1. What are the general statements about psychology?

Psychology is not only about helping people who are depressed. It also includes research on sensation and perception, learning and memory, hunger and thirst, sleep, attention, child development, and more. Scientists assume determinism, the idea that everything that happens has a cause, or determinant, that one could observe or measure. Making decision about my action – no one can predict what I will do… The belief that behavior is caused by a person’s independent decisions is known as free will. Some psychologists maintain that free will is an illusion. When you have the conscious experience of “deciding” to move a finger, the behavior is already starting to happen. Other psychologists and philosophers reply that you do make decisions, in the sense that something within you initiates the action. In a sense, yes, you have a will, an ability to make choices. But your will is not independent of all causes.A computer or robot can also be programmed to make choices. Your heredity and experiences programmed you, and your makeup determines your decisions. Researchers admit one point: Although determinism makes sense theoretically and leads to good research, it doesn’t work well as a philosophy of life. Experience or what we do depends on the physics and chemistry of our nervous system. The philosophical question of how experience relates to the brain is the mind–brain problem. One view, called dualism, holds that the mind is separate from the brain but somehow controls the brain and therefore the rest of the body. However, dualism contradicts the law of conservation of matter and energy. If the mind isn’t composed of matter or energy, it can’t do anything. For that reason, nearly all brain researchers and philosophers favor monism, the view that conscious experience is inseparable from the physical brain. Either the mind is something the brain produces, or mind and brain activity are just two terms for the same thing. Why do most little boys spend more time than little girls with toy guns and trucks and less time with dolls? Alcohol abuse is common in some cultures and rare in others. Are these differences entirely a matter of social custom, or do genes influence alcohol use also? Each of these questions relates to the nature– nurture issue : How do differences in behavior relate to differences in heredity and environment?

2)What was the difference between Structuralists and Functionalists?

Like Wundt, Titchener believed that the main question of psychology was the nature of mental experiences. Titchener typically presented a stimulus and asked his subject to analyze it into its separate features—for example, to look at a lemon and describe its yellowness, brightness, shape, and other characteristics. He called his approach structuralism, an attempt to describe the structures that compose the mind, particularly sensations, feelings, and images. Edward Titchener asked subjects to describe their sensations. For example, they might describe their sensation of shape, their sensation of color, and their sensation of texture while looking at a lemon. Titchener had no way to check the accuracy of these reports, however, so later psychologists abandoned his methods.

James focused on what the mind does rather than what it is. That is, instead of trying to isolate the elements of consciousness, he preferred to learn how people produce useful behaviors. For this reason, we call his approach functionalism. He suggested the following examples of good psychological questions : How can people strengthen good habits? How do people recognize that they have seen something before? How does an intention lead to action?

3. What professional knowledge and skills are required to be an effective teacher?

Subject Matter Competence - A thoughtful, flexible, conceptual understanding of subject matter for being an effective teacher; Knowledge of Subject matter not only includes facts, terms, general concepts but also knowledge about organizing ideas, ways of thinking and arguing, patterns of change within a discipline, beliefs about a discipline.

Goal Setting and Instructional Planning Skills - Effective teachers set high goals for their teaching and organize plans for reaching those goals. As they plan, effective teachers reflect and think about how they can make learning both challenging and interesting. Apart planning strategies, teachers should figure out which things students should do when, in what order, and how.

Classroom Management Skills - Keeping the class as a whole working together and oriented toward classroom tasks. Establish and maintain an environment in which learning can occur. Establishing rules and procedures, organizing groups, monitoring and plan classroom activities, and handling misbehavior.

Motivational Skills - Help students to become self-motivated and take responsibility for their learning. Educational psychologists state that students are motivated when they can make choices in line with their personal interests. Giving them opportunity to think creatively and deeply about projects. Guiding students to become self-motivated learners – establishing high expectations.

4. What processes are included in to the pattern of child development?

The pattern of child development is complex because it is the product of several processes:

Cognitive process involves changes in child’s thinking, intelligence and language.Cognitive developmental processes enable a growing child to memorize a poem, come up with a creative strategy, or speak meaningfully connected sentences. For example, a drawing expresses the child’s worldview. As children grow older, their art becomes more skillful, but it often becomes less expressive. As we grow older, we gain many new abilities and skills, but we lose something, too. Studying the abilities of young children is challenging. They misunderstand our questions and we misunderstand their answers. Biological processes produce changes in the child’s body and underline brain development, height and weight gains, motor skills, and puberty’s hormonal changes. Genetic inheritance play a large part.

Socioemotional processes involve changes in child’s relationships with other people, changes in emotion, and changes in personality. Parents’ nurturance toward their child, a boy’s aggressive attack on a peer, a girl’s development on assertiveness, and an adolescent’s feelings of joy after getting good grades all reflect socioemotional development.

5. State the differences between assimilation and accommodation and provide examples.

To explain how children use and adapt their schemas, Piaget offered 2 concepts: assimilation and accommodation. Assimilation occurs when children incorporated new information into their existing schemas. Accommodation occurs when children adjust their schemas to fit new information and experiences. A child seeing a zebra for the first time and calling it a horse. The child assimilates this information of a zebra into her schema for a horse. When the child accommodates information, she takes into consideration the different properties of a zebra compared to a horse, perhaps calling a zebra a horse with stripes. When she eventually, she has accommodated this information. learns the name of zebra.

