

CHAPTER 10

THE LEARNING PERSPECTIVE

CHAPTER OUTLINE

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CHAPTER SUMMARY

Conditioning approaches emphasize two types of learning. In *classical conditioning*, a neutral stimulus (CS) is presented along with another stimulus (US) that already elicits a reflexive response (UR). After repeated pairings, the CS itself comes to elicit a response (CR) that's similar to the UR. The CR appears to be an anticipatory response that prepares for the US.

This basic phenomenon is modified by *discrimination* (different stimuli leading to different responses) and extended by *generalization* (different stimuli leading to similar responses). CRs fade if the CS is presented repeatedly without the US, a process termed *extinction*. Classical conditioning is important to personality primarily when the responses being conditioned are emotional reactions (emotional conditioning). Classical conditioning thus provides a basis for understanding people's unique preferences and aversions, and it provides a way of analyzing certain psychological problems, such as phobias.

In *instrumental conditioning*, a behavior is followed by an outcome that's either positively valued or aversive. If the outcome is positively valued, the tendency to perform the behavior is strengthened. Thus, the outcome is called a *reinforcer*. If the outcome is *aversive* (a punisher), the tendency to perform the behavior is reduced. Discrimination in instrumental conditioning means responding in different ways to different situational cues; generalization is responding in a similar way to different cues; extinction is reduction of a behavioral tendency through nonreinforcement of the behavior. Reinforcers can occur in many patterns, termed *schedules*. An important effect of variations in reinforcement schedules is that behavior learned by intermittent (partial) reinforcement is more persistent (under later conditions of nonreinforcement) than is a behavior learned by continuous reinforcement.

Another generation of learning theories has evolved. They're called *cognitive* because they emphasize the role of thought processes in behavior, and *social* because they emphasize the idea that people often learn from one another. Several aspects of these theories represent *elaborations* on conditioning principles. These elaborations include an emphasis on social reinforcement (rather than other sorts of reinforcement) in shaping behavior. Because humans have the capability for empathy (*vicarious emotional arousal*), we can experience classical conditioning vicariously. We can also experience reinforcement and punishment vicariously, causing shifts in action tendencies on the basis of someone else's outcomes. This view also holds that humans often learn *expectancies* and then apply them to new situations.

The idea that expectancies about outcomes play an important part in determining our behavior is a central part of social-cognitive learning models. Another important idea is that perceptions of personal efficacy determine whether a person will persist when in stressful circumstances.

One part of this approach to personality stands as distinct from conditioning principles: the process of acquiring behavior potentials through *observational learning*. This process requires that an observer attend to a model (who is displaying a behavior), retain some memory of what was done (usually a visual or verbal memory), and have component skills to be able to reproduce what was modeled. This process of acquisition is not directly influenced by reinforcement contingencies. On the other hand, spontaneous performance of the acquired behavior is very much influenced by perceptions of reinforcement contingencies.

Assessment, from a conditioning point of view, emphasizes observation of various aspects of behavior as they occur in specific situations. Assessment can focus on people's physiological responses, their overt behaviors, or their reports of emotional reactions in response to different kinds of stimuli. Assessment from a social-cognitive learning point of view is more reliant on self-reports.

The conditioning approach assumes that problems in behavior are the result of the same kinds of processes as result in normal behavior. Classical conditioning can produce intense and irrational fears, called *phobias*; instrumental conditioning can produce behavior tendencies that persist even when they are no longer adaptive. These various problems can be treated by means of conditioning procedures, collectively termed *behavior therapy or behavior modification*. Systematic desensitization *counterconditions* fear reactions with relaxation. Exposure treatments keep people focused on distressing situations until long after the burst of anxiety calms down.

Problems in behavior can also develop through *vicarious learning*, or when people haven't had the opportunity to learn needed behaviors from models. Therapy based on the social-cognitive learning approach often involves *modeling*, whether as an attempt to remedy skill deficits through observational learning or as an attempt to show the utility of coping skills through vicarious reinforcement.

KEY TERMS

Behavior modification (or behavior therapy): The changing of behavior therapeutically through conditioning processes.

Behavioral assessment: An assessment made by observing a person's overt behavior.

