

**M.ED 02 PSYCHOLOGY OF LEARNING AND DEVELOPMENT
2017**

**PART A
EACH QUESTION CARRIES 2
MARK**

Que.1) WHAT IS THE SCOPE OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY?

Ans: The learner

- The subject matter of educational psychology is knitted around the learner. Therefore the need of knowing the learner and techniques of knowing him well.
- It includes, the innate abilities and capabilities of the individuals, individual difference and measurement, the covert, overt conscious as well as unconscious behaviour.

The Teacher

The Teacher is a potent force in any scheme of teaching and learning process. It emphasizes the need of 'knowing thyself for a teacher to play his role properly in the process of education. His conflicts, motivation, Anxiety, adjustment, level of aspiration etc.

Que.2) WHAT ARE THE PRINCIPLES OF DEVELOPMENTAL PSYCHOLOGY?

Ans : PRINCIPLES OF DEVELOPMENT

- 1) Development is a product of interaction.
- 2) Development is a continuous process.
- 3) Development follows an orderly sequence.
- 4) Development proceeds from general to specific.
- 5) Different aspects of development are interdependent.
- 6) Development is an individualized process.

Que.3) IDENTIFY CLASSROOM TECHNIQUES FOR LEARNING?

- Ans: Setting up a goal
- Maintaining a pleasant atmosphere
- Linking the new learning with past experiences
- Adopting effective methods of teaching
- Using appropriate audio-visual aids
- Praise and Blame

Que.4) OUTLINE THE TYPE OF MEMORY?

Ans: **Immediate memory**

Learn and remember a thing for short time and then forget it

Permanent memory

Here retention is permanent in nature.

Rote memory

Things are learned without understanding.

Logical memory

Materials are learned with insight understanding and logical thinking

Episodic Memory

Episodic memory are a type of explicit memory that relate to our own personal lives.

Que.5) GIVE A NOTE ON TRANSFER OF LEARNING?

Ans: Crow and Crow:- "The carry over of habit of thinking, feeling or working of knowledge or of skills from one learning area to another is usually referred to as transfer of learning".

PART B

EACH QUESTION CARRIES 5 MARK

Que.6) DISCUSS THE RELEVANCE OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY IN TEACHING AND LEARNING?

IN TEACHING

Ans:1, To understand the Stages of Development: Psychology has clearly shown that human life passes through different stages of development before it reaches adulthood. They are infancy, childhood, adolescence and adulthood. Psychologists have also thoroughly studied the characteristic behaviour patterns in these different periods of life. Identification of these periods with different sets of characteristics and attributes as regards physical, mental and emotional development greatly help educationists to design curriculum and determine appropriate methods of teaching for students at different stages.

2, To Know the Learner: The child or the learner is the key factor in the teaching-learning process. Educational psychology helps the teacher to know his interests, attitudes, aptitudes and the other acquired or innate capacities and abilities; to know the stage of development linked with his social, emotional, intellectual, physical and aesthetic needs; to know his level of aspiration, his conscious and unconscious behaviour; his motivational and group behaviour; his conflicts, desires and other aspects of his mental health. So that perfect guidance and help can be provided and positive attitude towards the learner can be formed.

3, To Understand the Nature of Classroom Learning: Educational Psychology helps the teacher to adapt and adjust his teaching according to the level of the learners. A teacher is teaching in a class but a large number of students do not understand the subject-matter which is being taught. To deal with the students effectively in the class the teacher must have the knowledge of the various approaches to the learning process, principles, laws and factors affecting it then only he/she can apply remedial measures in the learning situation.

4, To Understand the Individual Differences: No two persons are exactly alike. Pupils differ in their level of intelligence, aptitudes, likes and dislikes and in other propensities and potentialities. There are gifted, backward, physically and mentally challenged children. Thus, psychology tells the teacher about the individual differences among the students in the class and the procedure, methodology and techniques to be adopted for them.

5, To Solve Classroom Problems: There are innumerable problems like truancy, bullying, peer pressure, ethnic tensions, cheating in tests etc. Educational Psychology helps to equip the teacher by studying the characteristics of the problem children, the dynamics of the group, behavioural characteristics and adjustments.

IN LEARNING

1, Development of the learner: The educational psychologist tries to understand the learner's inner traits, life experiences from childhood to the present, and their behavior in different situations. These insights help them to tailor learning programs suitable for the learner, supporting their overall development.

2,Effective learning experiences: Educational psychology finds ways to make learning experiences effective and enjoyable. It helps in deciding which experiences are required at which stage of the learner's development, so that they learn appropriate concepts at a suitable age.

3, Development of learning processes: Educational psychologists play an important role in developing new learning processes depending upon the individual's characteristics and skills. This can include finding new ways for memorizing, reasoning, thinking, perceiving, or problem-solving.

4, External environment: Learning outcomes are affected by the external environment as well, and not just by the individual's characteristics. Classroom environment, team dynamics, communication skills, and how knowledge is being shared – are all factors influencing their learning capacity. If provided with a suitable environment, the individual can learn and perform to the best of their abilities. Educational psychology helps in creating this helpful environment for learning.

5,Personality development: Educational psychology can shape a child's personality development from a very early age. With proper techniques and a classroom environment that is based on psychological principles, the child's overall development is benefited.

Que.7 GIVE A DETAILED ACCOUNT ON PSYCHODYNAMIC APPROACH TO STUDY HUMAN BEHAVIOUR?

Ans: Freud believed in the role of instinct in driving human behaviour. He postulated two main instincts namely the life instinct and the death instinct, as the source of all the psyche energy available in man.

One's life instinct is engaged in the service of one's life and its main aims are survival and the propagation of the species. It is manifested through sex and love. Freud gave the name 'libido' to the driving force of the life instinct and made it synonymous with the sex urge and sexuality of human beings.

The libido believes in the pleasure principle. Since all physical pleasure, aroused from any of the organs in the body and through any functions, as advocated by Freud, is ultimately sexual in nature, the sex urge or sex motive may be regarded as the dynamic force and centre of all human behaviour at all ages.

The concept of the other instinct, called the death instinct, relates to the impulse for destruction. It is manifested through acts of aggression, cruelty and even of suicide.

Freud held that when one's life instinct is not allowed to function or to govern one's behaviour, the death instinct comes into the picture for operating behaviour.

For example, when one is not permitted to seek sexual gratification or derive pleasure, one is bound to lose one's balance, suffer frustration which may consequently lead to the destruction of one's self or of others.

Que.8) EXPLAIN ERIKSON THEORY OF PSYCHOSOCIAL DEVELOPMENT?

- Ans: Erik Erikson's theory of psychosocial development is one of the best-known theories of personality in psychology.
- It describes the impact of social experiences across the whole lifespan.
- Personality develops in a series of stage.

Psychosocial Stages

Stage1- Trust Vs. Mistrust

Stage2- Autonomy Vs. Shame & Doubt

Stage3- Initiative Vs. Guilt

Stage4- Industry Vs. Inferiority

Stage5- Identity Vs. Role Confusion

Stage6- Intimacy Vs. Isolation

Stage7- Generativity Vs. Stagnation

Stage8- Integrity Vs. Despair

Trust Vs Mistrust

- Occurs in infancy (birth- 18months).
- Babies must learn to trust their parents care and affection.
- If not done the babies could develop a distrust and view the world as inconsistent world as unpredictable.

Autonomy Vs Shame and Doubt

- Occurs in the toddler age(18 months - 3 years).
- Child learns to feed themselves and do things on their own.
- They could start feeling ashamed and doubt their abilities.
- Questions the child's willpower.

Initiative Vs. Guilt

- Preschool age (3-5 years old).
- Using initiative in planning or carrying out plans.
- Develop a sense of guilt over misbehaviour regarding parents limits.
- Question one's purpose and role in life.

Industry Vs. Inferiority

- School age (5-11 years of age).
- Learn to follow the rules imposed by schools or home.
- The child can start believing they are inferior to others.

Identity Vs Role Confusion

- Adolescence (11-18 years of age).
- Acquire a sense of identity.
- Can become confused about one's role in life.
- Questions who you are and if you're happy.

Intimacy Vs Isolation

- Young adulthood(18-40 years of age).

- Develop a relationship and joint identity with a partner.
- Can become isolated and stay away from meaningful relationships.
- Questions if the person is ready for new relationship, or if there is a fear of rejection.

Generality Vs. Stagnation

- Middle adulthood (40-65 years of age).
- Making use of time and having a concern with helping others and guiding the next generation.
- Can become self-centred, and stagnant.
- Questions what the person will do with their extra time.

Integrity Vs. Despair

- Late adulthood (60 and up)
- Understand and accept the meaning of temporary life.
- Complains about regrets, not having enough time, and not finding a meaning throughout life.
- Questions ones overview of their entire life.

Que.9) WRITE ABOUT THE STAGES AND ASPECTS OF DEVELOPMENT?

Ans: **Infancy**

This period extends from birth to 18 months of age. This is called the age of trust v/s mistrust. The infant who comes to the new environment, from mother's womb needs only nourishment. If the child's caretaker, the mother anticipates and fulfills these needs consistently, the infant learns to trust others, develops confidence.

Early childhood

This stage ranges from 18 months to 3 years. By second year of life, the muscular and nervous systems have developed markedly, and the child is eager to acquire

new skills, is no longer content to sit and watch. The child moves around and examines its environment, but judgement develops more slowly.

Later childhood

This period ranges from 5-12 years. During this period the child develops greater attention span, needs less sleep, and gains rapidly in strength; therefore, the child can expend much more effort in acquiring skills, and needs accomplishment, regardless of ability. The crisis faced during this period is industry v/s inferiority.

Adolescence

This is a period of transition from childhood to adulthood which extends from 12-20 years. During this period the individual attains puberty leading to many changes. These changes have enormous implications for the individual's sexual, social, emotional and vocational life; that is why Stanley Hall has rightly described this period as a "period of storm and stress".

Adulthood

This stage extends from 20-30 years. As an adult, the individual takes a firmer place in society, usually holding a job, contributing to community and maintaining a family and care of offspring. These new responsibilities can create tensions and frustrations, and one solution involves is, an intimate relationship with family. This situation leads to a crisis called intimacy v/s isolation.

Old age

This stage is the extension after 65 years till death. By this age people's goals and abilities have become more limited. The crisis in this stage is the integrity v/s despair in which the person finds meaning in memories or instead looks back on life with dissatisfaction. The term integrity implies emotional integration; it is not accepting one's life as one's own responsibility. It is based not so much on what has happened but, as on how one feels about it.

Que.10) DESCRIBE HUMANISTIC PERSPECTIVE OF MOTIVATION?

Ans: Humanistic Theories Of Motivation

Based on the idea that people also have strong cognitive reason to perform various actions.

Once the lower level needs have been met, the primary motivator becomes the need for self-actualization, or the desire to fulfil one's individual potential.

The basis of Maslow's theory is that human beings are motivated by unsatisfied needs, and that certain lower need to be satisfied before higher need can be satisfied.

According to Maslow, there are general types of needs (physiological, safety, love and esteem) that must be satisfied before a person can act unselfishly. He called these needs "deficiency needs". As long as we are motivated to satisfy these cravings, we are moving towards growth, towards self-actualization.

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Theory

Maslow's theory assumes that a person attempts to satisfy the more basic needs before directing behavior toward satisfying upper-level needs.

Lower-order needs must be satisfied before a higher-order needs begins to control a person's behavior.

Five Needs:

1. Physiological Needs:

Physiological needs are those required to sustain life, such as: Air, water, food and sleep.

2. Safety Needs: Once physiological needs are met, one's attention turns to safety and security in order to be free from the threat of physical and emotional harm. Such need might be fulfilled by living in a safe area, Medical, insurance, job security and financial reserve.

3. Social Needs:

Once a person has met the lower level physiological and safety needs, higher level needs awaken. The first level of higher level needs are social needs. Social needs are those related to interaction with others and may include: Friendship, belonging to a group and giving and receiving love.

4. Esteem Needs: Once a person feels a sense of "belonging, the need to feel important arises. Esteem needs may be classified as internal or external. Internal esteem needs are those related to self-esteem such as respect and achievement. External esteem needs are those such as social status and recognition. Some esteem needs are: Self-respect, Achievement, Attention, Recognition, and Reputation.

5. Self-Actualization: Self-actualization is the summit of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. It is the quest of reaching one's full potential as a person. Self-actualized people tend to have needs such as: Trust, Justice, Wisdom and Meaning.

QUE.11) SKETCH OUT THE TYPE OF MEMORY EXPLAIN IT?

Ans: .

Definition

Stout (1938):- So far as ideal revival is merely reproductive...this productive aspect of ideal revival requires the object of past experiences to be re-instated as far as possible in the order and manner of their original occurrence.

Types of Memory

Psychologists have tried to classify memory into certain types according to its nature and the purpose it serves.

1) Sensory or immediate memory

- Sensory or immediate memory is the memory that helps an individual to recall something immediately after it is perceived
- In this type of memory, the retention time is extremely brief generally from a fraction of a second to several seconds
- Old sensory impressions disappear as they are 'erased' by new information
- For example :When we enter an auditorium, we can see the seat number given in our ticket. Having occupied the seat, we forget the seat number.

We took up a telephone number from the directory and remember it. But after making the telephone call, we usually forgot it.

In all cases of this nature, immediate memory is needed which helps us to learn a thing immediately with speed and accuracy, remember it for a short duration and forget it rapidly after use.

2) Short- term memory

- Temporary memory, though not nearly as short-lived as immediate memory. In order to further distinguish it from short-term memory the following factors should also be taken into account:
- Where the retention time is less than one second in immediate memory, the information temporarily stored in short-term memory may last as long as 30 seconds even if the material is not being rehearsed.
- Whereas the sensory images in immediate memory decay regardless of the learner's actions, rehearsal by the learner can keep material in short-term memory indefinitely.
- The span of immediate memory exceeds the short-term

memory span.

3) Long-term memory

- Long term memory has a seemingly limitless capacity to store information with little or no decay and requires little, if any rehearsal.
- Long-term memory codes information according to meaning, pattern and other characteristics.
- It is this memory that helps us to remember a number of things on a relatively permanent basis.
- With the help of our long-term memory we can easily store, retain and remember most of the things in our life at a second's notice and thus easily conduct our daily life.
- Example: Remembering identifying data like one's name, father's name, date of birth, date of marriage, etc.

4) Episodic and semantic memory

- Episodic memory is connected with episodes and events.
- It may consist of personal events and experiences associated with one's life.
- What even has happened during one's life is stored in shape of episodic memory traces organized according to the time, space and other characteristics of events.
- Episodic memory is the memory which depends on retrieving the particular events or episodes experienced by a person through his direct or indirect experiences.
- Semantic memory helps in storing as well as retrieving a collection of relationships between events or association of ideas.
- It is based on general knowledge coupled with meaningful interpretation, generalized rules, principles and formulae.
- Its Impressions are more or less permanent.
- Their recall does not necessarily depend on the retrieval of some specific episodes from the past
- Semantic memory is therefore , not as personal as episodic memory
- Example: one's ability to recall names of the capitals of different states of Indian republic, the meaning of the symbol C02.

5) Photographic Memory

- According to Haber (1979), the term 'photographic memory' stands for a kind of memory possessed by an individual who can remember a scene in photographic detail.

6) Paranormal memory

- Distinctive and unusual type of memory, popularly known as 'reincarnation'
- Has emerged as a result of researches and findings in the field of Para-Psychology
- It consists of the unusual memory traces concerning one's previous life or lives that can be partly or completely retrieved by the individual.

Que.12) DISCUSS HEBBE NEUROPHYSIOLOGICAL THEORY OF LEARNING?

Ans: Donald Hebb, the renowned American psychologist, was initially a staunch believer in Watson's and Pavlov's associationistic points of view for the explanation of learning. But later on, he was greatly influenced by Karl Lashley, who was working at that time in the University of Chicago, and as a result changed his views and propounded a new theory of learning known as Hebb's neuro-physiological theory of learning. Hebb's neurophysiological approach to learning, as would be seen in the discussion that follows, provides a solid physiological base to the process of

learning. According to it the brain and the central nervous system play a key role in learning. Learning results from stimulation and activity of the neurons together with the ability of the brain to organise neural impulses. This approach is said to involve two different streams of thought: one arising from the influence of the S-R theories and the other emanating from the gestalt theories.

The S-R influenced approach, often named as the switchboard approach, considers human central nervous system to be a passive switchboard made up of billions of tiny switch-like neurons producing overt responses to sensory inputs.

The gestalt approach, on the other hand, advocates the organisational aspect of the brain for making the sensory information or input available to it, more meaningful before invoking an overt response. Let us elaborate some important theoretical aspects of Hebb's theory for understanding its basic nature, foundation and application in the field of education.

Que.13) PREDICT THE PROCEDURES TO ENHANCE MEMORY?

Ans: 1) **Recitation Method:**

- One learner first reads the matter once or twice and then tries to recite and recall it without looking at the material.
- The recitation method thus provides continuous self-appraisal.
- The learner evaluates himself from time to time and makes notes of the points which he has been unable to recall.
- This method is more stimulating than the continued re-reading

of the same material.

- It helps in detecting errors made earlier and avoiding them by paying closer attention.