6. What cognitive processes do children use as they construct their knowledge of the world according to Piaget?

Piaget said that as the child seeks to construct an understanding of the world, the developing brain creates schemas. These are actions or mental representations that organize knowledge. In Piaget’s theory behavioral schemas characterize infancy and mental schemas develop in childhood. A baby’s schemas are constructed by simple actions that can be formed on objects, such as sucking, looking, and grasping. Older children have schemas that include strategies and plans for solving problems. By the time we have reached adulthood, we have constructed an enormous number of diverse schemas, ranging from hot to drive a car, to how to balance a budget, to the concept of fairness.

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To make sense out of their world, said Piaget, children cognitively organize their experiences. Organization in Piaget’s theory is the grouping of isolated behaviors and thoughts into a higher-order system. A boy with only a vague idea about how to use a hammer also may have vague idea about how to use other tools. After learning how to use each one, he relates their uses, organizing his knowledge.

Equilibration is a mechanism that Piaget proposed to explain how children shift from one stage to the next. According to Piaget the individuals go through four stages of development. Each of Piaget’s stages is age-related and consist of distinct ways of thinking. Piaget proposed four stages of cognitive development: sensorimotor, preoperational, concrete operational and formal operational.

7. Explain the major changes in children’s cognitive development as they move from Preoperational to Concrete Operational Stage according to Piaget.

The Preoperational Stage about 2-7 years. Is more symbolic than sensorimotor thought but does not involve operational thought. It is however egocentric rather and intuitive rather than logical. The symbolic function occurs between 2 and 4 years of age. Child gains the ability to represent mentally an object that is not present. Suns are blue and cars float on the cloud in their imaginative world. The symbolism is simple but strong. Egocentrism is the inability to distinguish between one’s own perspective and someone else’s perspective.

Father: Mary, is Mommy there?

Mary: (Silently nods)

Father: Mary, can I speak to Mommy?

Mary: (Nods again silently)

Mary’s response is egocentric in that she fails to consider her father’s perspective; she does not realize that he cannot see her nod. Animism is the belief that inanimate objects have “lifelike” qualities and capable of action. A young child might show animism by saying, “That tree pushed the leaf off and it fell down” or “The sidewalk made me mad. It made me fall down.” The Intuitive thought about 4 -7 years of age. At this stage children begin to use primitive reasoning and want to know the answers to all sorts of questions. Children now something, but know it without the use of rational thinking. They are unaware of how they know what they know. For example, to adults it’s obvious that a certain amount of liquid stays the same regardless of a container’s shape. But this is not obvious for young children. Yet, another characteristic of young children at this stage is asking lots of questions such as “Why” around the age of 3-5.

The Concrete Operational Stage about 7 - 11 years of age. Concrete operational thought involves using operations. Logical reasoning replaces intuitive reasoning, but only in concrete situations. Classification skills are present, but abstract problems go unsolved. For example, to test conservation of matter, the child is presented with two identical balls of clay. The experimenter rolls one ball into a long, thin shape. The child is asked if there is more clay in the ball or in the long, thin piece of clay. Children are seven or eight years old, most answer the amount of clay is the same. In this example, the preoperational child would have focused either on height or length. The concrete operational child coordinates information about both dimensions. An important concrete operation is classifying or dividing things into different sets or subsets and considering their interrelationships. For example, the concrete operational child can classify the members of a family tree.

8. Compare the case with egocentrism and other differences both in Preoperational Stage and Formal Operational Stage.

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Formal operational thinkers test their hypotheses with judicially chosen question and tests. In contrast, concrete operational thinkers often fail to understand the relation between a hypothesis and a well-chosen test of it, stubbornly clinging to ideas that already have been discounted. A form of egocentrism also emerges in adolescence. Adolescents egocentrism includes the belief that others are as interested in them as they themselves are and also a sense of personal uniqueness. It involves the desire to be noticed, visible and “on stage”.

12-year old Tracy: Oh, my gosh! I can’t believe it. Help!

Mother: What is the matter?

Tracy: Everybody is looking at me. This one hair won’t stay in place, and she rushes to plaster it with hairspray. Egocentrism is normal adolescent occurrence, more common in the middle school than in high school years. However, for some individuals, adolescent egocentrism can contribute to reckless behavior, including suicidal thoughts, drug use.

9. Explain the notions of Scaffolding and ZPD and provide examples.

Zone of proximal development is Vygotsky’s term for the range of tasks that are too difficult for the child to master alone but that can be learned with guidance and assistance of adults or more skilled children. Vygotsky's ZPD has a lower limit and an upper limit. Thus, the lower limit of the ZPD is the level of skill reached by the child working independently. The upper limit is the level of additional responsibility the child can accept with the assistance of an able instructor. Teaching in the ZPD involves being aware of “where students are in the process of their development and taking advantage of their readiness.” In conventional assessments of children’s ability we typically observe what children can do on their own. What they can do is based on the experiences they have had, and the interaction of the effects of these experiences with the children’s inherited characteristics. Vygotsky’s idea was to provide a way to measure the distance between his independent performance and the child’s guided performance. A 16 year old is able to effectively drive forward and backward but cannot parallel park. Through targeted guidance from a teacher, the child is able to learn how to park.