Classical conditioning: The pairing of a neutral stimulus with an unconditioned stimulus.

Conditioned (or conditional) stimulus (CS): A neutral stimulus that's paired with a US to become conditioned.

Conditioned (or conditional) response (CR): A response to the CS that's acquired by classical conditioning.

Contingency management: Programs in which reinforcement is increased for desired behaviors and withheld after undesired behaviors.

Continuous reinforcement: A schedule in which reinforcement follows each instance of the behavior.

Coping model: A model that displays fear but ultimately handles it.

Counterconditioning: The linking of an emotion to a stimulus that differs from the emotion the stimulus now causes.

Discrimination: Responding in a different manner to different stimuli.

Discriminative stimulus: A cue that controls the occurrence of behavior.

Efficacy expectancy: Confidence of being able to do something successfully.

Emotional conditioning: Classical conditioning in which the CR is an emotional reaction.

Exposure treatments: Treatments in which people stay focused on the distressing topic until well after their anxiety reaction dissipates.

Extinction: In classical conditioning, the reduction of a CR by repeating the CS without the US; in instrumental conditioning, the reduction of a behavioral tendency by removing reinforcement.

Generalization: Responding in a similar manner to somewhat different stimuli.

Habit hierarchy: The ordering of a person's potential responses by their likelihood.

Higher-order conditioning: Event in which a former CS now acts as a US in a new instance of conditioning.

Instrumental (or operant) conditioning: Conditioning in which a behavior becomes more likely because it is followed by a desirable event, or less likely because it is followed by an undesirable event.

Mastery model: A model that displays no fear.

Negative reinforcement: The removal of an aversive stimulus.

Observational learning: Acquiring the ability to do a new behavior by watching someone else do it.

Outcome expectancy: Judgment about how likely a specific behavior is to attain a specific goal.

Partial reinforcement: A schedule in which the behavior is reinforced less often than every time it occurs.

Partial reinforcement effect: The fact that a behavior acquired through partial reinforcement is resistant to extinction.

Participant modeling: The act of practicing a behavior that's hard for oneself while using the therapist as model.

Phobia: An inappropriately intense fear of some specific class of stimuli.

Physiological assessment: The measuring of physiological aspects of emotional reactions.

Positive reinforcement: A reinforcement involving addition of a desired stimulus.

Punisher: An undesired event that makes the behavior that came before it less likely to occur again.

Reflex: An event in which a stimulus produces an automatic response.

Reinforcer: An event that makes the behavior that came before it more likely to occur again.

Self-control: The regulation and sometimes restraint of one's own activities.

Self-efficacy: Confidence of being able to do something successfully.

Self-reinforcement: The approval one gives to oneself for one's own behavior.

Skill deficit: The absence or insufficiency of a needed behavior or skill.

Social reinforcer: Praise, liking, acceptance, or approval received from someone else.

Symbolic models: Models in print, movies, TV, and so on.

Systematic desensitization: A therapeutic procedure intended to extinguish fear.

Time out: A punishment in which a child is temporarily removed from an enjoyable activity.

Unconditioned (or unconditional) response (UR): A reflexive response to an unconditioned stimulus.

Unconditioned (or unconditional) stimulus (US): A stimulus that causes a reflexive (unconditioned) response.

Vicarious classical conditioning: Conditioning in which the unconditioned response occurs via empathy.

Vicarious emotional arousal: The tendency to feel someone else's feelings along with them; also called *empathy*.

Vicarious reinforcement: An event in which a reinforcement experienced by someone else has a reinforcing effect on one's own behavior.

TEST ITEMS

- (c/228) 1. Classical conditioning is sometimes referred to as:
- instrumental learning.
 - instrumental conditioning.
 - Pavlovian conditioning.
 - all of the above
- (b/228) 2. All of the following are reflexes EXCEPT:
- dust in your eye—tear gland secretion.
 - upcoming test—studying for it.
 - eating a lemon—salivation.
 - extreme cold—shivering.
- (b/228) 3. Classical conditioning requires:
- a conditioned response to a certain class of stimuli.
 - the organism must already respond to some class of stimuli reflexively.
 - reinforcement of a specific response behavior.
 - all of the above
- (b/228) 4. BEFORE conditioning occurs, a(n) _____ produces a(n) _____.
- CR, CS
 - US, UR
 - US, CR
 - CS, UR
- (c/229) 5. Conditioning occurs when a(n) _____ is paired with a(n) _____.
- CR, UR
 - CS, CR
 - CS, US
 - US, UR
- (c/229) 6. When the unconditioned stimulus and the conditioned stimulus are paired frequently, the conditioned stimulus acquires the ability to:
- produce an unconditioned response.
 - suppress an unconditioned response.
 - produce a conditioned response.
 - suppress a conditioned response.

