

Cognitive process

Attention

* A small girl wears a suit every day. But one day she was dressed in a saree.

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* Immediately she drew the attention of everyone present.

* Similarly strange animals, ultra modern buildings, unusual colours, novel flower arrangements draw our attention a lot.

* It means, anything strange or unusual has always a special charm for the attending person.

Definitions of Attention:

* Attending is a set looked at from the standpoint of its contribution to the process of perceiving or acting. — Munn (1953)

* Attention is a perceptual process that selects certain inputs for inclusion in our conscious experience, or awareness, at any given time. Attention is the concentration of conscious^{ness} object upon one object rather than another object. Duvvillle (1938)

* Attention is the concentration of mental effort on sensory (or) mental events involving possession by the mind, in clear and vivid form, of one out of what seem several simultaneously possible objects (or) train of thoughts. — William James (1890)

* Attention is defined as the ability to focus on a person (Eg. mom, baby, brother), objects (eg. toy elephant), or activity (Eg. feeding time, playing cricket) for a certain period of time.

Characteristics / Features of Attention:

* It involves the ability to focus and use of memory, it relates directly to the cognitive development of infants, toddlers and preschoolers.

* It is a mind-body set, that facilitates clearness of observation and perception.

* Attending is characterised by muscle tensions and related feelings of effort.

* It involves some adjustment in the nervous system besides neural adjustment.

* It is characterized by increased clearness, a bringing out of detail in whatever is attended to.

* Three aspects of attention are:

- an adjustment of the body and its sense organs
- clear and vivid consciousness and
- a set towards action.

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Types of Attention: Voluntary & Involuntary.

1) Focussed attention: This is the ability to respond discretely to specific visual, auditory or tactile stimulus.

2) Sustained attention: This refers to the ability to maintain a consistent behavioural response during continuous and repetitive activity.

3) Selective attention: This level of attention refers to the capacity to maintain a behavioural (or) cognitive set in the face of distracting (or) competing stimuli.

* Therefore, it incorporates the notion of "freedom from distractibility."

4) Alternating attention: It refers to the capacity for mental flexibility that allows individuals to shift their focus of attention and move between tasks having different cognitive requirements.

5) Divided attention: This is the highest level of attention and it refers to the ability to respond simultaneously to multiple tasks (or) multiple task demands.

Determinants of Attention: / Methods of Attention / Factors of Attention.

These are many factors that influence the direction and selection of our attention. They determine our attention.

1) Objective or External determinants: There are the qualities and characteristics present in the object of attention.

a) Intensity / potency → The more intense the stimulus, the more likely it is to be attended.

Eg → Bright, gorgeous shades are catchy.

b) Size / Extensity → Big things always draw one's attention than smaller ones.

c) Duration ⇒ Objects exposed for a longer period of attention have more focus than those shown for shorter period.

d) Novelty → Anything novel (or) new is instantly noticed eg. new dress, decoration etc...

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e) Repetition → A weak stimulus frequently repeated becomes centre of consciousness and we attend it.

f) change → change may be in size, colour, taste, intensity and in other aspects is necessary to draw one's attention.

g) Systematic form → A definite systematic pattern, or rhythmic flow of stimulus attract our attention.

h) Movement → A running ball, a moving picture, a flying bird is more attended than static one.

i) Location/situation → The location of a stimulus (eg → visual stimulus in front of eye) determines the direction of attention.

j) Colour → A coloured dress, a coloured light has special attention.

k) Contrast → Anything opposite of other stimulus is called contrast. eg → a dwarf in a group of tall persons.

B 2) Internal (or) subjective determinants: These lie with the individual who attends.

a) Organic needs and motives → Biological needs operating at a moment play a potent role.

Eg → Thirsty person will prefer drinking water, a sexually deprived man will attend to females.

b) Habit → A particular habit determines day-to-day attention.

Eg → an alcoholic to wine, a smoker to cigarettes.

c) Interest → Individual differences in attention to a stimulus occur because of a person's interests eg → a psychiatric nurse's attention may be drawn to the attitude and behaviour of students.

d) Attitudes and mood: A worried depressed person will attend to very small annoyances, a palatable attitude towards flowers will make one to attend to its every detail. Eg → Brightly colored flowers

Theories of Attention:

1) Broadbent's filter theory:

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- * Broadbent (1958) explains that information from senses passes "in parallel" to short-term store, a temporary "buffer system" which holds information until it can be processed further and effectively extends the duration of a stimulus.
 - * Then, the information passes through a selective filter, which operates on the basis of the information's physical characteristics, "selecting one source" for further analysis and rejecting all others.

The information allowed through the filter

Factors that affect attention:

1) Health factors → Many health factors may cause to have difficulty with attention behaviours.

- Ear infections and hearing impairments
- Visual infections
- physical illness
- preoccupations with pain or discomfort or having an illness.

All of these issues should be checked out by a health care professional.

2) Environmental factors:

- * Stressful and challenging situations (eg → a death in the family; the fam parental divorce) may have more difficulty focussing.
- * Some children may be sensitive to physical factors such as strong lighting materials that are uncomfortable to the touch, and loud noises.
- * These factors may affect children's abilities to sustain their attention and remain engaged during a task.

3) personality factors:

- * A low self-esteem may approach a task with caution or fear.
- * Some have more active personalities where they become bored and restless with certain activities.
- * Some may need activities that are more visual, more auditory or more physical.
- * Factors like fatigue, nutrition, caffeine/sugar and bathroom needs can interrupt concentration and completion of tasks.

Meaning of Perception

* The term perception may be defined as under:

- * E.G. Boring, H.S. Langfield and H.P. Weld: → Perception is the first event in the chain which leads from the stimulus to action
- * Charles G. Morris: → All the processes involved in creating meaningful patterns out of a jumble of sensory impressions fall under the general category of perception.
- * Edmund Fantino and G.S. Renolds: → Perception is the organising process by which we interpret our sensory input.
- * O. Desiderato, B.D. Howieson & J.H. Jackson: → Perception is the experience of objects, events or relationships obtained by extracting information from the interpreting sensations.

