

MODULE 31 – Studying and Building Memories

Studying Memory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Memory is learning that has persisted over time, information that has been acquired, stored and can be retrieved - <i>Information-processing models</i> are analogies that compare human memory to a computer's operations. To remember an event, we: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - get info to our brain (encoding) - retain that info (storage) - get the info back out (retrieval) - Our brain processes things simultaneously through parallel processing - One info-processing model, <i>connectionism</i>, views memories as products of interconnected neural networks, which are accessed through particular activation patterns - Richard Atkinson and Richard Shiffrin proposed another model: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - we record to-be-remembered info as a sensory memory - we process info into short-term memory, encoding it through <i>rehearsal</i> - info moves into long term memory for later retrieval - Alan Baddeley challenged this view of short-term memory, saying that it's not just a temporary storage space, but an active place where you process new info and link it with long-term memory - Working memory describes what happens during the middle stage - Without focused attention, info often fades
Building Memories: Encoding	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Atkinson and Shiffrin's model focused on processing explicit memories – memories/facts we consciously know, which are encoded through conscious effortful processing - Other info goes directly into storage, through automatic processing, which produces implicit memories - Implicit memories include <i>procedural memory</i> for automatic skills. They also include: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - information about <i>space/location</i> - information about <i>time/sequences of events</i> - information about <i>frequency</i> (how much things happen) - It's hard to shut off automatic processing – like reading (which becomes automatic through a lot of practice) - Sensory memory feeds active working memory - Sperling's experiments show iconic memory, fleeting sensory memory of visual stimuli, which is cleared quickly <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - we also have good fleeting memory for audio stimuli (echoic memory) - We can recall about seven information bits, plus/minus two - Working-memory capacity varies with age and other factors - Chunking information is organizing items into familiar, manageable units which enables us to recall it more easily (usually occurs naturally) - To encode lengthy passages and speeches, we use mnemonics - The <i>peg-word system</i> uses our visual imagery skill – we associate peg words (for example in a rhyme) with to-be-remembered items, allowing us

	<p>to recall them in any order</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - When people develop expertise in an area, they process it in chunks and <i>hierarchies</i>: broad concepts divided into narrower concepts and facts - We retain info better when encoding is distributed over time, in the spacing effect <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - a good way to do this is through <i>repeated self-testing</i>, also called the testing effect - We process verbal info at different levels, the deeper the better <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - shallow processing encodes on a basic level like letters or sound - deep processing encodes semantically, based on the meaning of words - We have trouble processing info that's not meaningful or related to our experience - The amount remembered depends both on the time spent learning and on your making it meaningful for deep processing
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MODULE 32 - Memory Storage and Retrieval

