

SYCHOLOG

Essential principles, theories & concepts for developing a strong foundation in the study of human behavior & mental processes

INTRODUCTION

Psychology is the scientific study of behavior and mental processes, how they are affected by an organism's physical and mental state and external environment, and how they can ultimately be described, understood, predicted, and controlled or modified

PSYCHOLOGY AS A SCIENCE

- 1. Experiment: A process in which a researcher controls one or more variables to discover the
- 2. Independent variable: Manipulated and controlled by the researcher
- 3. Dependent variable: Data; measured by the researcher
- Experimental and control groups: Only the experimental group is exposed to the independent variable; otherwise, both groups are treated the same; this will show whether the change in the dependent variable is caused by the independent variable
- 5. Confounding variable: An observed effect that may be due to an intervening third variable between the dependent and independent variables; the confounding variable must be systematically controlled or, if possible, eliminated; otherwise, the obtained results are invalid
- 6. Latent variable: An unobservable variable that is inferred as the mediator between two observed events (e.g., inferring the experience of fear from certain measurable physiological anxiety responses); it is often difficult to avoid circular explanations when positing a latent
- Subject variable: A condition that is part of the subject's makeup and cannot be assigned randomly (e.g., sex, height, hair color); because these conditions cannot be randomized, causal conclusions cannot be derived from subject variable experiments
- Nonsubject variable: A characteristic that is not part of a subject's makeup and thus can be randomly assigned (e.g., whether the subject received a certain drug or a placebo)

- 9. Experimental error or anomaly: A vexing problem that develops when experimental res cannot be reproduced as expected; experimenters must establish whether there is an experimental error or anomaly: in the experimental methodology or whether the experiment failed to control all relevant confounding variables, which would diminish the effect of the independent variable • TYPES OF STUDIES
- Descriptive studies: Describe but do not explain behavior
 A. Case history: A description of one individual
- - i. Naturalistic: The observation is done in the subject's natural environment
- ii. Laboratory: The observational setting is controlled by the researcher C. Surveys include questionnaires and interviews
- D. Tests must be both reliable and valid
 - The reliability of a test reflects the extent to which fluctuations in results are due fluctuations in the underlying measured entity or are a characteristic of the measured entity or the test) that should be improved
- Validity refers to the extent to which a test measures what it purports to measure;
- E. Cross-sectional studies are descriptive studies that observe a large section of a populati in order to detect various statistically significant tendencies (e.g., gambling tendencies octogenarians vs. the rest of the population)

 2. Correlational studies: Show the strength of relationships between variables but do 1
- show causauon

 3. Longitudinal studies: Studies in which the same variables or individuals are studied ove prolonged period in order to observe how the variables or persons of interest may under change (e.g., the IQ of gifted children may be studied from infancy to old age to see how changes and how it may correlate with learning ability over time)

LEARNING

Learning is the change in behavior as a result of experience

CLASSICAL CONDITIONING

- 1. Pavlov's studies
- A. The unconditioned stimulus (UCS)that is, food-elicits an unconditioned response (UCR)—salivation
- B. The neutral stimulus (i.e., tone) is then paired
- The neutral stimulus becomes the conditioned stimulus (CS), which elicits a conditioned response (CR)—salivation
- 2. Principles of classical conditioning
- A. Extinction: When the CS is not presented with the UCS, the CS will diminish
- Stimulus generalization: Similar stimuli will elicit a response similar to the response to the CS
- C. Stimulus discrimination: Similar stimuli will elicit a response different from the response to the CS
- OPERANT CONDITIONING
- 1. Reinforcer (reward): Any stimulus that follows a response and increases response probability
- A. Positive reinforcement: The response is followed by the presentation of a reinforcing stimulus
- Negative reinforcement: The response is followed by the removal of an unpleasant stimulus
- 2. Punishment: Any stimulus that follows a response and decreases response probability
- 3. Principles of operant conditioning
- A. Extinction: The CR is no longer reinforced
- B. Stimulus generalization: The response will occur to similar stimuli
- C. Stimulus discrimination: The response does not occur to different stimuli
- D. Timing of reinforcers: The sooner a reinforcer or punishment follows an action, the greater its effect
- E. Schedules of reinforcement
 - Continuous reinforcement: A particular response is always reinforced
 - Intermittent reinforcement: A particular response is reinforced only some of the time (a) Fixed ratio (FR): The response is reinforced after a fixed number of responses, which
 - leads to a high response rate Variable ratio (VR): The response is reinforced after an average number of responses, which leads to a very high, steady response rate

- (c) Fixed interval (FI): The response is reinforced after a fixed amount of time, which leads to a scalloped response pattern
- Variable interval (VI): The response is reinforced after a variable amount of time, which leads to a low, steady response rate
- F. Shaping: A method of reinforcing successive approximations to the desired response (e.g., rewarding a subject for traveling in the general direction of a maze's correct path, and then successively rewarding the subject for correct turns within
- G. Chaining: A method of connecting responses in a sequence of behaviors; at the end of the chain, there must always be a reinforcer and all behaviors must be previously conditioned into the organism's repertoire; the chain is constructed by beginning at the end and working backward
- 4. Cognitive behavior modification: The principles of learning theory are applied to alter undesirable thoughts rather than only observable behaviors

Albert Bandura

learning theory (Bandura): The four processes that influence learning are attention, memory, behavior, and motivation, the specific and cognitive processes recognized are attribution, expectancy, logical, verbal, and imagination



- therapy (Ellis): Dysfunctional behavior is due to irrational beliefs; therapy focuses on the alteration of these irrational beliefs
- C. Problem-solving therapy: Focuses on enhancing the patient's ability to make decisions and solve problems in stressful or difficult situations
- D. Paradoxical intervention: Patients are instructed to purposely perform undesirable symptomatic behaviors on command in an effort to demonstrate their ability to gain control over these
- E. Attribution therapy: Attempts to facilitate the patient's ability to reattribute undesirable feelings and symptoms to something less threatening and more acceptable

BIOLOGICAL BASIS OF PSYCHOLOGY

• STRUCTURE OF THE NERVOUS SYSTEM

- 1. Central nervous system (CNS): Brain and spinal cord
- 2. Peripheral nervous system (PNS): Sensory and motor nerves th transmit information and connect the CNS with organs and limbs A. Somatic: Controls skeletal muscles

