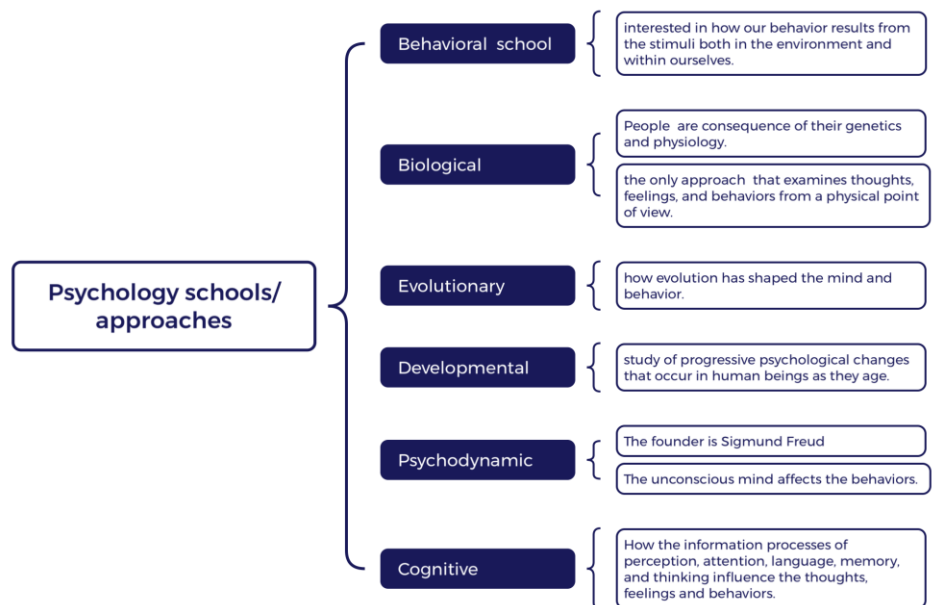


## Lecture 1

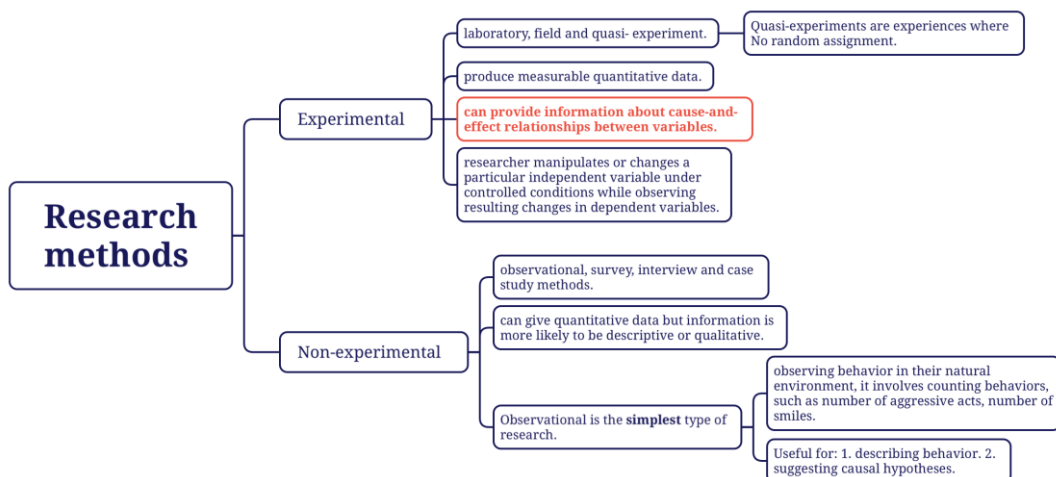
- Psychology: study of our thoughts, feelings and behaviors.
- An approach or perspective in psychology is a view of why and how we think, feel and behave as we do.