Memory Storage	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Memories don't reside in single specific spots - no matter what parts of their brain are removed, rats can at least retain a partial memory of a maze - The network that processes and stores your explicit memories includes your frontal lobes and hippocampus - The hippocampus, the temporal-lobe neural center in the limbic system, is a "save" button for explicit memories - damage to this structure disrupts their recall <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - left hippocampus damage: trouble remembering verbal info - right hippocampus damage: trouble remembering visual designs and locations - one part of the hippocampus works with associating names and faces - another is for spatial mnemonics, another for spatial memory (near the rear) - acts as a loading dock where elements of a memory are registered and temporarily held - The cerebellum plays a key role in forming and storing the implicit memories created by classical conditioning - The <i>basal ganglia</i>, which are involved in motor movement, facilitate formation of procedural memories for skills - Infantile amnesia is contributed to by: indexing explicit memory using words that babies don't know, and because the hippocampus matures late in life - Emotions can trigger stress hormones which influence memory formation <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - they provoke the <i>amygdala</i> to boost memory-forming activity - Emotions can persist even if we don't know what caused them - Perceived clarity of memories of surprising, significant events leads some psychologists to call them flashbulb memories - Eric Kandel and James Schwartz observed synaptic changes during learning of a California sea slug, <i>Aplysia</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - when learning occurs, more <i>serotonin</i> is released into certain synapses, which then become more efficient at transmitting signals - When certain memory-circuit connections were stimulated, people had increased sensitivity for hours or even weeks <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - this increased efficiency of potential neural firing called long-term
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	<p>potentiation (LTP) provides a neural basis for learning and association</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - LTP-blocking drugs interfere with learning - Mutant mice which can't perform LTP can't learn to leave mazes - Rats with enhanced LTP learn a maze twice as quickly - Injecting a chemical that blocks LTP preservation erases recent learning - Passing electricity through the brain can wipe out recent memories
Retrieval: Getting Information Out	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Evidence of memory includes three <i>measures of retention</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - recall - retrieving unconscious information learned at an earlier time - recognition - identifying items previously learned - relearning - learning something more quickly a second time - Additional rehearsal (<i>overlearning</i>) of verbal information increases retention (as rehearsal increases, relearning time decreases) - Tests of recognition and time spent relearning demonstrate that we remember more than we can recall - Memories associated with each other can serve as <i>retrieval cues</i> that you can later use to access information - Our associations are activated without our awareness through priming (if you see the word rabbit, you'll think hare and not hair) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - priming can also influence behavior - Putting yourself in the context where you experienced something can prime your memory retrieval - <i>State dependent memory</i>: what we learn in one state (ex: drunk) is more easily recalled when again in that state <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - mood is a good example of this: our memories are somewhat mood congruent - We attribute to reality our own changing judgements, memories and interpretations - The serial position effect demonstrates that we have a tendency to recall best the last (recency effect) and first (primacy effect) items in a list

MODULE 33 - Forgetting, Memory Construction and Memory Improvement

Forgetting	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Good memory is helpful, but so is the ability to forget - Anterograde amnesia - recalling the past but not forming new memories - Retrograde amnesia - not recalling the past, but forming new memories - Those with anterograde amnesia can still learn nonverbal tasks without being aware of learning them (implicit memories) - Much of what we sense we never notice, and what we fail to encode, we will never remember - The course of forgetting is initially rapid, then levels off with time (stored memories decay) - Sometimes important events defy our attempts to access them - given retrieval cues we can easily retrieve them - Proactive interference happens when prior learning disrupts recall of new information - Retroactive interference happens when new learning disrupts recall of old information <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - information presented in the hours is protected from this b/c the opportunity for interfering events is minimized (this is a good time
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	<p>to commit info to memory)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Positive transfer</i> is when previously learned info facilitates learning of new information - Sigmund Freud proposed that we repress painful or unacceptable memories to protect our sense of self and minimize anxiety (but these memories can be retrieved by some later cue) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - increasing numbers of people doubt the existence of repression - it's hard to forget emotional events
Memory Construction Errors	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Elizabeth Loftus demonstrated how eyewitnesses reconstruct their memories after a crime or accident - The misinformation effect: exposed to misleading information, we tend to misremember <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - a vivid retelling of an event can implant false memories - repeatedly <i>imagining</i> nonexistent actions and events can create false memories - digitally altered photos can also produce <i>imagination inflation</i> - Source amnesia is attributing the wrong source to an event we've experienced, heard, read or imagined (at the heart of many false memories) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - helps explain déjà vu - cues from the current situation may unconsciously trigger retrieval of an earlier experience - False memories can be very persistent - Stephen Ceci and Maggie Bruck demonstrate how easily children's memories can be molded, and the effect of suggestive interviewing techniques <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - over half the children produced false, vivid stories regarding made up events - doesn't mean children can never be accurate - given less suggestive, more effective interviewing techniques, even 4 or 5 year olds can produce accurate recall - Some therapists, when giving a patient hypnosis or drugs, can expose them to techniques which form an image of a threatening person who never actually existed <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - however, some clinicians argue that this theory adds to abused people's trauma - memories of things before age 3, or recovered under hypnosis/drugs, are unreliable, but still emotionally upsetting
Improving Memory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Rehearse repeatedly - Make the material meaningful - Activate retrieval cues - Use mnemonic devices - Minimize interference - Sleep more - Test your own knowledge, to rehearse it and find out what you don't yet know

