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Behaviorism and social learning theory view development as continuous

Theorists Vygotsky Piaget Behaviourism & Social Learning Attachment Developmental Psychology Skinner Professor Bloom begins with a brief discussion of the value and evolutionary basis of unconscious processing. The rest of this lecture introduces students to the theory of behaviorism, especially the work of prominent behaviorist, FBI Skinner. The Little Albert Experiment Ivan Pavlov Classical Conditioning Dr. Ivan Pavlov's groundbreaking work revealed that a dog will respond to neutral stimuli, such as a bell, in the same way it will respond to, say, delicious food. This research is widely applicable beyond a dog's saliva. Benjamin N. Witts outlines a few situations where people are conditioned to respond in a Pavlovian way, from dating to parenting. Pavlov Experiments in Conditioning Why Is It That People Respond to Stimuli With Certain Behaviors? Can behavior change in response to consequences? Peggy Andover explains how the brain can connect independent stimuli and reactions, proven by Ivan Pavlov's famous 1890 experiments, and how reinforcement and punishment can result in altered behavior. Bandura – Social Learning Theory Social Learning Theory is a perspective that states that people learn in a social context. It's a relief through concepts like modeling and observational learning. People, especially children, learn from the environment and seek acceptance from society by learning through influential models. Bandura and Social Learning Theory A look at the social learning theory of aggression with original recordings 'bobo' doll experiment. Theories Vygotsky Piaget Behaviourism & Social Learning Attachment Behaviorism and Social Learning Theory are two psychological theories used to explain behavior. Although the two both engage in behavior, they focus on somewhat different elements in their attempts to explain why people behave the way they do. Behaviorism and social learning have strong foundations of support, so there is no clear answer as to which one does a better job of explaining behavior. 1 Behaviorism Behaviorism is a psychological theory that tries to explain why people behave the way they do. Behaviorism focuses on what can be observed. To behaviorists, all behavior can be traced back to an external stimuli. Further, behaviorists believe that behavior can be changed through reinforcements and punishments. Reinforcements are stimuli designed to encourage a particular behavior to happen again; stimuli are designed to counteract a particular behavior. Early behavioral scientists, such as John B. Watson, and F.B.I. Skinner, developed behaviorism to shift the focus of psychology into observable and measurable. 2 Social Learning Social Learning Theory expands the ideas that exist presented by behaviorism. Like behaviorism, social learning attempts to explain why people behave the way they do; social learning says that behavior is based on a combination of observable stimuli, and internal psychological processes. Social learning suggests three requirements for someone to learn a behavior: retention, reproduction and motivation. Retention is the individual's ability to remember behaviors that he observed, and reproduction is the individual's ability to reproduce that behavior. Motivation is the individual's desire to engage in this behavior. 3 Behaviorism vs. Social Learning Although social learning theory shares some similarities with behaviorism, it adds an element of internal thought processes to behaviors that behaviorism does not study. Social learning theorists argue that behavior is more complicated than stimulus and reaction. Social learning theory claims that in addition to behaviorism external reinforcements, individuals learn through observation, and by mimicking the behavior of the people around them. Peer influence can cause someone to join forces with the crowd in a desire to fit in and be accepted, even when the observed behavior conflicts with personal values. 4 Applications Both behaviorism and social learning theory have applications to society, and for everyday life. Parents who give their children an allowance for doing chores use the behavior-modification process behaviorism. Similarly, parents who choose not to smoke in front of their children follow the tenants of the theory of social learning; they do not want their children to observe them engaging in an unhealthy habit because their children may want to imitate what they observe. On a larger scale, proactive training programmes can have elements of both behaviour and social learning. For example, a campaign to reduce underage drinking can take a behavioral approach by emphasizing legal implications, along with a social learning approach using a social norm campaign to dispel myths that everyone drinks a lot in college. Learning theories focus on how we respond to events or stimuli, rather than emphasizing what motivates our actions. These theories provide an explanation of how experience can change what we are able to do or feel. Classic Conditioning theory helps us understand how our response to a situation becomes linked to new situations. For example, an smell might remind us of a time when we were a child (elementary school cafeteria's smell of milk and mildew). If you went to a new cafeteria with the same smell, it can elicit feelings you had when you went to school. Or a song on the radio might remind you of a memorable evening you've spent with your first true love. Or, if you hear your entire name (John Wilmington Brewer, for example) called as you walk across the stage to receive your diploma, and it makes you tense because it reminds you of how your father used to use your full name when he was upset have you been Conditioned! Classic conditioning explains how we develop many of our emotional responses to people, events or gut level reactions to situations. New situations can create an old reaction because the two have been connected. The Attachments form this way. Addiction is affected by classic conditioning, as anyone who has tried to quit smoking can tell you. When you try to quit, everything that was associated with smoking makes you crave a cigarette. Ivan Pavlov (1880-1937) was a Russian physiologist interested in studying digestion. When he recorded the amount of saliva dogs produced as they ate, he noticed that they actually started salivating before the food arrived, as the researcher walked down the aisle and toward the cage. This, he thought, is not natural! One would expect a dog to