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- Innate Capacities: skills we have from birth such as our ability to learn our native language.
  - Even seen in infants in areas such as arithmetic (children ability to recognize that they have two pieces of chocolate even they didn't learn numbers)
- Achievement through experience: what we learn through the experiences.
- Ways of social communication:
  1. Verbal (language, sounds).
  2. Display: behavior or posture (smile or folded arms), body language. Animals also use these un verbal methods (tail feathers in peacock).
- Social behavior in human in contrast with animals is varied and flexible.
- Social behavior in human is strategic and careful, but also unconscious and irrational, these behaviors change when occur around more than one person.
- Many perspectives used to study the breadth of psychology's content, such as the different perspectives that can be brought to bear on a single phenomenon (eating). To study eating we can look at the biological basis, social influences, eating and the social world, eating disorders, cognitive control over eating.
- Two themes give the psychology coherence:
  1. The type of questions the psychologists ask (why do we do/ think/ feel as we do/ think/ feel?)
  2. Ways of answering these questions: the scientific methods which are using (that's why psychology is a science).
    - The scientific method: a set of principles and procedures that are used by researchers to develop questions, collect data, and reach conclusions.

- goals of psychological studies: to describe, explain, predict, and perhaps influence mental processes or behavior.
- Correlational studies: the study of a relationship between two variables to determine if a relationship exists, what direction the relationship is and how strong it is.
  - It CANNOT make any assumptions of cause and effect (NO causation).
  - results of a correlational study: positive correlation, negative correlation, no correlation. Shown in graphs.
  - Correlation coefficient (from  $-1.00$  to  $+1.00$ ) close to  $+1.00$  indicates a strong positive correlation, close to  $-1.00$  indicates a strong negative correlation.



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- Independent (input) variable (IV): variable that is manipulated by the experimenter, and effects the experimenter wishes to examine.
- Dependent (outcome) variable (DV): experimenter wants to find out if this variable depends on some other factor, it is the **result** of the experiment.
- The control group: individuals who are randomly assigned to a group but do not receive the treatment.
- The experimental group: made up of individuals who are randomly assigned to the group and then receive the treatment.
- Experimental Hypothesis: a testable form of a theory that guess about the possible relationship between two or more variables.

	Correlation studies	Experiment studies	Observational studies
Advantages	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Shows if two or more variables are related.</li> <li>allows general predictions.</li> <li>used both in natural and</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Allows researchers to control the situation.</li> <li>Permits researcher to</li> </ol>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> <li>High degree of realism (in natural environments)</li> <li>data on large number of variables can be</li> </ol>

	laboratory settings.	identify cause and effect.	collected at the same time. 3. researchers don't have as great an impact on the study as they may in other strategies.
<b>Disadvantages</b>	1. Does not permit identification of cause and effect.	1. The environment is artificial and cannot be always generalized to the real world. 2. sometimes difficult to avoid experimenter effects.	3. variables not manipulated by the researcher. 4. unable to infer causality. 5. measurement of variables less precise than in laboratory.