2) Whole and Part Method

- There are two methods of memorizing a thing, say a poem.
- One is to read the poem again and again from the beginning till the end as a whole – this is called whole method of memorization.
- The poem is divided into parts and each part is memorized separately – this is called part method of memorization.
- Advantages :-

The whole method is found to be better than the part method for memorizing a thing which requires less time like a short poem

While the part method proves more advantageous if the poem is a long one

In some cases a combination of these two methods has been found suitable.

3) Spaced and Unspaced Methods (Distributed and Massed Practice)

- In the spaced or distributed practice method of memorization, the subject is not required to memorize the assigned material in one sitting.
- Each time after memorizing the material for some time, a period of rest is provided and this principle of ‘work and rest’ is followed throughout.
- Unspaced or massed practice method of memorization the subject has to memorize the assigned material at one sitting without any interval or rest until it is mastered.

Que.14 EXPLAIN TYPES OF TRANSFER OF LEARNING IN EDUCATION?

Ans: Postive transfer:Transfer of learning or training is said to be positive when the learning or training carried out in one situation proves helpful to the learner in another situation.

Examples of such transfer are:

1. The knowledge and skills related to school mathematics help in the learning of statistical computation.
2. The knowledge and skills acquired in terms of addition and subtraction in mathematics in school may help a child in the acquisition of knowledge and skills regarding multiplication and division.

3. Learning to play badminton may help an individual to play ping pong (Table Tennis) and lawn tennis.
4. Learning to drive a particular brand of car, e.g. Maruti 800 may help an individual to drive other cars, e.g. Opel Astra.
5. Learning Hindi may help a student learn Punjabi or Gujarati.

Negative transfer. Transfer of learning or training is said to be negative when learning or training in one situation hinders, interferes or weakens the learning in another situation. Examples of such transfer are:

1. Having learned to pronounce "But" correctly, the child may find it difficult to pronounce "Put" correctly.
2. One's regional language or mother tongue may create problems in one's learning the correct pronunciation and intonation related to one's national or foreign language.
3. One who is driving an auto-start kinetic Honda Scooter may find difficulty in driving Bajaj or Vespa scooter.
4. Having learned to drive on the right-hand side the tourists from Japan or USA may find it difficult to drive in India or UK where vehicles are to be driven on the left-hand side.

Zero transfer. Transfer is said to be zero' when learning or training in one sation does not have any significant influence over the learning or training in another situation. Such a situation may arise when the learning activities and subject areas have nothing in common between them. In such cases, it is quite satural that possession of knowledge and skill related to one area may have no or quite minimal effect on the acquisition of knowledge and skill related to another area. Examples of such a transfer may now be cited:

1. Learning history may neither help nor hinder the learning of economics.
- 2 Learning to play football may not help or hinder learning to play volleyball.
3. Learning to play Guitar or Sitar neither helps nor hinders one's performance in her cooking or laundry class.

Experimental illustration of the transfer types: Let us analyse the hypothetical experimental findings for illustrating the three transfer types. Suppose a group of students learn a task B, in 10 practice sessions. Another group of equivalent number

of students, who previously had learned another task A, is found to read the same level of performance on task B in only five practice sessions. Since average number of practice sessions required to learn B was reduced from 10

5, transfer of training from task A to task B is said to be positive ($10-5=5$). Now, in case after learning task A, a group of students need 15 sessions to learn task B whereas only 10 sessions are required for those without practice any previous training in task A, then task A is said to lead to negative transfer of training on task B ($10-15=-5$). In the third situation where for learning task B, students are found to require the same number of 10 sessions as were required by them in learning task A, the transfer is said to have a zero ($10-10=0$) value, that is, signifying no transfer effect from task A to task B.

However, by the above categorisation it should not be concluded that transfer should always exhibit the extremes-positive, negative or zero. In many situations we may come across a mixed trend. Therefore, it may happen that learning in one situation partly help and partly interfere with the performance of learning in a new situation.

Que.15) ANALYSE THE CHARACTERISTICS OF MENTALLY HEALTHY PERSON?

Ans: Mental health is defined as a state of well-being in which every individual realizes his or her own potential, can cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and fruitfully, and is able to make a contribution to her or his community.

Characteristics Of Mentally Healthy Person

- Knows his strength and weaknesses
- Sense of happiness and well-being

- Capable to deal with stresses of life
- The feeling of self realization

- Ability to strike balance in different aspects of life

- Intellectual development

- Shows concerns for other

- Social adjustability

- He lives in the world of reality

Que.16) ILLUSTRATE ANY FIVE DEFENSE MECHANISM?

Ans: **Projection:** Attributing one's unacceptable feelings or desires to someone else. For example, if a bully constantly ridicules a peer about insecurities, the bully might be projecting his own struggle with self-esteem onto the other person.

Displacement: Redirecting an emotional reaction from the rightful recipient to another person altogether. For example, if a manager screams at an employee, the employee doesn't scream back—but the employee may yell at her partner later that night.

Intellectualization: Focusing on the intellectual rather than emotional consequences of a situation. For example, if a roommate unexpectedly moved out, the other person might conduct a detailed financial analysis rather than discussing their hurt feelings.

Repression

Repression is unconsciously keeping feelings, thoughts, or memories out of your awareness. It is done to protect ourselves from the anxiety or fear related to those memories. Because it's done without our intention, the person has little control over the blocking of the memories. The blocked memories remain in our subconscious minds and continue to influence our feelings and behavior.

Denial: Refusing to recognize or acknowledge real facts or experiences that would lead to anxiety. For instance, someone with substance use disorder might not be able to clearly see his problem.

Que.17) EXPLAIN LEWIN'S FIELD THEORY OF LEARNING?

Ans: Perception is the key issue in Lewin's theory of learning. It takes learning to be a process of perceptual organisation or reorganisation of one's life space field involving insight. In addition to the field theory, his system of description is also known as topological psychology or vector psychology. Let us now try to explain some basic concepts utilised by Lewin in his theory.

Topology: Topology is a branch of mathematics which deals with the relative position of geometrical figures in a space. Lewin used the topological concepts for representing the structure of life space in such a way as to define the range of possible perceptions and actions. This can be achieved by showing the arrangement of functional parts of the life space as several regions and their boundaries. While structuring or reorganising one's life space one does it through its division into regions or boundaries.

Vector: The term 'vector' was borrowed by Lewin from mechanics and used for representing a force capable of influencing movements towards or away from a goal. In case there is only one vector (force), then the movement must be in the direction of the vector but if there are two or more vectors (forces) simultaneously acting in different directions, then the resultant vector arising out of the vectors in

action will decide the direction and magnitude of movement towards or away from the goal.

Life space: The life space of a person is also known as the psychological field. This field, although influenced and conditioned by one's physical and social environment, cannot be identified with that environment. It is one's psychological world or the space in which one moves psychologically. It contains the totality of one's psychological reality-one's self and what one thinks of or what one gains from one's physical and social environment for determining one's behaviour in a given situation. The life spaces of two persons in an identical situation may be entirely different. A snake in the corner of a room, not perceived by a person does not in his life space, while for his companion, who perceives it, the snake exists. Therefore, one's life space is the space in which one lives psychologically involving one's own perception and depicting one's own view-point. It include each and every object, person, or idea with which one is concerned at a given time.

The individual in his life space: The individual in his life space represents his totality, mind, body and all that is essential for him to behave as a complete individual in a given situation. It represents his psychological self expressed as 'I', 'my', 'mine', 'me', etc. Diagrammatically, the person may be represented as a point moving about in his life space, affected by pulls and pushes and overcoming the barriers to reaching his goal.

Valence:Lewin describes two types of valences operating in one's life When a person is attracted by an object that object is said to have a positive valence. On the other hand, when a person is repelled by an object, the object is said to possess a negative valence. The person is pulled toward a region in his life space along the direction of the positive valence while he tends to move away from a region in his life space that has a negative valence.

PART C

EACH QUESTION CARRIES 15 MARKS.

**Que.18 GIVE A DETAILED NOTE ON
BRUNER THEORY OF COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT.
KOHLBERG THEORY OF MORAL DEVELOPMENT.**

Ans: Jerome Bruner and Education

Cognitive psychologist Jerome Bruner felt the goal of education should be intellectual development, as opposed to rote memorization of facts.

This lesson will discuss Bruner's theory of development and his three modes of representation. We will also explore his beliefs on learning, language, and discovery and differentiate his views from those of Jean Piaget.

Bruner held the following beliefs regarding learning and education:

He believed curriculum should foster the development of problem-solving skills through the processes of inquiry and discovery.

He believed that subject matter should be represented in terms of the child's way of viewing the world.

That curriculum should be designed so that the mastery of skills leads to the mastery of still more powerful ones.

He also advocated teaching by organizing concepts and learning by discovery.

Finally, he believed culture should shape notions through which people organize their views of themselves and others and the world in which they live.

Three Stages of Representation

Jerome Bruner identified three stages of cognitive representation.

Enactive, which is the representation of knowledge through actions.

Iconic, which is the visual summarization of images.

Symbolic representation, which is the use of words and other symbols to describe experiences.

Enactive: The enactive stage appears first. This stage involves the encoding and storage of information. There is a direct manipulation of objects without any internal representation of the objects.

Iconic: The iconic stage appears from one to six years old. This stage involves an internal representation of external objects visually in the form of a mental image or icon. For example, a child drawing an image of a tree or thinking of an image of a tree would be representative of this stage.

Symbolic: The symbolic stage, from seven years and up, is when information is stored in the form of a code or symbol such as language. Each symbol has a fixed relation to something it represents.

Bruner believed that all learning occurs through the stages we just discussed. Bruner also believed that learning should begin with direct manipulation of objects. For example, in math education, Bruner promoted the use of algebra tiles, coins, and other items that could be manipulated.

Kohlberg theory of moral development

Moral Development: Moral Development

is the through which children develop proper attitudes and behaviours toward other people in society, based on social and cultural norms, rules, and laws.

Premoral level (4 to 10 years): The child begins to make judgements about what is right or wrong, good or bad. However, the standards by which he measures the morality are those of others. He is persuaded to take such judgement either to avoid punishment or to earn rewards. Development of morality at this level usually follows the following two stages:

Stage 1: In the beginning, the child's morality is controlled by the fear of punishment. He tries to obey his parents and elders purely to avoid reproof and punishment

Stage 2: In the second stage of the premoral level, children's moral judgement is based on self-interest and considerations of what others can do for them in return. Here they value a thing because it has some practical utility for them. They obey the orders of their parents and elders and abide by some rules and regulations, because it serves their interests.

Conventional morality level (10 to 13 years): At this stage also, children's moral judgement is controlled by the likes and dislikes of others-the conventions, rules and regulations and the law and order system maintained within society. Stealing or mercy-killing would thus be judged wrong because it is considered wrong by society at large and by the legal system. In this way, the conventional level of morality may be regarded as the level where the child identifies with authority. It is characterized by the following two stages: Stage 3: In the early years of the second level of moral development, the

child's moral judgement is based on the desire to obtain approval of others and avoid being disliked by being declared a good boy or a good girl. For this y he begins to judge the intentions and likes or dislikes of others and acts accordingly.

Stage 4: In the later years of the conventional morality level, child, moral judgements are governed by conventions as well as the laws and mores of the social system. The standards of others are now to established that it becomes a conventions to follow them. The children now follow the rules and regulat of society and take decisions about things being right or wrong with a view to avoiding censure by the elders, authorities or the social system.

Self-accepted moral principles level (Age 13 or during late adulthood): Thus marks the highest level of attainment of true morality as the controlling force for making moral judgements now rests with the individual himself. He does not valse a thing or conform to an idea merely because of consideration of the views of others, conventions or the law and order system of society but because it fits into the framework of his self-accepted moral principles. This level is also characterized by two separate stages:

Stage 5: At this stage the individual's moral judgements are internalized in such a form that he responds positively to authority only if he agrees with the upon which

the demands of authority are based. The individual at this stage begins to think in rational terms, valuing the rights of human beings and the welfare of society. For example, at this stage in deference to the rights of the human being, the decision about mercy-killing may be left to the individual who is suffering, and if so needed, the concerned laws may be amended for the welfare of society at large.

Stage 6 At this stage, the controlling forces for making moral judgements are highly internalized. The decisions of the individual are now based upon his conscience and the belief in universal principles of respect, justice and equality. He does what he, as an individual thinks right regardless of legal restrictions or the opinion of others. Thus, at this stage people act according to the inner voice of their conscience and lead a life that they can without self-condemnation or feeling of guilt or shame.

Que.19) EXPLAIN IN DETAIL:

A)SOCIO COGNITIVE PERSPECTIVES OF MOTIVATION.

B) ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION.

Ans: Social cognitive theory emphasizes the learning that occurs within a social context. In this view, people are active agents who can both influence and are influenced by their environment.

- The theory was founded most prominently by Albert Bandura, who is also known for his work on observational learning, self-efficacy, and reciprocal determinism.
- One assumption of social learning is that we learn new behaviors by observing the behavior of others and the consequences of their behavior.
- If the behavior is rewarded (positive or negative reinforcement) we are likely to imitate it however if the behavior is punished imitation is less likely. For example in Bandura and Walters' experimen, the children imitated more the aggressive behavior of the model who was praised for being aggressive to the Bobo doll.
- Social cognitive theory has been used to explain a wide range of human behavior, ranging from positive to negative social behaviors such as aggression, substance abuse, and mental health problems.

Social cognitive theory views people as active agents who can both influence and are influenced by their environment.

The theory is an extension of social learning that includes the effects of cognitive processes — such as conceptions, judgment, and motivation — on an individual's behavior and on the environment that influences them.

Rather than passively absorbing knowledge from environmental inputs, social cognitive theory argues that people actively influence their learning by interpreting the outcomes of their action, which, in turn, affects their environments and personal factors, informing and altering subsequent behavior (Schunk, 2012).

By including thought processes in human psychology, Social Cognitive Theory is able to avoid the assumption made by radical behaviorism that all human behavior is learnt through trial and error. Instead, Bandura highlights the role of observational learning and imitation in human behavior

Numerous psychologists, such as Julian Rotter and the American personality psychologist Walter Mischel have proposed different social-cognitive perspectives.

Albert Bandura (1989) introduced the most prominent perspective on social cognitive theory.

Bandura's perspective has been applied to a wide range of topics, such as personality development and functioning, the understanding and treatment of psychological disorders, organizational training programs, education, health promotion strategies, advertising and marketing, and more.

ACHIEVEMENT MOTIVATION

Achievement motivation can be defined as the ability of the individual to work toward their highest performance level. The individual is driven by success, and that individual thrives off of feedback from that work. It is important to note that if a person is driven by achievement, the person is likely to take on tasks where they are not too hard, nor too easy. In situations where an individual can be led by achievement motivation, that individual fears failure. In an academic setting, one would be thought to be achievement motivated if the individual submits assignments, and thrives off getting back feedback. The individual would think of their criticism as something that propels them into bettering their standard of work. For example, Melissa works hard to submit her assignment on time, and follows standard guidelines. The professor gives her the work back, and gives her some comments to improve upon. If Melissa was motivated by achievement, she would see this as an opportunity to better herself and future assignments. David McClelland's theory of Human Motivation was proposed in the 1960s. His theory had three major components: needs for power, needs for affiliation, and needs for achievement. These three needs are not innate, but rather developed through

experiences. McClelland's theory found that in a person's life there are certain types of needs that come up. Achievement motivation theory was found in individuals who thrive off competition. Through achievement motivation a person develops high problem-solving skills. Thus, actionable goals is important to a person who is achievement motivated.

Needs of affiliation is the second of the component of McClelland's theory. This term describes a person who needs to feel involved, and a sense of community within a group. An example of this, is a person who is a people-pleaser. They would want to keep a friendly manner, and avoid conflict in their relationships. The individual, would also be encouraging, in the sense of community they would want co-workers to feel. The third component is needs of power. The person who has a need of power wants to control or influence others. Some could think of this in a career manner as a leader or manager of a company. The person of power does not care about being liked or disliked. Rather, only need others to listen to their rules and regulations, and do the work. A person who exhibits this behavior often has a high need for personal power.

Que.20 EXPLAIN CONSTRUCTIVIST THEORY OF LEARNING - PIAGET AND VIGOTSKY?

Ans: PIAGET'S CONSTRUCTIVISM

Jean Piaget (1896-1980), remembered for his extensive research on developmental psychology, explains the learning process by schemes (the organization of information on how things work), assimilation (the placing of new information into schemes), and accommodation (transforming existing schemes or creating new ones). The motivation for learning is the predisposition of the learner to adapt to his environment, hence to institute equilibrium between schemes and the environment. Continuous interactions among existing schemes, assimilation, accommodation, and equilibrium create new learning.

Piaget explores four sequential stages of the psychological development of the young learner and believes teachers should be cognizant of these stages. During the Sensory-motor Stage, (before the age of 2) sensory experiences and motor activities dominate. Intelligence is intuitive in nature and knowledge; it is acquired through mental representation during the Preoperational Stage (from age 2 to age 7). At the Concrete Operational Stage (from age 7 to age 11), intelligence is logical, conserved, and dependent on concrete references. The Formal Operational Stage (after 11 years of age) is the stage when abstract thinking starts and the learner starts thinking about probabilities, associations, and analogies.

Piaget's developmental theory of learning and constructivism are based on discovery. According to his constructivist theory, in order to provide an ideal

learning environment, children should be allowed to construct knowledge that is meaningful for them.