automatically drool when the food hit their palate, but before the food comes? Why would that happen? The dogs knew the food was coming because they had learned to connect the footprints with the food. The key word here is learned. A learned answer is called a conditioned answer. Pavlov began experimenting with this psychic reflex. He started ringing a bell, for example, before the introduction of the food. Sure enough, after this connection several times, the dogs could be made to drool to the sound of a bell. Once the bell had become an event that the dogs had learned to drool, it was called a conditioned stimulus. The act of salivating to a bell was a response that had also been learned, now referred to as a conditioned response. The answer, saliva, is the same, whether it is conditioned or unconditioned (unlearned or natural). What has changed is the stimulus with which the dog spits. One is natural (unconditioned) and one is learned (conditioned). Why is it important? Consider how classic conditioning is applied to us. The psychologist, John B. Watson, is known for one of the most widely used uses of classical conditioning principles. Watson believed that most of our fears and other emotional responses are classically conditioned. He had gained quite a bit of popularity in the 1920s with his expert advice on parenting. He believed that parents could learn to help shape their children's behavior and tried to demonstrate the power of classic conditioning with his famous experiment on 18-month-old boy named little Albert. Watson sat Albert down and introduced a series of seemingly scary objects to him: a burning piece of newspaper, a white rat, etc. but Albert remained curious and reached for each of these things. Watson knew that one of our innate fears is the fear of loud noises, so he continued to make a loud sound every time he introduced one of Albert's favorites, a white rat. After hearing the loud noise several times paired with the rat, Albert soon became of the rat and began to cry when it was introduced. Watson filmed this experiment for posterity and used it to show that he could help parents achieve any result they wanted if they would only follow his advice. Consider the experiment with little Albert, identify the unconditioned stimulus, the unconditioned response, and after conditioning, the conditional stimulus and the conditional response. (6) Operant Conditioning is another learning theory that emphasizes a more conscious form of learning than classical conditioning. A person (or animal) does something (driver something) to see what effect it can bring. Simply put, operant conditioning describes how we repeat behavior because they pay for us. It is based on a principle authored by a psychologist named Thorndike (1874-1949) called the Law of Efficacy. The law of effect suggests that we will repeat an action if it is followed by a good effect. B.F. Skinner (1904-1990) elaborated Thorndike's principle and outlined the principles of operant conditioning. Skinner believed that we learn best when our actions are strengthened. For example, a child who cleans his room and is strengthened (rewarded) with a big hug and words of praise is more likely to clean it again than a child whose deed goes unnoticed. Skinner believed that almost anything could be amplified. An amplifier is something after a behavior that makes it more likely to occur again. It can be something inherently rewarding (called intrinsic or primary amplifiers), such as food or praise, or it can be something that is rewarding because it can be exchanged for what one really wants (such as money to buy a cookie). Such amplifiers are called secondary amplifiers or outer amplifiers. Sometimes the addition of something to the situation is reinforcing, as in the cases we previously described with cookies, praise and money. Positive reinforcement involves adding something to the situation to promote behaviour. Other times, taking something away from a situation can be strengthening. For example, the loud, annoying buzzer on your alarm clock encourages you to get up so you can turn it off and get rid of the noise. Children whine to get their parents to do something, and often parents give in just to stop whining. In these cases, negative reinforcement has been applied. Operant conditioning tends to work best if you focus on trying to promote a behavior or move someone in the direction you want them to go instead of telling them what not to do. Amplifiers are used to promote behavior; punishers are used to stop behaviour. A punisher is something that follows an action and reduces the chance it will repeat itself. But often a punished behavior doesn't really go away. It's just suppressed and can happen again once the threat of punishment is removed. Such as. can only brake when the highway patrol is on the side of the highway. Another problem with punishment is that when one person focuses on punishment, they may have a hard time seeing what the other is doing right or well. And punishment stigmatizes; when punished, some begin to see themselves as bad and give up trying to change. Amplification can occur in a predictable manner, such as after each desired action is performed, or periodically, after the behavior is performed a number of times or the first time it is performed after a certain amount of time. The backup schedule has an impact on how long a behavior continues after reinforcement is interrupted. So a parent who has rewarded a child's actions each time may find that the child gives up very quickly if a reward is not imminent. Think of the kind of behavior you may have learned through classical and operant conditioning. You may have learned many things this way. But sometimes we learn very complex behavior quickly and without direct reinforcement. Bandura explains how. (6) Albert Bandura is a leading contributor to the theory of social learning. He draws our attention to the ways in which many of our actions are not taught through conditioning; rather, they are taught by seeing others (1977). Young children often learn behavior through imitation. Sometimes, especially when we don't know what else to do, we learn by modeling or copying the behavior of others. An employee on his or her first day in a new job can eagerly look at how others act and try to act in the same way to fit in faster. Young people struggling with their identity rely heavily on their peers to act as role models. Newlywed couples often rely on roles they may have learned from their parents and begin acting in ways they fall while dating and then wonder why their relationship