## Lecture 2

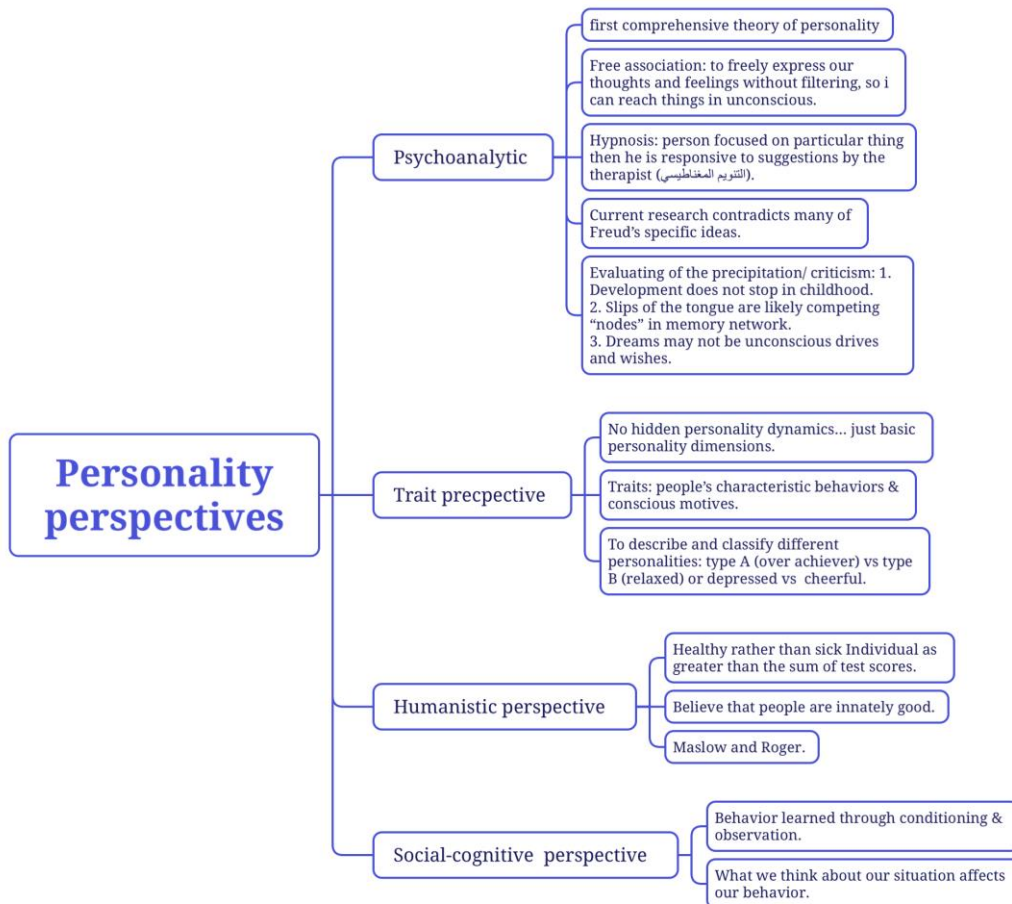
- Humans are similar in their anatomical features, social behaviors, needs, abilities and vulnerabilities, at the same time they differ in anatomical features, needs, abilities and vulnerabilities.
  - Origins of similarity: genetics (nature), similar environment (nurture).
  - Intelligence (the most commonly agreed concepts in defining intelligence): Verbal ability, Problem solving skills, the ability to learn from and adapt to everyday life (adaptation of handicapped child to his inability to walk.
    - Difficult to define.
    - Other definitions: ability to carry abstract thinking. Ability to act purposefully, think rationally and deal effectively with environment. The ability to uptake activities characterized by complexity, economy, an emergence in origin.
    - All definitions refer to capacity and ability not what the person does.
  - First study of intelligence was in 1904 by Alfred Binet (mental age MA and chronological (the real) age CA).
  - intelligence quotient (I.Q.)= MA/ CA \*100.
  - Types intelligences (by Gardner 1991): linguistic, mathematical, spatial, kinesthetic, musical, interpersonal and intrapersonal.
1. Linguistic: **using words effectively**. highly developed auditory skills and often think in words. They like reading, playing word games, making up poetry or stories. They can be taught by encouraging them to say and see words, read books together. Tools include computers, games, multimedia, books, tape recorders, and lecture.
  2. Logical -mathematical: (أكاديمي) **reasoning, calculating**. Think conceptually, abstractly and are able to **see and explore patterns and relationships**. They like to experiment, solve puzzles, ask cosmic questions (أسئلة فلسفية). They can be taught through logic games, investigations, mysteries. They need to learn and form concepts before they can deal with details.
  3. Visual-spatial: think in terms of **physical space**, as do architects and sailors. **Very aware of their environments**. They like to draw, do jigsaw puzzles, read maps, daydream. They can be taught through drawings, verbal and physical imagery. Tools include models, graphics, charts,

photographs, drawings, 3-D modeling, video, videoconferencing, television, multimedia, texts with pictures/ charts/ graphs. (يعني الناس إلّي عندها خيال واسع وقدرة على تحديد الأبعاد والمسافات وتخيلها)