VYGOTSKY'S CONSTRUCTIVISM

Lev Vygotsky (1896-1934), known for his theory of social constructivism, believes that learning and development is a collaborative activity and that children are cognitively developed in the context of socialization and education. The perceptual, attention, and memory capacities of children are transformed by vital cognitive tools provided by culture, such as history, social context, traditions, language, and religion. For learning to occur, the child first makes contact with the social environment on an interpersonal level and then internalizes this experience. The earlier notions and new experiences influence the child, who then constructs new ideas. Vygotsky's (1978, p. 56) example of being able to point a finger displays how this behavior, which begins as a simple motion, becomes a meaningful movement when others react to the gesture.

Vygotsky's constructivism is known as social constructivism because of the significance of culture and social context. For Vygotsky, the zone of proximal development “. . . the distance between the actual development of a child as determined by the independent problem solving, and the level of potential development as determined through problem solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more peers (Vygotsky: 1978)” suggests that cognitive development is limited to a certain range at a particular age. However, with the help of social interaction, such as assistance from a mentor, students can comprehend concepts and schemes that they cannot know on their own. Curriculum specialists and lesson plan builders can use the zone of proximal development as a guiding reference.

Que.21 EXPLAIN BEHAVIOURIST THEORIES OF LEARNING - CLASSICAL CONDITIONING AND OPERANT CONDITIONING?

Ans:Classical Conditioning Theory

Definition: The Classical Conditioning Theory was proposed by a Russian Physiologist Ivan Pavlov. According to this theory, behaviour is learnt by a repetitive association between the response and the stimulus.

The classical conditioning theory is based on the assumption that learning is developed through the interactions with the environment. Also, the environment shapes the behaviour and internal mental state such as thoughts, feelings, emotions do not explain human behaviour.

The classical conditioning theory is based on the assumption that learning is developed through the interactions with the environment. Also, the environment

shapes the behaviour and internal mental state such as thoughts, feelings, emotions do not explain human behaviour.

Here, an organism learns to transfer response from one stimulus to a previously neutral stimulus. Classical conditioning is comprised of four elements:

- Unconditioned Stimulus (US): Which invariably causes to react in a way.
- Unconditioned Response (UR): Takes place when the US is presented.
- Conditioned Stimulus (CS): The object that does not bring about the desired response
- Conditioned Response (CR): a particular behaviour that an organism learns to produce, when the CS is presented.

Pavlov conducted an experiment on a dog and measured the amount of saliva secreted by a dog, with a use of a surgical procedure, when it is exposed to different stimuli or objects. At first, when Pavlov presented a piece of meat (US) to the dog, he noticed a great amount of salivation (UR) whereas, in the second time, when he just rang the bell, he observed there was no effect of a bell on the dog's salivation.

After this, Pavlov rang the bell accompanied with meat and noticed the salivation of a dog. He repeated this process several times, and finally, one day he just rang the bell without meat and observed that the dog still salivated to the bell alone which was originally a neutral stimulus.

Thus, he found out that the dog has become classically conditioned (CR) to the sound of the bell (CS). And every time he rings the bell the dog salivates.

Operant Conditioning

Definition: The Operant Conditioning theory states that people are likely to emit responses that are rewarded and will not emit any responses that are neither followed by any reward nor punishment. Thus, an individual tries to establish an association between a particular behaviour and consequence.

The Operant Conditioning Theory is given by B.F. Skinner, who believed that behaviour is voluntary and is determined, maintained and controlled by its consequences. According to him, one must focus on the external or observable causes of behaviour rather than the internal mental events such as motivation, thoughts, feelings, etc.

B.F. Skinner performed an experiment; wherein the Rat was placed in a glass box, called as a “skinner box.” In that box, there were two levers, one attached to the feeding tube, while the other produced the electric shock. The rat pressed the first lever attached to the tube and got the food to eat, but as soon as it pressed the other lever, it got the shock. A rat discovered from its actions, the lever which is rewarding and the one which gives a shock (negative response) and pressed only that lever which resulted in food. Thus, Skinner observed, that the rate of response, as well as the change in the response, was seen after the behaviour was performed, not before.

Often, the operant conditioning is also called as an Instrumental Conditioning, which means learning is developed through the rewards and punishments given for a particular behaviour. There are three elements that result in the development of a new behaviour; these are:

- 1, Stimulus Situation (the event or object)
- 2, Behavioral Response to the situation.
- 3, Consequence of a response.

Example: A vehicle driver applies the brakes in order to avoid the accident, thus, the possibility of an accident without the application of the brakes is a stimulus situation. The application of brakes is the behaviour and escape from the accident is the consequence of behaviour.

Thus, through this process, an organism learns to distinguish between the behaviours that are rewarding and try to engage them in those behaviours.

Prepared by MEERA.P 2022-24 Batch

**M Ed .02 Psychology of Learning and Development
2018 PART A (2 Marks)**

1. Trace the origin of Psychology?

Ans; The word Psychology comes from two specific Greek words “Psyche” which means soul, life or mind and “logia” which means the study of . So Psychology means study of mind and soul. Psychology is the scientific study of the mind and behaviour, according to American Psychological association.

2. Write a brief note on ‘Bruner’?

Ans; Bruner was an American Psychologist who made significant contributions to human cognitive Psychology and cognitive learning theory in Educational

Psychology. At the age of 2 underwent surgeries to correct vision impairment due to cataract. Attended Duke university in North where he obtained a BA in 1937. Received ph. D from Harvard in 1941. Distinguished scientific Award of the American Psychological Association

3. State any two classroom motivational techniques?

1. Attainable goal - There should be a goal to be reached in every lesson. Only then the students can endeavour to continue their efforts to a particular direction. The goal must be made clear to students.

2. Pleasure and pain - According to the oldest theory of behaviour, pleasant experiences which give satisfaction are sought after and painful experiences are avoided by an individual. This theory has direct implication in classroom teaching-learning. The teacher must provide pleasant and satisfying experiences

4. Write a note on Vygotsky?

Ans; LEV SEMYONOVICH VYGOTSKY (1896-1934) born in 1896 Byelorussia. Graduated from Moscow University. He studied literature and psychology. Worked at institute of psychology in Moscow. He wrote on language and thought, learning and development and educating students with special needs. Died of Tuberculosis at age 38, in 1934. Father of socio-cultural approach was the soviet psychologist LEV SEMYONOVICH VYGOTSKY. He proposed that interactions made by children can shape and influence both the way in which they perceive the world and their cognitive processes. He suggest

3 methods which are imitative learning, instructed learning, and collaborative learning.

5. Brief about Mnemonic devices?

Ans; Mnemonic is a Greek word meaning “aid to memory”. In this sense, a device that helps us remember information is known as mnemonic and an entire system to improve or develop memory is called mnemonics. This system usually makes use of visual imagery to provide useful associations and connections for remembering the required material. The popular mnemonic devices are –

The method of loci, The peg word method, The narrative -chaining method, Initial letter strategy, The keyword method

PART B (5marks)

6. Explain about transfer of learning?

Ans; According to Crow and Crow (1973)-The carry -over of habits of thinking, feeling or working, of knowledge or of skills, from one learning area to another usually is referred to as the transfer of training or learning. According to Sorenson (1948); Transfer refers to the transfer of knowledge, training and habits acquired in one situation to another situation.

There are 3 kinds of transfer can occur

1. Positive transfer -Transfer of learning or training is said to be positive when the learning or training carried out in one situation proves helpful to the learner in another situation

Example; The knowledge and skills related to school mathematics help in the learning of statistical computation.

2. Negative transfer -Transfer of learning or training is said to be negative when learning or training in one situation hinders, interferes or weakness the learning in another situation.

Example; Having learned to Pronounce “But” correctly, the child may find it difficult to Pronounce “Put” correctly.

3. Zero transfer – Transfer is said to be ‘zero’ when learning or training in one situation does not have any significant influence over learning or training in another situation

Example; Learning history may neither help nor hinder the learning of economics

7. Describe about maladjustment?

Ans; Maladjustment is meant the degree of disharmony between the individual and the environment. Maladjustment always results from frustration caused by the non-satisfaction of the needs. When we are unable to provide situations in the school which enable the child to satisfy his needs, maladjustment takes place. In the words of Herbert Sorenson. "A person is not in harmony with his work if it is too hard or too easy. If it is too hard or if the student has too little capacity, excessive failure is experienced, if it is too easy or if the student has too high ability for his work, the work is dull and dreading.

Symptoms of a maladjustment

1. Nervous disorders; Fears- anxiety, phobias, over sensitivity
Hysterical fits- loss of memory
2. Habit disorders; speech- stammering, speech defects
Sleep- night terrors sleep walking or talking
3. Behaviour disorders; Unmanageable- defiance, disobedience, refusal to go to school or work.
4. Organic disorders; conditions following head injuries, encephalitis or central tumours, epilepsy, chorea.
5. Psychotic behaviour; Hallucinations, delusions extreme withdrawal, violence.
6. Educational and vocational difficulties; Backwardness not accounted for by dullness.

Unusual response to school discipline.

Inability to concentrate.

8. Explain about behaviourist approach?

Ans; John B Watson is the chief exponent of behaviourism. According to him behavioural acts are to be described objectively in "terms of stimulus and response, in terms of habit formation, habit integration, and the like"

Following are the contributions of behaviourism to education

1. Behaviourist tried to reduce all human activities including thinking, feeling etc. to level of observable behaviours.
2. Behaviourist studies an individual by looking at his behaviour rather than his internal workings.

3. 'Stimulus response connection' was the key term
4. Overt behaviour is the only thing we can observe
5. It has contributed to the understanding of the emotions of the child
6. It emphasises the importance environment and its impact on human growth
7. It has led to the development of new approaches, methods and techniques of dealing with maladjustment in children.
8. It has greatly contributed to the psychology of learning.
9. It has indicated the importance of motivation.
10. It points out that all behaviour is learnt in the process of interaction with environment.

9. Write a detailed note on adolescent problems?

Ans; A.T. Jersild observes "Adolescence is that span of years during which boys and girls move from childhood to adulthood, mentally, emotionally, socially and physically"

- It is the period from the onset of puberty to the age of maturity. It is a period of rapid physical and biological changes which may lead to confusion tensions frustrations and feelings of insecurity.
- Adolescence is known as the period transition because during this period an individual is neither a child nor an adult. He has passed through childhood and is yet to become an adult

Problems of adolescence;

- 1 Depression
- 2 Bullying
- 3 Sexual activity
- 4 Drug use
- 5 Alcohol use
- 6 Ignorance of elders
- 7 Misleading and misguiding parents, teachers, friends, brother/sisters
- 8 Abnormal growth of genitals and breasts
- 9 Skin problems
- 10 Facial deformities, pimples, etc

10. Explain about achievement motivation?

Ans; The need to achieve is the spring-board of the achievement motive. This desire is as basic and natural as the other biological or socio- Psychological needs.

According to Atkinson and Feather (1966); The achievement motive is conceived as a latest disposition which is manifested in overt striving only when the individual perceives performance as instrumental to a sense of personal accomplishment.

- According to this human behaviour is not intended to reduce tension and reach a state of physiological and psychological equilibrium.
- It is the desire to do better to achieve unique accomplishment to compare with standards of excellence and to involve oneself with long term achievement goals
- Student who have high achievement motivation work hard and perform well on tasks.
- The home, school and society play an important role in the development of achievement motive.
- The teacher should develop habits of self- study among students.

11. Describe about factors affecting learning?

Ans; Learning is affected by the total situation. This total situation is dependent upon a number of factors. Some are external while others are internal. Among the external factors to the classroom situation, we may mention two important factors of heredity and the status of the home. Some children are very rich in hereditary endowment while others are very poor. The native intelligence is different in individuals.

Physical conditions and home conditions also matter. Bodily weakness, chronic illness, malnutrition, fatigue and bad health are a great hindrance in learning. The home conditions- bad ventilation, unhygienic living, bad light, overcrowding, etc, affect the rate of learning.

Internal classroom factors affecting learning are; 1. Goals or purposes

2. Motivation 3. Interest 4. Attention 5. Drill or practice 6. Boredom or Fatigue

7. Aptitude 8. Attitude 9. Emotional factors- instincts 10. Speed, Accuracy and Retention 11. Age 12. Learning activities provided by teacher 13. Testing

14. Guidance

12. Explain about Neural organisation?

Ans; Neurons are described as “the mysterious butterflies of the soul” by famous neuroanatomist- Ramon Y Cajal.

Parts of neurons are-Dendrites, cell body, cell membrane, nucleus, axon, axon hillock, node of Ranvier, Schwann cell, myelin sheath, axon terminal

The brain has three main parts; the cerebrum, cerebellum and brainstem

- Cerebrum; is the largest part of the brain and is composed of right and left hemispheres. It performs higher functions like interpreting touch, vision and hearing, as well as speech, reasoning, emotions, learning, and fine control of movement.
- Cerebellum; is located under the cerebrum. Its function is to coordinate muscle movements, maintain posture, and balance
- Brainstem; acts as a relay centre connecting the cerebrum and cerebellum to the spinal cord. It performs many automatic functions such as: breathing, heart rate, body temperature, wake and sleep cycles, digestion, sneezing, coughing and vomiting.

In nervous system there are two types: Central nervous system, Peripheral nervous system.

13. What is life skill education? Explain.

Ans; The term life skill refers to the skills will need to make the most out of life. Life skills are associated with managing and living a better quality of life. Life skills are psychological competencies which enable and individual to develop or adapt positive behaviour so as to deal effectively with challenges and demands of every day life. Ten core life skills laid down by WHO.

They are;

1. Self awareness
2. Empathy
3. Critical thinking
4. Creative thinking
5. Decision making
6. Problem solving
7. Effective communication
8. Interpersonal relationship
9. Coping with stress
10. Coping with emotions

14. Explain about psychodynamic approach?

Ans; * Sigmund Freud (1856-1939), the father of this movement.

- Ideas like unconscious and subconscious mind and the concept of repression
- Advocated the role of sex instinct and death instinct.
- Anna Freud, Harry Sullivan, Eric Erickson etc. were known as neo Freudians
- Behaviour stems from the unconscious mind
- Manifestation – dreams, slips of speech or mannerism
- It is a method of therapeutic not based on experimental studies
- Influence on psychological thinking
- Basic assumption is that much of man's behaviour is determined by innate instincts that largely unconscious
- Unconscious impulses find expression in dreams, slips of speech, mannerism and symptoms of neurotic illness
- Unconscious processes are thoughts, fears, and wishes of which the person is unaware but which influence our behaviour
- Most psychologist do not completely accept the concept of unconscious
- Freud's view of human nature was essentially negative.

Merits of this approach

1. It helps in the treatment of disorder
2. It appeals to the teachers to be positive
3. Brought out the need for early childhood education
4. Throws light on the causes of maladjustment and abnormality
5. It helps in the removal of bad habit and training in natural instinct

15. Discuss Piaget's theory of cognitive development?

Ans; According to Piaget, cognitive development takes place as the result of continuous interaction between the organism and the environment. He defined cognitive development in to 4 stages based upon the nature of interaction.

1. Sensory motor stage
2. Pre operational stage
3. Concrete operational stage
4. Formal operational stage

Sensory motor stage (0-2 years)

- Infants only aware of what immediately in front of them
- Don't know how things react

- So constantly experimenting with activities and learn through trial and error
- In this period, intelligence is demonstrated through motor activity without the use of symbols
- Infant begin to realize that an object exists even it can no longer be seen (between 7 and 9 months); object permanence
- By the end of stage, symbolic abilities are developed

Pre-operational stage (2-7 years)

- Memory and imagination are developed
- Ego centric
- Irreversibility
- Language use matures
- Thinking is done in nonlogically

Concrete operational stage (7-12 years)

*Demonstrate logical and concrete reasoning

* Become less ego centric

*Ability of reversibility develops and it promotes logical thinking

*Abstract thinking is not possible

*Operations are possible only when concrete objects or experiences are available

*Thinking become less egocentric. Increasingly aware of external events

*Realize that once own thoughts and feelings are unique and may not shared by others

Formal operational stage (12-adult hood)

- Able to logically use symbols related to abstract concept like algebra and science.
- Hypothetic -deductive reasoning.
- Ability to transfer knowledge.
- No longer need concentrate object or experience for thinking.
- Capable for reasoning.
- Solves problems on the basis of action.
- They can ponder (think about) abstract relationship and concepts just and justice.

16. What is Humanistic Perspective of Motivation?

Ans; The Humanistic Theory of Motivational theory that addresses the meaning of behaviour, and the nature of healthy human development. Abraham Maslow, an American Psychologist, desired to know what motivated humans. He suggested that humans were driven to fulfill certain needs. When a single need is fulfilled humans seek to satisfy the next need, and so forth (Maslow,1943). He developed a five stage model that encompassed basic, physiological, safety, love, and esteem and self-actualization needs.

- Hierarchy of Needs Summary
 - (a) Human beings are motivated by a hierarchy of needs
 - (b) Needs are organised in a hierarchy of prepotency in which more Basic needs must be more or less met (rather than all or none) prior to Higher needs.
 - (c) The order of needs is not rigid but instead may be flexible based on external circumstances or individual differences.
 - (d) Most behaviour is multi-motivated , thar is, simultaneously determined by more than one basic need.

17. Describe operant conditioning?

Ans; It is formulated by an American psychologist Skinner. Skinner conducted experiments on rats and pigeons. It is called Skinnerian or type-2 learning(operant). Response is more spontaneous and voluntary in operant conditioning. The reward is contingent upon the occurrence of response.