 - B. Autonomic: Regulates internal organs and glands i. Parasympathetic: Conserves energy; primarily responsib for maintaining passive metabolic processes (digestion, sal vation, lacrimation, etc.)
 - ii. Sympathetic: Expends energy; controls active processes, suc as the "fight or flight" response

• COMMUNICATION WITHIN THE NERVOUS SYSTEM 1. Neuron: Basic unit (cell) of the nervous system; made up of the followin

- A. Cell body (soma): Keeps neuron alive
- B. Dendrites: Receive information from other neurons
- Axon: Sends information to other neurons
- D. Myelin sheath: Insulates axon to enable faster transmission (
- 2. Communication between neurons occurs at the synapse, the plac where nerve impulses are transmitted from one neuron to another A. The message travels through the axon to the axon terminal on th
- B. Synaptic vesicles open and release neurotransmitters into th
- C. Neurotransmitters fit into receptor sites on the receiving dendrite causing it to be either more or less likely to fire
- · THE BRAIN
- 1. Hindbrain
- A. Includes the medulla oblongata, pons, reticular activating system
- B. Responsible for reflexive, automatic behavior
- 2. Midbrain: Information conduit
- 3. Forebrain: Includes the following:
- A. Thalamus: Directs sensory messages
- B. Hypothalamus: Drives emotion and survival
- C. Pituitary gland: Controls many other endocrine glands
- D. Cerebral cortex of the cerebrum, which includes the:
- Occipital lobes: Process visual information ii. Parietal lobes: Process sensory information
- Temporal lobes: Process auditory
- information iv. Frontal lobes: Control motor movements
- 4. Two brain hemispheres
- A. Each one controls the opposite side of the body
- B. The left hemisphere is dominant for most people



STRESS

 Stress generally indicates a process or state that undermines or disrupts an organism's equilibrium or homeostasis; on a subjective level, stress is experienced as a negative feeling (nervousness, indigestion, sweating, etc.) when the challenges presented by a situation (real or imagined) exceed one's perceived capacity for successfully coping with these factors

2. Biological reaction

A. Fight or flight: Characterized by increased heart rate and breathing and tense muscles; an organism's fundamental response when confronted with what it perceives as a threat to its survival (i.e., to flee or to fight the threat)

B. Increased activity in the sympathetic nervous system

C. Adrenal glands secrete epinephrine (adrenaline) and norepinephrine

3. Coping with stress

A. Reappraise the situation

B. Maintain control over the stressful situation

PSYCHOLOGY & ILLNESS

1. Heart disease: Type A personalities are hardworking and competitive and thus have an increased incidence of heart disease when compared to type B personalities, who are easygoing

2. Cancer: Exposure to carcinogens increases the risk; however, psychosomatic factors can play a role in influencing the effectiveness of the immune system and therefore the susceptibility to some types of cancer

HEALTH & SOCIAL RELATIONSHIPS

1. Friends and family can play meaningful roles in helping an individual cope with stress

A. Social relationships offer emotional, cognitive, and tangible support B. Cultural differences in the value placed on friendships may

mitigate the efficacy of friendship as a stress reducer

2. Friends can produce and exacerbate stress, due to the contagion

A. Having a friend under stress can increase one's stress level

B. The burden of caring for others can increase stress (e.g., being a caregiver of an Alzheimer's patient)

SENSATION & PERCEPTION

Sensation is the awareness of physical changes: perception is the organization and interpretation of sensations

MEASURING SENSATION

1. Absolute thresholds: Detection of signal 50% of the time

2. Difference thresholds and just noticeable difference (JND)

A. Difference in sensation detectable 50% of the time

B. Weber's law: The JND between two stimuli is proportional to the magnitude of the stimuli (e.g., if the JND for a 20-pound weight range is 3 pounds—i.e., the smallest difference a subject can distinguish is between 20 and 23 pounds—then the JND for 40 pounds would be 6 pounds, as the doubling of the magnitude doubles the IND) doubles the JND)

THE FIVE SENSES

1. Vision

A. The primary sense organ is the eye
B. Light enters through the cornea

C. The lens focuses light on the retina at the back of the eyeball; the retina includes:

Rods: Cells that respond to dim light

Cones: Cells that respond to color

iii. Fovea: The site at the center of the retina where vision is sharpest; contains only cones

2. Hearing

A. The primary sense organ is the ear

Outer ear: Collects sound waves

Middle ear: Amplifies sound; sound waves strike the eardrum which passes the sound waves to three tiny bones (ossicles) that intensify the force of the vibrations

D. Inner ear: Contains receptor cells (hair cells), located within the cochlea, that initiate nerve impulses that travel to the brain

A. The primary sense organ is the tongue

The four basic tastes (salty, sour, bitter, and sweet) are each associated with different receptors, or taste buds, which detect taste often in conjunction with the sense of smell

4. Smell: Receptors are located in the mucous membrane of the nasal

5. Touch: The primary sense organ is the skin, which includes nerves that detect pressure, warmth, cold, and pain

• PERCEPTION

1. Whereas sensation is primarily a passive process of external input, perception is the active organization and composition of these inputs into meaningful units (e.g., the perception of an apple may include the sensations of redness, roundness, firmness, and sweetness)

A. The world is seen as constant, although sensations themselves may change

B. Needs, beliefs, emotions, and expectations all influence perception

INFORMATION-PROCESSING THEORY

1. Information must be encoded to be processed by the brain

A. Storage: Retention of information

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B. Retrieval: Access of information

2. Three memory systems

A. Sensory: Literal copy of information; held for 1-2 seconds

B. Short term: Limited capacity (7 ± 2 items); information held for about 30 seconds; it is then either forgotten or further encoded and placed in long-term memory

C. Long term: Has unlimited capacity; information stored and retrieved by category

MEMORY LOSS

1. In sensory memory, memories are lost through decay, or the process by which information fades if not accessed or used

2. In short-term memory, the system's limited capacity is subject to "filling up," but one can retain information through rehearsal

A. Rote: Maintenance rehearsal

B. Elaborative: Rehearsal that associates new information with old

3. In long-term memory, memory is lost through both decay and forgetting, which occurs in the following instances:

A. Interference: Similar items in memory interior with one another (e.g., a color may be remembered as green when in fact it was blue, since the subjec was wearing both colors)

B. Motivated: Consciously or unconsciously "hiding

a memory

C. Cue (context) dependent: The inability to gain access to the information due to a missing precursor cue that co-occurred with the original memory's referent

