoughts or beliefs

Self-perception theory: theory that we acquire our attitudes by observing our behaviours

Impression management theory: theory that we do not really change our attitudes, but report that we have so that our behaviours appear consistent with our attitudes

Foot-in-the-door-technique: persuasive technique involving making a small request before making a bigger one

Door-in-the-face-technique: persuasive technique involving making an unreasonably large request before making the small request we are hoping to have granted

Low-ball technique: persuasive technique in which the seller of a product starts by quoting a low sales price, then mentions an add on cost once the customer has agreed to purchase the product

Prejudice and discrimination:

- Prejudice is coming to a conclusion before we have evaluated all the evidence. Prejudice is accompanied by several other biases, including in-group biases and out-group homogeneity
- Discrimination is the act of treating out-group members differently from in-group members
- Stereotypes are beliefs about a group's characteristics that we apply to most members of that group. They can either be positive or negative.
- There is evidence for various social explanations of prejudice, including scapegoating, belief in a just world and conformity
- Prejudice can be overcome. One of the most effective means of combating prejudice is to make members of different groups work together towards achieving shared overarching goals

Prejudice: drawing conclusions about a person, a group of people or a situation prior to evaluating the evidence

Adaptive conservatism: evolutionary principle that creates a predisposition towards distrusting anything or anyone unfamiliar or different

In-group bias: tendency to favour individuals within our group over those from outside our group

Out-group homogeneity: tendency to view all individuals outside our group as highly similar

Discrimination: negative behaviour towards members of out-groups

Stereotype: a belief, positive or negative, about the characteristics of members of a group that is applied generally to most members of the group

Implicit and explicit stereotypes: beliefs about the characteristics of an out-group about which we are either unaware or aware

Ultimate attribution error: assumption that behaviours among individual members of a group are due to their internal dispositions

Scapegoat hypothesis: claim that prejudice arises from a need to blame other groups for our misfortunes

Just-world hypothesis: claim that our attributions and behaviours are shaped by a deep-seated assumption that the world is fair and all things happen for a reason

Jigsaw classrooms: educational approach designed to minimise prejudice by requiring all children to make independent contributions to a shared

Chapter 10: Intelligence and IQ

What is intelligence? Definitional confusion

- Galton proposed that intelligence stems from sensory capacity. Binet and Simon developed the first intelligence test, argued that intelligence consists of higher mental processes, such as reasoning, understanding and judgment
- Spearman observed that tests of mental ability tend to be positively correlated
- Brain size and intelligence are moderately correlated in humans. Some evidence suggests that people with high levels of intelligence possess especially efficient brains. Intelligence also seems to be related to faster reaction times, as well as working memory capacity, and probably stems in part from the activity of the prefrontal cortex

Intelligence test: Diagnostic tool designed to measure overall thinking ability

Intelligence quotient: systematic means of quantifying difference among people in their intelligence

Abstract thinking: capacity to understand hypothetical concepts

G (general intelligence): hypothetical factor that accounts for overall differences in intellect among people

S (specific abilities): particular ability level in a narrow domain

Fluid intelligence: capacity to learn new ways of solving problems

Crystallised intelligence: accumulated knowledge of the world acquired over time

Multiple intelligences: idea that people vary in their ability levels across different domains of intellectual skill

Triarchic model: model of intelligence proposed by Robert Sternberg positing three distinct types of intelligence: analytical, practical and creative

Intelligence testing: the good, the bad and the ugly

- Stern defined the intelligence quotient (IQ) as mental age divided by chronological age, with the result multiplied by 100. This is problematic in adolescence and adulthood, because mental age tends to level out around the age of 16. As a consequence, most modern intelligence tests define IQ in terms of deviation IQ
- Eugenics was an effort to improve a population's 'genetic shock' by encouraging people with 'bad genes' from reproducing, or both. IQ tests became an important tool of the eugenics movement, because many proponents of eugenics wished to minimise the reproduction of individuals with low IQ's.
- There are four categories of intellectual disability: mild, moderate, severe and profound.
- At least 85% of intellectually disabled individuals fall into the mild category.

Mental age: age corresponding to the average individual's performance on an intelligence test

Deviation IQ: expression of a person's IQ relative to his or her same aged peers

Eugenics: movement influential in the 20th century to improve a population's genetic stock by encouraging those with good genes to reproduce, preventing those with bad genes from reproducing, or both

Association fallacy: error of confusing a claim's validity with the people who advocate it

Wechsler Adult Intelligence Scale (WAIS): most widely used intelligence test for adults today.

Stanford-Binet IQ Test: Intelligence test based on the measure developed by Binet and Simon

Culture-fair IQ tests: abstract reasoning items that do not depend on language and are often believed to be less influenced by cultural factors than other IQ tests

Bell curve: distribution of scores in which the bulk of the scores fall towards the middle

Intellectual disability: IQ below 70

Genetic and environmental influences on IQ

- Twin and adoption studies show that at least some of the tendency for IQ to run in families is genetic
- Schooling is related to IQ scores. Research suggests that both poverty and nutrition are causally related to IQ, although disentangling the effects of nutrition from other factors, such as social class, is challenging

Flynn effect: finding that average IQ scores have been rising at a rate of approximately 3 points per decade

Group differences in IQ: the science and the politics:

- Most research suggests little, if any, overall average sex differences in IQ between men and women
- Though some studies suggest that men are more variable in their IQ scores than women.
- On average, African Americans score about 15 points lower than Caucasians on standard IQ tests

Test bias: tendency of a test to predict outcomes better in one group than another

Within-group heritability: extent to which the variability of a trait within a group is genetically influenced

Between-group heritability: extent to which differences in a trait between groups is genetically influenced

Stereotype threat: fear that we may confirm a negative group stereotype

The rest of the story: other dimensions of intellect

- Creative accomplishments consist of two features: they are novel and successful
- Creativity also requires convergent thinking, the capacity to find the single best answer to a problem
- Emotional intelligence refers to the ability to understand our emotions and those of others and apply this knowledge to our lives. It is not clear whether the concept of emotional

intelligence provides psychological information not provided by personality traits, such as extraversion.

Divergent thinking: capacity to generate many different solutions to a problem

Convergent thinking: capacity to generate the single best solution to a problem

Emotional intelligence: ability to understand our own emotions and those of others and to apply this information to our daily lives

Ideological immune system: our psychological defences against evidence that contradicts our views.