Operant conditioning serves mainly to stress or guide the learner that already has certain responses available. The law of effect is the basis of association between stimulus-response(S-R). Central nervous system in the organism is the controlling authority. There is the pairing of a response and the reinforcing stimulus which follows. There is no pairing of unconditioned stimulus and conditioned stimulus. Tendency to respond in a specific manner is developed. Reinforcement comes after the response is made by the organism. Close contiguity is followed and response stimulus chain is formed. Operant conditioning is concerned with the sequences of responses. A chain of responses is formed leading to the desired goal. Stimulus is presented only if the organism makes the desired response. The operant conditioning deals with differentiation and discrimination of a sequences out of a mass behaviour emitted in response to complex stimulus field

Part C (15marks)

18.Explain about experiential learning?

Ans; The theory of experiential learning has been propounded by Carl Ransom Rogers, an American psychologist. It has its origin in his views about psychotherapy and humanistic approach to psychology. The experiential learning, is quite vital to one's progress and welfare. This learning is learner-centred. That is, it cares for the needs, and wants of the learner. Carl Rogers has tried to enumerate qualities of this learning in the following

1. Experiential learning is characterised by personal involvement of the learner.
2. It is self-initiated. The learner willingly takes initiative to engage in such type of learning.
3. It is characterised by self-evaluation. The learner himself is interested in evaluating the results and outcomes of such learning by applying it to the realization of learning objectives.
4. It leaves a pervasive effect on a learner. Whatever is learned through this method can be made into use when and where he needs.

Rogers, as a humanist, believes in the strength and potentialities of human beings. According to him, all human beings have a natural inclination for learning and desire to grow progress. The role of teacher and the parents is thus to help their children in their inherent desire for personal change growth. The attempts of the teachers and the parents in realising the objectives of experiential learning may, include the following provisions.

1. Arranging a favourable and positive climate for learning.
2. Helping the learner or learners to have clear out objectives and purpose of his/her learning
3. Organising the learning resources and making them available to the learners.
4. Balancing intellectual and emotional components of learning
5. Sharing feelings and thoughts with learners in a democratic way

Thus, the primary responsibility of a teacher lies well in his sincerity as a helper, a guide and a facilitator in the ongoing teaching-learning process.

He is not there to provide mere information or demonstrate his skills in any area of information or fact-finding. Through many tools and materials and his own characteristic ways, a teacher, while following the doctrine of experiential learning, has to play the role of a learning facilitator. For realising this objective, as Rogers points out, a learner must at least take care

of the basic conditions that facilitate learning. According to him, learning is well facilitated when;

1. Threat to the self of the learner is minimum
2. Learning resources and climate are in favour of the learner
3. The learner participates completely in the learning process and has control over its nature direction
4. It is primarily based on direct confrontation with practical, social, personal or research areas.
5. Self- evaluation is the principal method of assessing progress or success
6. The learner realizes the importance of learning and develops an openness as well as willingness to learn

Here the learner is the key figure in the ongoing teaching -learning process.

The role of a teacher is to facilitate such learning. The primary responsibility of learning and change in the behaviour of the learner for his personal and social development lies with him. If we can make him see the profit or gain of the learning task, we can very well realize the objectives of learning.

According to Rogers learning must be linked with the motives, goals and ideals of the learner.

Carl Rogers, through this theory of experiential learning, advocates a humanistic and learner-centred approach to be adopted in class rooms by the teachers, with the sole purposes of making the learning process more humane and suitable to the needs and interest of the learners, and turning it into more significant and purposeful event from the angles of their personal and social growth and development.

19. Describe Kohlberg's stages of moral development?

Ans; Lawrence Kohlberg, a psychologist belonging to the University of Harvard. He has based his theory of moral development on the findings of his studies conducted on hundreds of children from different cultures. According to him as soon as we talk with children about morality, we find that they have many ways of making judgements which are not internalized from the outside, and which do not come in any direct and obvious way from parents, teachers and even peers. (Kohlberg 1968)

Kohlberg's six stages of moral development

Premoral level (4 to 10 years); The child begins to make judgements about what is right or wrong, good or bad. However, the standards by which he measures the morality are those of others. He is persuaded to take such judgement either to avoid punishment or to earn rewards. Development of morality at this level usually follows the following two stages

Stage 1; In the beginning, the child's morality is controlled by the fear of punishment. He tries to obey his parents and elders purely to avoid reproof and punishment.

Stage 2; In the second stage of the premoral level, children's moral judgement is based on self-interest and considerations of what others can do for them in return. Here they value a thing because it has some practical utility for them.

They obey the orders of their parents and elders and abide by some rules and regulations, because it serves their interests.

Conventional morality level (10-13 years). At this stage also, children's moral judgement is controlled by the likes and dislikes of others- the conventions, rules and regulations and law and order system maintained within society.

Stealing or mercy-killing would thus be judged wrong because it is considered wrong by society at large and by the legal system. In this way, the conventional level of morality may be regarded as the level where the child identifies with authority. It is characterised by the following two stages;

Stage 3; In the early years of the second level of moral development, the child's moral judgement is based on the desire to obtain approval of others and avoid being declared a good boy or a good girl.

Stage 4; In the later years of the conventional morality level, children's moral judgements are governed by conventions as well as the laws and mores of the social system. The standards of others are now so established that it becomes a convention to follow them. The children now follow the rules and regulations of society and take decisions about things being right or wrong with a view to avoiding censure by the elders, authorities or the social system.

Self-accepted moral principles level (Age 13 or during late adulthood)- This marks the highest level of attainment of true morality as the controlling force for making moral judgements now rests with the individual himself. He does not value a thing or conform to an idea merely because of consideration of the views of others, conventions or the law and order system of society but because it fits into the framework of his self-accepted moral principles.

Stage 5; At this stage the individual's moral judgements are internalized in such a form that he responds positively to authority only if he agrees with the

principles upon which the demands of authority are based. The individual at this stage begins to think in rational terms, valuing the rights of human beings and the welfare of society.

Stage 6; At this stage, the controlling forces for making moral judgements are highly internalized. The decisions of the individual are now based upon his conscience and the belief in universal principles of respect, justice and equality.

He does what he, as an individual thinks right regardless of legal restrictions or the opinion of others. Thus, at this stage people act according to the inner voice of their conscience and lead a life that they can without self-condemnation or feeling of guilt or shame.

20. Explain about relevance of educational psychology in teaching and learning?

Ans; Educational psychology is that branch of psychology which deals with teaching and learning; Skinner (1958)

Educational psychology describes and explains the learning experiences of an individual from birth through old age; Crow and Crow (1973)

Educational psychology is the science of education; Peel (1956)

1. Catering to individual difference- The knowledge of educational psychology helps the teacher to cater to individual differences of children

2. Understanding the learner- Acquisition of knowledge is also a sort of modification in the behaviour of the child. For this purpose, the educator will have to consider the mental processes of the child and not only the quality of knowledge which he is going to put into the living mind.

3, Understanding developmental characteristics- The teacher must be acquainted with the characteristics in imparting instruction and moulding the behaviours of the learners

4. Understanding group dynamics- The teacher must know the operations of group dynamics in classroom teaching-learning as well as total school and social environment and their effect on learning

5. Understanding the nature of classroom learning- The knowledge of educational psychology helps the teacher to adapt and adjust his teaching according to the level of learners

6. Understanding effective methods of teaching- Educational psychology tells us how significant play and recreation are for the children and how play-way methods turn learning into an interesting task.
7. Curriculum construction-psychological principles are used in formulating curriculum for different stages. Attempts are made to provide subjects and activities in the curriculum which are in conformity to the needs of the students
8. Measurement of learning outcomes-The teacher can know that children with I.Q below 90 cannot do well in medical, engineering administrative or other similar vocations. He can easily explore some other fields where such children can also flourish.
9. Understanding the learning process- Educational psychology discusses the nature of learning theories and types of learning for different age levels and situations.
10. Knowledge of mental health- A study of educational psychology helps the teacher to know the various factors which are responsible for the mental ill-health and mal-adjustment.
11. Character development- Educational psychology helps a lot to the formation and development of character.
12. Time table framing-Psychological principles are kept in view in framing the time table
13. Use of innovation and projects-For the improvement of the teaching learning, several innovative ideas are being introduced. Some of the important innovations are microteaching, programmed instruction, non-graded school at the elementary stage and team teaching

21. Discuss about education for mental health?

Ans; Mental health is the full and harmonious functioning of the wholesome personality J.A Hadfield (1953)

It is the ability which help to seek adjustment in the difficult situations of our life- Cutts and Maslay (1941)

WHO defines, Mental health is defined as a state of well-being in which every individual realizes his or her own potential, can cope with the normal stresses of life, can work productively and fruitfully, and is able to make a contribution to her or his community.

*Characteristics of mentally healthy person

1. knows his strength and weaknesses
2. sense of happiness and well being
3. capable to deal with stresses of life
4. The feeling of self realization
5. Ability to strike balance in different aspects of life
6. Intellectual development
7. Social adjustability Symptoms

of poor mental health

- Emotionally unstable and upset
- Suspicious and insecure
- Feeling of guilt
- Less self confidence
- Frustration, conflicts, strain and stress
- Less tolerance and short tempered
- Lack of decision making capacity
- Unrealistic attitudes towards life
- Suffers mental disturbances
- Live in his own world of imagination and fantasy
- Always dissatisfied

Importance of mental health of teachers and students

- Help in seeking goals of life
- Help to lead a life with satisfaction
- Help in preventing mental illness
- Help in actualizing one's potentialities
- Help in proper emotional development
- Help in developing desirable personalities

Causes of mental ill health of teachers and students

*Stress and strain

*Lack of social skills

*Lack support from parents and teachers

*Lack of healthy diet

*Lack of health exercises

Role of the teacher to improve mental health

- Give students a stress free learning environment
- Ensure emotional security
- Treat them psychologically
- Encourage prayer
- Meditation
- Aware them about healthy fats
- Give opportunity to indulge in mind games
- Give chance to spend more time with nature
- Give options for exercise students body well
- Focus student on learning new things

SEMESTER M.Ed. DEGREE EXAMINATION, NOVEMBER 2019

1. what is this scope of educational psychology?

Ans.Education by all means is an attempt to mould and shape the behaviour of the pupil. It aims to produce desirable changes in him for the all-round development of his personality. The scope of educational psychology is ever-growing due to constantly researches in this field.

2.what are the principles of developmental psychology?

Ans:There are three principles of growth and development: the cephalocaudal principle, the proximodistal principle, and the orthogenetic principle. These predictable patterns of growth and development allow us to predict how and when most children will develop certain characteristics.

3. Identify classroom motivational techniques for learning.?

Ans: Give verbal praise for successful progress or accomplishment. Give personal attention to students. Provide informative, helpful feedback when it is immediately useful. Provide motivating feedback (praise) immediately following task performance.

4: outline the types of memory?

Ans:

- 1) Sensory memory or immediate memory
- 2) Short a memory
- 3) Long term memory
- 4)Episodic and semantic memory
- 5) Photographic memory
- 6) Paranormal memory

5.give a note on transfer of learning?

Ans:

Transfer refers to the transfer of knowledge,training and habits acquired In one situation to another situation.

The analysis of both these definitions may lead us to conclude that the term transfer of learning' stands for a special mechanism or process in which a person's learning in one situation is carried over or transferred to other situations.

Part B

6. Discuss the relevance of educational psychology in teaching and learning.?

Educational Psychology helps teacher to know that how learning takes place. It enables a teacher that how learning process should be initiated, how to motivate, how to memorize or learn. It helps teachers to guide the students in right direction in order to canalized student's abilities in right direction. Educational psychology has contributed considerably to the creation of the modern system of education.

-To Know the Learner:Educational psychology helps the teacher to know his interests, attitudes, aptitudes and the other acquired or innate capacities and abilities; to know the stage of development linked with his social, emotional, intellectual, physical and aesthetic needs

-To understand the Stages of Development Psychology has clearly shown that human life passes through different stages of development before it reaches adulthood.

-To Understand the Nature of Classroom Learning: Educational Psychology helps the teacher to adapt and adjust his teaching according to the level of the learners

-To Understand the Individual Differences: No two persons are exactly alike. Pupils differ in their level of intelligence, aptitudes, likes and dislikes and in other propensities and potentialities

-To Understand Effective Methods of Teaching: Educational Psychology has discovered several new approaches, principles.

-To Understand the Mental Health of the Child: Educational Psychology helps the teacher to know what are the factors responsible for the mental ill-health and maladjustment of a student and to suggest improvement thereof.

-Educational Psychology Helps in Professional Growth, Changing Attitude and Innovative Thinking: Inside the classroom, educational psychology has enabled the teacher to achieve proper conditioning of pupils by achieving and directing classroom programmes on human lives.

In learning:

Educational psychology is valuable in many areas. However, let us study its relevance in detail when it comes specifically to learning:

- Development of the learner: The educational psychologist tries to understand the learner's inner traits, life experiences from childhood to the present, and their behavior in different situations.

- Development of learning processes: Educational psychologists play an important role in developing new learning processes.
- Personality development: Educational psychology can shape a child's personality development from a very early age.

- Developing a changing curriculum: Educational psychology also assists in reimagining the school curriculum and deciding how instructions can be imparted to students for maximum benefit.

- Redesigning teaching for special needs: Educational psychology also helps in designing new teaching methods catering to individuals with special needs.

7. Give a detailed account on psychodynamic approach to study human behaviour.?

Ans:

PSYCHO DYNAMIC AS A THERAPY

Establishing Rapport

Attempts are made to establish a reciprocal emotional bond of mutual trust and Faith between the analysed and the patient. Freud name this type of rapid as transference. when it is established the patient begins to identify himself completely with the analysed by respecting and having full faith in him Analysis This step is mean to find out the causes of the patient problem according to the Freud the behavioural problem or mental illness is the result of repressive wishes and Desires dumped into the unconscious. For treatment this unconscious need to be Explored Freud suggest techniques like free Association, dream analysis and analysis of daily psychopathology for this exploration.

Free association

In this technique the affected individual is made to lie on a soft couch and say anything that comes into his or her mind no matter how trivial or ridiculous it may seem.

Dream Analysis

According to Freud the dream is essentially a disguised satisfaction of desires that have been repressed during the waking life. These repressed desires or experiences are released symbolically in dreams. The analysis of these dreams can reveal the unconscious mind and lead to the root of the abnormalities.

ANALYSIS OF DAILY PSYCHOPATHOLOGY

The repressed desire or experiences lying in the unconscious can also be revealed through day-to-day psycho Pathology in terms of slips of the tongue and slip of the pen forgotten names and forgotten appointment lost gift and misled possessions

BREAKING THE RAPPORT

Finally the rapport of the temporary emotional bond format during the course of the treatment is broken to enable the patient to face the realities of life without the support of the analyst

Psycho analysis :-

Causes of mental illness early childhood experiences,

Specifically trauma and anxiety

Anxieties are dealt with defence mechanisms

Mental illness was a result of an imbalance between the id, ego, and superego

Stems from childhood

Id:-

First part of the personality to develop

Libido

Pleasure principle

Ego:-

The executive more conscious part of the personality

Reality principle

Motivational force that tries to have needs meet in a realistic way

Super ego:

Moral values

School of Psycho analysis

Human mind has three parts conscious subconscious and unconscious conscious relativity phenomena we are aware of at any given moment subconscious relates to those experience of the individual is not fully aware but can be recall easily and unconscious related to those phenomena of which we are unaware and usually in accessible to the conscious

the conscious liar constitute the large part of mental life which contains all the Repression wishes, desires, feelings, drives motives etc.

Human behaviour is greatly influenced by force operated in the unconscious layer exploration of unconscious mind is required for any meaningful study of behaviour.

Id (instinctive desired), Ego (reason based on real experience) and Super Ego (moral inhibition)Are the three aspects of our complete self or personality super go, Id are continual conflict, which the Ego tries to resolve a successful resolution of the conflict need to normal personality. While a failure leads to abnormal personality development.

4. Human behaviour and personality while adapting to real physical and social world radically alter but the core of personality reminds what was laid down in childhood.

8.explain Eriksson's theory of psychosocial development?

Ans:

Erikson maintained that personality develops in a predetermined order through eight stages of

psychosocial development, from infancy to adulthood. During each stage, the person experiences a psychosocial crisis which could have a positive or negative outcome for personality development. According to the theory, successful completion of each stage results in a healthy personality and the acquisition of basic virtues. Basic virtues are characteristic strengths which the ego can use to resolve subsequent crises. Failure to successfully complete a stage can result in a reduced ability to complete further stages and therefore an unhealthier personality and sense of self.

1. Trust vs. Mistrust

Trust vs. mistrust is the first stage in Erik Erikson's theory of psychosocial development. This stage begins at birth and continues to approximately 18 months of age. During this stage, the infant is uncertain about the world in which they live, and looks towards their primary caregiver for stability and consistency of care.

If the care the infant receives is consistent, predictable and reliable, they will develop a sense of trust which will carry with them to other relationships, and they will be able to feel secure even when threatened. If these needs are not consistently met, mistrust, suspicion, and anxiety may develop. If the care has been inconsistent, unpredictable and unreliable, then the infant may develop a sense of mistrust, suspicion, and anxiety. In this situation the infant will not have confidence in the world around them or in their abilities to influence events.

2. Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt

Autonomy versus shame and doubt is the second stage of Erik Erikson's stages of psychosocial development. This stage occurs between the ages of 18 months to approximately 3 years.

According to Erikson, children at this stage are focused on developing a sense of personal control over physical skills and a sense of independence.

If children in this stage are encouraged and supported in their increased independence, they become more confident and secure in their own ability to survive in the world. If children are criticized, overly controlled, or not given the opportunity to assert themselves, they begin to feel inadequate in their ability to survive, and may then become overly dependent upon others, lack self-esteem and feel a sense of shame or doubt in their abilities.

3. Initiative vs. Guilt

Initiative versus guilt is the third stage of Erik Erikson's theory of psychosocial development.

During the initiative versus guilt stage, children assert themselves more frequently through directing play and other social interaction.

These are particularly lively, rapid-developing years in a child's life. During this period the primary feature involves the child regularly interacting with other children at school. Children explore their interpersonal skills through initiating activities. They begin to plan activities, make up games, and initiate activities with others. If given this opportunity, children develop a sense of initiative and feel secure in their ability to lead others and make decisions.

4. Industry vs. Inferiority

Erikson's fourth psychosocial crisis, involving industry (competence) vs. Inferiority occurs during childhood between the ages of five and twelve. Children are at the stage where they will be learning to read and write, to do sums, to do

things on their own. Teachers begin to take an important role in the child's life as they teach the child specific skills.

The child now feels the need to win approval by demonstrating specific competencies that are valued by society and begin to develop a sense of pride in their accomplishments.

If children are encouraged and reinforced for their initiative, they begin to feel industrious (competent) and feel confident in their ability to achieve goals. If this initiative is not encouraged, if it is restricted by parents or teacher, then the child begins to feel inferior, doubting his own abilities and therefore may not reach his or her potential.

5. Identity vs. Role Confusion

The fifth stage of Erik Erikson's theory of psychosocial development is identity vs. role confusion, and it occurs during adolescence, from about 12-18 years. During this stage, adolescents search for a sense of self and personal identity, During adolescence, the transition from childhood to adulthood is most important. Children are becoming more independent, and begin to look at the future in terms of career, relationships, families, housing, etc. The individual wants to belong to a society and fit in.

This is a major stage of development where the child has to learn the roles he will occupy as an adult. It is during this stage that the adolescent will re-examine his identity and try to find out exactly who he or she is.

6. Intimacy vs. Isolation

Intimacy versus isolation is the sixth stage of Erik Erikson's theory of psychosocial development. This stage takes place during young adulthood between the ages of approximately 18 to 40 yrs. During this stage, the major conflict centres on forming intimate, loving relationships with other people.

During this stage, we begin to share ourselves more intimately with others. We explore relationships leading toward longer-term commitments with someone other than a family member. Successful completion of this stage can result in happy relationships and a sense of commitment, safety, and care within a relationship. Avoiding intimacy, fearing commitment and relationships can lead to isolation, loneliness, and sometimes depression.

7. Generativity vs. Stagnation

Generativity versus stagnation is the seventh of eight stages of Erik Erikson's theory of psychosocial development. This stage takes place during during middle adulthood (ages 40 to 65 years).

We give back to society through raising our children, being productive at work, and becoming involved in community activities and organizations. Through generativity we develop a sense of being a part of the bigger picture. Success leads to feelings of usefulness and accomplishment, while failure results in

shallow involvement in the world. By failing to find a way to contribute, we become stagnant and feel unproductive. These individuals may feel disconnected or uninvolved with their community and with society as a whole.

8. Ego Integrity vs. Despair

Ego integrity versus despair is the eighth and final stage of Erik Erikson's stage theory of psychosocial development. This stage begins at approximately age 65 and ends at death. It is during this time that we contemplate our accomplishments and can develop integrity if we see ourselves as leading a successful life.

Individuals who reflect on their life and regret not achieving their goals will experience feelings of bitterness and despair. As we grow older (65+ years) and become senior citizens, we tend to slow down our productivity and explore life as a retired person. Erik Erikson believed if we see our lives as unproductive, feel guilty about our past, or feel that we did not accomplish our life goals, we become dissatisfied with life and develop despair, often leading to depression and hopelessness. Late life is characterized by both integrity and despair as alternating states that need to be balanced.

9. Write about the stages and aspects of development.?

Ans: . Human life proceeds

through different stages. For example, you are at present in the stage of adolescence and after a few years you will enter the stage of Adulthood. Developmental stages are assumed to be temporary and are often characterised by a dominant feature or a leading characteristic, which gives each period its uniqueness. During a particular stage, individual progresses towards an assumed goal – a state or ability that s/he must achieve in the same order as other persons before progressing to the next stage in the sequence. Of course, individuals do vary with respect to the time or rate of development from one stage to another. These accomplishments of a person become the social expectations of that stage of development.

INFANCY

Physical Development: The brain develops at an amazing rate before and after birth. Just before birth

The new-borns have most but not all brain cells. The neural connections among these cells develop at a rapid rate.

CHILDHOOD

The child's growth slows down during early Childhood as compared to infancy. The child develops physically, gains height and weight, learns to walk, runs, jumps, and plays with a ball. Socially, the child's world expands from the parents to the family and adults near homeland at school. The child

also begins to acquire the concepts of good and bad, i.e. develops sense of morality. During childhood, children have increased physical capacities, can perform tasks independently, can set goals, and meet adult expectation.

ÀDOLESCENCE

The term adolescence derives from the Latin word *adolescere*, meaning “to grow into maturity”. It is the transitional period in a person’s life between childhood and adulthood. Adolescence is commonly defined as the stage of life that begins at the onset of puberty, when sexual maturity, or the ability to reproduce is attained. It has been regarded as a period of rapid change, both biologically and psychologically. Though the physical changes that take place during this stage are universal. The social and psychological dimensions of the adolescent’s experiences depend on the cultural context.

Adulthood

An adult is generally defined as someone who is responsible, mature, self-supporting, and wellintegrated into society. There is a variation in developing these attributes, which suggests that there is a shift in timing when an individual becomes an adult or assumes adult roles.

Old Age

Just when "old age" begins, is not easy to determine. Traditionally, the age of retirement was linked to old age. Now that people are living longer, age of retiring from work is changing, and the cut-off point for the definition of "old age" is moving upward of the challenges, which the aged have to cope with include retirement, widowhood, illness or death in the family.

10 What is humanistic perspective of motivation?

Ans:

Abraham Maslow (1908-1970) devised a useful though controversial hierarchy of needs required to satisfy human potential. These needs proceed from low-level physiological needs such as hunger, thirst, sex, and comfort, through such other needs as safety, love, and esteem, finally reaching the highest level, self-actualization. According to Maslow, human beings progress sequentially through this hierarchy as they develop. Each category of needs proceeds from the preceding category, and no category is omitted as the human develops, although the final and highest category, self-actualization, which includes curiosity, creative living, and fulfilling work, is not necessarily attained or attainable by all humans.

The humanists stipulate that people's primary motives are those that lead toward self-actualization, those that capitalize on the unique potential of each individual. In educational terms, this means that for education to be effective, it must emphasize exploration and discovery over memorization and the rote learning of a set body of material. It must also be highly individualized, although this does not imply a one-on-one relationship between students and their teachers. Rather than acting as fonts of knowledge, teachers become facilitators of learning, directing their students individually to achieve the actualization of the personal goals that best suit them.

Carl Rogers (1902-1987) traced much psychopathology to conflicts between people's inherent understanding of what they require to move toward self-actualization and society's expectations, which may run counter to individual needs. In other words, as many people develop and pass through the educational system, they may be encouraged or required to adopt goals that are opposed to those that are most realistic for them. Humanistic views of human development run counter to the views of most of the psychodynamic and behaviorist psychologists concerned with learning theory and motivation as it relates to such theory.

11: sketch out the types of memory and explain it?

Ans1) Sensory or immediate memory

- Sensory or immediate memory is the memory that helps an individual to recall something immediately after it is perceived
- In this type of memory, the retention time is extremely brief generally from a fraction of a second to several seconds
- Old sensory impressions disappear as they are 'erased' by new information
- For example : When we enter an auditorium, we can see the seat number given in our ticket. Having occupied the seat, we forget the seat number.

We took up a telephone number from the directory and remember it. But after making the telephone call, we usually forgot it.

In all cases of this nature, immediate memory is needed which helps us to learn a thing immediately with speed and accuracy, remember it for a short duration and forget it rapidly after use.

2) Short- term memory

- Temporary memory, though not nearly as short –lived as

immediate memory. In order to further distinguish it from short –term memory the following factors should also be taken into account:

- Where the retention time is less than one second in immediate memory, the information temporarily stored in short-term memory may last as long as 30 seconds even if the material is not being rehearsed.
- Whereas the sensory images in immediate memory decay regardless of the learner’s actions, rehearsal by the learner can keep material in short –term memory indefinitely.
- The span of immediate memory exceeds the short- term memory span.

3) Long-term memory

- Long term memory has a seemingly limitless capacity to store information with little or no decay and requires little, if any rehearsal.
- Long-term memory codes information according to meaning, pattern and other characteristics.
- It is this memory that helps us to remember a number of things on a relatively permanent basis

4) Episodic and semantic memory

- Episodic memory is connected with episodes and events.
- It may consist of personal events and experiences associated with one’s life.
- What even has happened during one’s life is stored in shape of episodic memory traces organized according to the time, space and other characteristics of events.

5) Photographic Memory

- According to Haber (1979), the term ‘photographic memory’ stands for a kind of memory possessed by an individual who can remember a scene in photographic detail.

6) Paranormal memory

- Distinctive and unusual type of memory, popularly known as ‘reincarnation’
- Has emerged as a result of researches and findings in the field of Para-Psychology
- It consists of the unusual memory traces concerning one’s previous life or lives that can be partly .

12. Discuss Hebb’s Neurophysiological theory of learning?

Ans:

Human behaviour results as the electrical and chemical activities taking place in the brain and central nervous system. Hebb's theory explains the neurobiological approach of learning. [Organization of behaviour (book 1949)].

In this attempt he explain the synaptic plasticity (It is the ability of synapse to strengthen or weaken over time, in response to increases or decreases in their activity) the adaptation of brain and nervous system during learning process. Sustainable Thought pattern for a long time or doing something again and again neurons become tends to strengthen that learning pattern into a learnt behaviour called habit. Simultaneous activation of nearby neurons leads to increase the strength of synaptic connection (eg: driving a car).

process takes place by the help of a group of neurons and are called cell assembly (eg: seeing a car and seeing only and engine of a car the number of neurons in the cell assembly varies).

Hebbian learning depends on the interaction between the pre synaptic and post synaptic neuron.

- Pre synaptic cell – A neuron that fires the neurotransmitter as a result of an action potential entering its axon. (signal passing neuron).
- Post-synaptic cell - A neuron that receives the neurotransmitter after it has crossed the synapse and may be experience an action potential if the neurotransmitter is strong enough (target cell).
- Synapse - In the nervous system a synapse is a structure that permits a neuron to pass an electrical or chemical signal to another neuron or to the target effector cell.
- Synaptic plasticity : It is the ability of synapses to strengthen or weaken over time, in response to increases or decreases in their activity.

Hebb's rule states that if a synapse between two neurons is repeatedly activated at about the same time the post synaptic neurons fires, the structure or the chemistry of neuron changes and the synapse will be strengthened this is known as Hebbian learn.

13. predict the procedure to enhance memory?

Ans: 1) Recitation Method:

- One learner first reads the matter once or twice and then tries to recite and recall it without looking at the material.
- The recitation method thus provides continuous self-appraisal.

2) Whole and Part Method

- There are two methods of memorizing a thing, say a poem.
- One is to read the poem again and again from the beginning till the end as a whole – this is called whole method of memorization.

3 Spaced and Unspaced Methods (Distributed and Massed Practice)

- In the spaced or distributed practice method of memorization, the subject is not required to memorize the assigned material in one sitting.
- Each time after memorizing the material for some time, a period of rest is provided and this principle of ‘work and rest’ is followed throughout.
- Unspaced or massed practice method of memorization the subject has to memorize the assigned material at one sitting without any interval or rest until it is mastered.

14. Explain types of transfer of learning in Education.?

Ans

Positive transfer. Transfer of learning or training is said to be positive when the Learning or training carried out in one situation proves help ful to the learner in another situation.

Example of such transfer are:.

The knowledge and skills related to school mathematics help in the learning of statistical computation.

-The knowledge and skills acquired in terms of addition and subtraction in mathematics in school may help a child in the acquisition of knowledge and skills regarding multiplication and division

lateral transfer

Lateral transfer occurs when a learner is exposed to content that is applicable to another subject or situation at the same level.

Vertical transfer

Vertical transfer occurs when knowledge is applied to other learning's at a higher level either in the same subject or in another subject.

Near Transfer

A Knowledge domains are highly similar, these things in which the original learning and transfer tasks occur are basically the same, and the elapsed time between the two tasks is relatively short.

2. Negative transfer. Transfer of learning or training is said to be negative when Learning or training in one situation hinders, interferes or weakens the learning in another situation. Example of such transfer are:

1. Having learned to pronounce "But" correctly, the child may find it difficult to pronounce "Put" correctly.

2. One's regional language or mother tongue may create problems in one's learning the correct pronunciation and in to nation related to one's national or foreign language.

3. Zero transfer. Transfer is said to be 'zero' when learning or training in one situation does not have any significant influence over the learning or training in another situation. Such a situation may arise when the learning activities and subject areas have nothing in common between them. In such cases, it is quite natural that possession of knowledge and skill related

Too nearer may have no or quite minimal effect on the acquisition of knowledge and skill related to another area. Example of such a transfer may now be cited:

1. Learning history may neither help nor hinder the learning of economics.

2. Learning to play football may not help or hinder learning to play volleyball.

3. Learning to play Guitar or Sitar neither helps nor hinders one's performance in her cooking or laundry class

15. What are the characteristics of a mentally healthy person.?

Ans

1. A mentally healthy person has an ability to make adjustments.

2. A mentally healthy person has a sense of personal worth, feels worthwhile and important.

3. A mentally healthy person solves his problems largely by his own efforts and makes his own decisions.

4. He has a sense of personal security and feels secure in a group, shows understanding of other people's problems and motives.

5. A mentally healthy person has a sense of responsibility

6. He can give and accept love.

. He lives in a world of reality rather than fantasy.

8. He shows emotional maturity in his behaviour, and develops a capacity to tolerate frustration and disappointments in his daily activities.

9. A mentally healthy person has a variety of interests and generally lives a well-balanced life of work, rest and recreation.

A healthy individual is not only physically healthy but also mentally healthy. The modern concept of health extends beyond the proper functioning of the body. It includes a sound, efficient mind and controlled emotions. "Health is a state of being hale, sound or whole in body, mind or soul." It means that both body and mind are working efficiently and harmoniously.

16: illustrate any five defense mechanism?

Ans:

Defense mechanisms refer to psychological strategies or behaviors that people may use to cope with difficult feelings, thoughts, or events.

Defense mechanisms are behaviors that people use to separate themselves from unpleasant events, actions, or thoughts.

The idea of defense mechanisms comes from psychoanalytic theory, a psychological perspective of personality that sees personality as the interaction between three components: id, ego, and super-ego. These psychological strategies may help people put distance between themselves and threats or unwanted feelings, such as guilt or shame.

.1. Denial

Denial is one of the most common defense mechanisms. It occurs when you refuse to accept reality or facts. People in denial may block external events or circumstances from the mind so that they don't have to deal with the emotional impact. In other words, they avoid painful feelings or events.

This defense mechanism is one of the most widely known, too. The phrase, "They're in denial," is commonly understood to mean a person is avoiding reality despite what may be obvious to people around them.

2. Repression

Unsavory thoughts, painful memories, or irrational beliefs can upset you. Instead of facing those thoughts, people may unconsciously choose to hide them in hopes of forgetting them entirely.

That does not mean, however, that the memories disappear entirely. They may influence behaviors, and they may impact future relationships. You just may not realize the impact this defense mechanism is having.

3. Projection

Some thoughts or feelings you have about another person may make you uncomfortable. When people project those feelings, they misattribute them to the other person.

For example, you may dislike your new co-worker, but instead of accepting that, you choose to tell yourself that they dislike you. You start to interpret their words and actions toward you in the worst way possible, even though they don't actually dislike you.

4. Displacement

You direct strong emotions and frustrations toward a person or object that doesn't feel threatening. This allows you to satisfy an impulse to react, but you don't risk significant consequences.

A good example of this defense mechanism is getting angry at your child or spouse because you had a bad day at work. Neither of these people is the target of your strong emotions, but your subconscious may believe reacting to them is likely less problematic than reacting to your boss.

5. Regression

Some people who feel threatened or anxious may unconsciously "escape" to an earlier stage of development.

This type of defense mechanism may be most obvious in young children. If they experience trauma or loss, they may suddenly act as if they're younger again. They may even begin wetting the bed or sucking their thumb as a form of regression.

17: explain Lewin's field theory of learning?

Ans

Lewin emphasized the study of behaviour as a function of the total physical and social situation. Lewin holds that psychological laws need not be formulated solely on the basis of statistical averages. Rather the individual case is equally important.

Lewin describes his viewpoint in the following formula:

$b=F(pe)$.