4. Bodily-kinesthetic: **use the body** effectively, like a dancer or a surgeon. Keen sense of body awareness. They like movement, making things, touching. They communicate well through **body language** and be taught through physical activity, hands-on learning, acting out, role playing. Tools include equipment and real objects.
  5. Musical: show sensitivity to rhythm and sound. They love music, but they are also **sensitive to sounds in their environments**. They may study better with music in the background. They can be taught by turning lessons into lyrics, speaking rhythmically, tapping out time. Tools include musical instruments, music, radio, stereo, CD-ROM, multimedia.
  6. Interpersonal: understanding, **interacting with others**. These students learn through interaction. They have many friends, empathy for others, street smarts. They can be taught through group activities, seminars, dialogues. Tools include the telephone, audio conferencing, time and attention from the instructor, video conferencing, writing, computer conferencing, E-mail.
  7. Intrapersonal: **understanding one's own interests, goals**. tend to shy **away from others**. They're in tune with their inner feelings; they have wisdom, intuition and motivation, as well as a strong will, **confidence** and opinions. They can be taught through independent study and introspection. Tools include books, creative materials, diaries, privacy and time. They are **the most independent** of the learners.
- IQ range: +150, 130-149, 115-129, **85-114 (normal range)**, 70-84, 50-69 (mild MR), 35-49 (moderate MR), 20-34 (sever MR), <20 (profound MR).
  - Few differences between sexes, inferior problem solving by women, have more difficulty in shifting set.
  - Rural children attain lower average IQ than city children, high socioeconomic class children get higher scores in IQ tests than low socioeconomic class children.
  - There is no real IQ difference between races, more difference is intraracial.
  - IQ is stable over time.
  - Wechsler adult intelligence scale (WAIS): individual test administered by specially trained testers. 6 verbal (information, arithmetic, similarities digit span, comprehension, vocabulary) and 5 performance scales (picture arrangement, picture completion, block design, object assembly, digit symbol).
    - widely used.
    - High validity and reliability.
    - (70%) of people score between 90 and 110 (normal range).
    - Participants scored 10 points higher on WISC than those who didn't participate.
  - The average correlation between parents IQ and their children is 50, adopted children 25, MZ (monozygotic) twins 90 DZ (dizygotic) twins 55. So, the closer the genetic relationship the more similar the tested intelligence.
  - Environment does make a difference in intelligence (nutrition health, quality of stimulation, emotional climate, and feedback elicited by behavior).
  - Head start programs (2 – 5 years old from poor homes).
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## Lecture 3

- Two main areas of differences: personality and intelligence.
- Personality: personality refers to those relatively stable and enduring aspects of the individual which distinguish from other people and form the basis of our predictions concerning his future behaviors, or characteristic pattern of thinking, feeling and acting. (Difficult to define)



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### Psychoanalytic perspective (Freud):

- First comprehensive theory of personality was by Sigmund Freud (voracious reader, medical school graduate, specialized in nervous disorders, university of Vienna 1873), discovered that some patients' disorders had no physical cause.
- Unconscious (thoughts, feelings, wishes, memories).
- Repression: defends mechanism, banishing unacceptable thoughts & passions to unconscious dreams and slips.
- Personality structures by Freud:  
 Id: unacceptable desires. energy constantly striving to satisfy basic drives pleasure principle.  
 Super Ego: voice of conscience that focuses on how we ought to behave.  
 (الإدسي المثالي أو الأخلاقي)

Ego: seeks to gratify the Id in realistic ways Reality Principle. (بالنص)

- "Personality arises from conflict between aggressive, pleasure-seeking impulses and social restraints" Freud.
- Psychosexual Stages:
  1. Oral (0-18 mos).
  2. Anal (18-36 mos) ~> on bowel/bladder elim.
  3. Phallic (3-6 yrs) ~> focus on genitals.
    - Oedipus Complex: males have desire to their mothers more than fathers (opposite sex), and they consider their father as a competitor. (Electra complex in females).
  4. Latency (6-puberty) ~> sexuality is dormant. (Transitional)
  5. Genital (puberty on) ~> sexual feelings toward others.