D. Zeigarnik effect: Interrupted or incomplete task seem to be better remembered than completed tasks

E. Nonverbal memory: Pictures are remembered sig nificantly better than words; motor memory seem to be impervious to decay

4. False memory syndrome is a condition characterized by memories that are objectively false

A. Often involves a traumatic event

B. Memories are strongly believed by the individua and orient the individual's relationships and identity

C. The individual typically avoids circumstances of evidence that may challenge the accuracy of these memories and is resistant to attempts at correcting

D. More than mere confabulation, false memories are more complex, coherent, and extensive

LANGUAGE, THINKING, INTELLIGENCE & CREATIVITY

· LANGUAGE

1. Language is the rule-governed system of symbols and sounds used to represent and communicate information

2. Understanding language

A. Phonology: Knowledge of speech sounds

B. Semantics: Knowledge of word meanings

C. Syntax: Knowledge of grammatical structure i. Deep structure: Underlying structure of gram-

matical conventions peculiar to a language

ii. Surface structure: Organization of words

D. Psycholinguistics: The study of the cognitive and neurological processes that make the acquisition and use of language possible

3. Acquiring language

A. Rules and strategies are innate

i. Basic timing and sequence of language developmental stages are similar across cultures

Overgeneralization: The process by which chil-

dren learn the rules of their native language and how to apply them, often resulting in ungrammatical constructions (e.g., if a word ending in -ed means "past," then children may use that rule to make sentences such as "I sitted in the chair" or "I goed to Sally's house")

B. The particular language one acquires is based on one's experience

• THINKING

1. Thinking is using concepts to apply past experiences to present thoughts

A. Concept: A mental grouping of a set of objects or events on the basis of important common features

Concepts must be learned through definition or example

ii. Concepts aid in predicting and interpreting events and organizing experiences

Problem solving: The process by which a set of information is used to achieve a goal; after the problem is defined, strategies to solve it include:

A. Using algorithms, or systematic methods guaranteed to produce a solution

B. Using heuristics, or rules that may or may not produce a solution (i.e., simplification or reasoning by analogy)

C. Using insight, which is the sudden understanding of a solution

INTELLIGENCE

1. Intelligence is the capacity to acquire and use knowledge

Measuring intelligence is primarily done with IQ tests (Binet), which determine mental age relative to an individual's chronological age

A. Average score is 100; scores describe a bell-shaped (normal) distribution

IQ (intelligence quotient) is computed by dividing a person's mental age (MA) by his/her chronological age (CA) and multiplying by 100 (i.e., IQ = [MA/CA]

C. Wechsler scales: Tests include verbal, mathematical and nonverbal thinking skills

3. Intelligence test issues

A. Can be predictors of school success, GPA, and income potential

B. Standardized IQ tests may not be entirely valid fo testing populations whose cultural experience is dif ferent from mainstream U.S. culture (e.g., reference ing "innings" in a baseball game may be unfamiliar to a child from a culture where baseball is not a popula

sport) 4. Nature of intelligence: There may be more than one type of intelligence; for instance, aptitude or talents in music, art, emotional skills, or social skills have been suggested as alternate

forms of intelligence 5. Environmental influence

A. IQ is highly heritable; studies have revealed a 50%-80% genetic component to IQ; consequently, th general conclusion seems to be that heredity ha substantial effect on IQ scores, with at least hal the observed variation in IQ scores attributable to genetic differences

B. Experience may modulate the range of intelligence development within a genetically predispositioned

C. Like an individual's height, intelligence appears to be genetically predisposed (i.e., an individual's height i mostly determined by the genetics of the individual parents, but the degree to which the individual realize this potential is mediated by environmental factors)

6. Extremes in intelligence
A. Intellectually challenged: IQ below 70
i. Biological factors include Down syndrome and

fetal alcohol syndrome
ii. Psychosocial factors include challenges due to th effects of disease, malnutrition, or lack of intellectual stimulation

B. Intellectually gifted: Highly skilled in one or mor intellectual domains

· CREATIVITY

Popular theories posit that creativity is:

A. The production of something new from no previous

B. The novel (re)combination of previous concepts

The contributing process for explaining how ne concepts are developed

D. A process that is fundamentally irreducible to scientif operationally defined procedures, as it is nonrational intuitive, and mystical (a Romantic view)

2. Modern scientific views of creativity

A. The process of the emergence of novel ideas is nonrandom and may be studied using scientific methods and procedures; thus the creative pro cess can be analyzed, investigated, and understood in mechanistic terms

B. Even when new ideas seem to appear suddenly in flash of insight, there will be a long chain of analy

able precursors

Once the creative process is adequately understood, it can be taught; in effect, people could learn to be more creative

3. Prominent theories of creativity

A. Conceptual spaces theory (Boden)

i. Creativity consists of the mapping and investigation of well-ordered conceptual spaces with determinate dimensional properties

ii. Occasionally, creative concepts emerge from the analysis of conceptual space Significantly creative concepts occasion-

ally alter and profoundly affect conceptual spaces

iv. Includes two types of creativity:

(a) Psychological creativity: The production of a new idea that the indi-vidual never had before (although others may have)

(b) Historical creativity: The production of a new idea that no one else previously conceived

B. Exploration and exploitation (March)

Exploration: The process of researching, discovering, and producing new ideas

ii. Exploitation: The process of applying organizational principles to new ideas, thus refining and modifying them
C. Tacit knowledge (Nonaka and Takeuchi)

i. Formal knowledge is transformed by the process of education and thereby undergoes fundamental transformative changes, becoming tacit (informal) knowledge

ii. Utilizing metaphors, analogies, and insights may explain how new ideas and innovations are produced

Tacit knowledge allows one to assess the potential usefulness of new ideas
 D. Flow experience (Csikszentmihalyi)

i. Flow is a peak experience in which individuals are so immersed in concentrating on an activity that they become oblivious to surroundings, time, or circumstances

Flow represents a state common to artistic creativity

To experience flow, individuals typically need to be performing at the limit of their competence and extending their capabilities

E. Productive thinking (Wertheimer)

i. "What occurs when, now and then, thinking really works productively? What happens when, now and then, thinking forges ahead? What is really going on in such a process?"

ii. Productive thought is characterized by its adaptation to the situation it is applied to; it is the distillation of order and structure from chaos and apparent disorder

iii. Productive thought sees the interrelationship of developments in a structure that previously appeared discordant and unconnected, a process that involves deriving a crystallization of sense and order from confusion