MODULE 34 - Thinking, Concepts and Creativity

Thinking and Concepts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Cognition - the mental activities associated with thinking, knowing, remembering and communicating information
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	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Concepts - mental groupings of similar objects, events, ideas and people <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - simplify our thinking - often formed by developing prototypes - mental images/examples of a category - Once we place an item in a category, our memory of it later shifts toward the category prototype - Concepts speed and guided our thinking, but they don't always make us wise
Creativity	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Creativity is the ability to produce ideas that are both novel and valuable <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - a certain level of aptitude supports creativity, but there's more to creativity than what intelligence tests reveal - Intelligence tests, which demand a single correct answer, require convergent thinking - Creativity tests require divergent thinking - Five components of creativity (Sternberg) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Expertise - a well developed base of knowledge - Imaginative thinking skills - the ability to see things in new ways - A venturesome personality - Intrinsic motivation - A creative environment - To boost the creative process: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - develop your expertise - allow time for incubation (sleeping on it allows unconscious processing to form associations) - set aside time for the mind to roam freely - experience other cultures and ways of thinking

MODULE 35 - Solving Problems and Making Decisions

Problem Solving: Strategies and Obstacles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - For some problems we use <i>trial and error</i>, for others we use algorithms, step-by-step procedures that guarantee a solution, or heuristics, simpler thinking strategies - When no problem-solving strategy works, we use insight <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - when insight occurs, during the Aha! moment, the frontal lobes were active (focusing attention) and there was a burst of activity in the right temporal lobe - We more eagerly seek out evidence that verifies and favors our ideas (confirmation bias) - Ordinary people evade facts, become inconsistent, or systematically defend themselves against the threat of new information relevant to the issue - Once we incorrectly represent a problem it's hard to restructure our approach <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>fixation</i> - the inability to see a problem from a fresh perspective - The mental set is our tendency to approach a problem with the mind-set of what has worked for us previously <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - just like the perceptual set predisposes what we perceive, this predisposes how we think
Forming Good and Bad Decisions and	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - We seldom take time to reason systematically - we follow intuition, our fast, automatic unreasoned feelings and thoughts

Judgements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - The mental shortcuts we call heuristics enable snap judgements - intuitive judgements are instantaneous and usually effective - Research by Tversky and Kahneman showed how those helpful shortcuts can lead smart people to dumb decision - The representativeness heuristic is judging the likelihood of things in terms of how well they represent particular prototypes (may lead us to ignore relevant information) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - e.g, we think somebody reading a book is more likely to be a writer - The availability heuristic is when we estimate the likelihood of events based on how mentally available they are <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - e.g, we think a casino win is more likely because they lead to attention-catching commotion, while losses go unnoticed - can lead to a fear of extremely rare events b/c of how much attention they attract - Overconfidence is the tendency to overestimate the accuracy of our knowledge and judgements <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - projects usually take twice the number of days expected - can have adaptive value - those who err on the side of overconfidence live more happily, make tough decisions more easily and seem more credible - Belief perseverance - clinging to one's initial conceptions after the basis on which they were formed has been discredited <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - to rein in this phenomenon, one should consider the opposite - Framing, the way we present an issue, sways our decisions and judgements - Those who understand the power of framing can use it to influence our decisions - Irrational thinking can prevent us from seeing problems clearly, making wise decisions, forming valid judgements and reasoning logically. It can also feed gut fears and prejudices - Summary of intuition's powers <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Intuition is large - Intuition is usually adaptive - Intuition is recognition born of experience
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MODULE 36 - Thinking and Language