- (d/229) 7. The _____ and the _____ will generally have the same pleasant or unpleasant qualities.
- CR, CS
 - US, UR
 - US, CS
 - UR, CR
- (a/230) 8. To be sure classical conditioning has occurred:
- present the CS without the US and see if a response occurs.
 - check for similarity between the CR and the UR.
 - ask the subject if she/he remembers the US.
 - none of the above
- (c/230) 9. When a CS-CR pairing acts like another reflex, it can serve as a reflex for another instance of conditioning. This is called:
- secondary conditioning.
 - tertiary conditioning.
 - higher-order conditioning.
 - operant conditioning.
- (a/230) 10. Cancer patients who undergo chemotherapy are often given a distinctive food before the chemotherapy. By doing this doctors can:
- prevent the conditioning of aversions to other foods.
 - prevent patients from getting nausea during chemotherapy.
 - condition patients to enjoy their chemotherapy.
 - all of the above
- (a/231) 11. Generalization occurs when a person responds:
- similarly to slightly different stimuli.
 - similarly to the same stimuli.
 - differently to different stimuli.
 - similarly to all stimuli.
- (b/231) 12. A child who has been conditioned to fear dogs after having been knocked down by one begins to show the same fear around cats. This is an example of:
- counterconditioning.
 - generalization.
 - discrimination.
 - shaping.

- (a/231) 13. After a CS has been conditioned to produce a CR, it is possible to substitute a different but similar CS which will produce the same CR. This phenomenon is called:
- a. generalization.
 - b. shaping.
 - c. discrimination.
 - d. conditioning.
- (b/231) 14. In the context of conditioning, discrimination refers to responding:
- a. similarly to different stimuli.
 - b. differently to different stimuli.
 - c. similarly to similar stimuli.
 - d. none of the above
- (c/231) 15. When a CS is presented repeatedly without the US:
- a. the CS continues to be elicited unchanged.
 - b. discrimination occurs.
 - c. extinction occurs.
 - d. higher-order conditioning occurs.
- (c/231) 16. Spontaneous recovery refers to the:
- a. reoccurrence of a psychological problem without an apparent cause.
 - b. reoccurrence of a psychological problem under conditions of stress.
 - c. reappearance of a CR after it has apparently disappeared.
 - d. all of the above
- (a/232) 17. Research pairing political slogans with positive, negative, or neutral stimuli has Box10.2) suggested people's liking for slogans could:
- a. be either increased or decreased.
 - b. be decreased but not increased.
 - c. be increased but not decreased.
 - d. not be changed.
- (c/232) 18. Conditioning in which the reflexive reactions elicit positive or negative feelings is called:
- a. pull-press conditioning.
 - b. motivational conditioning.
 - c. emotional conditioning.
 - d. higher-order conditioning.

- (a/233) 19. _____ helps to produce a person's likes and dislikes, preferences and biases.
- Emotional conditioning
 - Responsive shaping
 - Aversive conditioning
 - all of the above
- (c/233) 20. The term *instrumental conditioning* is often used interchangeably with the term _____.
- classical conditioning
 - Pavlovian conditioning
 - operant conditioning
 - classical learning
- (b/233) 21. Which of the following statements is true about instrumental conditioning?
- It is sometimes referred to as Pavlovian conditioning.
 - It is active, whereas classical conditioning is passive.
 - It is passive, whereas classical conditioning is active.
 - The events that define it do not begin with a behavior.
- (d/233) 22. Thorndike's law of effect states that:
- people learn more efficiently than rats.
 - learning cannot occur in a single trial.
 - learning is quickly forgotten if the relevant situation is not re-experienced.
 - behaviors followed by negative outcomes are less likely to be repeated.
- (a/234) 23. Miller and Dollard's habit hierarchy:
- derives from prior conditioning.
 - is based on classical conditioning.
 - remains static once formed.
 - all of the above
- (c/234) 24. In instrumental conditioning, a _____ is anything that strengthens a behavioral tendency.
- punisher
 - shaper
 - reinforcer
 - pusher

