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(Psychology)

Health Psychology
Semester-II

Author- Kritika Rathore

SURESH GYAN VIHAR UNIVERSITY
Centre for Distance and Online Education
Mahal, Jagatpura, Jaipur-302025

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LEARNING OUTCOMES

The student will be able to understand

UNIT 1

- Students will gain knowledge about the biopsychosocial model, which recognizes the interconnectedness of biological, psychological, and social factors in influencing health and well-being.
- Students will learn about the impact of stress on health and the various coping mechanisms individuals employ to manage stress.
- Students will learn about strategies for health promotion and disease prevention

UNIT 2

- Students may gain insights into the psychological aspects of living with chronic illnesses.
- Students will develop an understanding of ethical considerations related to health psychology research and practice.
- This includes issues of informed consent, confidentiality, and cultural competence.

UNIT 3

- Understanding the concept of species extinction in the context of biology and ecology.
- Exploring the causes of extinction, including natural factors (e.g., climate change, geological events) and human-induced factors (e.g., habitat destruction, pollution).
- Recognizing the importance of biodiversity and the ecological consequences of species extinction.

UNIT 4

- Shaping helps modify behavior by reinforcing small steps or gradual changes that lead to the desired behavior.
- Shaping promotes incremental learning by breaking down a complex behavior into smaller, manageable steps.
- Shaping is effective in establishing entirely new behaviors that may not be present in an individual's repertoire.

UNIT 5

- Participants should be able to demonstrate effective verbal and non-verbal communication skills.
- Training Procedures: Role-playing exercises, communication workshops, and feedback sessions.
- Participants should be able to actively listen, understand, and respond appropriately to others.

HEALTH PSYCHOLOGY SYLLABUS

UNIT I

BEHAVIOUR MODIFICATION

Introduction to Behaviour Modification, Characteristics, Areas of application, Observing and recording behaviour, direct and indirect assessment, Logistics of recording, Choosing a recording method

UNIT II

REINFORCEMENT

Reinforcement, positive and negative reinforcement, conditioned and unconditioned reinforcers, factors that influence the effectiveness of reinforcement

UNIT III

EXTINCTION

Extinction, Punishment, negative and positive punishments, contrasting and reinforcement and punishment, factors that influence the effectiveness of punishment

UNIT IV

SHAPING

Shaping, applications of shaping, how to use shaping. Prompting, Fading, types of prompts, Prompt fading

UNIT V

BEHAVIOURAL SKILLS AND TRAINING PROCEDURES

Behavioural skills and training procedures, components of the behavioural skills training procedure, modelling, rehearsal, enhancing generalization after behavioural skills, how to use behavioural skills training procedure.

BEHAVIOUR MODIFICATION

STRUCTURE

- 1.1 Learning Objective
- 1.2 Introduction
- 1.3 Characteristics
- 1.4 Areas Of Application
- 1.5 Observing And Recording Behaviour
- 1.6 Direct And Indirect Assessment
- 1.7 Logistics Of Recording
- 1.8 Choosing A Recording Method
- 1.9 Chapter Summary
- 1.10 Review Questions
- 1.11 Multiple Choice Questions



1.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVE

After studying the learning material, the students will be able to,

- Define behaviour modification.
- Explain the main characteristics of behaviour modification.
- Discuss the historical development of behaviour modification.
- Elucidate the principles of behaviour modification.
- Explain the and procedures of behaviour modification.
- Analyse the applications of behaviour modification across various settings.

1.2 INTRODUCTION

Almost every technique that modifies human behaviour has been referred to as behaviour modification by some writers in recent years. However, this is untrue. More precisely, behaviour modification does not involve indoctrination or mind control, nor does it involve the use of electric shock therapy or psychosurgery. Drugs are only infrequently used as a temporary aid to a behaviour change operation. Instead, behaviour modification is a controlled learning process where clients acquire new behaviours and abilities, minimise undesirable reactions and habits, and increase their motivation to make the necessary changes. Changing behaviour is based on experimental research. These aims are to explain fundamental behavioural laws so that one can understand how environmental factors affect people's actions and to explain behaviour modification techniques so that one can understand how to alter people's behaviour. We will learn about behaviour modification in this unit, including the methods and guiding principles used to comprehend and modify human behaviour.