The Nature and Meaning of the term Perception:

1) perception is a process:

- * perception is essentially a process rather than being a product (or) outcome of some psychological phenomenon.
- * If we talk in terms of systems approach, then, sensory impressions, gathered through our sensory organs, may be termed as **INPUT**.
- * The way in which we finally behave (or) react to this gathered information may be taken as **[Output] OUTPUT**.
- * Perception provides the necessary link in terms of **PROCESS** for converting **INPUT** into **OUTPUT** by way of organising and interpreting the sensory impressions.

2) perception is the information extractor:

* Our sensory receptors are bombarded continuously by various stimuli present in our environment.

* It is difficult and rather impossible to react to all stimulation.

* A selection process is therefore essential.

* Perception performs this duty by extracting relevant information out of a jumble of sensory impressions and converting them into some meaningful pattern.

3) perception is preparation to response:

* Perception is the first step towards the active behaviour of an organism.

* It is the preparatory stage that prepares an individual for action and response.

* Our sensory receptors are just the receiving and transmitting centres of the sensory information.

* How we should react and respond is ordered by our central nervous system through the involvement of some mediating activity known as perception.

4) perception involves sensation:

* In a simple and straight forward way, we may sense that sensation precedes perception.

* The relationship between sensation and perception is always direct, that is, what we do have in sensation is always a part of perception.

* The perception goes beyond sensation as it organises, interprets and gives meaning to the result of sensations.

* Therefore, to a student of psychology, perception means assigning meaning to sensory stimuli.

* Sensation, attached with some meaning is thus termed as perception.

5) perception provides organisation:

* In addition to the help provided in deriving meaning to sensory impressions, perception also helps in its proper arrangement and organisation.

* The arrangement and organisation reflects a particular pattern rather than being merely a summation of the sensory impressions.

* What one perceives, he perceives as a whole in an organised pattern and not as the sum total of various stimuli

6) perception is highly individualized

* perception by all means, is an individual affair.

* Different individuals do not perceive objects, events or relationships in much the same way.

* Even individual perceptions of the same event may vary.

Types of perception:

1) Amodal perception → is the term used to describe the full perception of a physical structure when it is only partially perceived.

For example → A table will be perceived as a complete volumetric structure even if only part of it is visible.

2) Colour perception → is the properties of colour which are inherently distinguishable by the human eye.

3) Depth perception → is the visual ability to perceive the world in three dimensions.

Eg → the ability to move accurately, or to respond consistently based on the distance of objects in an environment.

4) visual perception → is the ability to interpret information from visible light reaching the eye.

5) Form perception → is the ability to perceive the shapes of objects and pictures.

Eg → discriminating the shape of circle from a square, or the letter B from P.

6) Haptic perception → includes all aspects of touch using the hand.

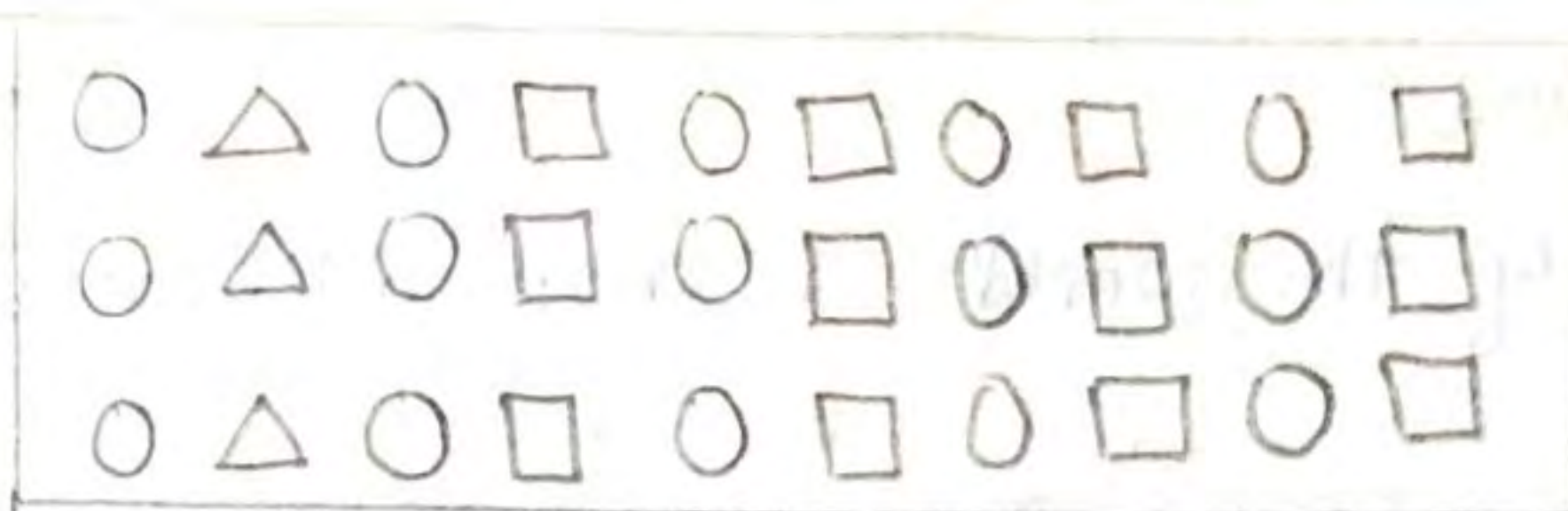
7) speech perception → refers to the processes by which humans are able to interpret and understand the sounds used in language.

8) pitch perception → allows us to order sounds on a musical scale corresponds to its frequency.

9) Harmonic perception → is to perceive the relationship between pitch values occurring at different times.

