Determinism- is the view that everything that occurs, including human behavior, has a physical cause.

Nature–nurture - Behavior depends on both nature (heredity) and nurture (environment).

Free will- The belief that behavior is caused by a person’s independent decisions is known as free will.

Mind–brain problem- The philosophical question of how experience relates to the brain is the mind–brain problem.

Dualism - 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.

Monism - the view that conscious experience is inseparable from the physical brain.

Structuralism - is an attempt to describe the structures that compose the mind, particularly sensations, feelings, and images.

Functionalism – is the study of how people form useful behaviors.

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.

Biological processes - produce changes in the child’s body and underline brain development, height and weight gains, motor skills, and puberty’s hormonal changes.

Socioemotional processes - involve changes in child’s relationships with other people, changes in emotion, and changes in personality.

Schemas - These are actions or mental representations that organize knowledge.

Assimilation - occurs when children incorporated new information into their existing schemas.

Accommodation - occurs when children adjust their schemas to fit new information and experiences.

Organization - in Piaget’s theory is the grouping of isolated behaviors and thoughts into a higher-order system.

Equilibration - is a mechanism that Piaget proposed to explain how children shift from one stage to the next.

Egocentrism - is the inability to distinguish between one’s own perspective and someone else’s perspective.

Animism - is the belief that inanimate objects have “lifelike” qualities and capable of action.

Centration - focusing or centering attention on one characteristic to the exclusion of others.

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.

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.

Scaffolding- means changing the level of support. Children learn primarily in two different ways, through direct instruction or through mediated experiences.

Dialogue - is an excellent tool of scaffolding in the zone of proximal development. Many children have rich but unsystematic, disorganized concepts.

Private speech - The use of language for self-regulation is called private speech. For example, young children talk aloud to themselves about such things as their toys and the tasks they are trying to complete.

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.

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.

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.

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.

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.

Self-esteem refers to an individual’s overall view of himself or herself. Self-esteem is also referred to self-worth or self-image.

Persistent low self-esteem - is linked with low achievement, depression, eating disorders, and delinquency.

High self-esteem - children are prone to both prosocial and antisocial actions.

Exploration - involves examining meaningful alternative identities.

Commitment - means showing a personal interest in an identity and staying with whatever that identity implies.

Identity diffusion occurs when individuals have not yet experienced a crisis (that is they have not explored meaningful alternatives) or made any commitments.

Identity foreclosure occurs when individuals have made a commitment but have not yet experienced a crisis.

Identity moratorium occurs when individuals are in the midst of a crisis but their commitments are either absent or only vaguely defined.

Identity achievement occurs when individuals have undergone a crisis and have made commitment.

In the Cognitive domain, the key issue is how students reason or think about rules for ethical conduct.

In the behavioral domain, the focus is on how students actually behave rather than on the morality of their thinking.

In the emotional domain, the emphasis is on how students morally feel.

Kohlberg’s theory internalization - A key concept in understanding Kohlberg’s theory is internalization, which refers to the developmental change from externally controlled behavior to internally controlled behavior.

Classical conditioning - 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, or Pavlovian conditioning.

Operant conditioning - is a form of learning in which the consequences of behavior produce changes in the probability that the behavior occur.

NEUTRAL stimulus - 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.

Unconditioned response -is an action that the unconditioned stimulus elicits.

Law of effect - 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.

Reinforcement is a consequence that increases the probability that a behavior occur. One way to remember the distinction between positive and negative reinforcement is that in positive reinforcement something is added. In negative reinforcement, something is subtracted, or removed.

Punishment - is a consequence that decreases the probability of a behavior will occur. Punishment occurs when a response is followed by an event such as pain.

Discrimination in classical conditioning occurs when the organism responds to certain stimuli but not others.

Discrimination in operant conditioning involves differentiating among stimuli or environmental events.

Extinction in classical conditioning involves the weakening of the conditioned response in the absence of the unconditioned stimulus.

In operant conditioning extinction occurs when if responses stop producing reinforcements.

GENERALIZATION in classical - The more similar a new stimulus is to the conditioned stimulus, the more likely you are to show a similar response.

Generalization in Operant Conditioning means giving the same response to similar stimuli.

Consequences – rewards or punishments are contingent are contingent on the organism’s behavior.

Premack principle – states that a high-probability activity can serve as a reinforcer for a low-probability activity.

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.

Interval schedules are determined by the amount of time elapsed since the last behavior was reinforced.

On a fixed-ratio schedule, a behavior is reinforced after a set number of responses.

On a variable-ratio schedule, a behavior is reinforced after an average number of times, but on an unpredictable basis.

On a fixed-interval schedule, the first appropriate response after a fixed amount of time is reinforced.

On a variable-interval schedule, a response is reinforced after a variable amount of time has elapsed.

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.

Activities are some of the most common reinforcers that teachers use.

For a reinforcer to be effective, the teacher must give it only after the child performs the particular behavior.

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.

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.

A prompt is an added stimulus or cue that is given just before a response that increases the likelihood that the response will occur.

Shaping involves teaching new behaviors by reinforcing successive approximations to a specified target behavior.

A psychodynamic theory relates personality to the interplay of conflicting forces within the individual, including unconscious ones.

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.

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.

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.

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.”

Repression - The defense mechanism of repression is motivated forgetting—rejecting unacceptable thoughts, desires, and memories and banishing them to the unconscious.

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.

Rationalization - When people attempt to prove that their actions are rational and justifiable and thus worthy of approval, they are using rationalization.

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.

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.

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!”

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.

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. 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.

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.

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.

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.

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.

Free Recall - 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.

Cued Recall - You will do better with cued recall, in which you receive significant hints about the material.

Recognition - With recognition, a third method of testing memory, someone chooses the correct item among several options. People usually recognize more items than they recall.

Savings - Detects weak memories by comparing the speed of original learning to the speed of relearning.

Implicit Memory - In implicit memory, an experience influences what you say or do even though you might not be aware of the influence.

Long-term memory - has a vast, hard-to-measure capacity. Short-term memory - in contrast, has a limited capacity.