The word "behaviour" is one of those that we use frequently but may not fully understand. We use words like diligent, kind, friendly, ungrateful, independent, selfish, etc. to describe behaviour. However, if we examine these concepts, we find that they do not describe the particular traits we observe in a person when we use terms like hard-working or selfish. In general, we may grasp what selfishness or anxiety-related behaviour signifies, but we might not be aware that the person's anxiety is indicated by his or her nail-biting, fidgeting, or pacing about the room. It is crucial that we discuss behaviour in great detail. Behaviour is essentially anything a person says or does. In general, behaviour modifiers describe the behaviour in great detail. This aids in concentrating on the specific behaviour that has to be altered. Additionally, behaviour must be classified as either behavioural excesses or deficits. A behavioural deficit is a lack of certain behaviours, such as the inability of a child to mix and interact with his classmates, the inability of a child to eat in a restaurant properly, the inability of a teacher to control her anger when a student disrupts her class, or the inability of a manager to act professionally during a board meeting. Behaviour excesses are actions that are out of control, such as tantrums in children, drinking or smoking continuously in adults, children who frequently consume chocolates and toffees, or people who watch television nonstop.

As a result, there is a variation in behaviour—either a lack of behaviour or an excess of behaviour—which results in the issue and requires attention. The right behaviour can be established and these problematic behaviours can be changed with the aid of behaviour modification. The context, culture, and ethics of the people involved should always be taken into account when determining if certain behaviours are excessive or lacking. Nevertheless, some behaviour, such as self-harm, is never appropriate, regardless of the situation.

Introduction to Behaviour Modification

Behaviour modification is a form of psychotherapy that is described in Psychotheory and tries to address the issues of the client by using methods to reinforce good behaviours and get rid of undesirable ones. Then approach to behaviour modification entails the promotion and development of removing and reducing unfavourable behaviours while promoting desirable behaviours techniques based on the concepts of reinforcement and learning. Simply said, behaviour modification is predicated on the idea that behaviours can be learned. both learnt and unlearned. Therefore, if the kid has learned any bad in addition to learning new desired behaviours, behaviour can also be unlearned.

The area of psychology known as behaviour modification focuses on analysing and changing human behaviour. Understanding the causes of behaviour or figuring out why someone behaved in a certain way requires analysis, which is the process of establishing the functional relationship between the environmental events and a specific behaviour. Modifying refers to creating and putting into place practises that assist individuals in changing their behaviour. It entails changing environmental circumstances in order to affect behaviour. Professionals create behaviour modification techniques to alter socially significant behaviours with the intention of enhancing a person's quality of life.

1.3 CHARACTERISTICS

Following are the characteristics of behaviour modification:

- 1. Focus on behaviour:** Procedure for behaviour modification aim to alter behaviour, not a person's personality or traits. Therefore, labelling is less important when behaviour is modified. For instance, behaviour modification is not used to alter autism (a label); rather, it is used to alter the problematic behaviours displayed by autistic children. Behaviour modification techniques aim to change behavioural excesses and deficits. The target behaviour in behaviour modification is the behaviour that needs to change. An unwanted target behaviour that a person desires to reduce in frequency, length, or severity is referred to as a behavioural excess. An example of a behavioural excess is smoking. A desirable goal behaviour that a person desires to increase in frequency, duration, or intensity is referred to as a behavioural deficit. Possible instances of behavioural deficiencies include studying and exercise.
- 2. Procedures based on behavioural principles:** Behaviour modification is the application of fundamental ideas that were first discovered through scientific animal experimentation. Experimental analysis of behaviour, or behaviour analysis, is the term used to describe the scientific study of behaviour. Experimental analysis of human behaviour, often known as applied behaviour analysis, is the name given to





the scientific study of human behaviour. On research in applied behaviour analysis that has been done for more than 40 years, behaviour modification techniques are founded.