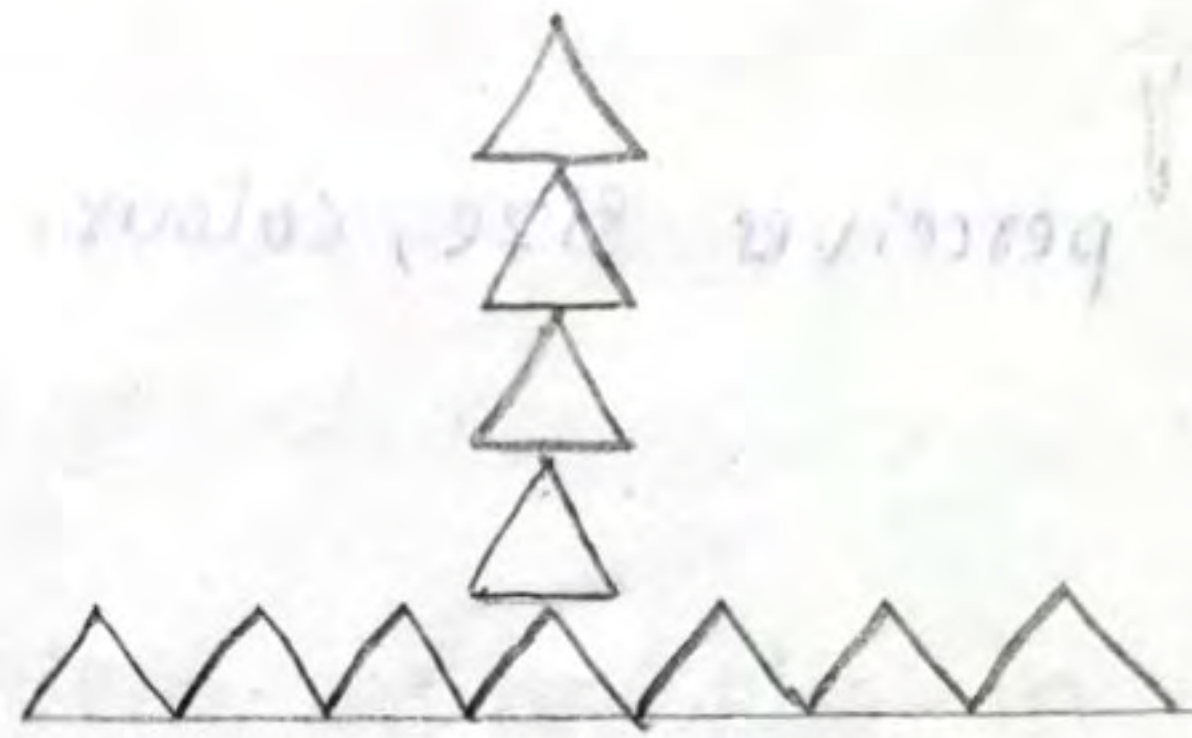
Principles of perception:

1) perceptual grouping and similarity → one perceives definite patterns and exact figures which have some meaning to us, depending upon one's past experience and learning.

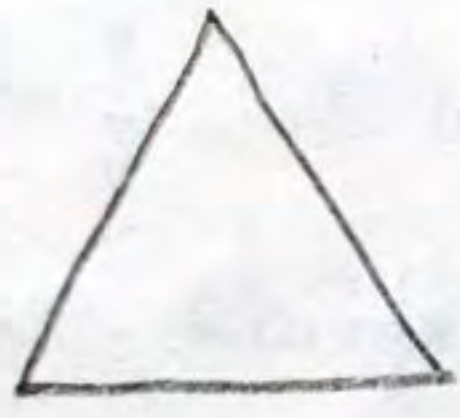


2) Continuity (or) common direct →

with this, the stimuli tend to be grouped together than a pattern which does not have any continuity. The sequence of the pattern must be continuous.



3) Closure: It is the inherent tendency of an individual to complete an incomplete figure, ultimately perceived as a single pattern.



4) Good figure: It is tendency of each perceiver to give a good shape (or) good figure to an erratic, haphazard percept.

5) Movement (or) phi phenomenon: phi phenomenon is an illusion of movement. When objects move in quick succession, they appear as one continuous unit (or) whole. Everyone is influenced by this type of illusion.

6) Familiarity / past experience: If the pattern appears us to be familiar, such as the figure of an animal tree or human being, it will be very easily organised to form one unit.

Factors Influencing perception:

1) past experience:

perception of present stimulus is influenced not only by immediate stimulus alone but by effects of previous stimuli or past experiences

2) Needs, values and motives:

These will organize our perception.

3) Mental set and attitudes:

It is a readiness or alertness to observe a particular stimulus to make specific response to a stimulus.

4) Moods and emotions :

Our perception of the world is also influenced by our mood and emotions.

Eg → in pleasant mood, the food appears to be delicious

5) Cultural influence :

Due to man's psychological level of adjustment, cultural factors cannot be ignored.

6) perceptual constancy

The individual perceives size, colour, shape and brightness of the percept.

Meaning And Purpose of Mental Hygiene

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We have seen that mental hygiene health is and on what factors it depends.

We have also discussed in previous

Mental Hygiene principles in Succeeding Stages of Growth.

* Our personality is a growing thing. The growth can be divided into a few stages called pre-natal period, infancy, childhood, adolescence, maturity or adulthood and old age.

* In every stage, the individual has to make certain adjustments.

* If the growth is properly guided, particularly in infancy and early childhood, the individual can develop into a mentally healthy adult.

* Adequate growth, of course, depends on favourable environmental as well as personality factors.

A) principles of Mental Hygiene in pre-natal period.

* The emotional experiences of the mother during pregnancy have a considerable bearing on the attitude of the mother toward the new-born child, and thus upon the early relationships between the two.

* If the mother has had a happy pregnancy, the baby enters a world to a large measure, prepared to welcome him or her happily.

* Santag, in a review of the general subject of the relation of the foetus and mother, points out that the emotional strains of the mother influence the foetus

* Many infants who have feeding difficulties have been those whose mothers had prolonged prenatal emotional strains.

* It is for the members of the family to see and for the public health nurses and health workers to impress that the pregnancy period of the mother is not made unhappy on account of deprivations, frustrations, conflicts and unpleasant demands

* A mother, in Indian families, may be afraid of having a baby girl, because mother, ^{in-law} (may be afraid of being) and husband want a boy.

* Another mother may be afraid of being neglected by her husband for the time being or of being wounded or injured or deformed.

* Still another may be afraid of the economic consequences of another addition to the already over-crowded family.

Learning:

* Learning starts from the moment of birth and continues till death.

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* For successful adjustment with life, he has to acquire knowledge about many things, changes his behaviour according to the needs of the situation.

* The child starts to understand the world around him through learning.