has changed. Sometimes we do things because we've seen it pay off for someone else. They were operantly conditioned, but we engage in the behavior because we hope it will pay off for us as well. This is called deputy reinforcement (Bandura, Ross and Ross. 1963). Bandura (1986) suggests that there is interaction between the environment and the individual. We are not just a product of our surroundings. Instead, we affect our surroundings. There is interaction between our personality and the way we interpret events and how they affect us. This concept is called mutual determinism. An example of this could be the interaction between parents and children. Parents not only affect their child's environment, perhaps consciously through the use of reinforcement, etc., but children also affect parents. Parents may react differently with their first child than with their fourth. Maybe they are trying to be the perfect parents with their firstborn, but at the time their child comes together, they have very different expectations both of themselves and of their child. Our environment creates us and we create our environment. Other social influences: TV or not TV? Bandura (et al. 1963) began a series of studies to look at the impact of TELEVISION advertising on the behaviour of children. Are children more likely to act out aggressively when they see this behavior modeled? What if they see it being amplified? Bandura began by conducting an experiment in which he showed children a film of a woman hitting an inflatable clown or bobo doll. So the kids were allowed into the room where they found the doll and immediately started hitting it. It was without any reinforcement. Later children seen a woman hitting a real clown and safe enough when allowed in the room, they also started hitting the clown! Not only that, but they found new ways to behave aggressively. It's as if they've learned an aggressive role. (6) Strictly speaking, behavioral theories are not developmental theories. Both Freud and Erikson were interested in stages of development and how we change over time. Behavioral theories believe that forces and punishments function in the same way regardless of age or stage of development, which is why they are psychological theories, but not developmental theories. (1) Cognitive theories Cognitive theories focus on how our mental processes or conitions change over time. We will examine the ideas of two cognitive theorists: Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky. Jean Piaget (1896-1980) is one of the most influential cognitive theorists inspired to explore children's ability to think and reason by seeing the development of their own children. He was one of the first to recognize and map the ways in which children's intelligence differs from that of adults. He became interested in this area when he was asked to test the IQ of children and began to notice that there was a pattern in their wrong answers. He believed that children's intellectual skills change over time and that maturation rather than education brings about this change. Children of different ages interpret the world differently Piaget believed that we are constantly trying to maintain cognitive equilibrium or a balance or cohesiveness in what we see and what we know. Children have much more of a challenge in maintaining this balance because they are constantly confronted with new situations, new words, new objects, etc. When faced with something new, a child can either fit it into an existing frame (schema) and match it with something known (assimilation) such as calling all animals with four leg doggies, because he or she knows the word doggie, or expand the framework of knowledge to accommodate the new situation (accommodation) by learning a new word to more accurately name the animal. This is the underlying in our own cognition. Even as adults, we continue to try to make sense of new situations by determining whether they fit into our old way of thinking or whether we need to change our minds. Piaget outlined four major stages of cognitive development. The stages are mentioned briefly here. We will discuss them in detail throughout the course. For about the first two years of life, the child experiences the world primarily through their senses and motor skills. Piaget referred to this type of intelligence as sensory intelligence. In preschool years, the child begins to master the use of symbols or words and is able to think of the world symbolically, but not yet logically. This phase is the pre-operational stage of development. The concrete operational phase of mid-childhood is characterized by an ability to use logic in understanding the physical world. In the final phase, the formal operational phase teaches that young people learn to think abstractly and to use logic in both concrete and abstract ways. Piaget has been criticized for overemphasizing the role of physical maturation in cognitive development and in underestimating the role that culture and interaction (or experience) play in cognitive development. Looking across cultures reveals significant variation in what children are able to do at different ages. Piaget may have underestimated what children are able to provide the right circumstances. Lev Vygotsky (1896-1934) was a Russian psychologist who wrote in the early 1900s. Vygotsky's work was discovered in the United States in the 1960s, and he became more well known in the 1980s. Vygotsky differed with Piaget in that he believed that a person not only has a set of abilities, but also a set of potential abilities that can be realized if they get the right guidance from others. His sociocultural theory emphasizes the importance of culture and interaction in the development of cognitive abilities. He believed that through guided participation known as scaffolding, with a teacher or skilled peer, a child can learn cognitive skills within a certain range known as the zone of proximal development. Have you ever taught a child to do a task? Maybe it was brushing her teeth or preparing food. Chances are you spoke to her and described what you did while showing skill and let her work with you throughout the process. You gave her help when she seemed to need it, but once she knew what to do, you stood back and let her go. These are scaffolding and can be seen demonstrated around the world. This approach to teaching has also been adopted by teachers. Instead of assessing students on what they do, they should be understood based on what they are able to do with the right guidance. 7) guidance. (7)

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