Closely linked to the idea of the ZPD is the concept of scaffolding. Scaffolding means changing the level of support. Children learn primarily in two different ways, through direct instruction or through mediated experiences. Direct instruction is the teaching situation in which a teacher, parent, or other authority imparts knowledge to a child by teaching it. When a middle school teacher says, "today we’ll be learning about Brazil,” he or she is embarking on direct instruction. As the student’s competence increases, less guidance is given. Scaffolding is often used to help students attain the upper limits of their zone of proximal development. A mediated learning experience is a learning situation in which an adult or older child indirectly helps a child learn by explaining events in the environment, but without directly teaching some lesson. Mediated learning is competent assistance or support, usually provided through mediation of the environment by a parent or teacher. For example, an adult might go with a child to a museum and explain what he exhibits mean; The adult thus serves as an expert model for the child.

10. What are the differences between Piaget’s and Vygotsky’s perspectives on private speech and its role in development?

A dialogue as a tool for scaffolding is only one example of the important role of language in a child’s development. According to Vygotsky, children use speech not only for social communication, but also to help them solve tasks. He further believed that young children use language to plan, guide, and monitor their behavior. The use of language for self-regulation is called private speech. Private Speech – For example, young children talk aloud to themselves about such things as their toys and the tasks they are trying to complete. But for Vygotsky it is an important tool of thought during the early childhood years. Vygotsky said that language and thought initially develop independently of each other and then merge. He emphasized that all mental functions have external, or social origins. Children must use language to communicate with others before they can focus inward on their own thoughts. Children also must communicate externally and use language for a long period of time before they can make transition from external to internal speech. This transition period occurs between 3 and 7 years of age and involves talking to oneself. After a while, the self-talk becomes second nature to children. When this occurs, children have internalized egocentric speech in the form of inner speech, which becomes their thoughts.

11. What are Bronfenbrenner’s five environmental systems?

The microsystem - refers to the activities and relationships with significant others experienced by a developing person in a particular small setting such as family, school, peer group, or community. Within these microsystems, the individual has direct interactions with parents, teachers, peers and others. For Bronfenbrenner, the student is not a passive recipient.

The mesosystem - consists of interrelationships between two or more of a developing person’s microsystems. Family and the school, or the family and the peer group. Mesosystems provide support for activities going on in microsystems, for example, when parents invite a child’s friend to their home.

The exosystem - refers to setting in which children are not active participants, but which affect them in one of their microsystems- for example, parents’ job, parental social support network. An example of an exosystem is the child’s parent’s workplace. Although a child may never have any role in the parent’s workplace, or, in fact, never even go there, the events which occur at the child’s place of employment do affect the child. For example, if the parent has a bad day at work, or promoted, all of these events impact the child.

The macrosystem - consists of the developing person’s society and subculture to which the developing person belongs, with particular reference to the belief systems, lifestyles, social interaction patterns and life changes. For example The Republic of Azerbaijan, urban or rural areas. The Macrosystem involves the broader culture. It includes the roles of ethnicity and socioeconomic factors in children’s development.

The chronosystem includes the sociohistorical conditions of students’ development. For example, the lives of children today are different in many ways from when their parents and grandparents were children. Today’s children are more likely to be in child care, use computers, deconcentrated cities that are not quite urban, rural or suburban.

12. Explain the notions of Self-Esteem and Identity.

Self-esteem refers to an individual’s overall view of himself or herself. Self-esteem is also referred to self-worth or self-image. For example, a child with high self-esteem might perceive that she is not just person but a good person. For some students, periods of low self-esteem come and go. But for some students, persistent low self-esteem translates into another, more serious problems. Persistent low self-esteem is linked with low achievement, depression, eating disorders, and delinquency. The seriousness of the problem depends not only the nature of the student’s low self-esteem but on other conditions as well. When low self-esteem is compounded by difficult school transitions or family problems , the student’s problems can intensify. Children with high self-esteem show greater initiative, but this can produce positive or negative outcomes. High self-esteem children are prone to both prosocial and antisocial actions. Students self-esteem often varies across different domains, such as academic, athletic, physical appearance, social skills and so on.

Erik Erikson argues that the most important issue in adolescence involves identity development – searching for answers to questions like these: Who am I? What am I going to do with my life? Not usually considered during childhood, these questions become nearly universal concerns during the high school and college years. James Marcia analyzed Erikson’s concept of identity concluded that it is important to distinguish between exploration and commitment. Exploration involves examining meaningful alternative identities. Commitment means showing a personal interest in an identity and staying with whatever that identity implies. The extent of an individual’s exploration and commitment is used to classify him or her according to one of four identity statuses:

Identity diffusion

Identity foreclosure

Identity moratorium

Identity achievement

13. What are the reasons of persistent high self-esteem and persistent low self-esteem?

The psychotherapist Carl Rogers said that low self-esteem refers to individuals who has not been given adequate emotional support and social approval. He especially thought that as children grow up, they told, “You don’t do that right,” “Don’t do that,” . For some students, periods of low self-esteem come and go. But for some students, persistent low self-esteem translates into another, more serious problems. Persistent low self-esteem is linked with low achievement, depression, eating disorders, and delinquency. The seriousness of the problem depends not only the nature of the student’s low self-esteem but on other conditions as well. When low self-esteem is compounded by difficult school transitions or family problems , the student’s problems can intensify. Children with high self-esteem show greater initiative, but this can produce positive or negative outcomes. High self-esteem children are prone to both prosocial and antisocial actions. Students self-esteem often varies across different domains, such as academic, athletic, physical appearance, social skills and so on. For example, a student might have high esteem in some subjects and low self-esteem in others.