- (a/234) 25. Primary reinforcers:
- a. reduce biological needs.
 - b. occasionally reduce biological needs.
 - c. reduce both biological and acquired needs.
 - d. are first administered by one's parents.
- (c/234) 26. All of the following are examples of secondary reinforcers EXCEPT:
- a. money.
 - b. a good grade on a test.
 - c. a drink of water.
 - d. a mother's reassuring glance.
- (b/234) 27. Punishers are intended to:
- a. humiliate the recipient.
 - b. reduce the tendency to behave in particular ways.
 - c. increase the tendency to behave in particular ways.
 - d. establish the authority of the person delivering the punishment.
- (a/235) 28. Positive reinforcement _____ the occurrence of behavior through the _____ of something that is pleasant.
- a. increases, addition
 - b. decreases, removal
 - c. increases, removal
 - d. decreases, addition
- (b/235) 29. Negative reinforcement _____ the occurrence of behavior through the _____ of something that is aversive.
- a. decreases, removal
 - b. increases, removal
 - c. increases, presentation
 - d. decreases, presentation
- (c/235) 30. Punishment:
- a. always adds pain.
 - b. always removes pleasure.
 - c. either adds pain or removes pleasure.
 - d. none of the above

- (b/235) 31. Every time Mark studies for a test between 8 PM and 11 PM, he gets at least 95% correct on the test. If he studies at any other time, he never gets more than 75% correct. After this happens enough times, Mark decides to study only between 8 and 11. Time has become a _____, and Mark's behavior is _____.
- reinforcement schedule, being partially reinforced
 - discriminative stimulus, under stimulus control
 - discriminative stimulus, undergoing extinction
 - reinforcer, predictable
- (a/236) 32. A high-school biology class is well-behaved when the primary instructor is there, but not when a substitute instructor is there. Class behavior has come under:
- stimulus control.
 - discriminative control.
 - token control.
 - aversive control.
- (c/236) 33. The principle of generalization explains the _____ of certain behaviors across situations.
- persistence
 - diminution
 - consistency
 - widespread consequences
- (d/236) 34. _____ occurs in instrumental conditioning when a behavior that once led to a reinforcer does so no longer.
- Discrimination
 - Habituation
 - Deprivation
 - Extinction
- (a/237) 35. A simple distinction among schedules of reinforcement is between:
- continuous and partial.
 - partial and fixed.
 - continuous and fixed.
 - variable and partial.
- (a/237) 36. A behavior built in by partial reinforcement:
- is more resistant to extinction than one built in by continuous reinforcement.
 - is less resistant to extinction than one built in by continuous reinforcement.
 - is equally resistant to extinction as one built in by continuous reinforcement.
 - may be more or less resistant to extinction than one built in by continuous reinforcement.

- (c/238) 37. Newer learning theories differ from earlier ones in that the newer ones:
- a. place less importance on mental events.
 - b. embellish original conditioning principles.
 - c. emphasize social aspects of learning.
 - d. all of the above
- (c/239) 38. Smiles, hugs, and praise all are examples of:
- a. primary reinforcers.
 - b. reinforcers tied directly to physical drives .
 - c. social reinforcers.
 - d. all of the above
- (d/239) 39. Self-reinforcement refers to the idea that people:
- a. give themselves rewards after an activity.
 - b. react to their own actions with approval.
 - c. react to their own actions with disapproval.
 - d. all of the above
- (a/239) 40. Vicarious emotional arousal:
- a. occurs when you feel the same emotion as another person.
 - b. occurs when you feel guilty for an imagined transgression.
 - c. is the same as sympathy.
 - d. none of the above
- (b/239) 41. When you experience the same emotion as someone you are observing, this is called:
- a. sympathy.
 - b. empathy.
 - c. altruism.
 - d. none of the above
- (c/240) 42. Vicarious reinforcement refers to:
- a. learning through having your behavior rewarded.
 - b. learning through pairing of a stimulus with a shock.
 - c. learning through seeing another person rewarded for a behavior.
 - d. empathic responses to others.