Strong conflict can fixate an individual at Stages 1,2 or 3.
- Ego protects itself via defense mechanisms to reduce/redirect anxiety by distorting reality.
- Defense mechanisms:
  1. Repression: banishes certain thoughts/feelings from consciousness (underlies all other defense mechanisms).
  2. Regression: (neurotic defense mechanism) retreating to earlier stage of fixated development.
  3. Reaction formation: ego makes unacceptable impulses appear as their opposites.
  4. Projection: (immature defense mechanism) attributes threatening impulses to others. (صفات أو تصرفات موجودة عند الشخص، وهذا الشخص بتهم أو بوصف أشخاص آخرين بهذه الصفات)
  5. Rationalization: (neurotic defense mechanism) generate self-justifying explanations to hide the real reasons for our actions.
  6. Displacement: (neurotic) divert impulses toward a more acceptable object. (لما شخص ما يقدر يعطي رد فعل بسبب عواقب رد الفعل هاي (ينفصل من العمل مثلاً)، فيروح يطلعها بشخص آخر).
  7. Sublimation: (mature mechanism) transform unacceptable impulse into something socially valued. (واحد بحب التشريح/ التقطيع فيدخل جراحة عشان يطلع هاي الرغبات في شيء مقبول)
- We can assess the unconscious using projective tests such as 1. thematic appreciation test (TAT) 2. Rorschach inkblot test (showing the patient some pictures, then asking him about what he sees or to give a story about the picture and depending on the answer the therapist determines whether there is a psychopathy or not).
- Freud's ideas as a scientific theory: few objective observations, few hypotheses, based on his recollections & interpretations of patients' free associations, dreams & slips o' the tongue and **does not PREDICT behavior or traits.**

## Trait perceptive:

- Each person is a combination between 2 or 3 genetically determined dimensions (extraversion/introversion and emotional stability/instability) and one of them is dominant. (Basic traits)
- The big five theory: (five major traits)
  1. Emotional Stability: calm/anxious, secure/insecure.

2. Extraversion: sociable/retiring, fun loving/sober.
  3. Openness: imaginative/practical, independent/conforming.
  4. Agreeableness: soft-hearted/ruthless, trusting/suspicious.
  5. Conscientiousness: organized/disorganized, careful/careless.
- High relationship between personality and genes.
  - Personality can be assessed using MMPI ~> objective test. **most widely used personality inventory**. assess psychological disorders (not normal traits). empirically derived (test items selected based upon how well they discriminate between groups of traits).
  - Myers-Briggs type indicator ~> classify people based upon responses to 126 questions.

## The humanistic perspective:

- Maslow and self actualization:
  - Self-actualization: the process of fulfilling our potential.
  - Self-aware & self-scepting, open and spontaneous, loving and caring Problem-centered not self-centered.
  - Abe. Lincoln, Tom Jefferson and Eleanor Roosevelt. (I don't know who they are)
  - Studied **healthy**, creative people.
  - Maslow's hierarchy of needs: physiological then safety then love needs then esteem and the last one is self-actualization. We need them by order and can't achieve any of thees needs without getting the one under it.
- Roger (person-centered perspective):
  - People are basically good with actualizing tendencies, given the right environmental conditions, we will develop to our full potentials.
  - Self Concept(+ve/-ve): our thoughts ~and feelings about ourselves ether positive or negative. central feature of personality.
  - Primarily through questionnaires in which people report their self-concept also by understanding others' subjective personal experiences during therapy.
  - The problem with self assessment is that concepts are vague and subjective. assumptions are naïvely optimistic.

## Social-cognitive perspective:

- Reciprocal determinism: interaction between personal/ cognitive factors, environment factors and behavior.
- Internal Locus of control: you pretty much control your own destiny.
- External Locus of control: luck, fate and/or powerful others control your destiny.
- Methods of study: correlate feelings of control with behavior and experiment by raising/lowering people's sense of control and noting effects.
- Uncontrollable bad events ~> perceived lack of control ~> generalized helpless behavior.