14. Provide definitions of Identity Statuses and examples for each of them.

Identity diffusion occurs when individuals have not yet experienced a crisis or made any commitments. Not only are they undecided about occupational and ideological choices, but they are also likely to show little interest in such matters.

Identity foreclosure occurs when individuals have made a commitment but have not yet experienced a crisis. This occurs when parents hand down commitments to their adolescents, more often than in an authoritarian manner. In these circumstances, adolescents have not had adequate opportunities to explore different approaches, ideologies, and vocations on their own.

Identity moratorium occurs when individuals are in the midst of a crisis but their commitments are either absent or only vaguely defined. Ex; 19 year old Sasha is not quite sure what life paths she wants to follow, but she recently went to the counseling center at her college to find out about different careers, so she is in identity moratorium status.

Identity achievement occurs when individuals have undergone a crisis and have made commitment. Ex; 21 year-old Marcelo extensively explored a number of different career options in college, eventually getting his degree in science education, and is looking forward to his first year of teaching high school students, so he is identity achieved.

15. How could you explain the Levels in Kohlberg’s theory of Moral Development?

He constructed a theory of moral development that has three main levels with two stages at each of the levels. A key concept in understanding Kohlberg’s theory is internalization, which refers to the developmental change from externally controlled behavior to internally controlled behavior. Preconventional Reasoning Is the lowest level of moral development in Kohlberg’s theory. At this level, the child shows no internalization of moral values. Moral reasoning is controlled by external rewards and punishment. Conventional reasoning is the second, or intermediate, level in Kohlberg’s theory. At this level, the child’s internalization is intermediate. The child abides internally by certain standards, but they are essentially the standards imposed by other people, such as parents, or by society’s laws. Postconventional reasoning is the highest level in Kohlberg’s theory. At this level, morality is completely internalized and not based on external standards. The student recognizes alternative moral courses, explore options, and then decide on the moral code that is best for him or her.

16. What are the interrelationships between two kind of stimuli and two kind of responses in Pavlovian Conditioning? Provide examples.

Pavlov presumed that animals are born with certain automatic connections—called unconditioned reflexes—between a stimulus such as food and a response such as secreting digestive juices. The process by which an organism learns a new association between two stimuli—a neutral stimulus and one that already evokes a reflexive response—is known as classical conditioning. We need to understand 2 types of stimuli and 2 types of responses: (UCS), (UCR), (CS), and conditioned response. Whenever Pavlov gave a dog food, the dog salivated. The food → salivation connection was automatic, requiring no training. Pavlov called food the unconditioned stimulus, and he called salivation the unconditioned response. The unconditioned stimulus is an event that automatically elicits an unconditioned response, and the unconditioned response is an action that the unconditioned stimulus elicits. At first, this neutral stimulus elicits either no response or an irrelevant response, such as looking around. After some number of pairings of the CS with the UCS, the conditioned stimulus elicits the conditioned response , which usually resembles the UCR. The key difference between the CR and UCR is that the CS elicits the CR and the UCS elicits the UCR. The (UCS) is an event that automatically elicits an unconditioned response, and the (UCR) is an action that the unconditioned stimulus elicits.

17. What is the role of neutral stimulus in Classical Conditioning? Provide an example.

The unconditioned stimulus , such as food, automatically elicits the unconditioned response , such as salivating. A neutral stimulus, such as a sound, that is paired with the UCS becomes a conditioned stimulus. Whenever Pavlov gave a dog food, the dog salivated. The food - salivation connection was automatic, requiring no training. Pavlov called food the unconditioned stimulus, and he called salivation the unconditioned response. İn Pavlov experience, Upon hearing the metronome the dog lifted its ears and looked around but didn't salivate , so the metronome was NEUTRAL stimulus with regard to salivation. For example Before we go to dentist the building of dentist is neutral stimulus for us. But after we going and doing any procedure we be nervous when we see that building. The unconditioned stimulus is an event that automatically elicits an unconditioned response, and the unconditioned response is an action that the unconditioned stimulus elicits. At first, this neutral stimulus elicits either no response or an irrelevant response, such as looking around.

18. How is Operant Conditioning related to Thorndike’s “The Law of Effect?”

Operant conditioning is a form of learning in which the consequences of behavior produce changes in the probability that the behavior occur. Operant conditioning’s main architect was B. F. Skinner , whose views built on the connectionist views of E. L. Thorndike. Thorndike studied learning in animals. He devised a classic experiment in which he used a puzzle box to empirically test the laws of learning. He placed a cat in the puzzle box, which was encourage to escape to reach a scrap of fish placed outside. Thorndike would put a cat into the box and time how long it took to escape. The cats experimented with different ways to escape the puzzle box and reach the fish. Eventually they would stumble upon the lever which opened the cage. When it had escaped it was put in again, and once more the time it took to escape was noted. In successive trials the cats would learn that pressing the lever would have favorable consequences and they would adopt this behavior, becoming increasingly quick at pressing the lever. Edward Thorndike put forward a “Law of effect” which stated that any behavior that is followed by pleasant consequences is likely to be repeated, and any behavior followed by unpleasant consequences is likely to be stopped.