DEVELOPMENT

FACTORS OF DEVELOPMENT

1. Learning: Influence of experience (nurture)

Maturation: Unfolding of biological patterns (nature)

Critical periods: Early developmental periods during which particular experiences are essential

Stages: Organization of behaviors and thoughts during particular early developmental periods; defined by relatively abrupt change

COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT (PIAGET)

1. Assimilation: The process by which new information is fit into what is known

Accommodation: Changing existing beliefs in response to new knowledge

A. Sensorimotor stage (birth-2): Object permanence develops (i.e., the gradual realization that objects observed and then reobserved at a later time still somehow continue to exist between observations in some sense)

B. Preoperational stage (2-7): Use of symbols and language develops; child becomes egocentric but still lacks the principles of conservation

C. Concrete operational stage (7-11): Child understands conservation; personal identity develops; stage is grounded in concrete experiences

D. Formal operational stage (11-adult): Abstract reasoning develops and matures

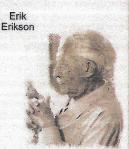
SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT

1. Attachment: Emotional tie between infant and caregiver (Harlow's monkey studies)

2. Sex typing: Learning "masculine" or "feminine" A. Identification with the same-sex parent

Rewards and punishments based on whether behavior is sex appropriate (e.g., little boys may be ridiculed for crying by being told they are "sissies," whereas little girls may be praised for being "little ladies" if they are submissive and quiet)

Erikson's Stages of Psychosocial Development	
Challenge	Age (years)
Trust versus mistrust	0-1.5
Autonomy versus doubt and shame	1.5-3
Initiative versus guilt	3–6
Industry versus inferiority	6-12
Identity versus role confusion	12-18
Intimacy versus isolation	18-40
Generativity versus stagnation	40-65
Ego integrity versus despair	65-death



MORAL DEVELOPMENT (KOHLBERG)

Preconventional morality: Obey because ordered to or will be punished

Conventional morality: Based on trust, loyalty, or the understanding of social order

Postconventional morality: Laws are situational and can be changed

CHRONOLOGICAL DEVELOPMENT

1. Newborn child

A. Reflexes: Automatic behaviors, including rooting, sucking, swallowing, startling, etc.

Vision: Nearsightedness; interest in novelty

C. Social skills: Smile at 4-6 weeks in response to faces; rhythmic "conversations"

A. Biological development: Increased hormone production; sex organs mature; growth spurt occurs B. Intellectual development: Development of formal operational (abstract) reasoning, independence, and questioning

3. Adulthood and aging

A. Transition theories: Major life events may be unanticipated events, anticipated events, nonevents, or sources of chronic hassle, depending on cultural and individual factors

B. Major milestones include starting out, marriage or living alone, parenthood, the empty nest, midlife crises, retirement, widowhood

SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

ROLES

A role is a social position governed by norms, which are conventions by which we live
 Zimbardo's Stanford prison experiment

A. Students were assigned "guard" or "prisoner" roles

B. A student's behavior reflected his role

3. Milgram's obedience study

A. Participants thought they were part of an experiment on learning

B. The "teacher" participant was instructed to shock the "learner" with electricity for giving the wrong answer; however, a confederate of the experimenter, the learner did not actually receive any shocks

C. Despite initial protests, the majority of teachers complied with the instructions to administer shock to learners

SOCIAL COGNITION & GROUP BEHAVIOR

1. Social cognition is how the social environment influences thoughts, perceptions and beliefs

A. Attribution: Motivation to explain behavior
 Situational: Caused by the environment
 Dispositional: Caused by something within the individual

iii. Fundamental attribution error: The overestimation of dispositional causes and the underestimation of situational causes

Self-serving bias: The use of dispositional attributions to explain good behaviors and situational attributions to excuse bad behaviors

B. Stereotypes: Summary generalizations based on putative (real or imagined) traits supposedly common to a group

C. Attitude: A relatively enduring opinion that includes both cognitive and emotional components

Attitudes and behavior influence each other

ii. Cognitive dissonance: When an attitude and behavior conflict, we are motivated to make them consistent by rationalizing a sustaining factor (e.g., in the case of buyer's remorse where the value of the item is not up to expectations or the satisfaction expected is not forthcoming, the buyer may exaggerate some aspect of the purchase to justify the money spent)

D. Prejudice: An unjustified negative attitude toward a group

Individuals and groups
 A. Groupthink: The tendency for group members to think alike and suppress dissent B. Group polarization: The tendency of a group to take a more extreme position.

than those of its individual members C. Responsibility

i. Diffusion of responsibility: The avoidance of taking responsibility based on

the belief that others in the organization will take care of the problem

Social loafing: An individual contributes less to let the group shoulder the load Bystander apathy: The apparent unwillingness of bystanders to take action to help a stranger in distress; will not occur when one:

(a) Perceives the need to help
(b) Decides to take responsibility
(c) Weighs the costs of helping

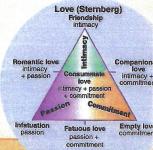
Knows how to help

Feels like the only one in a position (e) to render assistance

D. Conformity: Behavior that occurs as a result of real or imagined group pressure

E. Obedience: Following orders from an authority

Three related components (intimacy, passion, and commitment) combine in various ways to produce different relationship dimensions



GENDER & SEXUALITY

SEX, GENDER & ANDROGYNY

1. Sex: The biological identification of an individual as male or female based on reproductive capacities

2. Gender: Behavioral tendencies often stereotypically identified with a specific sex (e.g., traditional gender roles identifying masculinity with the male and femininity

A. Masculine: Competitive, rational, dominating, aggressive, active

B. Feminine: Cooperative, emotional, nurturing, submissive, passive

3. Androgyny: The manifestation of intermediary characteristics of both sexes in terms of biology, appearance, fashion, and behavior

4. Gender-role transcendence: The view that when personal competencies are at issue, all gender-related categories ought to be abandoned and not be the basis of any important considerations (e.g., in filling a job, the individual with the best [nongender-related] aptitudes should be hired)

5. Transsexualism: The identification with the physical sex other than that which one

A. Transsexual individuals often feel as if they are trapped in the wrong body

Transsexual individuals may undergo extensive transformational procedures to become aesthetically similar to the sex they identify with; these procedures ofter involve medications (hormones), surgical alterations (reconstructive and plastic surgery), lifestyle changes (fashion and name changes), and intensive psychotherapy