* The language development, development of basic values, knowledge regarding various aspects of life all come through learning (or) training.

* The process of learning has, therefore, tremendous importance for the human beings and for some animals to live and exist.

* Without learning, life becomes completely meaningless, capacity to adjust becomes nil.

Definitions of Learning:

* A change in behaviour resulting from repeated practice, where both the environment and the behaviour interact to produce the learned change.

① * A process by which the individual acquire various habits, knowledge and attitudes necessary to meet the demands of life in general.

② * Every modification in behaviour to meet environmental requirement. → Boaz (1984)

* Learning is the process by which an activity originating (or) is changed through training procedures as is distinguished from changes by factors and attributable to training.

→ Hilgard

* A change in performance as a function of practice leading to a direction which satisfies the current motivating conditions of the individual.

→ Mc. Guech

* Learning is that activity by virtue of which we organise our response with new habits.

→ Garrett

* Learning is defined as any relatively permanent change in behaviour which occurs as a result of practice and experience
→ Morgan and King (1978)

Types of learning

Based on

- ↓
- 1) Domain (or) specific area of behaviour
 - 1) Verbal learning
 - 2) Motor learning
 - 3) Affective learning
 - 4) Cognitive learning
 - 5) Serial learning
 - 6) Skill learning
 - 2) Methods (or) techniques used for behavioural changes
 - 1) Trial and error learning
 - 2) Classical conditioning
 - 3) Operant conditioning
 - 4) chain learning
 - 5) Serial learning
 - 6) Associate learning

only some are discussed below but not all

1) Verbal learning:

7) Insight theory of learning.

* It helps to acquire verbal behaviours resulting in speaking language and use of communication devices.

* Signs, picture, symbols, words, figures, sounds, voices, etc... are used by the individual.

2) Motor learning:

* It includes learning motor skills such as walking, dancing, typing, swimming etc...

* Acquiring various skills through such learning helps in speed and accuracy to perform the task with great ease and satisfaction

3) Affective learning:

* It deals with emotional learning such as learning of habits, interest, attitudes, appreciation etc...

* Acceptance and rejection are involved in emotion.

* The end products of this learning i.e., attitudes, values and ideas determine the character of our motive power.

4) Cognitive learning:

* In learning ideas, the learner acquires knowledge and information through which he forms concepts, sees relationships, and arrives at generalization.

* It includes learning of concepts, principles, problem solving etc...

Serial learning

5) Serial learning (comes in Methods ^{or} Techniques)

* When the learner is presented with type of learning that exhibits some sequential (or) serial order.

* For example, children are expected to master lists of materials such as alphabet, multiplication, tables, names of presidents in order (or) serial.

5) Skill learning (comes in Domain (or) specific area of behaviour)

* It is carried out in Conative (or) psychomotor domain.

* A skill is defined pattern of movement (or) performance based upon and integrated with perceived demands of the situations.

* The student nurse can learn the manner in which the movements are carried out, either by

1) listening to directions and explanations

2) reading a description

3) Seeing a demonstration

4) paying attention

* The practise is equally important that depends on attitude and will of the learner and eradication of mistakes.

Tennant's A.S.K.

Tennant (1995) categorised learning as:

A → represents "attitude" also known as effective learning. An example of this type of learning is a shift in attitude towards the academic abilities of students with disabilities.

S → represents "skills", often called psychomotor (or) manual learning. Learning to operate adaptive technology is an example of the development of skills. Practical skills are required in nursing.

K → represents "knowledge". Cognitive learning is the formal term used for mental skills such as recall of information.

An example of knowledge is information on available resources related to disability issues.

Theories of Learning :

→ Trial and Error theory of learning:

This was first scientific study of learning by American Psychologist E.L. Thorndike (1874-1949), considered as the father of educational Psychology, conducted series of experiments on animal learning and came out with conclusion that animals have no rational faculty in learning.

* They do not learn by reasoning but by trial and error.

* Animals go on hitting the target by impulse or learn out of "hit and miss" known as trial and error learning.

Experiment → A hungry cat was put inside a puzzle box. A piece of food (motivation) was kept outside the box at a little distance so that the cat can not reach it unless she opens the door of the puzzle box. The cat had to press the lever by pulling the loop of the chord to open the door and to get the food. At 1st, the cat tried a number of ways, made lots of unnecessary movements to open the door.

In this way, after trying several hit and miss random acts, making enough struggle accidentally, the loop was pulled and the door opened.

* Finally, the animal reached its goal. After several trials like this, the cat learnt to go straight to the lever, press it, open the door and reach the food. Comparison of the time and unnecessary movements from the 1st to the last trial showed gradual decrease in time taken to reach the food. In this case, the cat learns through errors.

⇒ This method is used when —

* The learner is completely motivated and sees the goal clearly. As the rat is hungry (motive) and knows the food (goal) is there.

* When perception (or) learned activities are alone not sufficient.

* When learner fails to find the solution to the problem through perception, understanding, intelligence and language. Then, he proceeds blindly, tries in various directions, commits errors, eliminates them and finally arrives at the correct response.

2) Theory of conditioned reflexes

of classical / pavlovian conditioning:

* classical (also called respondent) conditioning results from the repeated pairing of a neutral (conditioned) stimulus with one that evokes a response (unconditioned stimulus), such that the neutral stimulus eventually comes to evoke the response.

* In other words, a reflexive (or) automatic response transfers from one stimulus to another.

* For instance, a person who has had painful experiences at the dentist's office may become fearful at just the sight of the dentist's office building.

Pavlov's Experiments:

The Russian physiologist and Nobel prize winner Ivan Petrovich Pavlov (1849-1936), observed in his work on gastric secretion that a dog salivated not only, when food was placed in its mouth, but also at the sound of footsteps of the person coming to feed it, even though the dog could not see (or) smell the food. Pavlov analysed these events & called the saline flow that occurred with the sound of footsteps - a conditioned response (CR), a response produced under certain conditions by a particular stimulus.