Language Structure	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Language is our spoken, written or signed words and the ways we combine them to communicate meaning - Phenomes are the smallest distinctive sound units in a language (<i>bat</i> has b, a and t, <i>chat</i> has ch, a and t) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - there are 869 different phenomes in human speech but English only uses 40 - most languages use anywhere to 20 to 80 - consonant phenomes carry more info than vowel ones do - Morphemes are the smallest units that carry meaning in a given language. Some are also phenomes, but most combine 2+ phenomes <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - some, like bat or gentle, are words - others are prefixes or suffixes like the pre- in preview - Grammar is the system of rules than enables us to communicate <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - deriving meaning from sounds (<i>semantics</i>) and ordering words into sentences (<i>syntax</i>)
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Language Development	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - You use about 150 words for half of what you say, but you'll learn about 60,000 by your high school graduation - We seldom form sentences in our mind before speaking them - We adapt what we say to our social and cultural context - Children's language development moves from simplicity to complexity <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - infants start without language, but can recognize differences in speech sounds and read lips by four months (beginning of development of <i>receptive language</i>, their ability to understand what is said to/about them) - Babies' <i>productive language</i>, their ability to produce words, matures with receptive languages <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - recognize noun-verb differences before they utter sentences with nouns and verbs - the babbling stage begins around 4 months of age - without exposure to other languages, babies lose their ability to hear and produce sounds and tones found outside their native language - Most children enter the one-word stage by their first birthday <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - first words are often nouns that label objects or people - At around 18 months, learning goes from a word per week to a word per day, and most children enter the two-word stage by their second birthday <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - they start uttering two-word sentences in telegraphic speech - mostly verbs and nouns, in a sensible order (drink juice!) - By early elementary school, children understand complex sentences and humor through double meanings - Noam Chomsky argues that all languages share some basic elements called <i>universal grammar</i> (they all have nouns, verbs and adjectives) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - humans are born with a built-in predisposition to learn grammar, but not with a built-in <i>specific</i> language - Childhood represents a <i>critical period</i> for mastering certain aspects of the language before learning the language <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the window on language learning closes gradually in early childhood - later-than-usual exposure to language (age 2 or 3) unleashes the idle language capacity of a child's brain, producing a rush of language - this ability is lost by around age 7 - children will become linguistically stunted if isolated from language during the critical period for its acquisition
The Brain and Language	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Aphasia, an impairment of language, can result from damage to several cortical areas <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - some can read but not speak, others speak but not read, etc... (suggests that language is complex, and that different brain areas must serve different language functions) - Broca reported that damage to Broca's area in the left frontal lobe led to struggling with speaking (but not comprehending it) - Wernicke reported that damage to Wernicke's area in the left temporal lobe led to struggling with speaking and understanding - Language functions are distributed across other brain areas as well: different neural networks are activated by nouns and verbs, objects and actions, different vowels, etc... - In processing language, the brain operates by dividing its mental functions,

	speaking, perceiving, thinking and remembering, into subfunctions
Language and Thought	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Whorf contended that language determines the way we think - His linguistic determinism hypothesis is too extreme, but those who speak two dissimilar languages may think differently in different languages - Our words may not determine what we think, but they do influence our thinking <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - perceived differences between colors can grow when we assign different names to them - To expand language is to expand the ability to think – young children’s thinking develops hand in hand with their language <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - the <i>bilingual advantage</i>: although their vocabulary in each language is smaller than people speaking a single language, bilingual people are skilled at inhibiting one language while using the other - this well-practiced “executive control” makes them better at inhibiting their attention to irrelevant information - We often think in images – watching an activity occur will activate the brain’s internal simulation of that activity - Mental rehearsal can help you achieve an academic goal - It’s better to spend your fantasy time planning how to get somewhere than to dwell on the imagined destination - Thinking affects our language, which then affects our thought