- (b/241) 43. When therapy works, according to Bandura, it's because the therapy restored the person's:
- a. stability.
 - b. personal efficacy.
 - c. internal locus of control.
 - d. competence motivation.
- (a/241) 44. People with high efficacy expectations:
- a. experience less grief following bereavement.
 - b. are less likely to encounter problems.
 - c. are less likely to ask for help in solving problems.
 - d. none of the above
- (b/242) 45. Observational learning begins to occur:
- a. shortly after birth.
 - b. at around age 1.
 - c. at around age 5.
 - d. at the onset of adolescence.
- (d/243) 46. Which of the following variables determines how much attention a model will command?
- a. the salience of behaviors observed
 - b. the observer's capabilities and intent
 - c. characteristics of the model such as attractiveness
 - d. all of the above
- (a/243) 47. Forming mental pictures of what you are seeing is called:
- a. imaginal coding.
 - b. verbal coding.
 - c. observational coding.
 - d. all of the above
- (c/243) 48. Verbal coding refers to:
- a. mentally rehearsing what we see.
 - b. mimicking the speech of a model.
 - c. describing to yourself what you observe.
 - d. the power of verbal cues to remind us of past events.

- (a/244) 49. Research by Bandura, in which adults modeled aggressive acts for children, provides a good illustration of the difference between:
- a. the acquisition of behavioral potential and the performance of the behavior.
 - b. self-efficacy and competence motivation.
 - c. the perceived locus and stability of a cause for behavior.
 - d. none of the above
- (c/244) 50. Which statement best describes Bandura's findings about observational learning?
- a. Children tended to act aggressively toward the doll if they had seen an adult model do the same.
 - b. Children tended to act aggressively toward the doll if they had seen an adult model do the same, but only if the adult had been rewarded.
 - c. Children tended to act aggressively toward the doll if they had seen an adult model do the same, but only if the adult hadn't been punished.
 - d. none of the above
- (c/246) 51. Which of the following is true about symbolic models?
- a. They are abstract and therefore cannot be seen.
 - b. They are largely unimportant in the modern world.
 - c. They can be figures on television or in books.
 - d. none of the above
- (c/246) 52. After a person sees violence condoned on television, similar tactics often appear in the viewer's actions. One of the mechanisms likely to be responsible for this effect is:
- a. vicarious emotional arousal.
 - b. social reinforcement.
 - c. vicarious reinforcement.
 - d. participant modeling.
- (a/246) 53. Critics of media violence argue that in the media:
- a. aggression is generally portrayed as yielding a great deal of short-term reinforcement.
 - b. those who commit aggressive acts are usually punished for their deeds.
 - c. actions of "prosocial" characters are less aggressive than the actions of villains.
 - d. aggression is closely linked to punishment.
- (b/246) 54. When exposure to violent stimuli no longer triggers feelings of shock and upset in individuals, they are considered _____ to violence.
- a. susceptible
 - b. desensitized
 - c. immune
 - d. all of the above

- (a/246) 55. Research on repeated exposure to violence has shown that:
- it desensitizes observers to the implications of suffering.
 - it has little or no effect on reactions to later, real-life violence.
 - emotional arousal, not the content of the aggression, is the most important variable determining reactions to violence.
 - none of the above
- (b/247) 56. Physiological assessment of personality:
- focuses on the frequency of emotional reactions.
 - focuses on patterns of physiological responses to emotional stimuli.
 - requires verbal responses.
 - is relatively simple and inexpensive.
- (b/247) 57. A researcher measures fearfulness by observing how close a subject comes to a nonpoisonous snake. The researcher is using a _____ assessment technique.
- physiological
 - behavioral
 - self-report
 - subjective
- (c/247) 58. Which of the following are most important to assessment from the social-cognitive learning perspective?
- behavioral observation
 - measures of generalized tendencies
 - self-report measures
 - objective definitions of situations
- (a/248) 59. The specific name for therapy used to overcome phobias that involves relaxation techniques and anxiety hierarchies is:
- systematic desensitization.
 - anxiety therapy.
 - behavior modification therapy.
 - none of the above
- (c/250) 60. Contingency management:
- involves the use of secondary reinforcers, which are exchanged for privileges.
 - usually takes place in an institution such as a mental hospital or prison.
 - increases and decreases reinforcements for desired and undesired action, respectively.
 - all of the above