In Lewin's theory, threat, goal and barrier are the main factors. An individual who has to achieve some goal has to cross a barrier. The barrier may be psychological or physical. Because of the changes in the barrier in the life- space of an individual, continuous reconstruction takes place.

Lewin's theory is called field theory as to a psychologist field means the total psychological world in which a person lives at a certain time

1. Topology:

It is also called topological. Two basic concepts which topological space denotes are:

(i) Connectedness, and

(ii) Part-whole relationships.

Topological concepts are used to represent the structure of life- space in such a way as to define the range of possible perceptions and actions. This is accomplished by showing the arrangements of the functional parts of life-space. The parts are shown as various regions and their boundaries. When an individual structures his life-space, he divides it into regions.

2. Vector:

The term vector represents a force which is influencing movement towards a goal or away from it. If there is only one vector (force), there is movement in the direction of the vector. However, if there are two or more vectors acting simultaneously in different directions, the movement is in the direction of the resultant force.

3. Life-Space:

It is also called the psychological field. The psychological field is the space in which the person moves psychologically. It contains the whole of one's psychological reality – one's self and what one thinks of or what one gains from one's physical and social environment.

4. The Person in Life-Space:

The person is often represented as a point moving about in his life-space, affected by pulls and pushes upon him, circumventing barriers in his locomotion in his own life-space.

5. Valence:

When a person is attracted by an object, that object is said to have a positive valence. When a person is repelled by an object that is said to have a negative valence. The person tends to move towards a region in life-space that has positive valence and he tends to move away from a region in life-space that has negative valence. Because life-space may contain regions with several valences active at a time, these give rise to conflict, especially when the opposing forces are approximately in balance.

6. Distance and Direction:

When there is a close correspondence between life-space and physical space, physical distances and directions may be used for experimental purposes as approximations of distances and directions in life space.

7. Behaviour:

Lewin regards behaviour as a function of present life space. He insists that behaviour depends upon the present and not upon the past or future.

8. Barrier:

It is a dynamic part of an environment which resists motion through it. It stands in the way of a person's reaching his goal.

9. Goal:

Goal is a region of valence-region of life-space to which a person is psychologically attracted.

10. Tension:

It is very closely to and is descriptive of psychological needs. Release of tension may be achieved either through reaching a goal or through reconstructing a life-space.

11. Cognitive Structure:

It is an environment including a person as known by the person. It is synonymous with insight or understanding.

Essay

Give a detail note on:

- Bruner theory of cognitive development?
- kolberg theory of moral development?

Ans

Cognitive psychologist Jerome Bruner felt the goal of education should be intellectual development, as opposed to rote memorization of facts.

This lesson will discuss Bruner's theory of development and his three modes of representation. We will also explore his beliefs on learning, language, and discovery and differentiate his views from those of Jean Piaget.

Bruner held the following beliefs regarding learning and education:

He believed curriculum should foster the development of problem-solving skills through the processes of inquiry and discovery.

He believed that subject matter should be represented in terms of the child's way of viewing the world.

That curriculum should be designed so that the mastery of skills leads to the mastery of still more powerful ones.

He also advocated teaching by organizing concepts and learning by discovery.

Finally, he believed culture should shape notions through which people organize their views of themselves and others and the world in which they live.

Three Stages of Representation

Jerome Bruner identified three stages of cognitive representation.

Enactive, which is the representation of knowledge through actions.

Iconic, which is the visual summarization of images.

Symbolic representation, which is the use of words and other symbols to describe experiences.

The enactive stage appears first. This stage involves the encoding and storage of information. There is a direct manipulation of objects without any internal representation of the objects.

For example, a baby shakes a rattle and hears a noise. The baby has directly manipulated the rattle and the outcome was a pleasurable sound. In the future, the baby may shake his hand, even if there is no rattle, expecting his hand to produce the rattling sounds. The baby does not have an internal representation of the rattle and, therefore, does not understand that it needs the rattle in order to produce the sound.

The iconic stage appears from one to six years old. This stage involves an internal representation of external objects visually in the form of a mental image or icon. For example, a child drawing an image of a tree or thinking of an image of a tree would be representative of this stage.

The symbolic stage, from seven years and up, is when information is stored in the form of a code or symbol such as language. Each symbol has a fixed relation to something it represents. For example, the word 'dog' is a symbolic representation for a single class of animal. Symbols, unlike mental images or memorized actions, can be classified and organized. In this stage, most information is stored as words, mathematical symbols, or in other symbol systems.

Bruner believed that all learning occurs through the stages we just discussed. Bruner also believed that learning should begin with direct manipulation of objects. For example, in math education, Bruner promoted the use of algebra tiles, coins, and other items that could be manipulated.

Kohlberg's theory of moral development is a theory that focuses on how children develop morality and moral reasoning. Kohlberg's theory suggests that moral development occurs in a series of six stages and that moral logic is primarily focused on seeking and maintaining justice.

Stages of Moral Development

Kohlberg's theory is broken down into three primary levels. At each level of moral development, there are two stages. Similar to how Piaget believed that not all

people reach the highest levels of cognitive development, Kohlberg believed not everyone progresses to the highest stages of moral development.

Level 1. Preconventional Morality

Preconventional morality is the earliest period of moral development. It lasts until around the age of 9. At this age, children's decisions are primarily shaped by the expectations of adults and the consequences of breaking the rules. There are two stages within this level:

Stage 1 (Obedience and Punishment): The earliest stages of moral development, obedience and punishment are especially common in young children, but adults are also capable of expressing this type of reasoning. According to Kohlberg, people at this stage see rules as fixed and absolute.⁶ Obeying the rules is important because it is a way to avoid punishment.

Stage 2 (Individualism and Exchange): At the individualism and exchange stage of moral development, children account for individual points of view and judge actions based on how they serve individual needs. In the Heinz dilemma, children argued that the best course of action was the choice that best served Heinz's needs. Reciprocity is possible at this point in moral development, but only if it serves one's own interests.

Level 2. Conventional Morality

The next period of moral development is marked by the acceptance of social rules regarding what is good and moral. During this time, adolescents and adults internalize the moral standards they have learned from their role models and from society.

This period also focuses on the acceptance of authority and conforming to the norms of the group. There are two stages at this level of morality:

Stage 3 (Developing Good Interpersonal Relationships): Often referred to as the "good boy-good girl" orientation, this stage of the interpersonal relationship of moral development is focused on living up to social expectations and roles.⁶ There is an emphasis on conformity, being "nice," and consideration of how choices influence relationships.

Stage 4 (Maintaining Social Order): This stage is focused on ensuring that social order is maintained. At this stage of moral development, people begin to consider society as a whole when making judgments. The focus is on maintaining law and order by following the rules, doing one's duty, and respecting authority.

Level 3. Postconventional Morality

At this level of moral development, people develop an understanding of abstract principles of morality. The two stages at this level are:

Stage 5 (Social Contract and Individual Rights): The ideas of a social contract and individual rights cause people in the next stage to begin to account for the differing values, opinions, and beliefs of other people.⁶ Rules of law are important for maintaining a society, but members of the society should agree upon these standards.

Stage 6 (Universal Principles): Kohlberg's final level of moral reasoning is based on universal ethical principles and abstract reasoning. At this stage, people follow these internalized principles of justice, even if they conflict with laws and rules. Teachers and other educators can also apply Kohlberg's theory in the classroom, providing additional moral guidance. A kindergarten teacher could help enhance moral development by setting clear rules for the classroom, and the consequences for violating them. This helps kids at stage one of moral development.

A teacher in high school might focus more on the development that occurs in stage three (developing good interpersonal relationships) and stage four (maintaining social order). This could be accomplished by having the students take part in setting the rules to be followed in the classroom, giving them a better idea of the reasoning behind these rules.

19: explain in detail;

Socio cognitive perspective of motivation?

Achievement motivation?

Ans

The cognitive theories of motivation include the Expectancy Theory and the Goal-Setting Theory. The Expectancy Theory of Motivation explains why and how an individual chooses one behavioural option over others. On the other hand, the Goal-Setting Theory states the importance of creating goals in motivation a person.

Self efficacy – the individual's belief regarding his own ability to perform a specific behaviour successfully.

Goal difficulty – occurs when the desired performance goals are too high that might result to low expectancy perceptions.

Control – the degree of a person's perceived control over his performance.

Valence

Valence

Valence refers to the value that a person sets on the reinforcements or rewards. Setting values are usually based on an individual's values, needs, goals and intrinsic or extrinsic sources of motivation. Valence include -1, which means the person is trying to avoid the outcome, 0, which means the person feels indifferent towards the results, and +1, which means that he welcomes the results.

Instrumentality

Instrumentality refers to the notion that a person will get a reward upon the satisfaction of the expected performance. The reward may present in various forms – it can be intrinsic or extrinsic, monetary or non-monetary. If this reward is similar for all the activities that a person must perform, instrumentality is said to be low. There are three factors influencing instrumentality: policies, control and trust.

Motivational Force

The product of the three aforementioned variables – expectancy, valence and instrumentality – is called the motivational force. This is the proper formula for motivational force:

Motivational Force (MF) = Expectancy x Instrumentality x Valence

If these three variables are “high” or strong in an individual, then his motivation is also greater.

Goal-Setting Theory

Another cognitive theory of motivation, the Goal-Setting Theory was proposed by Edwin Locke in the 1960s. The theory explains that goal setting has an influence on task performance. Specific and challenging goals are more likely to motivate a person and lead to a better execution of tasks, whereas vague and easy goals may result to poor task performance. In application, therefore, the goals should be set must be SMART – Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Realistic and Time-Bound.

Achievement motivation can be defined as the ability of the individual to work toward their highest performance level. The individual is driven by success, and that individual thrives off of feedback from that work. It is important to note that if a person is driven by achievement, the person is likely to take on tasks where they are not too hard, nor too easy. In situations where an individual can be led by achievement motivation, that individual fears failure. In an academic setting, one would be thought to be achievement motivated if the individual submits assignments, and thrives off getting back feedback. The individual would think of their criticism as something that propels them into bettering their standard of

work. For example, Melissa works hard to submit her assignment on time, and follows standard guidelines. The professor gives her the work back, and gives her some comments to improve upon. If Melissa was motivated by achievement, she would see this as an opportunity to better herself and future assignments. David McClelland's theory of Human Motivation was proposed in the 1960s. His theory had three major components: needs for power, needs for affiliation, and needs for achievement. These three needs are not innate, but rather developed through experiences. McClelland's theory found that in a person's life there are certain types of needs that come up. Achievement motivation theory was found in individuals who thrive off competition. Through achievement motivation a person develops high problem-solving skills. Thus, actionable goals is important to a person who is achievement motivated.

Needs of affiliation is the second of the component of McClelland's theory. This term describes a person who needs to feel involved, and a sense of community within a group. An example of this, is a person who is a people-pleaser. They would want to keep a friendly manner, and avoid conflict in their relationships. The individual, would also be encouraging, in the sense of community they would want co-workers to feel. The third component is needs of power. The person who has a need of power wants to control or influence others. Some could think of this in a career manner as a leader or manager of a company. The person of power does not care about being liked or disliked. Rather, only need others to listen to their rules and regulations, and do the work. A person who exhibits this behavior often has a high need for personal power.

20: explain the constructivist theory of leaning? Piaget and vygotsky?

Ans

Jean Piaget's theory of cognitive development suggests that children move through four different stages of learning. His theory focuses not only on understanding how children acquire knowledge, but also on understanding the nature of intelligence. Piaget's stages are:

Sensorimotor stage: Birth to 2 years

Preoperational stage: Ages 2 to 7

Concrete operational stage: Ages 7 to 11

Formal operational stage: Ages 12 and up

The Sensorimotor Stage

During this earliest stage of cognitive development, infants and toddlers acquire knowledge through sensory experiences and manipulating objects. A child's

entire experience at the earliest period of this stage occurs through basic reflexes, senses, and motor responses.

The Preoperational Stage

The foundations of language development may have been laid during the previous stage, but the emergence of language is one of the major hallmarks of the preoperational stage of development.³

2 to 7 Years

Major characteristics and developmental changes during this stage:

Begin to think symbolically and learn to use words and pictures to represent objects

Tend to be egocentric and struggle to see things from the perspective of others

Getting better with language and thinking, but still tend to think in very concrete terms

The Concrete Operational Stage

While children are still very concrete and literal in their thinking at this point in development, they become much more adept at using logic.² The egocentrism of the previous stage begins to disappear as kids become better at thinking about how other people might view a situation. Begin to think logically about concrete events

Begin to understand the concept of conservation; that the amount of liquid in a short, wide cup is equal to that in a tall, skinny glass.

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Sensorimotor Stage

Preoperational Stage

Concrete Operational Stage

Formal Operational Stage

Jean Piaget's theory of cognitive development suggests that children move through four different stages of learning. His theory focuses not only on understanding how children acquire knowledge, but also on understanding the nature of intelligence.¹ Piaget's stages are:

Sensorimotor stage: Birth to 2 years

Preoperational stage: Ages 2 to 7

Concrete operational stage: Ages 7 to 11

Formal operational stage: Ages 12 and up

Piaget believed that children take an active role in the learning process, acting much like little scientists as they perform experiments, make observations, and learn about the world. As kids interact with the world around them, they continually add new knowledge, build upon existing knowledge, and adapt previously held ideas to accommodate new information.

Piaget's Stages of Cognitive Development

Illustration by Joshua Seong, Verywell

History of Piaget's Theory of Cognitive Development

Piaget was born in Switzerland in the late 1800s and was a precocious student, publishing his first scientific paper when he was just 11 years old. His early exposure to the intellectual development of children came when he worked as an assistant to Alfred Binet and Theodore Simon as they worked to standardize their famous IQ test.

Piaget vs. Vygotsky

Piaget's theory differs in important ways from those of Lev Vygotsky, another influential figure in the field of child development. Vygotsky acknowledged the roles that curiosity and active involvement play in learning, but placed greater emphasis on society and culture.

Piaget felt that development is largely fueled from within, while Vygotsky believed that external factors (such as culture) and people (such as parents, caregivers, and peers) play a more significant role.

Much of Piaget's interest in the cognitive development of children was inspired by his observations of his own nephew and daughter. These observations reinforced his budding hypothesis that children's minds were not merely smaller versions of adult minds.

Until this point in history, children were largely treated simply as smaller versions of adults. Piaget was one of the first to identify that the way that children think is different from the way adults think.

Piaget proposed that intelligence grows and develops through a series of stages. Older children do not just think more quickly than younger children. Instead,

there are both qualitative and quantitative differences between the thinking of young children versus older children.

Based on his observations, he concluded that children were not less intelligent than adults—they simply think differently. Albert Einstein called Piaget's discovery "so simple only a genius could have thought of it."

Piaget's stage theory describes the cognitive development of children. Cognitive development involves changes in cognitive process and abilities.² In Piaget's view, early cognitive development involves processes based upon actions and later progresses to changes in mental operations.

Jean Piaget Quotes

The Sensorimotor Stage

During this earliest stage of cognitive development, infants and toddlers acquire knowledge through sensory experiences and manipulating objects. A child's entire experience at the earliest period of this stage occurs through basic reflexes, senses, and motor responses.

Birth to 2 Years

Major characteristics and developmental changes during this stage:

Know the world through movements and sensations

Learn about the world through basic actions such as sucking, grasping, looking, and listening

Learn that things continue to exist even when they cannot be seen (object permanence)

Realize that they are separate beings from the people and objects around them

Realize that their actions can cause things to happen in the world around them

During the sensorimotor stage, children go through a period of dramatic growth and learning. As kids interact with their environment, they continually make new discoveries about how the world works.

The cognitive development that occurs during this period takes place over a relatively short time and involves a great deal of growth. Children not only learn how to perform physical actions such as crawling and walking; they also learn a great deal about language from the people with whom they interact. Piaget also broke this stage down into substages. Early representational thought emerges during the final part of the sensorimotor stage.

Piaget believed that developing object permanence or object constancy, the understanding that objects continue to exist even when they cannot be seen, was an important element at this point of development.

By learning that objects are separate and distinct entities and that they have an existence of their own outside of individual perception, children are then able to begin to attach names and words to objects.

The Sensorimotor Stage of Cognitive Development

The Preoperational Stage

The foundations of language development may have been laid during the previous stage, but the emergence of language is one of the major hallmarks of the preoperational stage of development.³

2 to 7 Years

Major characteristics and developmental changes during this stage:

Begin to think symbolically and learn to use words and pictures to represent objects

Tend to be egocentric and struggle to see things from the perspective of others

Getting better with language and thinking, but still tend to think in very concrete terms

At this stage, kids learn through pretend play but still struggle with logic and taking the point of view of other people. They also often struggle with understanding the idea of constancy.

Children become much more skilled at pretend play during this stage of development, yet they continue to think very concretely about the world around them.

For example, a researcher might take a lump of clay, divide it into two equal pieces, and then give a child the choice between two pieces of clay to play with. One piece of clay is rolled into a compact ball while the other is smashed into a flat pancake shape. Because the flat shape looks larger, the preoperational child will likely choose that piece, even though the two pieces are exactly the same size.

The Preoperational Stage of Cognitive Development

The Concrete Operational Stage

While children are still very concrete and literal in their thinking at this point in development, they become much more adept at using logic.² The egocentrism of the previous stage begins to disappear as kids become better at thinking about how other people might view a situation.