19. Explain the characteristics of Positive Reinforcement and Positive Punishment and state examples.

Reinforcement is a consequence that increases the probability that a behavior occur. In contrast, punishment is a consequence that decreases the probability of a behavior will occur. To reinforce behavior, means to strengthen the behavior. Two forms of reinforcement are positive reinforcement and negative reinforcement. In positive reinforcement, the frequency of a response increases. Examples of positive reinforcers are a teacher’s approval, as indicated by a smile or a favorable comment; an A on a test. In Negative reinforcement, the frequency of a response increases because it is followed by the removal of an aversive stimulus. It is easy to confuse negative reinforcement and punishment. Negative reinforcement increases the probability a response will occur, while punishment decreases the probability it will occur. In contrast to a reinforcer, a punishment decreases the probability of a response. Punishment is most effective when it is quick and predictable. Punishments are not always effective. If the threat of punishment were always effective, the crime rate would be zero.

EXAMPLES

Positive Reinforcement - Behavior (Student asks a good question)/ Consequence (Teacher praises student) / Future Behavior (Student asks more good questions)

Negative Reinforcement – Behavior (Student turns homework in on time)/Consequence (Teacher stops criticizing student) / Future Behavior (Student increasingly turns homework in on time)

Punishment – Behavior (Student interrupts teacher)/ Consequence (Teacher verbally reprimands student) / Future Behavior (Student stops interrupting teacher).

20. Negative Reinforcement is often confused with negative punishment. How are they different?

Positive reinforcement is the presentation of an event that strengthens or increases the likelihood of a behavior. In Negative reinforcement, the frequency of a response increases because it is followed by the removal of an unpleasant stimulus. Punishment occurs when a response is followed by an event such as pain. You put your hand on a hot stove, burn yourself, and learn to stop doing that. Try not to be confused by the term negative reinforcement it increases the frequency of a behavior. It is “negative” because the reinforcement is the absence of something. For example, you learn to apply sunscreen to avoid skin cancer, and you learn to brush your teeth to avoid tooth decay. Negative reinforcement increases the behavior and decreases the undesirable outcome. If reinforcement by avoiding something bad is negative reinforcement, then punishment by avoiding something good is negative punishment. The term negative punishment is seldom used. The practice is more often known simply as punishment or as omission training because the omission of the response leads to restoration of the usual privileges. Example is a teacher punishing a child by a time-out session away from classmates.

21. In the context of Classical Conditioning what is generalization, discrimination and extinction? Provide examples.

GENERALIZATION

Suppose a bee stings you, and you learn to fear bees. Now you see a wasp or hornet. Will you fear that, too? You probably will. However, you probably will not show any fear of ants, fleas, or other insects that don’t resemble bees. The more similar a new stimulus is to the conditioned stimulus, the more likely you are to show a similar response.

Discrimination in classical conditioning occurs when the organism responds to certain stimuli but not others. To produce discrimination, Pavlov gave food to the dog only after ringing the bell, not after any other sounds. Subsequently, the dog responded only to the bell.

Extinction in classical conditioning involves the weakening of the conditioned response in the absence of the unconditioned stimulus. In one session, Pavlov rang the bell repeatedly but did not give the dog any food. Eventually, the dog stopped salivating at the sound of the bell.

22. In the context of Operant Conditioning what is generalization, discrimination and extinction?

Generalization in Operant Conditioning means giving the same response to similar stimuli. For example, if a teacher praises the student for asking good questions related to English, will this generalize to harder work in history, math, and other subjects?

Discrimination in operant conditioning involves differentiating among stimuli or environmental events. For example, you smile and greet someone you think you know, but then you realize it is someone else. After several such experiences, you learn to recognize the difference between the two people.

In operant conditioning, extinction occurs when if responses stop producing reinforcements. For example, you were once in the habit of asking your roommate to join you for supper. The last few times you asked, your roommate said no, so you stop asking.

23. How to choose Effective Reinforcers and Premack Principle in order to increase a child’s desirable behavior?

Not all reinforcers are the same for every child. Applied behavior analysts recommend that teachers find out what reinforcers work best with which children. For one student it might be praise, for another it might be getting to spend more time participating in a favorite activity, for another it might involve being a monitor for a week etc.,. To find out the most effective reinforcers for a child, you can examine what has motivated the child in the past, what the student wants but can’t easily or frequently get, and the child’s perception of the reinforcer’s value. One of the recommendation is asking children which reinforcers they like best. Natural reinforcers such as praise and privileges are generally recommended over material rewards such as candy, stars, and money. Activities are some of the most common reinforcers that teachers use. Named after psychologist David Premack, the Premack principle states that a high-probability activity can serve as a reinforcer for a low-probability activity. An elementary school teacher tells a child, “When you complete your writing assignment, you can play a game on the computer”.

24. Explain all the variables of continuous and partial reinforcement and provide examples.

In continuous reinforcement, children learn very rapidly, but when the reinforcement stops, extinction also occurs rapidly. In the classroom, continuous reinforcement is rare. A teacher with a twenty-five or thirty students can’t praise a child every time she makes an appropriate response. Partial reinforcement involves reinforcing a response only part of the time. Skinner developed the concept of schedules of reinforcement, which are partial reinforcement timetables that determine when a response will be reinforced. The four main schedules of reinforcement are fixed-ratio, variable-ratio, fixed-interval, and variable-interval.

On a fixed-ratio schedule, a behavior is reinforced after a set number of responses. For example, a teacher might praise the child only after ever fourth correct response, not after every response.