3. **Emphasis on current environmental events:** Assessing and changing the current environmental circumstances that are functionally connected to the behaviour constitutes behaviour modification. The aim of behaviour modification is to identify the immediate environmental events that regulate human behaviour. After being recognised, these controlling factors are changed in order to change the behaviour. Successful behaviour modification techniques change the functional connections between the behaviour and the environmental factors that govern it to bring about the desired change in behaviour. Labels can occasionally be incorrectly blamed for behaviour. For instance, someone can assert that a child's autism is the reason the child exhibits troublesome behaviours (such as yelling, hurting himself, and disobeying orders).
4. **Precise description of behaviour modification procedures:** Procedures for behaviour modification entail particular adjustments to environmental circumstances that are relevant to the behaviour. The specified alterations in environmental occurrences must take place repeatedly for the processes to be effective. Researchers and other experts increase the likelihood that methods will be utilised correctly each time by providing detailed procedural descriptions.
5. **Treatment implemented by people in everyday life:** Professionals or paraprofessionals with training in behaviour modification create the methods for behaviour modification. To influence a person's behaviour, however, behaviour modification techniques are frequently used by individuals like instructors, parents, bosses, or others. Only those who have received enough training should employ behaviour modification techniques. It is more probable that parents, teachers, and other stakeholders will correctly implement procedures when there are clear descriptions of those procedures and expert oversight.
6. **Measurement of behaviour change:** The emphasis on measuring behaviour before and after intervention to document the behaviour change brought on by the behaviour modification processes is one of the defining characteristics of behaviour modification. In order to ascertain if the behaviour change is sustained over the long term, continuing behaviour evaluation is done well beyond the time of intervention. Before adopting the processes, the supervisor would monitor the employees' behaviours over a time period if the goal was to boost work productivity (raise the number of units put together each day). The supervisor would next put the behaviour modification techniques into practise and keep track of the behaviours. This recording would demonstrate whether there was an increase in the number of units assembled.
7. **De-emphasis on past events as causes of behaviour:** Behaviour modification, as previously mentioned, emphasises current environmental experiences as the reasons of behaviour. However, historical knowledge also offers helpful details about environmental events connected to contemporary behaviour. For instance, it has been demonstrated that past learning experiences have an impact on present behaviour. Understanding past educational experiences might therefore be helpful in analysing present behaviour and selecting behaviour management techniques. Even while knowing about past events is helpful, understanding present controlling variables is more pertinent to creating successful behaviour

modification interventions since, unlike past events, those variables can still be changed.

- 8. Rejection of hypothetical underlying causes of behaviour:** The underlying reasons of behaviour, such as an unresolved Oedipus complex, may be of interest to some branches of psychology, such as Freudian psychoanalytic approaches, but behaviour modification rejects such speculative explanations of behaviour. Such explanations are unscientific, according to Skinner (1974), who labelled them “explanatory fictions” because they can never be established or refuted. These alleged root causes can never be quantified or controlled to show a causal connection to the behaviour they are purported to explain.

Principles of Behaviour Modification

The principles and techniques of behaviour modification are used to help people change undesirable behaviours while acquiring new, more desirable ones. The two major tenets of behaviour modification are reinforcement and punishment. Punishment weakens a behaviour, whereas reinforcement strengthens it. Are possibilities both positive and negative.

Positive reinforcement explains desired behaviour that is rewarded by the elimination of a negative stimulus, whereas positive reinforcement describes desired behaviour that is rewarded with a pleasurable stimulus. When a bad behaviour results in the addition of a negative stimulus, it is called a positive punishment; when a bad behaviour results in the removal of a positive stimulus, it is called a negative punishment. For instance, a rat used to get food when it pressed the lever no longer gets food when it does so. The rat has received unsatisfactory treatment.

Positive punishment is less common, though, because more unpleasant punishment can produce affective and emotional issues if handled improperly. In contrast to negative reinforcement, which prevents the development of a negative stimulus, positive reinforcement involves the production of a stimulus (positive reinforcer) by a reaction or behaviour. Food, money, and recognition are examples of positive reinforcers, whereas negative reinforcement teaches avoidance and escape behaviours. Negative reinforcement occurs, for example, when we neglect the youngster when he is having a tantrum.

Thus, positive reinforcement as well as negative reinforcement both tend to increase or strengthen behaviour. However, negative punishment, decrease or weaken the undesirable behaviour. When the child misbehaves and given time out (removal of the pleasant stimulus, for example, being with friends), it leads to decrease the undesirable behaviour of the child.

When changing behaviour, the principles of operant conditioning also use a schedule of reinforcement to achieve the desired effects. As soon as the desired behaviour takes place, it is reinforced; conversely, undesirable behaviour is discouraged. Tools like rewards and penalties are also employed to reinforce new behaviours. These strategies effectively refocus a person’s motivations to achieve the intended result.

Further, a behaviour, or habit, is framed by what happens before and what happens after the behaviour is carried out. The principle of extinction is also made use of which works