7 to 11 Years

Major characteristics and developmental changes during this stage:

Begin to think logically about concrete events

Begin to understand the concept of conservation; that the amount of liquid in a short, wide cup is equal to that in a tall, skinny glass, for example

Thinking becomes more logical and organized, but still very concrete

Begin using inductive logic, or reasoning from specific information to a general principle

While thinking becomes much more logical during the concrete operational state, it can also be very rigid. Kids at this point in development tend to struggle with abstract and hypothetical concepts.

During this stage, children also become less egocentric and begin to think about how other people might think and feel. Kids in the concrete operational stage also begin to understand that their thoughts are unique to them and that not everyone else necessarily shares their thoughts, feelings, and opinions.

The Concrete Operational Stage in Cognitive Development

The Formal Operational Stage

The final stage of Piaget's theory involves an increase in logic, the ability to use deductive reasoning, and an understanding of abstract ideas.³ At this point, adolescents and young adults become capable of seeing multiple potential solutions to problems and think more scientifically about the world around them.

Age 12 and Up

Major characteristics and developmental changes during this time:

Begins to think abstractly and reason about hypothetical problems

Begins to think more about moral, philosophical, ethical, social, and political issues that require theoretical and abstract reasoning

Vygotsky's Ideas

Vygotsky's theory focuses on the role of culture in the development of mental abilities e.g. speech and reasoning in children.

According to Vygotsky, adults in society foster children's cognitive development by engaging them in challenging and meaningful activities. Adults convey to children the way their culture interprets and responds to the world.

They show the meaning they attach to objects, events and experiences. They provide the child with what to think (the knowledge) and how to think (the processes, the tools to think with).

The interactions with others significantly increases not only the quantity of information and the number of skills a child develops, it also affects the development of higher order mental functions such as formal reasoning. Vygotsky argued that higher mental abilities could only develop through the interaction with more advanced others.

Vygotsky proposed that children are born with elementary mental abilities such as memory and perception and that higher mental functions develop from these through the influence of social interactions.

Vygotsky agreed with Piaget that the development of cognitive abilities takes place in stages and he also agreed broadly with the description of the stages however he viewed cognitive development as a social process where children learn from experienced adults.

Vygotsky stated that language has two functions. Inner speech is used for mental reasoning and external speech is used to converse with others. These operations occur separately. Indeed, before the age of two, a child employs words socially; they possess no internal language. Once thought and language merge, however, the social language is internalized and assists the child with their reasoning. Thus, the social environment is ingrained within the child's learning. believe that both Piaget and Vygotsky provided educators with important views on cognitive development in the child. Piaget proposed that children progress through the stages of cognitive development through maturation, discovery methods, and some social transmissions through assimilation and accommodation (Woolfolk, A., 2004). Vygotsky's theory stressed the importance of culture and language on one's cognitive development.

21. Explain Behaviourist theories of learning-Classical conditioning and Operant conditioning.?

Classical conditioning is a type of learning that happens unconsciously.

When you learn through classical conditioning, an automatic conditioned response is paired with a specific stimulus. This creates a behavior.

The best-known example of this is from what some believe to be the father of classical conditioning: Ivan Pavlov. In an experiment on canine digestion, he found that over time dogs were salivating not only when their food was presented to them, but when the people who fed them arrived.

Before conditioning

Before conditioning is when the unconditioned stimulus and unconditioned response come into play. This is the natural response that wasn't taught.

For instance, food produces salivating, or a stomach virus produces nausea.

At this point, the conditioned stimulus is still called the neutral stimulus because it currently has no effect.

During conditioning

We begin to associate the neutral stimulus with the unconditioned response.

For instance, you may associate a specific type of food with a stomach virus, or the bell ringing before getting food may be associated with receiving food.

After conditioning

Once you've learned to associate the conditioned stimulus with the unconditioned response, it becomes the conditioned response.

So, the specific type of food now produces nausea (even if it wasn't necessarily what caused the stomach virus), and the bell creates salivation.

In this way, you've unconsciously learned to associate the new stimulus (whether situation, object, person, etc.) with the response.

Operant conditioning, sometimes referred to as instrumental conditioning, is a method of learning that employs rewards and punishments for behavior. Through operant conditioning, an association is made between a behavior and a consequence (whether negative or positive) for that behavior.

THEORIES BEHAVIORAL PSYCHOLOGY

What Is Operant Conditioning Theory?

How Reinforcement and Punishment Modify Behavior

By Kendra Cherry Updated on October 11, 2022

Medically reviewed by David Susman, PhD

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What Is Operant Conditioning?

Operant conditioning, sometimes referred to as instrumental conditioning, is a method of learning that employs rewards and punishments for behavior. Through operant conditioning, an association is made between a behavior and a consequence (whether negative or positive) for that behavior.¹

For example, when lab rats press a lever when a green light is on, they receive a food pellet as a reward. When they press the lever when a red light is on, they receive a mild electric shock. As a result, they learn to press the lever when the green light is on and avoid the red light.

But operant conditioning is not just something that takes place in experimental settings while training lab animals. It also plays a powerful role in everyday learning. Reinforcement and punishment take place in natural settings all the time, as well as in more structured settings such as classrooms or therapy sessions.

operant conditioning

Verywell / Joshua Seong

The History of Operant Conditioning

Operant conditioning was first described by behaviorist B.F. Skinner, which is why you may occasionally hear it referred to as Skinnerian conditioning.¹ As a behaviorist, Skinner believed that it was not really necessary to look at internal thoughts and motivations in order to explain behavior. Instead, he suggested, we should look only at the external, observable causes of human behavior.

Through the first part of the 20th century, behaviorism became a major force within psychology. The ideas of John B. Watson dominated this school of thought early on. Watson focused on the principles of classical conditioning, once famously suggesting that he could take any person regardless of their background and train them to be anything he chose.²

Early behaviorists focused their interests on associative learning. Skinner was more interested in how the consequences of people's actions influenced their behavior.

Skinner used the term operant to refer to any "active behavior that operates upon the environment to generate consequences." Skinner's theory explained how we acquire the range of learned behaviors we exhibit every day.

His theory was heavily influenced by the work of psychologist Edward Thorndike, who had proposed what he called the law of effect.³ According to this principle, actions that are followed by desirable outcomes are more likely to be repeated while those followed by undesirable outcomes are less likely to be repeated.

Operant conditioning relies on a fairly simple premise: Actions that are followed by reinforcement will be strengthened and more likely to occur again in the future. If you tell a funny story in class and everybody laughs, you will probably be more likely to tell that story again in the future.

If you raise your hand to ask a question and your teacher praises your polite behavior, you will be more likely to raise your hand the next time you have a question or comment. Because the behavior was followed by reinforcement, or a desirable outcome, the preceding action is strengthened.

Conversely, actions that result in punishment or undesirable consequences will be weakened and less likely to occur again in the future. If you tell the same story again in another class but nobody laughs this time, you will be less likely to repeat the story again in the future. If you shout out an answer in class and your teacher scolds you, then you might be less likely to interrupt the class again.

Types of Behaviors

Skinner distinguished between two different types of behaviors

Respondent behaviors are those that occur automatically and reflexively, such as pulling your hand back from a hot stove or jerking your leg when the doctor taps on your knee. You don't have to learn these behaviors. They simply occur automatically and involuntarily.

Operant behaviors, on the other hand, are those under our conscious control. Some may occur spontaneously and others purposely, but it is the consequences of these actions that then influence whether or not they occur again in the future. Our actions on the environment and the consequences of that action make up an important part of the learning process.

Reinforcement is any event that strengthens or increases the behavior it follows. There are two kinds of reinforcers. In both of these cases of reinforcement, the behavior increases.

Positive reinforcers are favorable events or outcomes that are presented after the behavior. In positive reinforcement situations, a response or behavior is strengthened by the addition of praise or a direct reward. If you do a good job at work and your manager gives you a bonus, that bonus is a positive reinforcer.

Negative reinforcers involve the removal of an unfavorable events or outcomes after the display of a behavior. In these situations, a response is strengthened by the removal of something considered unpleasant. For example, if your child starts to scream in the middle of a restaurant, but stops once you hand them a treat, your action led to the removal of the unpleasant condition, negatively reinforcing your behavior (not your child's).

Punishment in Operant Conditioning

Punishment is the presentation of an adverse event or outcome that causes a decrease in the behavior it follows. There are two kinds of punishment. In both of these cases, the behavior decreases.

After performing in a community theater play, you receive applause from the audience. This acts as a positive reinforcer, inspiring you to try out for more performance roles.

You train your dog to fetch by offering him praise and a pat on the head whenever he performs the behavior correctly. This is another positive reinforcer.

A professor tells students that if they have perfect attendance all semester, then they do not have to take the final comprehensive exam. By removing an unpleasant stimulus (the final test), students are negatively reinforced to attend class regularly.

Psychology previous year questions and answers =2020

Sudheesh p

1.What is mental health?

Mental health determines how you think, feel and act. Good mental health is when you feel positive about yourself and cope well with the everyday pressures. If you experience issues dealing with everyday problems, it could be a sign of a mental health problem and should be addressed immediately.

2.What is transfer of learning?

Transfer of learning means the use of previously acquired knowledge and skills in new learning or problem-solving situations. Thereby similarities and analogies between previous and actual learning content and processes may play a crucial role. Training transfer is crucial for employees to develop new skills in their roles. As learning opportunities often teach people how to perform new duties or behave in a certain way, this can help them learn both technical and soft skills.

3.What is information Processing model of memory?

Training transfer is crucial for employees to develop new skills in their roles. As learning opportunities often teach people how to perform new duties or behave in a certain way, this can help them learn both technical and soft skills. Psychologists distinguish between three necessary stages in the learning and memory process: encoding, storage, and retrieval (Melton, 1963). Encoding is defined as the initial learning of information; storage refers to maintaining information over time; retrieval is the ability to access information when you need it.

4.Write about gestalt learning?

Psychologists distinguish between three necessary stages in the learning and memory process: encoding, storage, and retrieval (Melton, 1963). Encoding is defined as the initial learning of information; storage refers to maintaining information over time; retrieval is the ability to access information when you need it.

5. What is achievement motivation?

Psychologists distinguish between three necessary stages in the learning and memory process: encoding, storage, and retrieval (Melton, 1963). Encoding is defined as the initial learning of information; storage refers to maintaining information over time; retrieval is the ability to access information when you need it.

6.Describe about Kohlberg's moral development stages?

I. Pre-conventional Level (4 to 10 years): At this level, the child judges morality in terms of effects produced by various actions. This level includes two different stages.

- Stage 1. The stage of obedience for avoiding punishments: In the beginning, children's morality is controlled by the fear of punishment. They try to obey their parents to avoid punishment.
- Stage 2. The stage of conformity to satisfy needs; During this stage children's moral judgement is based on self interest and consideration of what others can do for them in return. They obey the orders of elders because it will help them satisfy their needs.

II. Conventional Level (10 to 13 years): During this level, individuals judge morality largely in terms of existing group norms and social rules. This level has the following two stages.

- Stage 3. Stage of conformity to group norms: During this children's moral judgement is based on the desire to obtain approval of other members of the group. They do not decide themselves what is right or wrong but follow norms provided by the members of the group.
- Stage 4. Stage of conformity to rules in society: At this stage, children follow the rules of the society and take decisions about things as being right or wrong, with a view to avoid censure by the social system.

III. Post conventional Level (13 and beyond): At this level individuals judge morality in terms of self accepted moral principles. This level is characterised by the following two stages.

- Stage 5. The stage of conformity to the democratically accepted laws and mores. At this stage, individuals begin to think in rational terms valuing the rights of human beings and welfare of society. They respond positively to authority only if they agree with the principles upon which the demands of authority are based.
- Stage 6. The stage of conformity to the universal ethical principles At this stage, individuals judge morality in terms of self-chosen ethical principles. Moral judgement is now based upon conscience and the belief in universal principles of equality.

Educational Implications

The school can play a very important role in moral development of children. Through the organisation of various curricular and co-curricular activities, teachers can foster among children different moral qualities. This is possible only if the teacher takes care to provide activities that are appropriate for different developmental stages in tune with the characteristics of moral development presented by the psychologists. While attempting pedagogic analysis of the learning material for different subjects, teachers should pay special attention to such aspects of moral development.

7. Describe about stages of development?

- Pre natal period

Legally life begins at birth but biologically it begins at conception. The pre natal period extends from conception to birth, normally 280 days. The child's development within the womb is a very important phase of his entire development. The development during this short period is not only very rapid but also orderly and predictable.

- Infancy

The first 3 years of the life of a child is the period of infancy. The first two weeks is known as the period of neonate or the new-born. The period from the third week to the end of 3 years is known as babyhood. These 3 years of life are of tremendous importance in the progress of the individual. It is at this time that the infant adjusts to the totally new environment out-side the mother's body and thus learns to be self-dependent.

- Early Childhood (Pre-School stage)

Early childhood is the pre-school period between the ages of three and six. It is often referred to as the toy age because young children spend much of their wake-up time playing with toys. During this stage children are often obstinate, stubborn, disobedient, negativistic and antagonistic.

- Later Childhood (Primary School stage)

Later childhood spreads from 6 years to 12 years. Psychologists call this elementary school age as gang age. During later childhood, children's major concern is acceptance by their age-mates and membership in a gang, especially a prestigious gang in the eyes of their age-mates. Because of this concern for getting absorbed into the group, children will be willing to conform to norms approved by the group, in terms of appearance, speech and behaviour.

- Adolescence (Secondary School stage)

Adolescence (12 to 19 years) is a period from the onset of puberty to the age of maturity. It is a period of rapid physical and biological which may lead to confusions, tensions, frustrations and feelings of insecurity. Stanley Hall rightly calls it the period of stress and strain, storm and strife. It is so because of the restlessness and disturbance due to the nature of development that takes place during the period.

- Adulthood

The period of adulthood is the longest of all the stages of life. An average adult will be normally self-reliant and will decide and act independently. He conforms

to social and moral standards of conduct prescribed for adults. He develops attitudes and character traits which are expected of adults of social status.

8.Explain about humanistic approach?

- Self realisation is the root

Give importance to human being

- Individual personal growth is the tendency for self actualization

Person's behaviour is influenced by his/her environment Social interaction is the key in human environment

People are aware about past experience

Humans have free will to act, express, develop to make conscious choice

humanistic psychology, a movement in psychology supporting the belief that humans, as individuals, are unique beings and should be recognized and treated as such by psychologists and psychiatrists. The movement grew in opposition to the two mainstream 20th-century trends in psychology, behaviourism and psychoanalysis.

9.What are the characteristics of mentally healthy person?

Mental health is more than just the absence of mental illness. It includes how you feel about yourself and how you adjust to life events. However, the National Mental Health Association cites 10 characteristics of people who are mentally healthy.

1. They feel good about themselves.
2. They do not become overwhelmed by emotions, such as fear, anger, love, jealousy, guilt, or anxiety.
3. They have lasting and satisfying personal relationships.
4. They feel comfortable with other people.
5. They can laugh at themselves and with others.
6. They have respect for themselves and for others even if there are differences.
7. They are able to accept life's disappointments.
8. They can meet life's demands and handle their problems when they arise.
9. They make their own decisions.
- 10.They shape their environment

10. Write about maladjustment?

Maladjustment is a term used in psychology to refer the "inability to react successfully and satisfactorily to the demand of one's environment". The term maladjustment can be refer to a wide range of social, biological and psychological conditions.

Maladjustment can be both intrinsic or extrinsic. Intrinsic maladjustment is the disparities between the needs, motivations and evaluations of an individual, with the actual reward gain through experiences. Extrinsic maladjustment on the other hand, is referred to when an individual's behaviour does not meet the cultural or social expectation of society.

The causes of maladjustment can be attributed to a wide variety of factors, including: family environment, personal factors, and school-related factors. Maladjustment affects an individual's development and the ability to maintain a positive interpersonal relationship with others. Often maladjustment emerges during early stages of childhood, when a child is in the process of learning methods to solve problem that occurs in interpersonal relationship in their social network. A lack of intervention for individuals who are maladjusted can cause negative effects later on in life.

11. Explain about types of memory?

Memory is sometimes also classified into stages and processes. People who classify memory into only two distinctive types, implicit and explicit memory, view that other types of memories like sensory, short-term, and long-term memories aren't types of memory but stages of memory.

Sensory Memory

Sensory memory allows you to remember sensory information after the stimulation has ended. Researchers who classify memory more as stages than types believe that all other memories begin with the formation of sensory memories.

Short-term Memory

As the name implies, short-term memory allows you to recall specific information about anything for a brief period. Short-term memory is not as fleeting as sensory memory, but it's also not as permanent as long-term memory.

Working Memory

Working memory is a type of memory that involves the immediate and small amount of information that a person actively uses as they perform cognitive tasks.

Long-term Memory

We store a vast majority of our memories in our long-term memory. Any memory we can still recall after 30 seconds could classify as long-term memory. These memories range in significance—from recalling the name of a friendly face at your favorite coffee shop to important bits of information like a close friend's birthday or your home address.

Explicit Long-term Memory

Explicit long-term memories are memories we consciously and deliberately took time to form and recall.

Implicit Long-term Memory

We are not as deliberate with forming implicit memories as we are with explicit ones. Implicit memories form unconsciously and might affect the way a person thinks and behaves.