On a variable-ratio schedule, a behavior is reinforced after an average number of times, but on an unpredictable basis.For example, a teacher’s praise might average out to being given every fifth response but be given after the second correct response, after eight correct responses, after the next seven correct responses, and after the next three correct responses.

On a fixed-interval schedule, the first appropriate response after a fixed amount of time is reinforced. For example, a teacher praise a child for the first good question the child asks after two minutes have elapsed or give a quiz every week.

On a variable-interval schedule, a response is reinforced after a variable amount of time has elapsed. On this schedule, the teacher might praise the child’s question-asking after three minutes have gone by, and so on.

25. What are six ways to increase desirable behaviors?

Choose effective reinforcers;

Not all reinforcers are the same for every child. Applied behavior analysts recommend that teachers find out what reinforcers work best with which children. For one student it might be praise, for another it might be getting to spend more time participating in a favorite activity, for another it might involve being a monitor for a week etc., . One of the recommendation is asking children which reinforcers they like best. Natural reinforcers such as praise and privileges are generally recommended over material rewards such as candy, stars, and money. Activities are some of the most common reinforcers that teachers use.

Make reinforcers contingent and timely

For a reinforcer to be effective, the teacher must give it only after the child performs the particular behavior. It is often recommended that teachers make “If… then” statements to children - for example, “Tony, if you finish ten math problems, then you can go out to play.” If Tony does not complete ten math problems and the teacher still lets him go out to play, the contingency has not been established. Reinforcers are more effective when they are given in a timely way, as soon as possible after the child performs the target behavior. This helps children see the contingency connection between the reward and their behavior.

Select the best schedule of reinforcement;

Most of the examples given so far assume continuous reinforcement - that is, the child is reinforced every time he or she makes a response. In continuous reinforcement, children learn very rapidly, but when the reinforcement stops, extinction also occurs rapidly. In the classroom, continuous reinforcement is rare. A teacher with a twenty-five or thirty students can’t praise a child every time she makes an appropriate response. Partial reinforcement involves reinforcing a response only part of the time. Interval schedules are determined by the amount of time elapsed since the last behavior was reinforced.

Consider contracting;

Contracting involves putting reinforcement contingencies in writing. If problems arise and children don’t uphold their end of the bargain, the teacher can refer the children to the contract they agreed to. Classroom contracts have “If… then” statements and are signed by the teacher and the child. Then dated. Use prompts and shaping. Students can learn to discriminate among stimuli or events through differential reinforcement. Two differential reinforcement strategies available to teachers are prompts and shaping.

A prompt is an added stimulus or cue that is given just before a response that increases the likelihood that the response will occur. A reading teacher who holds up a card with the letters w-e-r-e and says, “Not was, but…..” is using a verbal prompt. Once the students consistently show the correct responses, the prompt are no longer needed. Instructions can be used as prompts. As when the teacher places her hand on her ear when a student is not speaking loudly enough. When teachers use prompts, they assume that students can perform the desired behaviors. But sometimes students do not have the ability to perform them. In this case, shaping is required.

Shaping involves teaching new behaviors by reinforcing successive approximations to a specified target behavior. Suppose you have a student who has never completed 50 percent or more of her math assignments. You set the target behavior at 100 percent, but you reinforce her for her successive approximations to the target. You initially might provide a reinforcer when she completes 60 percent, then the next time only when she completes 70 percent, then 80, then 90, and finally 100 percent.

26. Write down the problems that are associated with using aversive stimuli (punishment).

Aversive stimulus is punishment only if it decreases the undesirable behavior. Often, aversive stimuli are not effective punishments, in that they do not decrease the unwanted behavior and indeed sometimes increase the unwanted behavior over time. The most common type of aversive stimuli that teachers use are verbal reprimands. Reprimands are more effective when they are given immediately after unwanted behavior and when they are short and to the point. Such reprimands do not have to involve yelling and shouting, which often just raise the noise level of the classroom and present the teacher as an uncontrolled model for the students. Instead, a firmly stated “stop doing that” with eye contact is often sufficient to stop unwanted behavior. Especially when you use intense punishment such as yelling or screaming, you are presenting students with an out-of-control model for handling stressful situations; Punishment can instill fear, rage, or avoidance in students. When students are punished, they might become so aroused and anxious that they can’t concentrate clearly on their work for a long time after the punishment has been given. Punishment tells students what not to do rather than what to do.Punishment can be abusive. When parents discipline their children, they might not intend to be abusive but they might become so aroused when they are punishing the child that the become abusive. What is intended to be punishment can turn out to be reinforcing. A student might learn that misbehaving will not only get the teacher’s attention but put the student in the limelight with classmates as well.

27. Explain Observational Learning by the Bobo Doll Study.

A classic experiment by Bandura illustrates how observational learning can occur even when a student watches a model who is not reinforced or punished. The experiment also illustrates a distinction between learning and performance. Eight numbers of kindergarten children were randomly assigned to watch one of three films in which a person beat-up an adult size plastic toy called Bobo doll. In the first film, the aggressor was rewarded with candy, soft drinks, and praise for aggressive behavior. In the second film, the aggressor was criticized and spanked for aggressive behavior. And in the third film, there were no consequences for the aggressor’s behavior. Subsequently, each child was left alone in a room filled with toys, including a Bobo doll. The child’s behavior was observed through a one-way mirror. Children who watched film in which the aggressor’s behavior either was reinforced or went unpunished imitated the aggressor’s behavior more than did the children who saw the aggressor get punished. As you might expect, boys were more aggressive than girls. An important point in this study, however, is that observational learning occurred just as extensively when modeled aggressive behavior was not reinforced as when it was reinforced. A second point focuses on the distinction between learning and performance. Just because students don’t perform a response doesn’t mean that they didn’t learn it. Bandura believes that when a child observed behavior but makes no observable response, the child may still have acquired the modeled response in cognitive form.