Before conditioning

Food (UCS) → Salivation (UCR)

Bell (CS) with food (UCS) → Salivation (UCR)

After conditioning

Bell (CS) → Salivation (CR)

Because the food naturally produced salivation, it is referred to as an unconditioned stimulus (UCS). Salivation, a response that is reliably elicited by food (UCS). The bell, which was originally unable to evoke salivation but came to do so when paired with food, is referred to as a conditioned stimulus (CS). Classical conditioning is most often applied to responses mediated by the autonomic nervous system.

Principles of classical Conditioning:

Acquisition:

* It is initial learning of the conditioned response, eg → the dog learning to salivate at the sound of the bell. The factors that affect the speed of conditioning during this phase are order and timing of the stimuli. If delay, conditioning seldom occurs.

Extinction:

Once learned, a conditioned response is not necessarily permanent.

This term is used to describe the elimination of the conditioned response by repeatedly presenting the conditional stimulus without the unconditioned stimulus.

Generalization:

* After an animal has learned a conditioned response to one stimuli, it may also respond to similar stimuli without further training.

* If a child is bitten by a large black dog, the child may fear not only that dog but other large dogs.

Discrimination:

The opposite of generalization is discrimination in which an individual learns to produce a conditioned response to one stimulus that is similar.

Eg → a child may show a fear response to freely roaming dogs, but may show no fear when a dog is on a leash (or) confined to a pen.

Applications of classical conditioning:

The principles of classical conditioning can be used in the following areas of animal and human learning.

1) Developing good habits:

Good habits like cleanliness, respect for elders, punctuality etc.

2) Breaking of bad habits and elimination of conditioned fears:

All learning is acquired in the social environment

Eg → deconditioning anxiety and fear in maladjusted children.

3) Training of animals:

Animal trainers have been using for long without being much aware of underlying mechanism.

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4) Developing attitude:

It helps to develop favourable attitude towards learning.

5) Use in psychotherapy

To treat phobias and other unwanted behaviours, such as alcoholism and addiction.

~~6)~~ Operant conditioning:

* BF Skinner (1904-1990) developed a theory of learning and behaviour known as operant conditioning.

* It involves increasing a behaviour by following it with a reward (or) decreasing a behaviour by following it with punishment.

For Eg → if a mother starts giving a boy his favourite snacks every day that he cleans up his room, before long the boy may spend time each day cleaning his room in anticipation of the snack.

* The boy's room-cleaning behaviour increases because it is followed by a reward (or) reinforcer.

* Unlike classical conditioning in which the conditioned and unconditioned stimuli are presented regardless of what the learner does, operant conditioning requires action on the part of the learner.

* The boy in the above example will not get his snacks unless he ^{1st} cleans up his room. The term operant conditioning refers to the fact that the learner must operate, or perform a certain behaviour, before receiving a reward (or) punishment.

Skinner's Experiment:

* He placed a rat inside a glass box (Skinner box) containing a lever and food tray.

* The animal was free to explore the box whenever the lever in the box was pressed, automatically a pellet of food was dropped on the way.

* pressing of lever was the response to be learned (the operant response) and the food was stimulus consequence (reinforcement)

Principles of Operant Conditioning

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* Reinforcement :

* It refers to any process that strengthens a particular behaviour i.e., increases the chances that the behaviour will occur again

* Positive reinforcers include material possessions, money, friendship, love, praise, attention and success in one's career.

* Negative reinforcement is a method of strengthening a behaviour by following it with the removal (avoidance) or omission (escape) of an unpleasant stimulus.

Reinforcement schedule :

* It is a rule that specifies that timing and frequency of reinforcers.

In his early experiments, Skinner rewarded animals with food everytime they made the desired response → a schedule known as continuous reinforcement.

* Skinner soon tried rewarding only some instances of the desired response and not others a schedule known as partial reinforcement.

* He found that animals should entirely different behaviour patterns.

Punishment :

where as reinforcement strengthens behaviour, punishment weakens it, reducing the chances that the behaviour will occur again.

Positive punishment involves reducing a behaviour by delivering an unpleasant stimulus if the behaviour occurs like parents spank, scold (or) shout at children for bad behaviour (or) ~~scold like parents~~ fine, imprison etc. - Negative punishment (or) omission involves reducing a behaviour by removing a pleasant stimulus if the behaviour occurs.

Eg → parents take away various privileges due to bad behaviour.

Shaping :

It is a reinforcement technique that is used to teach animals (or) people behaviours that they have never performed before

Eg → teacher begins by reinforcing a response the learner performs easily, and then gradually requires more and more difficult responses.

Extinction:

- * It is elimination of a learned behaviour by discontinuing the reinforcement of that behaviour.
- * For instance, parents often reinforce temper tantrums in young children by giving them attention.
- * If parents simply ignore, the child's tantrums rather than reward them with attention, the number of tantrums should gradually decrease.

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Generalization and Discrimination:

- * These occur much the same way as in classical conditioning.
- * In generalization, people perform a behaviour learned in one situation in others.
- * Similar situations. For instance, a man who is rewarded with laughter when he tells certain jokes at a bar, may tell the same jokes at restaurants, parties (or) wedding receptions.
- * Discrimination is learning that a behaviour will be reinforced in one situation but not in another.

Eg → the man may learn that telling his jokes in church (or) at a serious business meeting will not make people laugh.

Applications of Operant Conditioning:

- * It has practical importance in many areas of human life.

Behaviour modification:

- * Parents can reinforce their children's appropriate behaviours and punish inappropriate ones.
- * One must analyse how complex the desired behaviour is.
- * Teachers reinforce good academic performance with small rewards of privileges.
- * Behaviour therapists use the learning principles of operant conditioning to treat children (or) adults with behaviour problems (or) psychological disorders.

→ Cognitive theories of learning:

- * Cognitive learning theories focus on the role of understanding.
- * Cognition implies understanding the connection between cause and effect, between action and the consequences of the action.
- * The learner forms a cognitive structure in memory which organizes information into relationship and meanings without any known reinforcement.

a) Insight theory of learning:

- * It was developed by a group of Gestalt psychologists Kurt Koffka, Wolfgang Kohler and Max Wertheimer who concluded that the individual learns by his ability known as insight and not by blind trial and error.
- * It explains that a person can ~~deduce~~ deduce by the solution by insight if he perceives the situation as a whole.
- * The situation viewed as a whole will definitely look different from that viewed through its parts.
- * Sum total of the parts may create a new situation in a complete form known as Gestalt.
- * First, the stimulus is observed as a whole, then it is analysed part by part that will produce an insight into the problem in an individual.