A transsexual individual, though usually attracted to members of the same biological sex, is not a homosexual per se

SEXUAL ORIENTATION & PREFERENCE

1. Orientation: The individual's attraction toward various gender and sex categories

A. Heterosexual: Being physically, emotionally, or romantically attracted to members of the opposite sex Homosexual: Being physically, emotionally, or romantically

attracted to members of the same sex

D. Asexual: Having no attraction to members of either sex

2. Preference: Distinguished from orientation in that preference is largely voluntary but orientation is involuntary (e.g., a woman may not decide to be a lesbian, a homosexual orientation, but she may have a preference for women who are more masculine in their behavior)

EXUAL RESPONSE, ATTITUDES & BEHAVIOR

1. The relationship between an individual's sexual response, attitudes, and subsequent behavior is complex and nonlinear (e.g., a latent homosexual male may respond sexually to other males [achieve an erection], but due to his religious upbringing, he may have a disapproving attitude toward this response [believe it is sinful] yet on occasion still act on it [in episodes of promiscuous anonymous sex with other men])

A. Conflicted sexuality: When there is a great discord in the sexual response, attitudes, and behavior of an individual; often observed as the precursor to deviant sexual behavior and possibly criminal tendencies (e.g., pederasty)

B. Sexual contradiction: The apparent contradictory attitude whereby an individual disapproves of certain sexual activity in others (e.g., premarital sex, adultery) yet engages in these very same activities and justifies them as acceptable

C. Double standard: The traditional Western Judeo-Christian view that places strong restrictions and prohibitions on female sexual expression (e.g. expectations of virginity until marriage, prohibitions against premarital and extramarital sex, and condemnation of having multiple sex partners) but allows males to indulge in these same behaviors with fewer recriminations

 Abstinence: Refraining from or being deprived of sexual activity for physical, emotional, religious, philosophical, or involuntary reasons (e.g., being incarcerated or being incapable of finding suitable partners); while masturbation may be excluded in an abstinent lifestyle, it typically is not

A. Benefits: Reduced risk of sexually transmitted diseases (STDs), unwanted pregnancy, and unwanted emotional distractions

B. Risks: The deprivation of sexual benefits, including less depression, better circulation, lower blood pressure, and better immunological functioning; some studies indicate that frequent ejaculation can reduce the risk of prostate cancer

3. Celibacy: The permanent, deliberate, and religiously inspired vow to abstain not only from all sexual activity but also from all forms of romantic involve-ment or sexual interests; while abstinence is only a behavioral restriction on sexual activity, celibacy also excludes thoughts of a sexual nature

MOTIVATION & EMOTION

MOTIVATION

1. Motivation is the need or desire to act a certain way to achieve a goal

2. Range of motives

A. Physiological: Includes basic drives for survival, such as hunger, thirst, and pain avoidance

B. Social: Motives learned by imitation or the need for acceptance and belonging to a social group

C. Motives are organized in a hierarchy of needs (Maslow)

i. In the hierarchy of needs, the needs at each lower level must be satisfied before going on to the next level

ii. The hierarchy of needs is illustrated in the following figure

The hierarchy of needs, beginning with the most fundamental, is:

Physiological: Food, water, sex, and shelter

Safety: Laws and protection from harm

Belonging and love:

Acceptance, friendship, and family

Self-esteem: Responsibility,

reputation, and status

Self-actualization: Fulfillment and personal growth Belonging & love

3. Motivational system: A set of motives and behaviors that operates in a particular life area

A. Hunger and eating

i. Hunger signals: Stomach contractions; originate in the hypothalamus; may be stimulated by environmental cues

ii. Food preferences: Cultural, personal, and biological origins

B. Sexual motivation: Physiologically driven by hormones but also modulated and internalized by societal attitudes, cultural factors, and normative (moral) precepts

C. Work

i. Extrinsic: Working for external reward

ii. Intrinsic: Working for pleasure of activity itself

• EMOTION

1. Defining features of emotions: Subjective experience, physiological arousal, expressive behavior, and changes in cognition

2. Emotions are innate; people from different cultural backgrounds can identify emotions

3. James-Lange theory: Emotion is a result of a perception of a stimulus that causes bodily changes and behaviors

Cannon-Bard theory: Emotion is a result of a perception of a stimulus that causes both physiological changes and subjective feelings
Cognitive-labeling theory (Schachter and Singer): Emotion is a result of the

interpretation of the causes of physiological arousal

6. Frustration-aggression hypothesis: Aggression is the result of the frustration caused by blocked efforts to achieve a goal

PERSONALITY

Personality is the distinctive pattern of behavior, thoughts, and emotions that characterize an individual's patterns of adaptation

THE ORIGINS OF PERSONALITY

1. Biological and genetic influences

2. Unique experiences based on culture and environment

3. Stability and change

A. Genetic characteristics are relatively stable through life

B. People are less active, hostile, and impulsive with age

C. Personality changes as a result of life experiences

• FREUD

<u>CUICKSWEN</u>

1. Personality consists of three parts:

A. Id: Controls basic biological urges; unconscious

B. Ego: Gratifies urges within acceptable bounds; conscious; mediates usual tension between id and superego

C. Superego: Represents values and ideals of society; conscience

2. Psychosexual stages of development

A. Oral (0-1): Sucking, feeding, etc.

B. Anal (2-3): Defecation

Phallic (3-5): Sexual attraction to the opposite-sex parent and a sense of rivalry with the same-sex parent (i.e., Oedipus or Electra complex)

D. Latency (5-puberty): Sexual feelings forgotten; child concentrates on skill development

E. Genital (adulthood): Adult sexual relationships

3. Anxiety: Unjustified fears resolved by ego through use of defense mechanisms

A. Repression: Active exclusion of unconscious impulses from consciousness

B. Projection: The attribution of our thoughts and feelings to others

Reaction formation: The creation of behavior patterns that are in opposition to our anxiety-producing urges

D. Displacement: The redirection of anxiety-producing behaviors to a more acceptable target

E. Rationalization: The substitution of "good" reasons for the real reasons for behavior

4. Defense mechanisms

A. Denial: The refusal to acknowledge an external source of anxiety

B. Fantasy: Utilizing the imagination to satisfy desires that, in reality, are highly unlikely (e.g., sexually fantasizing about a celebrity)

C. Intellectualization: The repression of the emotional component of an anxiety-provoking event, treating it in a purely analytical manner