- (d/251) 61. A social-cognitive learning psychologist would emphasize _____ in explaining behavior problems.
- a. vicarious conditioning processes
 - b. faulty expectancies
 - c. observational learning
 - d. all of the above
- (a/251) 62. Skill deficits often arise because people:
- a. lack appropriate models from whom to learn.
 - b. are not offered incentives for learning needed skills.
 - c. have learned to be helpless.
 - d. develop inappropriate self-control strategies.
- (c/252) 63. Research on modeling in therapy has focused on:
- a. basic social skills.
 - b. assertiveness.
 - c. both of the above
 - d. neither of the above
- (a/252) 64. Which kind of model seems to be completely without fear?
- a. mastery
 - b. coping
 - c. skill
 - d. participant
- (b/253) 65. Why is modeling effective at producing behavior change, according to Bandura?
- a. The model receives rewards.
 - b. The person in therapy increases his/her sense of efficacy.
 - c. The person is learning needed skills.
 - d. The person is exposed to what he/she fears.
- (b/253) 66. Which of the following have the strongest influence on efficacy perceptions according to Bandura?
- a. vicarious experiences
 - b. performance accomplishments
 - c. vicarious emotional responses
 - d. outcome expectancies

- (b/254) 67. The conditioning perspective can be criticized in that it:
- does not reveal much about how a given behavior becomes more or less probable.
 - does not address the subjective sense of what it means to have a personality, i.e., of "personhood."
 - applies only to certain types or domains of behavior.
 - none of the above

True and False

- (T/228) 1. From the learning perspective, personality consists of all the learned tendencies a person has acquired over the experiences of his or her life.
- (F/228) 2. One must receive a reward for classical conditioning to occur.
- (F/229) 3. In classical conditioning, the neutral stimulus is referred to as the unconditioned stimulus.
- (F/229) 4. The conditioned response is just as intense as the unconditioned response.
- (T/229) 5. Sexual arousal may be both a conditioned and an unconditioned response.
- (T/230) 6. To see if classical conditioning has occurred, the conditioned stimulus is presented without the unconditioned stimulus, and the reaction is observed.
- (T/231) 7. Whenever Chelsea sees white padded walls, she gets thirsty. However, she does not get thirsty when she sees purple padded walls. These different reactions to the two colors are a product of discrimination.
- (F/231) 8. Rescorla argues that classical conditioning is a slow process requiring many pairings.
- (F/231 9. The process of generalization occurs more reliably as stimuli become farther and farther removed from the original conditioned stimulus.
- (T/231) 10. Extinction occurs when a conditioned stimulus is repeatedly presented alone without the unconditioned stimulus.
- (T/232) 11. Much of the classical conditioning that takes place in humans involves responses with emotional qualities.
- (F/233) 12. Instrumental conditioning is a passive process.
- (T/233) 13. The law of effect is a means of accounting for regularities in behavior.
- (F/233) 14. The law of effect describes the process of classical conditioning.
- (T/234) 15. Habit hierarchies derive from prior conditioning.
- (T/234) 16. Primary reinforcers reduce biological needs.
- (F/234) 17. A glass of water to a thirsty person would be a secondary reinforcer.
- (F/235) 18. Negative reinforcement involves adding something aversive or unpleasant to the environment.
- (T/235) 19. In essence, time out involves taking away something good.