**Personality disorders:** maladaptive and enduring pattern of thoughts and feelings and behaviors that are consistent a cross time.

1. Paranoid personality: distrust of others and a constant suspicion that people around you have sinister motives. excessive trust in their own knowledge and abilities and usually avoid close



relationships. quick to challenge the loyalties of friends and loved ones and often appear cold and distant to others. They usually shift blame to others and tend to carry long grudges.

(كل الناس حاقدين عليهم وعندهم دوافع شريرة) (بفكروا

2. Schizoid: avoid relationships and do not show much emotion. do not secretly wish for popularity. Their social skills are often weak. Perceived as humorless.
3. Schizotypal: Represents mild schizophrenia. characterized by odd forms of thinking and perceiving, and individuals with this disorder often seek isolation from others. They sometimes believe to have extra sensory ability or that unrelated events relate to them in some important way. Have difficulty concentrating for long.
4. Antisocial: **common misconception is that antisocial personality disorder refers to people who have poor social skills, the opposite is often the case.** characterized by a lack of conscience. People with this disorder are prone to criminal behavior, believing that their victims are weak and deserving of being taken advantage of. careless with money and take action without thinking about consequences. Aggressive and are much more concerned with their own needs.
5. Borderline: mood instability and poor self-image. People with this disorder are prone to constant mood swings and bouts of anger. Take their anger out on themselves, causing themselves injury. Suicidal threats and actions. Think in very black and white terms and often form intense, conflict-ridden relationships.
6. Histrionic: Constant attention seekers. They use grandiose language to describe everyday events and seek constant praise. Need to be the center of attention all the time. May dress provocatively or exaggerate illnesses in order to gain attention. Tend to exaggerate friendships and relationships.
7. Narcissistic: characterized by self-centeredness. They exaggerate their achievements, expecting others to recognize them as being superior. They believe that not just anyone is worthy of being their friend. They tend to make good first impressions, yet have difficulty maintaining long-lasting relationships. They are generally uninterested in the feelings of others.
8. Avoidant: Characterized by extreme social anxiety. Fearful of being rejected and worry about embarrassing themselves in front of others. Exaggerate the potential difficulties of new situations to rationalize avoiding them. They will create fantasy worlds to substitute for the real one. **Unlike schizoid personality disorder, avoidant people yearn for social relations yet feel they are unable to obtain.**
9. Dependent: characterized by a need to be taken care of. Tend to cling to people and fear losing them. May become suicidal when a break-up is imminent. Tend to let others make important decisions for them and often jump from relationship to relationship. Remain in abusive relationships. Overly sensitive to disapproval.
10. Obsessive-Compulsive: similar to obsessive-compulsive anxiety disorder. Overly focused on orderliness and perfection. They tend to get caught up in the details and miss the bigger picture. They set unreasonably high standards for themselves and others and tend to be very critical of others when they do not live up to these high standards. They avoid working in teams, believing others to be too careless or incompetent. They avoid making decisions because they fear making mistakes and are rarely generous.



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## Lecture 4

- Learning: a relatively permanent change in behavior that is the result of practice.
- kinds of learning:
  1. Habituation: an organism learns that to ignore a familiar and inconsequential stimulus.
  2. Classical conditioning: an organism learns that one stimulus follows another.
  3. Operant conditioning: an organism learns that a particular consequence.
  4. Complex learning: learning involves more than the formation of associations.
- Researches on learning were done from a **behaviorist** perspective.
  - It assumed that 1. behavior is better understood in terms of external causes than internal ones ~> the building blocks of all learning. and that 2. the laws of learning are the same for different species and different situations. (These assumptions have been modified)
  - The contemporary analysis of learning includes 1. cognitive factors and 2. biological constraints as well as 3. behaviorist principles.
- Pavlov's experiments ~> if a conditioned stimulus (CS) consistently precedes an unconditioned stimulus (UCS), the CS comes to serve as a signal for the UCS and will elicit a conditioned response (CR) that often resembles the unconditioned response (UCR).