Kohler's Experiment:

- * A most famous experiment conducted by Kohler in relation to insight on a chimpanzee called Sultan.
- * Some bananas were placed inside the cage of Sultan who was given two sticks so constructed that they could be fitted together.
- * The hungry Sultan tried to get bananas by extending out his hands.
- * Then, he took up one of sticks and tried to pull the bananas, an effort which he kept up for an hour.
- * Then, he tried and started to play with the sticks.
- * Meanwhile, one end of one stick got incidentally fastened into the ring fixed on the end of the other stick with the result that both the sticks were joined together.
- * Now, Sultan used his joined stick to pull in the bananas and succeeded.
- * It shows that individual learns by insight which emerges suddenly as a result of perceiving the situation as a whole.
- * Sultan's sudden learning was due to insight developed from his perception of the total situation consisting of the cage, sticks and bananas as a whole.

b) Sign theory of learning

- * According to Tolman (1930), learning is a total process, takes place by cognition.
- * Cognition includes concepts like knowledge, thinking, planning, inference

and purpose.

* The learner recognizes some ^{clues} ~~clues~~ (or) signs through his experience and then relationships with goals.

* Learning consists in the recognition of signs and their meaning in relation to goals.

* The individual follows certain signs and clues, from a mental map, learn their significance and meanings and finally reaches at goal.

4) Social Learning Theory:

* It relies on role modelling, identification and human interactions.

* A student nurse can learn by imitating / observing the behaviour of another nurse, but personal factors are involved.

* When a person dislikes a role model, imitative behaviour is unlikely.

Bandura's Experiment:

* Albert Bandura and other researchers conducted a classic set of experiments that demonstrated the power of observational learning.

* A pre-school child worked on a drawing while on a television set showed an adult behaving aggressively toward a large inflated 'Bobo doll' a clown doll that bounces back up when knocked down.

* The adult pummelled the doll with a mallet, kicked it, flung it in the air, sat on it and beat it on the face while yelling remarks.

* The child was then left in another room filled with interesting toys, including a "Bobo doll"

* Compared with children who witnessed a non-violent adult model and those not exposed to any model, the children who witnessed the aggressive display were much more likely to show aggressive behaviours toward the Bobo doll, and they often imitated the model's ~~at~~ exact behaviours and hostile words.

Applications of Social Learning Theory.

● Both children and adults learn a great deal through observation and imitation. Young children learn language, social skills, habits fears and many other everyday behaviours by observing their parents & older children.

● Many people learn academic, athletic and musical skills by observing and then imitating a teacher.

- It plays an important role in a child's personality development.
- Fearful children become less fearful when they watch other children acting fearlessly in the same situation.
- Demonstrating fearless approach to a phobic situation may be useful to motivate a patient's approach to the feared object (or) situation.
- Modelling is also used in weight reduction and smoking cessation programs.

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5) Transfer theory of learning:

- * It refers to the popular concept that man should be given training in a general way which includes language, mathematics and classics.
- * This training in these areas is transferred positively to various walks of life.
- * It is found that formal education is transferred to various life situations and vocations.
- * Hence, it is also called "theory of identical elements"

Transfer of Training (or) Learning:

- * It is a matter of common experience that we are facilitated in the learning of something new by some previous learning. The son of a businessman is proficient in the arithmetic class because of his training in accountancy at the shop.
- * Transfer of learning is the carry-over of habits of thinking, feelings (or) working of knowledge (or) skills, from one learning area to another

— Crow and Crow (1973)

- * Transfer refers to the transfer of knowledge, training and habits acquired in one situation to another situation

* Transfer is a process by which some influence is exercised over our new learning (or) performance by our previous learning (or) training.

Types of Transfer

* It is of 3 types. They are

1) Positive Transfer of learning

2) Negative Transfer of Training

3) Zero Transfer of Training

and purpose.

* The learner recognizes some ^{clues} ~~clues~~ (or) signs through his experience and then relationships with goals.

* Learning consists in the recognition of signs and their meaning in relation to goals.

* The individual follows certain signs and clues, from a mental map, learn their significance and meanings and finally reaches at goal.

4) Social Learning Theory:

* It relies on role modelling, identification and human interactions.

* A student nurse can learn by imitating / observing the behaviour of another nurse, but personal factors are involved.

* When a person dislikes a role model, imitative behaviour is unlikely.

Bandura's Experiment:

* Albert Bandura and other researchers conducted a classic set of experiments that demonstrated the power of observational learning.

* A pre-school child worked on a drawing while on a television set showed an adult behaving aggressively toward a large inflated 'Bobo doll' a clown doll that bounces back up when knocked down.

* The adult pummelled the doll with a mallet, kicked it, flung it in the air, sat on it and beat it on the face while yelling remarks.

* The child was then left in another room filled with interesting toys, including a "Bobo doll".

* Compared with children who witnessed a non-violent adult model and those not exposed to any model, the children who witnessed the aggressive display were much more likely to show aggressive behaviours toward the Bobo doll, and they often imitated the model's ~~at~~ exact behaviours and hostile words.

Applications of Social Learning Theory.

• Both children and adults learn a great deal through observation and imitation. Young children learn language, social skills, habits fears and many other everyday behaviours by observing their parents & older children.

• Many people learn academic, athletic and musical skills by observing and then imitating a teacher.

- It plays an important role in a child's personality development.
- Fearful children become less fearful when they watch other children acting fearlessly in the same situation.
- Demonstrating fearless approach to a phobic situation may be useful to motivate a patient's approach to the feared object (or) situation.
- Modelling is also used in weight reduction and smoking cessation programs.

5) Transfer theory of learning:

- * It refers to the popular concept that man should be given training in a general way which includes language, mathematics and classics.
- * This training in these areas is transferred positively to various walks of life.
- * It is found that formal education is transferred to various life situations and vocations.
- * Hence, it is also called "theory of identical elements"

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1) Positive Transfer of Learning:

* In this type of transfer, the effect of the training on the new type of learning is favourable (or) positive and learning is enhanced.