- (F/235) 20. Time out is an example of negative reinforcement.
- (T/235) 21. A discriminative stimulus turns behavior on and off.
- (T/236) 22. Stimulus control occurs when behavior is cued by discrimination stimuli.
- (F/236) 23. The principle of generalization is the biggest barrier in terms of giving conditioning theorists a way to talk about trait-like qualities.
- (T/236) 24. In instrumental conditioning, extinction occurs when a behavior that was once associated with a reward no longer is.
- (T/237) 25. In continuous reinforcement, the behavior is followed by a reinforcer every single time.
- (F/237) 26. A behavior built in by partial reinforcement extinguishes more quickly than one built in by continuous reinforcement.
- (T/238) 27. Cognitive learning theories emphasize social aspects of learning.
- (T/239) 28. According to the cognitive learning perspective, social reinforcers are among the most potent.
- (F/239) 29. Sympathy occurs when you feel the same feeling as another person.
- (T/240 30. Modeling effects on children's delay of gratification choices can last a month or
Box10.3) more.
- (F/241) 31. According to Bandura, vicarious reinforcers act by forming expectancies.
- (F/241) 32. Self-efficacy can improve performance on cognitive tasks but is not associated with biological outcomes.
- (F/242) 33. Traditional conditioning theories long assumed that attention is required in order for conditioning to occur.
- (T/242) 34. In order to demonstrate unambiguously that observational learning has occurred, the behavior learned should be one that the observer does not already know.

- (T/243) 35. A person must pay attention to a model's behavior if observational learning is to occur.
- (F/243) 36. Attractiveness of a model does not influence observational learning.
- (F/243) 37. Imaginal coding is creating a description to yourself of what you are seeing.
- (T/245) 38. Vicarious reinforcement does not influence whether a modeled behavior is acquired, but does influence whether or not people spontaneously perform the learned behavior.
- (F/245) 39. Reinforcement contingencies are unimportant in determining what behaviors observers are willing to perform spontaneously.
- (F/246) 40. People who observe innovative aggressive techniques acquire them as behavioral potentials only if they desire to engage in those techniques.
- (T/247) 41. Behavioral assessment requires nothing more complicated than directly observing and recording the person's behavior in situations of interest.
- (F/247) 42. Because conditioning theorists de-emphasize mental states, their assessment techniques ignore the affective qualities of experience.
- (F/247) 43. The social-cognitive learning perspective stresses the use of behavioral observation as a major assessment device.
- (T/248) 44. From the social-cognitive perspective, it is important to assess people's perceptions of situations rather than objective qualities of situations.
- (F/248) 45. Assessment in the social-cognitive learning view emphasizes objective properties of situations, rather than personal views of those situations.
- (T/248) 46. The conditioning view assumes that phobic reactions are classically conditioned.
- (F/249) 47. Exposure treatments for phobias require multiple sessions.
- (T/250) 48. The contingency management approach involved reinforcing desired actions and reducing reinforcement of undesired actions.
- (T/251) 49. Skill deficits can reflect deficits in observational learning.
- (F/252) 50. A mastery model is one that initially appears fearful, but overcomes those fears, and eventually is able to handle the situation.
- (T/252) 51. A coping model is one that initially displays fear but eventually overcomes it and handles the situation.
- (T/253) 52. Bandura has suggested that effective therapy is based on positive changes in the patient's perception of personal efficacy.

(T/253) 53. Performance accomplishments are the strongest influence on efficacy perceptions.

(F/254) 54. The learning perspective was the first perspective on personality to be developed theoretically as opposed to being derived from research data.

(T/254) 55. The learning perspective has been criticized as being a view of the determinants of behavior and not a complete theory of personality.

(F/255) 56. Bandura continues to use the word *learning* in the name of his theory despite differences with traditional learning approaches.

Short Essay

(228 -229) 1. Explain and give an example of the different phases of classical conditioning.

(1) Before conditioning: Only the reflex exists (US-->UR; puff of air in the eye-->blink).

(2) When conditioning takes place: Conditioned (previously neutral) stimulus occurs several times along with, or slightly before, the unconditioned stimulus, followed by the unconditioned response (CS...US-->UR; light on...puff of air in the eye-->blink).

(3) After conditioning: Conditioned stimulus is followed by now-conditioned response (CS-->CR; light on-->blink).

(232/ Box10.2) 2. Explain how classical conditioning can affect attitudes and give an example.