28. What are the parts of Bandura’s Contemporary Model of Observational Learning?

Attention. Before students can imitate a model’s actions, they must attend to what the model is doing or saying. Attention to the model is influenced by a host of characteristics. For example, warm, powerful, atypical people command more attention that to cold, weak, typical people. Students are more likely to be attentive to high-status models than to low-status models. In most cases, teachers are high-status models for students.

Retention. To produce a model’s actions. Students must code the information and keep it in memory so that they retrieve it. A simple verbal description or vivid image of what the model did assists students’ retention. Students’ retention will be improved when teachers give vivid, logical, and clear demonstrations.

Production. Children might attend to a model and code in memory what they have seen – but because of limitations in their motor ability, nor be able to reproduce the model’s behavior. A 13-year-old might watch a basketball player and a golfer execute their athletic skills to perfection, or observe famous pianist or artist, but not be able to reproduce their motor actions. Teaching, coaching, and practice can help children improve their motor performances.

Motivation. Often children attend to what a model says or does, retain the information in memory, and possess the motor skills to perform the action but are not motivated to perform the modeled behavior. This was demonstrated in Bandura’s classic Bobo doll study when children who saw the model being punished did not reproduce the punished model’s aggressive actions. However, when they subsequently were given a reinforcement or incentive they did imitate the model’s behavior.

29. Explain Structure of Personality according to Freud and provide examples.

Personality, Freud claimed, consists of three aspects: id, ego, and superego. The id consists of sexual and other biological drives that demand immediate gratification. The ego is the rational, decision-making aspect of the personality. The superego contains the memory of rules and prohibitions we learned from our parents and others, such as, “Nice little boys and girls don’t do that.” Most psychologists today find it difficult to imagine the mind in terms of three warring factions and therefore regard Freud’s description as only a metaphor.

30. Describe the distinctions between the id, ego, and the superego, and their effect on your personality.

The id operates on the pleasure principle which is the idea that every wishful impulse should be satisfied immediately, regardless of the consequences. When the id achieves its demands, we experience pleasure when it is denied we experience ‘unpleasure’ or tension. The id engages in primary process thinking, which is primitive, illogical, irrational, and fantasy oriented. This form of process thinking has no comprehension of objective reality, and is selfish and wishful in nature.

The ego is the only part of the conscious personality. It is the decision-making component of personality. Ideally, the ego works by reason, whereas the id is chaotic and unreasonable. The ego operates according to the reality principle, working out realistic ways of satisfying the id’s demands, often compromising or postponing satisfaction to avoid negative consequences of society. The ego considers social realities and norms, etiquette and rules in deciding like the id, the ego seeks pleasure and avoids pain, but unlike the id, the ego is concerned with devising a realistic strategy to obtain pleasure. The ego has no concept of right or wrong; something is good simply if it achieves its end of satisfying without causing harm to itself or the id. Freud made the analogy of the id being a horse while the ego is the rider. The ego is 'like a man on horseback, who has to hold in check the superior strength of the horse.'

The superego is a part of the unconscious that is the voice of conscience and the source of self criticism. It reflects society's moral values to some degree, and a person is sometimes aware of their own morality and ethics, but the superego contains a vast number of codes, or prohibitions, that are issued mostly unconsciously in the form of commands or "don't" statements. The super-ego can also reward us through the ideal self when we behave ‘properly’ by making us feel proud. Guilt is a very common problem because of all the urges and drives coming from the id and all the prohibitions and codes in the superego.

31. Summarize defense mechanisms against anxiety. (All of them).

According to Freud, the ego defends itself against anxieties by relegating unpleasant thoughts and impulses to the unconscious mind.

Repression

The defense mechanism of repression is motivated forgetting—rejecting unacceptable thoughts, desires, and memories and banishing them to the unconscious. For example, someone sees a murder and forgets it. In fact, emotionally traumatic events are highly memorable. People can and often do intentionally suppress unwanted thoughts and memories. According to most research, people who intentionally suppress unpleasant memories improve their psychological adjustment. They do not face the problems Freud saw as linked to repression. The evidence suggests much reason to be skeptical of repression.

Denial

The refusal to believe information that provokes anxiety is denial. Whereas repression is the motivated forgetting of information, denial is an assertion that the information is incorrect. For example, someone with an alcohol problem may insist, “I’m not an alcoholic.”

Rationalization

When people attempt to prove that their actions are rational and justifiable and thus worthy of approval, they are using rationalization. For example, a student who wants to go to the movies says, “More studying won’t do me any good anyway.”

Displacement

By diverting a behavior or thought away from its natural target toward a less threatening target, displacement lets people engage in the behavior with less anxiety. For example, if you are angry with your employer, you might yell at someone else.

Regression

A return to a more immature level of functioning, regression is an effort to avoid the anxiety of facing one’s current role in life. By adopting a childish role, a person escapes responsibility and returns to an earlier, more secure, way of life. For example, after a new sibling is born, an older child may cry or pout.