D. Regression: Resorting to infantile behaviors as a method for avoiding anxiety or responsibility

E. Identification: Identifying with the anxiety-producing stimulus in an attempt to reduce one's own anxiety (i.e., the opposite of projection)

F. Overcompensation: Attempting to conceal perceived deficiencies in one area by excelling in another (e.g., a student with poor academic performance becoming an excellent athlete)

Sublimation: The rechanneling of sexual or aggressive impulses in a socially acceptable direction (e.g., an aggressive person becomes a professional boxer)

HUMANISTIC THEORIES

1. People are rational and capable of choice and desire to achieve personal growth

A. Rogers: Self-concept directs behavior; conflict lies between real and ideal self

B. Maslow: Individual strives for self-actualization and the fulfillment of his/her potential

EXISTENTIAL PSYCHODYNAMICS (YALOM)

1. Primary drive of the individual is to derive meaning from the complexities of his/her life experiences and to understand a structure, rationale, or justification for the events he/she has experienced

2. Failing this, life is seen as absurd and pointless, leading to despair, depression, and existen-

This approach to psychotherapy deals with confronting the issues of death, freedom, existential isolation, and meaninglessness

SOCIAL COGNITIVE THEORY

1. Determines how and under what situations thoughts and behaviors are learned in a social context

Claims that people will often learn behaviors by observing and imitating the behavior of others in a social setting

An interesting new development in this area is the yet-to-be-determined effects of online social media sites in influencing behavior

CONSISTENCY IN PERSONALITY

1. Trait: Relatively enduring quality or characteristic

Cross-situational consistency: Most central to self-concept; is a measure of the stability of certain characteristics across a wide spectrum of observable conditions (e.g., the comfortable interpersonal distance a person maintains in proximity to others may be measured across a dimension of familiarity, novelty, or fearfulness)

PERSONALITY ASSESSMENT

1. Like tests, assessment methods must be both reliable and valid

2 Interview

A. Tailored to the individual's previous answers

B. Low reliability

3. Observation

A. Records the times a particular behavior occurs

B. High reliability

Self-report

A. Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI): Used to diagnose psychological disorders; includes 10 primary scales that measure personality dimensions

5. Projective techniques: Individual provides an interpretation of ambiguous material

A. Rorschach inkblots

B. Thematic Apperception Test (TAT): A projective psychological test, whereby a person's reactions and interpretations of various ambiguous images is purported to reveal his/her attitudes and relationships to others and the world

C. Reliability and validity are unclear, as interpretations are subjective



IAYNES'S THEORY

- 1. Consciousness not only evolves neurobiologically but also is formed by the individual's interactions with culture
- 2. The foundation of consciousness is based in the physiology of the brain's left and right hemispheres; there are three fundamental forms of human awareness:
- A. Bicameral: Activity dominated by the right hemi-sphere; the individual subordinates consciousness of self to the control of a group, a higher power, or other individual
- B. Modern: The dominance of the right hemisphere over the left is weakened as civilization develops and humans become more autonomous and independent; as humans become more independent, individual consciousness emerges
- C. Throwbacks: The reemergence of bicameral consciousness in modern life is manifested by episodes of schizophrenia, hypnosis, and poetic and religious frenzy

SLEEP RHYTHMS

- 1. REM: Rapid eye movements associated with dreaming
- 2. Stages of brain waves
- A. Alpha waves: Regular, high-amplitude, low-frequency
- B. Stage 1: Small, irregular brain waves, characterizing light sleep

- C. Stage 2: Bursts of sleep spindles, which are a precursor to deeper sleep, whereby the brain begins blocking out external distractions (e.g., noise) in order to make deeper sleep possible

- D. Stage 3: Delta waves, characterizing deep sleep E. Stage 4: Extremely deep sleep F. Entire cycle is 30-45 minutes and then reverses

WAKEFULNESS

- 1. Conscious processes are those that individuals are always aware of
- Subconscious processes can be brought into consciousness when necessary
- Nonconscious processes remain outside awareness but influence behavior

ALTERED STATES

- 1. Meditation: The elimination of distracting thoughts via various breathing and concentration exercises
- Psychoactive drugs: Drugs that influence perception, thinking, or behavior, generally by altering brain neurochemistry
 - A. Stimulants: Speed up central nervous system activity
 - (e.g., cocaine, amphetamines)

 B. Depressants: Slow down central nervous system
 - activity (e.g., alcohol, tranquilizers)

 C. Opiates: Relieve pain and produce euphoria (e.g., opium, morphine, heroin)

- D. Psychedelics: Alter consciousness (e.g., LSD, mescaline)
- 3. Hypnosis: A heightened state of suggestibility in which subjects can sometimes control unconscious body functions (e.g., under hypnosis, some patients have overcome hysterical conversion reactions)

4. Weil's theory

- A. Humans have an innate drive to experience states of nonordinary consciousness
- B. The kinds of altered states of consciousness individuals seek, as well as the degree to which they are sought, are often mitigated by cultural factors
- C. Altered states of consciousness are common (e.g., daydreaming, sleeping)
- D. Individuals often are unaware they are in the midst of nonordinary consciousness (e.g., during daydreams or alcoholic "blackout" episodes)
- E. Altered states of consciousness form a continuum or spectrum ranging from normal, alert, waking consciousness, to sensory deprivation, to coma
- Psychotropic and psychedelic drugs do not cause altered states of consciousness but merely elicit such states
- G. Studying the mechanisms of altered states of consciousness can help better understand the nervous system and ordinary waking consciousness and may lead to discoveries of untapped human potential

ABNORMAL BEHAVIOR

• TYPES OF ABNORMAL BEHAVIOR

- 1. Statistical deviation
- Violation of cultural standards
- 3. Maladaptive behavior
- **Emotional distress**
- 5. Legal (including impaired judgment and lack of self-control, which are considered when determining competency)