Eg → one group was taught Latin while another was not. Both the groups were constituted of students possessing similar interests and intelligence.

* Now, they were taught English for equal lengths of time together and the results was that the group equipped with the knowledge of Latin took time and gained comparatively more skill. The reason for this is the positive transfer of the training in Latin to the learning of English. *Badminton & Tennis*

2) Negative Transfer of Training:

* The training received in the learning of one thing hinders of the learning of a new thing and it is accordingly classified as negative.

Eg → Wrestlers are weak in studies because wrestling consumes too much of their energy to leave any for studying. Thus, ~~wrestling~~ wrestling in a hindrance to studying. *Language problem (pronunciation of English)*

3) Zero Transfer of Training:

* In case, the previous learning makes no difference at all to the performance & (or) learning in a new situation, there is said to be zero transfer from the previous situation to the new one. *(Nothing gained)*

Theories of Transfer

1) Theory of identical elements (or) components.

1) Appreciation theory of Transfer:

* This theory was proposed by Thorndike, the transfer - positive (or) negative from one situation to another is possible to the extent that there are common (or) identical elements in the situations.

Eg → in the case of learning cycling and driving car, the transfer does take place on account of the presence of common elements like steering movements, knowledge of the rules of the road, necessity of having proper visual perspective by looking ahead, etc.

* The presence of these common elements in the situations may bring either type of transfer - positive (or) negative.

* In this, the presence of common elements help us to make an association in such a way that learning in one situation helps the other, the transfer is positive.

* But in case the association so formed brings interference with the new learning, the transfer is negative.

2) Theory of Generalization: - put forth by Charles Judd advocates the transfer of generalization in the new situations in place of 'identical elements' as suggested by Thorndike.

* This theory ~~is~~ says that as a result of certain experiences, an individual may arrive at some conclusions (or) generalizations in the form of general rules, ~~laws~~ laws (or) principles like

"The green (or) unripe fruits are sour or bitter in taste".

* In these generalizations, principles (or) ~~is~~ rules that are put to use (through the transfer process) by the individual in the coming new situations.

3) Theory of Ideals: → is put forward by W.C. Bagley.

3) Trans-position theory of transfer
* According to this theory, transfer of learning (or) training takes place in the form of ideas.

* The experience we have, the generalizations or conclusions we arrive at, all do transfer if they are imbibed as ideals of some value (or) desirable by the individual.

* For instance, the ideas of "tolerance for other's opinion" developed on the basis of qualities of a nurse laid on things with tolerance on ward duty is likely to be transferred in performing all other activities in a similar behaviour in other situations.

* None of these theories is able to explain transfer in its total aspects. However, an eclectic view of all these theories may help us in this direction.

Applications of transfer of training:

Transfer of training has a lot of educative value. Along with its influence in the classroom learning in our day-to-day life, many of our habits, attitudes, social values and acquired traits develop due to transfer.

Eg → a child hating his friend in playground because he is poor, he will also hate his parents, friends, books and even his beloved puppy.

Many of our values, social and personal habits, likes and dislikes are due to transfer eg → if you don't like milk, you may not like

all beloved puppy.

* Many of our values; social and personal habits, likes and dislikes are due to transfer.

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Eg → if you don't like milk, you may not like all milk products.

* If you like fish very much, any type of fish may satisfy you.

Factors influencing Learning:

* Learning depends upon three main factors.

1) Nature of the learner

2) Nature of the learning material (or) task to be learned

3) Nature of the learning situation (or) learning methods.

1) Nature of the learner.

a) Age → Age can influence upon the capability of learning. A child cannot learn the things what elders can learn and an aged person will have difficult to learn modern ways of knowledge.

b) Intelligence → Intelligence effects very much on learning, if subject/individual has maximum level of intelligence he can learn more and easily at maximum levels.

c) Attention → If a person does not pay attention towards how to learn specific knowledge, skill (or) experience, he cannot learn easily. But if the individual pays attention, the results are vice-versa.

d) Interest and Motivation:

Subject has intelligence and can also pay attention towards learning but he does not have interest in how to learn a specific knowledge, skill (or) experience. Therefore, level (or) process of learning would be very slow.

e) Mental and physical health:

If an individual does not have mental health (or) physical one, the subject can fulfill the demands of the process of learning due to his weak and mental and physical capabilities.

f) Fatigue and Rest:

If an individual is ~~is~~ tired, he cannot pay full attention to learn something, so, take rest in between your studies.

g) Nature of learning materials

If the knowledge is interesting in nature, meaningful, clearly printed and written in easy understandable language and pattern etc... any individual can learn it more efficiently.

3) Nature of learning method

a) Definite goal:

It enhances motivation if clear goals are written (or) in mind.

b) Recitation:

It is more effective tool of learning, if an individual recites something louder he can learn more effectively.

c) Exercise and repetition:

* Single act is learnt in single trial but complex acts require repeated trials.

* If a material is difficult to learn, it can be learnt through exercises (or) repeated trials.

d) By parts learning:

If the material is so long, it can be divided into small parts, so individual can learn specific knowledge, skill etc - more effectively.

e) Reward and punishment:

* The presence of reward (or) punishment can affect learning.

* Generally, reward is more effective in promoting learning than punishment.

* Punishment does have some effects on learning. It tends to repress a desired response than to extinguish it.

f) Knowledge of results (or) Psychological feedback:

Frequent and regular review of the amount of progress being made towards the goal, acts as a strong motive to promote continuing effort on the part of the learner.

Types of Learning Styles:

It is divided based on type of learners.

1) Visual learners (learn through seeing):

These learners need to see the teacher's body language, hand gestures, eye contact and facial expression to fully understand the content of a lesson.

They tend to prefer sitting at the front of the classroom to avoid visual obstruction.

Eg → if a visual learner is only presented with verbal information they will absorb and retain less information than if the verbal instructions were combined with visual materials.

* Tools used are books, videos, computers, posters.

2) Auditory learners (learn through listening):

* They learn best through, verbal lectures, discussions, talking things through and listening to what others have to say.

* They interpret the underlying meaning of speech through listening to tone of voice, pitch, speed and other nuances. Tools used are talks, discussions and debates.