Projection

Attributing one’s own undesirable characteristics to other people is known as projection. If some one tells you to stop being angry, you might reply, “I’m not angry! You’re the one who’s angry!” Suggesting that other people have your faults might make the faults seem less threatening.

Reaction Formation

To keep undesirable characteristics repressed, people may use reaction formation to present themselves as the opposite of what they really are to hide the unpleasant truth either from themselves or others. In other words, they go to the opposite extreme. A man troubled by doubts about his religious faith might try to convert others to the faith. Someone with unacceptable aggressive tendencies might join a group dedicated to preventing violence.

Sublimation

The transformation of sexual or aggressive energies into culturally acceptable, even admirable, behaviors is sublimation. According to Freud, sublimation lets someone express an impulse without admitting its existence. For example, painting and sculpture may represent a sublimation of sexual impulses. Someone may sublimate aggressive impulses by becoming a surgeon. Sublimation is the one proposed defense mechanism that is associated with socially constructive behavior.

32. What is the purpose of defense mechanisms? Use the description of several defense mechanisms to illustrate your answer.

According to Freud, the ego defends itself against anxieties by relegating unpleasant thoughts and impulses to the unconscious mind. Among the defense mechanisms that the ego employs are repression, denial, rationalization, displacement, regression, projection, reaction formation, and sublimation. He saw these as normal processes that sometimes went to extremes. His daughter, Anna, developed descriptions of these mechanisms.

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33. What are Big Five Model of Personality Traits? Provide examples.

Neuroticism is a tendency to experience unpleasant emotions frequently. Some personality researchers prefer the term emotional stability, which is the mirror image of neuroticism. That is, anyone who is high in one is low in the other. Neuroticism correlates positively with anxiety, hostility, depression, self-consciousness, and frequent conflicts with other people. People high in neuroticism tend to have troubles in their health, jobs, and marriages.

Extraversion is a tendency to seek stimulation and to enjoy the company of other people. Extraversion is associated with warmth, gregariousness, assertiveness, impulsiveness, and a need for excitement. The unpleasant side of extraversion is an increased chance of alcohol abuse and other risky behaviors. In one study, people who pretended to be extraverted reported feeling happier afterward.

Agreeableness is a tendency to be compassionate toward others. It implies a concern for the welfare of other people and is closely related to Adler’s concept of social interest. People high in agreeableness trust other people and expect other people to trust them. They are more likely than average to have stable marriages and stable employment.

Conscientiousness is a tendency to show self-discipline, to be dutiful, and to strive for achievement and competence. People high in conscientiousness work hard and complete their tasks on time. They tend to exercise and eat a healthy diet. They avoid tobacco, excessive alcohol. They tend to have successful jobs, successful marriages, and greater than average life expectancy.

Openness to experience is a tendency to enjoy new intellectual experiences and new ideas. People high in this trait enjoy modern art, unusual music, and thought-provoking films and books. They enjoy meeting different kinds of people and exploring new ideas. In one study, young adults listed their favorite songs. Then another person listened to those songs and tried to guess the personality of the person who chose them. From music alone, they guessed people’s openness to experience.

34. Summarize different types of Memory.

The simplest method for the tester is to ask for free recall. To recall something is to produce a response, as you do on essay tests or short-answer tests. For instance, “Please name all the children in your second-grade class.” You probably will not name many, partly because you confuse the names of the children in your second-grade class with those you knew in other grades.

You will do better with cued recall, in which you receive significant hints about the material. For example, a photograph of the children in your second-grade class or a list of their initials will help you remember.

With recognition, a third method of testing memory, someone chooses the correct item among several options. People usually recognize more items than they recall. For example, I might give you a list of 60 names and ask you to check of the correct names of children in your second-grade class. Multiple-choice tests use the recognition method.

Detects weak memories by comparing the speed of original learning to the speed of relearning. Suppose you cannot name the children in your second-grade class and cannot even pick out their names from a list of choices. You would nevertheless learn a correct list of names faster than a list of people you had never met. That is, you save time when you relearn something. The amount of time saved is a measure of memory.

Free recall, cued recall, recognition, and savings are tests of explicit memory. That is, someone who states an answer regards it as a product of memory. In implicit memory, an experience influences what you say or do even though you might not be aware of the influence. Suppose you are in a conversation while other people nearby are discussing something else. You ignore the other discussion, but a few words from that background conversation probably creep into your own. You do not even notice the influence, although an observer might.

35. What is the difference between Short - Term and Long -Term Memory? Provide examples.

Long-term memory has a vast, hard-to-measure capacity. Asking how much information you could store in long-term memory is like asking how many books you could fit into a library. The answer depends on the size of the books and how you arrange them. Short-term memory, in contrast, has a limited capacity. George Miller referred to the short-term memory capacity as “the magical number seven, plus or minus two.” When people try to repeat a longer list, they may fail to remember even the first seven items. It is like trying to hold objects in one hand: If you try to hold too many, you drop them all. You can store more information in short-term memory by a process called chunking grouping items into meaningful sequences or clusters. Because people are so good at chunking, sometimes without realizing that they are doing it, psychologists are not certain that short-term memory really does hold seven items. Many researchers now believe the true limit of human short-term memory is closer to four than to seven.Many researchers now believe the true limit of human short-term memory is closer to four than to seven.