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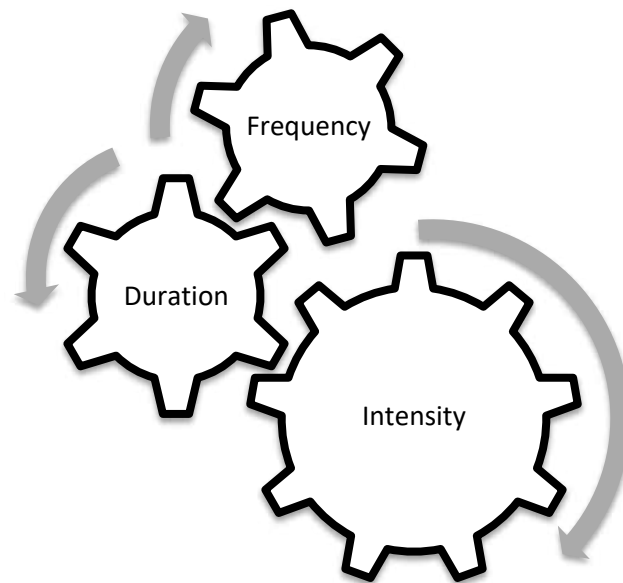
by removing or changing what happens after the behaviour takes place. In effect, the incentive or reward that motivates a person to carry out a certain behaviour is taken away. When this happens over and over again, the motivation to indulge in a certain behaviour begins to fade. Eventually the behaviour itself becomes extinct for lack of incentive

Steps/Procedure of Behaviour Modification

The goal of behaviour modification is always to bring about a change in the behaviour. The change may be in terms of:

- A newly developed behaviour.
- Increase or strengthening of a behaviour.
- Maintaining a behaviour at a particular rate or pattern of occurrence.
- Decrease or change in a behaviour.

Deciding the goal is only one part of the entire procedure for behaviour modification. First of all, we need to analyse the problem behaviour through a process of behavioural assessment. Behavioural assessment helps us to understand the problem in its different aspects, in different contexts and across different settings/situations. The problem is studied in detail:



Frequency – how often the behaviour occurs, e.g., how many times the child has used abusive language in a class duration

Duration – how long the problem behaviour lasts, e.g., the child goes on talking abusive language or uses it for a while only

Intensity – how severe is the behaviour, e.g., the child uses extreme abusive language or mild abusive language

Thus, baseline data forms an important step in the behaviour modification plan. Specific information about the behaviour is collected. The ABC model of behavioural analysis,

also called functional analysis is used. The ABC model refers to Cognitive Behavioural Counselling

- A antecedent it: describes what happens just before the occurrence of the behaviour
- B behaviour: it describes the client's behaviour
- C consequence: it describes the consequence, i.e. what happens after the behaviour

Antecedents aid in a thorough understanding of the issue, including what causes it, when and where it arises, who is there, and what kinds of situations or events typically trigger the problematic behaviour. Behaviour is defined as the actions taken or displayed. The client's behaviour is determined by the consequences. Consequences are what the behaviour leads to, including how parents, teachers, and peers react to the child's behaviour. These responses decide if the behaviour will persist or change, or if it will diminish or rise.

- The functional assessment helps in understanding the behaviour. This facilitates in planning the appropriate intervention technique. The following steps can be delineated in the behavioural assessment process: The problem behaviour is described in detail with example of its occurrence.
- All the antecedent factors are also elaborated.
- The consequences are noted down.
- The goals are specified.
- Accordingly, the target response is stated in precise terms.
- The particular intervention to be used is finalised and implemented.
- Follow up and evaluation is done. If the intervention did not bring in the desired result, then we again go back to the first step of analysing the problem in detail in terms of the antecedent factors and then deciding on the intervention strategies to be adopted.

For instance, the problem is the aggressive behaviour of the child in the playground. Examples of occurrence of the aggressive behaviour by the child in the playground is cited. When did it occur, how did it start, what was the duration and intensity etc.? The consequences: how did the teacher react to the aggressive behaviour of the child, how did other classmates present reacted, and any other consequence, may be punishment by the principal of the school are also noted. Analysis of the antecedent and consequences of the problem then leads to the setting of goals. The goal may be to reduce the aggressive behaviour of the child. To achieve this goal, the target response, i.e., the response which need to be changed are specified. In this case, the target responses may be reduction in hitting behaviour, using abusive language, overcoming getting angry very quick. Thereafter, the appropriate intervention technique to be used are decided and implemented.

1.4 AREAS OF APPLICATION

Behaviour modification procedures have been used in many areas to help people change a vast array of problematic behaviours.

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*BEHAVIOUR
MODIFICATION*

NOTES



Developmental Disabilities: Perhaps more than any other area, the study of behaviour modification has been extensively studied in the context of developmental impairments. People with developmental disabilities often have serious behavioural deficits, and behaviour modification has been used to teach a variety of functional skills to overcome these deficits. Additionally, people with developmental impairments may display severe problem behaviours like self-harming, violent, and destructive behaviours. Numerous studies on behaviour change show that these behaviours can frequently be managed or eliminated using behavioural interventions (Barrett, 1986; VanHouten & Axelrod, 1993). Additionally, behaviour modification techniques are frequently employed in staff management and training in the field of developmental disorders (Reid, Parsons, & Green, 1989).