الكلب اذا شاف الاكل (UCS) بسيل اللعاب (UCR)، اذا صار كل مرة قبل الأكل يسمع صوت جرس (CS) رح يصير يسيل اللعاب بمجرد ما يسمع صوت الجرس لأنه عارف إنه فيه أكل هسا (CR).

- Stimuli that are **similar** to CS also elicit the CR to some extent (can be curbed by discrimination training)
- These phenomena occur in organisms as flatworm and humans.
- for classical conditioning to occur, the CS must be a **reliable predictor** of the UCS, there must be a **higher probability that the UCS will occur** when the CS has been presented than when it has not.
- Cognitive factors also play a role in conditioning.
- Ethologists: "what an animal learn is constrained by it's genetically determined behavioral blueprint ". ~> rats readily learn to associates the feeling of being sick with test of a solution, but they can't learn to associate sickness with a light, in the other hand birds can learn to associate light and sickness but not taste and sickness.
- Operant conditioning deals with situations in which the response operates on the **environment** rather than being elicited by an unconditioned stimulus.
  - The earliest studies were by Thorndyke ~> any behavior that is followed by reinforcement is strengthened (the law of effect).
  - Skinner's experiment ~> a rat or pigeon learns to make a simple response, such as pressing a lever, to obtain reinforcement.
  - Shaping: a training procedure that is used when the desired response is novel; if involves reinforcing only variations in response that deviate in the direction desired by the experimenter.

- phenomena can increase the generality of operant conditioning:
  1. conditioned reinforcement.
  2. generalization and discrimination ~> organisms generalize responses to similar situations, although this generalization can be brought under the control of discriminative stimulus.
- Once a behavior is established, it can be maintained when it is **reinforced only part of the time**.
- types of reinforcement schedules: fixed ratio, variable ratio, fixed interval, and variable interval schedules.
- Cognitive factors play a role in operant conditioning.
- Biological constraints also play a role in operant conditioning.
- For operant conditioning to occur, the organism must believe that reinforcement is **at least partly under its control**; that is, it must perceive a contingency between its responses and the reinforcement.
- There are constraints on what reinforcers can be associated with what responses,
- kinds of aversive conditioning:
  1. punishment ~> a response is followed by an aversive event, which results in the response being suppressed.
  2. Escape ~> an organism learns to make a response in order to terminate an ongoing aversive event.
  3. Avoidance ~> an organism learns to make a response in order to prevent the aversive event from even starting.
- According to the cognitive perspective, the crux of learning is an organism's ability to represent aspect of the world mentally and then operate on these mental representations rather than on the world itself.
- In complex learning, the mental representation depicts more than associations, and the mental operations may constitute a **strategy**.
  - Example of complex learning: chimpanzees can solve problems through insight and then generalize the solutions to similar problems.
  - learning relationships between stimuli that are not perfectly predictive can lead to the detection of relationships that are not objectively present, having a prior belief about it can lead to objective relationships conflicts with a prior belief. These effects demonstrate top-down processing in learning.
- **Behavior modification:**
  - Can be done by behavior therapy which is based on the principles of learning and conditioning.
  - Behaviorists assume that **maladaptive behaviors** are learned ways of **coping with stress**, and that the techniques used in experimental research on learning can be used to substitute more appropriate responses for maladaptive ones.
  - Behavior therapists point out that the achievement of insight **does not ensure behavioral change**.
  - We understand why we behave the way we do in certain situation but are unable to change our behavior.
  - The aim is to modify the maladaptive behavior.

- first step is to define the problem clearly, then the therapist and the client work out a treatment program choosing the most appropriate treatment for this problem.
- Methods used in behavior modification:
  1. Systemic desensitization.
  2. In vivo exposure (flooding).
  3. Selective reinforcement.
  4. Modeling.
  5. Behavioral rehearsal.
  6. Self regulation.