TYPES OF DISORDERS

1. Anxiety disorders

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- A. Generalized anxiety disorder: Chronic anxiety
- B. Phobia: A fear response to a perceived threat that is vastly disproportionate to the actual threat presented (e.g., a panic attack in response to the presence of a spider known to be harmless)
- C. Obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD): Characterized by obsessions (recurrent thoughts) and compulsions (repetitive behaviors)
- D. Posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD): A severe anxiety disorder typically manifesting itself after the individual's exposure to severe psychological trauma (e.g., threat to life or threat of severe bodily harm to self or others, such as torture, kidnap, or rape) that overwhelms his/her capacity to cope; the condition appears to be most commonly manifested in veterans with extensive and severe combat experience, especially when combatants are ordered back into combat before they have had an opportunity to heal (during World War I, this condition was known as "shell shock"); symptoms of PTSD include:
 - i. Reliving the original trauma
 - ii. Flashbacks
 - iii. Nightmares
 - iv. Avoidance reactions to stimuli associated with trauma
 - v. Hypervigilance to threat
 - vi. Avoidance of social interaction, leading the individual to become withdrawn and solitary
- vii. Detachment from life
- viii. Difficulty controlling certain emotions
- ix. Depression
- 2. Mood disorders
 - A. Include depression and mania
- B. Causes

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- i. Biological (brain chemistry)
- ii. Social (life situations)

- iii. Attachment (disturbed relationships)
- iv. Cognitive (maladaptive thoughts)
- 3. Personality disorders
- A. Paranoid: Excessive suspiciousness
- B. Narcissistic: Exaggerated sense of self-importance C. Antisocial: Lack of social emotions
- 4. Dissociative disorders include amnesia and dissociative identity disorder (a.k.a. multiple personality disorder)
- Somatoform disorders manifest themselves as a physical disability without any detected medical issue; also called a "hysterical conversion reaction" (e.g., a patient may claim to be paralyzed but no underlying physical or neurological cause is detectable)
- Psychotic disorders are generally characterized by poor reality monitoring and include schizophrenia
- A. Symptoms include bizarre delusions, hallucinations, severe emotional problems, and withdrawal
- B. Causes
- i. Family dynamics (distorted patterns of communication)
- ii. Biology (brain diseases or abnormalities in neurotransmitters)
 iii. Stress (i.e., experiencing extreme trauma)
- iv. Heredity
- 7. Organic brain disorders include diseases and brain injury
- 8. Developmental disorders include attention deficit hyperactivity disorder (ADHD)
 - A. ADHD is indicated by the frequent co-occurrence of hyperactivity and the inability to pay attention; boys are diagnosed four times more often than girls; symptoms, such as chronic disorganization, generally emerge before age 7
 - Treatments include counseling, lifestyle changes, and the use of medications, espe-cially stimulants (e.g., Adderall, Ritalin)

VIEWS ON MENTAL ILLNESS

- 1. Szasz's objection: The concept of "mental illness" is a social construction for the purpose of advancing a certain agenda; clinical psychology is an instrument of repression to enforce conformity and stigmatize nonconformists as deviants with the label "mentally ill"
- 2. Reznek's definition: Something is a mental illness if, and only if, it is an abnormal and involuntary process that does mental harm and should best be treated by medical means; "abnormal" is used here in the normative sense and not in the idealistic sense, as "normal" is a relative term determined by society

TREATMENT & THERAPY

• THE MEDICAL MODEL & MEDICAL TREATMENTS

- 1. The medical model views mental illness as a symptom of an underlying medical condition (either chemical or organic) that is best treated with medication (or other physical
 - remedy) alone or as an adjunct to talk therapy

 A. Advantages: Promotes a more humane understanding of patients; aids in the understanding of some organic mental disorders and further initiates research in brain function
 - B. Disadvantages: Minimizes or neglects environmental variables; has questionable diagnostic and treatment methods, thus fostering an institutionalization syndrome that removes responsibility for recovery from the patient and promotes a dependence
- on hospitals and chemicals 2. Medication and medical treatments
- A. Antipsychotics include major tranquilizers; used to treat schizophrenia
- B. Antidepressants, most notably selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors (SSRIs) and monoamine oxidase inhibitors (MOAIs), are used to treat mood disorders, as well as anxiety disorders and OCD
 - i. They are often combined with traditional psychotherapy, which may increase
 - ii. Commonly prescribed antidepressants include Prozac (fluoxetine), Celexa (citalopram), Luvox (fluoxamine), Zoloft (sertraline), Paxil (paroxetine), Lexapro (escitalopram), Wellbutrin (bupropion), Cymbalta (duloxetine), Abilify (aripiprazole), and Viibryd (vilazodone) effectiveness

- iii. The exact mechanism by which antidepressants alleviate mood disorders is not fully understood, and their long-term effects (e.g., on the developing fetus) are not known
- iv. In certain populations, especially children and adolescents, SSRI antidepressants pose a significant risk of increasing suicidal ideation and behavior
- Antidepressants in general have undesirable side effects to varying degrees, including weight gain, loss of motivation, vapid or soporific affect, and reduced sex drive
- C. Surgery: The destruction of brain areas believed responsible for emotional disorders D. Electroconvulsive therapy: The induction of seizures; often used to treat major depression

- PSYCHOTHERAPY Psychodynamic (insight-oriented) therapies explore the unconscious dynamics of personality; include psychoanalysis (Freud), which seeks to produce insight via the understanding of past events
 - A. Free association: The patient freely speaks about anything on his/her mind, and an astute psychoanalyst can discern salient cues of underlying subconscious conflicts
 - Transference: The redirection of dormant (or subconscious) feelings toward a new object, usually the psychoanalyst (e.g., a female patient may begin to treat a male psychoanalyst as a father figure)
 - C. Neo-Freudians use Freud's techniques, but analysis is usually time limited (i.e., the analysis may not last as long nor delve as far back into the patient's childhood memories)

B. Aversive conditioning: Punishment for unwanted behavior

- C. Implosion: The process by which an anxiety-producing stimulus in its extreme manifestation is imagined by the client, who thus does not experience harm; this visual exercise leads
- D. Flooding: Same as implosion, but real or realistically depicted stimuli are used
- 3. Cognitive therapy aims to correct unrealistic thinking

4. Humanistic therapy

- A. Client-centered therapy (Rogers) involves building self-esteem via therapy led by the client; therapists' critical qualities are warmth, authenticity, and honesty
- B. Gestalt therapy (Perls) involves self-actualization achieved via the phenomenological integration of the individual's experiential processes
- Family and group therapies theorize that problems develop in a social context and therefore must be dealt with in that context

EVALUATING THERAPIES

- 1. Therapies are less effective with serious disorders
- The relationship between the client and the therapist is critical
- 3. Certain therapies are effective for certain specific problems