People acquire emotional responses to stimuli when they are paired with something that already elicits such a response so attitudes can be conditioned in a similar way. Razran presented political slogans to participants and paired them with a positive stimulus (receiving a free lunch), a negative stimulus (inhaling noxious odors), or in a neutral setting. Afterward, people who received the free lunch liked the slogans more and those who inhaled the unpleasant odors liked them less.

(235) 3. What is negative reinforcement and what effect does it have on behavior?

Negative reinforcement: Refers to the removal of a negative stimulus following a response. Because the state of the organism is moved in a positive direction (from unpleasant to neutral), it is reinforcing. Thus, the tendency to make the response increases.

(237) 4. What is the difference between continuous and partial schedules of reinforcement? How do they affect behavior differently?

With a *continuous schedule of reinforcement*, the target behavior is followed by a reward every single time. With a *partial schedule of reinforcement*, the target behavior is followed by a reward only periodically. Although behaviors are acquired more rapidly on a continuous schedule of reinforcement, they also extinguish more rapidly when reinforcement is no longer provided.

(240) 5. Briefly describe vicarious reinforcement.

If you observe a person do something that is followed by a reward, you become more likely to engage in the same behavior, even though you did not receive the reward yourself. Likewise, if you see another person punished for a particular behavior, you become less likely to engage in the behavior yourself. This is presumably due to expectations that one will receive the same contingencies (reward or punishment).

(244-245) 6. What does the distinction between *behavior acquisition* and *behavior performance* refer to, and why is it important for observational learning?

People do not always repeat the actions they see others display. Therefore, a great deal is acquired that may never be performed. To know if observational learning will result in behavior, you need to know the person's incentives--what reinforcement or punishment people expect their behavior will engender. Knowledge of reinforcement contingencies influence whether people spontaneously perform behaviors acquired through observation.

(246) 7. Identify two processes by which symbolic models might influence an observer's tendency to display aggression.

(1) Symbolic models provide observers with the opportunity to acquire new techniques via observational learning.

(2) Observing violence that is permitted, condoned, or even rewarded promotes the belief that aggression is an appropriate way to deal with conflicts. Vicarious reinforcement increases the likelihood that viewers will use such tactics in their own actions.

(3) Repeated exposure to violence also desensitizes observers to the implications of human suffering. As people's reactions to violence are extinguished, being victimized and victimizing others become seen as an ordinary part of life.

(247) 8. Discuss the two assessment techniques based on the conditioning approach.

(1) Physiological assessment: Measures physiological changes (e.g., muscle tension, heart rate, blood pressure) that follow emotional experiences. Physiographs produce an index of the intensity of emotional reactions. This technique is direct and objective as well as elaborate and expensive.

(2) Behavioral assessment: Directly observing the person's behavior in situations of interest (e.g., fear-->trembling, paleness, staying distant, etc)

(248 -249) 9. Briefly describe the systematic desensitization technique.

First, the client is taught how to relax thoroughly; this relaxation becomes the incompatible "emotion" intended to take over from the usual phobic response. The therapist and client then construct an anxiety hierarchy (a list of situations involving the feared stimulus, ranked in terms of how much anxiety they produce).

In the desensitization process, the client relaxes as completely as possible and visualizes a scene from the least-threatening end of the hierarchy. Any anxiety at this point is allowed to dissipate. Then, while the person continues relaxing, the scene is imagined again. The lowest-threat scene is imagined repeatedly while the person is relaxing until the scene provokes no anxiety at all. Then the client moves to the next level of the hierarchy. Gradually, the person is able to imagine more threatening scenes without anxiety. Eventually, the imagined scenes are replaced by the actual feared stimulus. As the anxiety is countered by the relaxation, the person is able to interact more and more effectively with what previously had created intense fear.

(252) 10. Describe the differences between *mastery models* and *coping models*.

MASTERY MODEL: One that seems to be completely without fear in dealing with what the person in therapy fears. It works through vicarious extinction of the conditioned fear response, as the observer sees that the model experiences no distress.

COPING MODEL: One that initially seems fearful, but overcomes the fear and eventually can handle the situation. Its effect presumably depends on the fact that the model is in the same situation as the observer but is (noticeably) able to overcome the fear by active coping efforts.

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