3) Tactile / Kinesthetic learners (learn through moving, doing and touching):

* These learners learn best through a hands on approach, actively exploring the physical world around them.

* They may find it hard to sit still for long periods and may become distracted by their need for activity and exploration.

* The tools used are skits, drama and art.

The Learning process:

* learning is essentially changed behaviour due to experience and that certain elements must be presented for learning to take place. The elements of learning process are:

* Goal (or) goals related to the motivation.

* Stimulus: The person learns things by visual, auditory (or) kinesthetic learning.

* Response: whether it is negative, positive (or) neutral response.

* consequence: practise/skill should be able to produce change in behaviour.

* Integration: Association of new behaviours with previously learned behaviours is related to transfer of learning.

Laws of readiness: Effective learning:

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According to Thorndike, there are 3 major laws of learning

1) Law of readiness:

- * This law is indicative of the learner's state of mind to participate in the learning process.
- * If a person is ready to act, acting gives him satisfaction.
- * If he is not ready to act, it is annoying him to act.
- * Some sort of preparatory attitude (or) the mind set is necessary.
- * The right moments concerning the learning situation and the learner's state of mind should be recognised and maximum use should be made.
- * In order to make learning effective, a person should show willingness to learn.
- * This willingness prepares him to face learning readily. Readiness gives him stimulation.

Law of Exercise or practice:

- * we learn what we practise, we do not learn what we don't practise.
- * learning takes place through exercise and repetition.
- * It supports the laws of use and disuse. we learn skills in games, music, crafts or nursing care through constant exercise and practise.

Law of Effect:

- * Learning can be set to have taken place properly when it results in satisfaction and the learner derives pleasure from it.
- * The connection between stimuli and responses become stronger when we derive or get satisfaction.
- * These responses remain weak or are not formed at all when we get annoyance.
- * This law brings the importance of feeling in the process of learning repetition and practice but without satisfaction is of no use.
- * Activities which are accompanied by a feeling of pleasure (or) satisfaction are more readily and effectively learned than activities which are implemented and annoying (H.R. Bhatia)

Law of Attitude:

- * Learning is guided by total attitude of the organism.
- * The student nurse performs the nursing procedure properly if she has developed a healthy attitude towards the task.

Law of Analogy:

- * An individual responds to a new situation on the basis of responses made by him in similar situations in the past.
- * He makes responses by comparison of analogy.

Law of Association:

- * The learner learns/responds of which he is capable, associated with any situation to which he is sensitive.

Law of multiple response or varied reactions:

- * The law implies that when an individual is confronted with a new situation he responds in a variety of ways before arriving at correct response.

→ chapter end ←

LAWS OF LEARNING

- Law of readiness (if a person is ready to learn, he has the ability to learn)
- " " Exercise (practice)
- " " Effect (pleasure & pain have the effect on learning process)
- " " Frequency
- " " disuse (forgetting easily because lack of recalling)
- " " recency (same as disuse)
- " " primacy (primary classes like first day at schools are more interested in learning)
- " " Purpose with a clear or definite goal in mind, the student works towards a definite purpose
- " " Association (Tajmahal)

Ego Defence Mechanisms and Implications.

Meaning:

According to Freud defence mechanism refers to unconscious process that depends the person against anxiety.

* The individual has devices of protecting himself against psychological dangers and distress, these protective devices are known as "Ego defence mechanisms".

CLASSIFICATION OF Ego Defence Mechanisms:

①

Denial of reality is when we refuse to accept (or) believe the existence of something that is unpleasant to us.

Eg:- A student who spends lot of time for preparation of examination when he/she gets fail marks in examination. May the student feel shock (Denial)

② Rationalization:

It is a defence mechanism in which an individual justifying ones own behaviour by giving reasonable and rational but false reason for it.

Eg → Students who fail in the examination may complaint that the hostel environment or atmosphere is not favourable for studying.

③ Projection:

Projection is a frequently used unconscious mechanism that relieves tension and anxiety by transferring the responsibility for unexpectable ideas, impulses, wishes (or) thoughts to another person.

Eg:- the student who believes that everybody cheats in the examination may also cheat in the same way (Malpractice).

④ Reaction formation:

It is some times possible to conceal a motive from ~~our~~ ourselves by giving strong expressions to its opposites such a tendency is called Reaction formation.

Eg → A married woman who is disturbed by her attraction to another man may ~~sto~~ make state forcefully that she dislikes him

⑤ Identification:

It is an adjustment mechanism which enables one to achieve satisfaction from ^{the} success of other people / groups / organization.

It is a kind of defence Mechanism: (starting of answer for all)

Repression:

* Repression is a process of ~~unfo~~ unconscious forgetfulness of our unpleasant and conflict production emotions and desires.

* If these experiences were to remain in the conscious they would cause a person to feel ashamed, guilty, & un-worthy.

Eg → people may forget to turn up for an appointment for a treatment they do not like

Emotional Insultation:

* In this Mechanism individual reduces the tensions of need and anxiety by withdrawing into self of passivity.

Eg → A student who is afraid of achieving success in social relationships may share their ideas and values and share the company of other students.

Undoing:

* It is desired for some disapproved thoughts, impulse act, apologising for wrongs, doing punishment (or) all forms of undoing

Eg → The unethical executive may give huge [form reason] sums of money to charity but charity will misuse it.

Introjection:

* It is a way of primitive form of identifications in which the individual learn good aspects, behaviour and attitudes because of threatening situation

Eg → Student will study and learn not only for his (or) her sake but also for the parents strictness and fear.

Acting Out:

* In this mechanism individual is manifesting conflict in overt behaviour rather than controlling them or subciding them.

Eg → To avoid realistic situation the people will do some kind of dramas (or) actions which is not realistically true, they will do just to overcome from that problem.

De personalization (or) Regression :

To regress in behaviour means to behave in a less mature way. i.e., go backwards when faced with difficulties of life, the individual reverts to a less matured form of behaviour, where he finds less conflict and hence less anxiety.

Eg → When the nurse makes an error in giving medicines or nursing care and then starts crying.

Displacement ~~De-realisation~~

Counter transfer.

De-realization

Transference

Ego etc.