· CRITICISMS

1. Behaviorism

A. Cognitive components to behavior (e.g., expectations, verbalization, imitation) are unduly minimized or ignored



Carl Rogers

B. Behaviorism is overly operationalistic; that is, physical correlates are close, denti with mental states (e.g., fear is identified with the physiological manifestations of unxidential descriptions of the control o and therefore behaviorism overlooks the possibility that the interpretation of obs. 7 physical symptoms can determine their reality (e.g., the physiological correlates of are ety may be interpreted as fear, excitement, anger, or sexual arousal, depending on pr expectations, cultural values, or similar factors)

2. Cognitive behaviorism

- A. Difficult to avoid circular definitions in invoking the meaning of certain mental constru
- B. Difficult to determine to what extent to allow for unobservable mental processes that lack clear external measurable physiological indicators

C. The role of psychosomatic variables may be overlooked or minimized

D. Some argue that the underlying cause of observable symptoms is ignored by behavioral therapies

NOTE: Clinically, both behaviorism and cognitive behaviorism seem effective only in the treatment of very specific disorders (e.g., phobias, specific undesirable behaviors) and cannot effectively be applied to amorphous problems (e.g., undifferentiated existential depression)

3. Psychoanalysis

- A. Freud's initial theory was based only on case studies, anecdotal evidence, and a limited, atypical, selective patient population
- B. Entities posited by psychoanalysis are unobservable and therefore cannot be operationally defined for scientific measurement
- C. Has been demonstrated to be ineffective in treating emotional disorders (Eysenck)

Hans Eysenck

APPLIED PSYCHOLOGY

INDUSTRIAL ORGANIZATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

- 1. A multidimensional subdiscipline focusing on issues typically related to the workplace, for instance:
- A. Increasing productivity and performance
- B. Increasing job satisfaction
- C. Cutting down on absenteeism
- D. Increasing employee retention
- E. Matching aptitudes with appropriate job assignments and training
- F. Investigating group dynamics in cooperative work environments as a way to improve efficiency and group cohesion
- G. Investigating decision-making processes in middle and upper management as a way to streamline the conceptto-marketing pathway for new products
- H. Implementing strategies for loss prevention
- 2. Results stemming from this field include:
- A. The Hawthorn effect: The propensity of workers to improve in productivity and performance simply because they are aware they are being evaluated
- B. Observer-expectancy effect: An investigator's inherent bias may actually influence the results of the experiment by imparting subtle, nonverbal cues to the participants
- C. Subject-expectancy effect: A study participant expects a certain result and thereby unconsciously skews responses to support this result
- D. Pygmalion effect: Similar to previous results, pupils who are favored by teachers and considered to be smarter will actually perform better in class
- E. Participant observer method: A method for understanding the dynamics within a certain group by becoming a part of the social structure of that group

ENVIRONMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY

- 1. A field that seeks to understand humans' relationships to their environment, as well as their behavior in relation to their environmental perceptions via both voluntary and involuntary cues; themes in the field include:
- A. Cognitive maps: How humans orient and locate themselves in their environment, as well as how they remember their surroundings when they backtrack or navigate to a destination (e.g., males tend to orient themselves in a three-dimensional, introspective cognitive map, whereas females prefer a linear, step-by-step cognitive map)
- B. Preferred environments: Humans tend to seek out environments that make them feel competent, safe, and

secure, based on the confidence of being comfortable in and familiar with their surroundings and being able to easily orient themselves

- C. Environmental stress: In addition to the usual environmental stressors (noise, pollution, extremes in temperature), other stressors have been identified (overcrowding, uncertainty, stimulus overload)
- D. Participation: Investigations into how to motivate people to become active participants in the maintenance, management, design, and restoration of their environments (e.g., a community garden in an urban setting)
- Conservation psychology: A subfield that explores and develops the motivational factors that foster conservancy behavior in regard to the environment and increase preferences for ecologically friendly products and choices

PSYCHOLOGY OF LOVE & RELATIONSHIPS

- A recent offshoot of social psychology that delves into the nature of human romantic relationships; research includes:
- A. Discovering what initially attracts people to one another and those factors that are important in maintaining a pair's bond
- B. Explaining incongruities between what people say they are seeking in a mate and what they actually choose
- C. Analyzing and categorizing the various personality types and the type of relationship dynamics that people are most and least successful in
- D. Determining and analyzing healthy, disruptive, unhealthy, and toxic conceptions of what it means to love and be loved
- 2. This area is more investigative, proactive, and corrective in its modalities compared to couples and marriage counseling, which is primarily restorative and retroactive
- 3. Applicable to industries such as online dating and matchmaking, which pour massive resources and capital into the scientific understanding of relationships

PSYCHOLOGY OF LAW

- 1. A recent subdiscipline composed of forensic psychology and legal psychology
- 2. Primary areas of concentration include:
- A. Educating members of the legal professions about relevant issues in psychological research and treatment, as well as members of the psychology community about relevant issues in jurisprudence and the workings of the court system

B. Assessing the mental competence of persons to stand to or be held responsible for their actions, the reliability eyewitness testimony, and the suitability of jurors in 1 process of jury selection

C. Evaluating insanity defenses, defendant profiling, and 1 appropriateness of techniques used in police interrog tions and investigations

PSYCHOLOGY OF SPORTS

1. An interdisciplinary field concentrating on aspects athletic performance

2. Areas of study include:

A. Researching strategies to improve performance

B. Building up, and mitigating processes disruptive to, tea cohesion and participation

C. Understanding team dynamics

D. Reducing performance anxiety

- Guiding successful recuperation and rehabilitation after sport-sustained injuries
- Techniques to improve performance, including self-talk, preperformance routines, goal setting, previsualization, and arousal modulation

• BEHAVIORAL ECONOMICS

- 1. A field primarily concerned with the bounds of rationality in economic decision making, especially under conditions of constrained uncertainty, at both the individual and institutional level
- 2. Investigation focuses on the interplay of the principl of social, personality, and cognitive psychology with t decision procedures involved in commercial transaction financial decision making, and economic planning

3. Common themes include.

A. Resource allocation under conditions of scarcity

B. Acceptable risk-versus-reward estimates

C. The degree to which self-interest is promoted at the co of group or others' interests

D. Judgments as to acceptable loss and risk under vario contingencies of recovery and loss of assets

Many psychological effects have been discovered that a peculiar to economic behavior, including loss aversio status quo bias, the gambler's fallacy, self-serving bias, t disposition effect, the endowment effect, inequity ave sion, reciprocity, intertemporal consumption, dynam inconsistency, momentum investing, herd behavior, as the calendar effect

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