12. Write about social learning theory?

Social learning theory suggests that social behavior is learned by observing and imitating the behavior of others. as an alternative to the earlier work of fellow psychologist B.F. Skinner, known for his influence on behaviorism. While behavioral psychology focuses on how the environment and reinforcement affect behavior, Bandura put forth that individuals can learn behavior through observation.

The has four mediational processes that help determine whether a new behavior is acquired:

1. **Attention:** The degree to which we notice the behavior. A behavior must grab our attention before it can be imitated. Considering the number of behaviors we observe and do not imitate daily indicates attention is crucial in whether a behavior influences imitation.
2. **Retention:** How well we remember the behavior. We cannot perform the behavior if we do not remember the behavior. So, while a behavior

may be noticed, unless a memory is formed, the observer will not perform the behavior. And, because social learning is not immediate, retention is vital to behavior modeling.

3. **Reproduction:** The ability to perform the behavior. This is the ability to reproduce a behavior we observe. It influences our decision about whether to try performing the behavior. Even when we wish to imitate an observed behavior, we are limited by our physical abilities.
4. **Motivation:** The will to emulate the behavior. This mediational process is referred to as vicarious reinforcement. It involves learning through observing the consequences of actions for other people, rather than through direct experience.

13.what are classroom motivation techniques?

- Encourage their thoughts and choices
- Ensure fear free classroom
- Clarify the objective
- Improve the classroom environment
- Be a great listener
- Share their experience
- Positive competition
- Know your student well
- Trust them and give them responsibility
- Express your excitement
- Keep record
- Positive feedback
- Real life situation in the classroom

14. Explain theory of psychosocial development?

According to the theory, successful completion of each stage results in a healthy personality and the acquisition of basic virtues. Basic virtues are characteristic strengths which the ego can use to resolve subsequent crises.

Failure to successfully complete a stage can result in a reduced ability to complete further stages and therefore a more unhealthy personality and sense of self. These stages, however, can be resolved successfully at a later time.

Trust vs. Mistrust

Trust vs. mistrust is the first stage in Erik Erikson's theory of psychosocial development. This stage begins at birth and continues to approximately 18 months of age. During this stage, the infant is uncertain about the world in which they live, and looks towards their primary caregiver for stability and consistency of care.

Autonomy vs. Shame and Doubt

Autonomy versus shame and doubt is the second stage of Erik Erikson's stages of psychosocial development. This stage occurs between the ages of 18 months to approximately 3 years. According to Erikson, children at this stage are focused on developing a sense of personal control over physical skills and a sense of independence.

Initiative vs. Guilt

Initiative versus guilt is the third stage of Erik Erikson's theory of psychosocial development. During the initiative versus guilt stage, children assert themselves more frequently through directing play and other social interaction.

Industry vs. Inferiority

Erikson's fourth psychosocial crisis, involving industry (competence) vs. inferiority occurs during childhood between the ages of five and twelve.

Identity vs. Role Confusion

The fifth stage of Erik Erikson's theory of psychosocial development is identity vs. role confusion, and it occurs during adolescence, from about 12-18 years. During this stage, adolescents search for a sense of self and personal identity, through an intense exploration of personal values, beliefs, and goals.

Intimacy vs. Isolation

Intimacy versus isolation is the sixth stage of Erik Erikson's theory of psychosocial development. This stage takes place during young adulthood.

between the ages of approximately 18 to 40 yrs. During this stage, the major conflict centers on forming intimate, loving relationships with other people

Generativity vs. Stagnation

Generativity versus stagnation is the seventh of eight stages of Erik Erikson's theory of psychosocial development. This stage takes place during middle adulthood (ages 40 to 65 yrs).

Ego Integrity vs. Despair

Ego integrity versus despair is the eighth and final stage of Erik Erikson's stage theory of psychosocial development. This stage begins at approximately age 65 and ends at death. It is during this time that we contemplate our accomplishments and can develop integrity if we see ourselves as leading a successful life.

15.What is the scope of educational psychology?

The learner

The subject matter of educational psychology is knitted around the learner. Therefore the need of knowing the learner and techniques of knowing him well. It includes, the innate abilities and capabilities of the individuals, individual difference and measurement, the covert, overt conscious as well as unconscious behaviour.

The learning experience

Educational psychology helps in deciding what learning experiences are desirable at what stage of the growth and development of the learner, so that these experiences can be required with a greater ease and satisfaction.

Learning process

After knowing the learner and deciding what learning experiences are to be provided, Educational psychology moves on to the laws, principles and theories of learning.

Learning situation or Environment:

Here educational psychology deals with the environment factors and learning situation which come midway between the learner and the teacher. Topics like classroom climate and group dynamics, techniques and aids that facilitate learning and evaluation, guidance and counselling etc.

The Teacher:

The Teacher is a potent force in any scheme of teaching and learning process. It emphasizes the need of 'knowing thyself' for a teacher to play his role properly in the process of education. His conflicts, motivation, Anxiety, adjustment, level of aspiration etc.

16.What are the remedial measures to adolescent problems?

1. To have the proper knowledge of adolescents psychology.

Adolescents is the bridge between childhood and adulthood. The behavior of the adolescent and his personality needs a careful study.It is essentials to have the knowledge of the adolescent's psychology in order to understand them.What are their specific needs?What type of changes do take place during this period?What are the problems faced by the adolescents?How should they be treated?All this is essential to be known by the parents' teachers and administrators who have to deal with them.

2. Providing suitable environment for proper growth.

The growth stops at the end of adolescence after attaining maturity.Adolescents must be provided with balanced diet.Their eating habits should be properly checked up.They must be given knowledge of health,personal hygiene,cleanliness,various diseases and their prevention etc...to keep them fit for growing.

3. Rendering proper sex education

Sex plays very dominant role at the age of adolescence.The rapid physiological changes,the secretion of sex hormones,the sudden awakening of sex instinct and urges all necessitate the provision of adequate sex information and education for adolescent.

4. Proper dealing with adolescents.

Recent researches in the field of adolescent's psychology have revealed that the adults,the parents,elders and the teachers and their unreasonable ways and points of view are the real problems of adolescence.They are in the habit of criticizing

the adolescents and always impose their authority and assert their likings and dislikings's.They forget that there is a generation gap between them and adolescents. In dealing with them the parents and teachers should realize that the demands of their peer group are more important than their own expectation.Youths are more in need of models and not critics.The elders must give a deep consideration to adolescents needs and problems.it is futile to punish misbehavior.The root causes should be removed.

5. Training of emotions and satisfaction of emotional needs.

The age of adolescents is marked by too much intensity,force,instability and immaturity of emotions.Their emotions can be aroused with a slight provocation.Emotions should be properly trained and their emotional energies should diverted towards the constructive ends.

17.Explain about drive and reinforcement perspective of motivation?

Reinforcement theory is a psychological principle suggesting that behaviors are shaped by their consequences, and that individual behaviors can be changed through reinforcement, punishment and extinction.

Behavioral psychologist B.F. Skinner was instrumental in developing modern ideas about reinforcement theory. According to Skinner, a person's internal needs and drives are not important areas of concern because their current behaviors follow the law of effect and are based on the consequences of former behaviors. This means that behaviors can be altered or manipulated over time.

How can managers use reinforcement theory to motivate employees?

The reinforcement theory of motivation aims to motivate staff through reinforcement, punishment and extinction. Reinforcement theory in the workplace can be positive or negative as long as it reinforces the desired employee experience and behavior. Managers using reinforcement theory to motivate staff should explain to employees which behaviors will result in positive feedback.

Here are several behavioral concepts that are common in business management, human resources management, marketing, social media, website and user experience design, and end-user training.

Positive reinforcement

A key idea in the reinforcement theory of motivation is that positive reinforcement with rewards reinforces desired behaviors. For example, providing an employee with extra days off for good performance in their job.

Negative reinforcement

Negative reinforcement involves the removal of aversive stimuli to reinforce the target behavior. For example, a manager can stop assigning tedious tasks to an employee when the employee starts meeting deadlines.

Punishment

Positive punishment involves the delivery of an aversive stimulus, such as criticism, to affect behavior. Meanwhile, negative punishment removes a pleasant stimulus -- flexible work hours, for example -- to do the same.

Extinction

Like punishment, the goal of extinction is to lower the occurrence of undesired behaviors. In this scenario, valued consequences can be withheld to reduce the probability of a specific learned behavior from continuing. The idea is to stop a learned behavior over time. For example, an organization might stop paying overtime to discourage employees from staying late and working too many extra hours.

18. Describe about classical conditioning with illustrations?

Classical conditioning (also known as Pavlovian or respondent conditioning) is a behavioral procedure in which a biologically potent stimulus (e.g. food) is paired with a previously neutral stimulus (e.g. a triangle). It also refers to the learning process that results from this pairing, through which the neutral stimulus comes to elicit a response (e.g. salivation) that is usually similar to the one elicited by the potent stimulus.

Pavlov's research

The best-known and most thorough early work on classical conditioning was done by Ivan Pavlov, although Edwin Twitmyer published some related findings a year earlier. During his research on the physiology of digestion in dogs, Pavlov

developed a procedure that enabled him to study the digestive processes of animals over long periods of time. He redirected the animal's digestive fluids outside the body, where they could be measured. Pavlov noticed that his dogs began to salivate in the presence of the technician who normally fed them, rather than simply salivating in the presence of food. Pavlov called the dogs' anticipatory salivation "psychic secretion". Putting these informal observations to an experimental test, Pavlov presented a stimulus (e.g. the sound of a metronome) and then gave the dog food; after a few repetitions, the dogs started to salivate in response to the stimulus. Pavlov concluded that if a particular stimulus in the dog's surroundings was present when the dog was given food then that stimulus could become associated with food and cause salivation on its own.

Terminology

In Pavlov's experiments the unconditioned stimulus (US) was the food because its effects did not depend on previous experience. The metronome's sound is originally a neutral stimulus (NS) because it does not elicit salivation in the dogs. After conditioning, the metronome's sound becomes the conditioned stimulus (CS) or conditional stimulus; because its effects depend on its association with food. Likewise, the responses of the dog follow the same conditioned-versus-unconditioned arrangement. The conditioned response (CR) is the response to the conditioned stimulus, whereas the unconditioned response (UR) corresponds to the unconditioned stimulus.

Forward conditioning

Learning is fastest in forward conditioning. During forward conditioning, the onset of the CS precedes the onset of the US in order to signal that the US will follow. Two common forms of forward conditioning are delay and trace conditioning.

- Delay conditioning: In delay conditioning, the CS is presented and is overlapped by the presentation of the US. For example, if a person hears a buzzer for five seconds, during which time air is puffed into their eye, the person will blink. After several pairings of the buzzer and the puff, the person will blink at the sound of the buzzer alone. This is delay conditioning.
- Trace conditioning: During trace conditioning, the CS and US do not overlap. Instead, the CS begins and ends before the US is presented. The stimulus-free period is called the *trace interval* or the *conditioning interval*. If in the above buzzer example, the puff came a second after the

sound of the buzzer stopped, that would be trace conditioning, with a trace or conditioning interval of one second.

Second-order and higher-order conditioning

Second-order or higher-order conditioning follow a two-step procedure. First a neutral stimulus ("CS1") comes to signal a US through forward conditioning. Then a second neutral stimulus ("CS2") is paired with the first (CS1) and comes to yield its own conditioned response. For example: A bell might be paired with food until the bell elicits salivation. If a light is then paired with the bell, then the light may come to elicit salivation as well. The bell is the CS1 and the food is the US. The light becomes the CS2 once it is paired with the CS1.

Zero contingency procedure

In this procedure, the CS is paired with the US, but the US also occurs at other times. If this occurs, it is predicted that the US is likely to happen in the absence of the CS. In other words, the CS does not "predict" the US. In this case, conditioning fails and the CS does not come to elicit a CR. This finding – that *prediction* rather than CS-US pairing is the key to conditioning – greatly influenced subsequent conditioning research and theory.

Extinction

In the extinction procedure, the CS is presented repeatedly in the absence of a US. This is done after a CS has been conditioned by one of the methods above. When this is done, the CR frequency eventually returns to pre-training levels. However, extinction does not eliminate the effects of the prior conditioning. This is demonstrated by spontaneous recovery – when there is a sudden appearance of the (CR) after extinction occurs – and other related phenomena (see "Recovery from extinction" below). These phenomena can be explained by postulating accumulation of inhibition when a weak stimulus is presented.

19. Explain about brain structure and key functions?

The brain receives information from sensory receptors and sends messages to muscles and glands. It is the centre of all conscious awareness and is divided into different lobes with different functions. It contains the cerebrum which makes up about 85% of the total mass.

Brain Parts

The brain is composed of the cerebrum, cerebellum, and brainstem

Cerebrum: is the largest and most recognisable part of the brain. It consists of grey matter (the cerebral cortex) and white matter at the centre. The cerebrum is divided into two hemispheres, the left and right, and contains the lobes of the brain (frontal, temporal, parietal, and occipital lobes). The cerebrum produces higher functioning roles such as thinking, learning, memory, language, emotion, movement, and perception.

Cerebellum: is located under the cerebrum and is responsible for monitoring and regulating motor behaviors, especially automatic movements. This structure is also important for regulating posture and balance, as well as recently being suggested for being involved in learning and attention. Although the cerebellum only account for roughly 10% of the brain's total weight, this area is thought to contain more neurons (nerve cells) than the rest of the brain combined.

Brainstem: is located at the base of the brain. This area connects the cerebrum and the cerebellum to the spinal cord, acting as a relay station for these areas. The brainstem works by regulating automatic functions such as sleep cycles, breathing, body temperature, digestion, coughing, and sneezing.

Right Brain – Left Brain

The cerebrum is divided into two halves: the right and left hemispheres. The left hemisphere controls the right half of the body, and the right hemisphere controls the left half of the body.

The two hemispheres are connected by a thick band of neural fibers known as the corpus callosum, consisting of about 200 million axons. The corpus callosum allows the two hemispheres to communicate with each other and allows for information being processed on one side of the brain to be shared with the other side.

Lobes of the Brain

Each cerebral hemisphere can be subdivided into four lobes, each associated with different functions.

The four lobes of the brain are the frontal, parietal, temporal, and occipital lobes. The brain is a complex organ that controls thought, memory, emotion, touch, motor skills, vision, breathing, temperature, hunger and every process that regulates our body. Together, the brain and spinal cord that extends from it make up the central nervous system, or CNS.

20. States the need and significance of life skill education?

Behaviors known as “life skills” (reference – UNICEF) enable people to meet life’s demands and problems. The abilities pupils need to maximize their potential in life are typically referred to as life skills. Life skills, on the other hand, are frequently utilized for any talents needed to effectively deal with life’s obstacles. It doesn’t matter if you’re a student, businessman, creator of an online course, or marketer—learning life skills is essential in today’s fast-paced world. The educational landscape of today has undergone a significant transformation, and with it, online course developers. Therefore, if you want to succeed as a creator in the always shifting environment, you must acquire or gain life skills.

If we want to live life successfully, then we need to understand the importance of life skills. And it is also very important to implement it in our life. If this happens then our life can move in a simple and right direction. Life skills make us competent to know how to make our life easy and simple, how to create a positive life, and how life can be spent in the right way. Therefore, life skills are very important in our life.

Needs

- To develop ethics
- It helps to remove stage fear
- To become self confident
- Facilitates to adopt of new skills
- For self branding
- To showcase the hidden talent

21. Explain about need reduction theory?

Drive reduction theory of motivation is the idea that all motivation comes from the result of biological needs. It was popular in the 1940s and 1950s, but it has since lost popularity. The basic belief of the theory is the body wants to reach homeostasis or balance. If the body is cold, the person might be motivated to put on a sweater or turn up the heater. This motivation is because of a biological need, referred to as a drive. Similar patterns were seen with the drive for food when

hungry, water when thirsty, and sleep when tired. Clark Hull stated that all motivation comes from these biological drives. Drive reduction theory of motivation can be simply described as you don't want to be hungry, thirsty, in pain, or horny. If your body wants something, that want is the drive. You are motivated to reduce the drive. Hull believed his universal theory of human behavior could be simplified to a mathematical formula. There are a lot of things involved in homeostasis, conditioning, and reinforcement, so it appears to be a complex formula. Here is Hull's drive reduction theory formula:

$$sEr = V * D * K * J * sHr - sIr - Ir - sOr - sLr$$

Consider each of those variables individually.

- sEr: stimulus excitatory response - The likelihood of a response to a stimulus
- V: intensity dynamism - The influence of specific stimuli when compared to other stimuli
- D: drive strength - The amount of drive as determined by the biological deprivation
- K: magnitude of the motivation - The size of the incentive or goal
- J: delay - The amount of time before reinforcement can be found
- sHr: strength of a habit - This is set by previous conditioning
- sIr: strength of inhibition - This is determined by a lack of previous reinforcement
- Ir: inhibition reaction - This is essentially fatigue
- sOr: strength of random error - This is the introduction of error in experimentation or real-life situations
- sLr: strength of the learning reaction - This is the smallest amount of reinforcement that produces learning

Primary vs. Secondary Drives

Another challenge to the drive reduction theory is the difference between primary and secondary drives. A primary drive is the biological drive such as hunger or cold. A secondary drive does not directly reduce the biological or physiological needs. For example, money motivates many people, but it does not directly solve a drive. Money can buy food or a heater, but to actually reduce the drive one must eat the food or turn on the heater. Hull's theory does not take into account any secondary drives, yet many people are highly motivated by secondary drives.