Mental Illness: With individuals who have a chronic mental illness, behaviour modification has been used to change behaviours related to daily living, social interaction, aggression, treatment compliance, psychotic behaviours, and occupational abilities. The establishment of a token economy, a method of providing motivation for institutionalised patients, was one notably significant contribution of behaviour modification (Ayllon & Azrin, 1968). Even now, many treatment settings still employ token economies.

Education: Behaviour modification research has helped advance the profession of education greatly. Researchers have examined pupil-teacher interactions in the classroom, enhanced instructional techniques, and created protocols for minimising problematic behaviour there (Becker & Carnine, 1981; Madsen, Becker, & Thomas, 1968). Higher education has also used behaviour modification strategies to enhance teaching methods and enhance student learning.

Rehabilitation: Helping patients restore normal function following an injury or trauma, such as a head injury from an accident or brain damage from a stroke, is known as rehabilitation. Behaviour modification is employed in rehabilitation to increase adherence to treatment regimens like physical therapy, to teach new abilities that can replace those that were lost due to the accident or injury, to reduce problem behaviours, to help manage chronic pain, and to enhance memory.

Community Psychology: Behavioural interventions in community psychology aim to change the behaviour of a lot of individuals in ways that are advantageous to all. Behavioural community interventions have as their goals lowering littering, raising recycling, lowering energy consumption, lowering risky driving, lowering the use of illegal drugs, boosting the usage of seat belts, lowering illegal parking in accessible places, and lowering speeding.

Clinical Psychology: In clinical psychology, techniques and principles from psychology are used to assist clients with their personal issues. Clinical psychology frequently entails individual or group counselling provided by a psychologist. Behaviour therapy, also known as behaviour modification in clinical psychology, has been used to treat a variety of human issues.

Business, Industry and Human Services: Organizational behaviour management, also known as OBM, is the use of behaviour modification in the fields of business, industry,

and human services. Procedures for behaviour modification have been utilised to reduce tardiness, absenteeism, and workplace accidents while increasing job performance and safety. Additionally, techniques for changing behaviour have been employed to raise supervisors' effectiveness. The application of behaviour modification in business and industry has raised productivity and earnings for businesses as well as employee job satisfaction.

Child Management: There are several ways to use behaviour modification to control kid behaviour. Parents and educators can learn how to employ behaviour modification techniques. Behaviour Modification techniques to assist kids deal with typical issues like bedwetting, nail-biting, temper tantrums, disobedience, aggressive behaviour, bad manners, and stuttering.

Sports: In order to increase good lifestyle behaviours (such exercise and a proper diet) and decrease unhealthy behaviours, behaviour modification is a technique that is frequently utilised in the field of sports psychology (such as smoking, drinking, and overeating).

Medical Problems: Behaviour modification techniques are also used to encourage behaviours that have a favourable impact on physical or medical issues, such as lowering blood pressure, reducing gastrointestinal disturbances, and decreasing headache frequency and intensity. They are also used to improve compliance with medical regimens. Behavioural medicine or health psychology refers to the use of behaviour modification to behaviours connected to one's health.

1.5 OBSERVING AND RECORDING BEHAVIOUR

Measuring the behaviour that needs to change is a key component of behaviour modification. Behavioural assessment refers to the measurement of the target behaviour (or behaviours) in behaviour modification. Several factors make behavioural assessment crucial. Assessing behaviour before to treatment can give information that can be used to decide whether therapy is required. The optimum treatment can be chosen with the use of behavioural evaluation information. When the target behaviour is measured before and after therapy, it is possible to see if the behaviour changed. There are various techniques for assessing behaviour.

1.6 DIRECT AND INDIRECT ASSESSMENT

Any type of data collection that calls for pupils to show a knowledge, skill, or conduct is referred to as a direct assessment. Any form of data collection that requires student reflection on their knowledge, abilities, or actions rather than a display of them is known as an indirect assessment.

To create a fuller picture of student success and capacities, the best assessment strategies include direct and indirect means of gathering evidence of student learning. The methods denoted by an asterisk (*) can also be used to assess student learning at the course level, even though all of the examples below are intended for programmatic assessment of student achievement.



NOTES



Direct Evidence of student's learning	Indirect Evidence of student's learning
Ratings of student skills by field experience supervisors	Course grades*
Scores and pass rates from licensure, certification exams, or other national tests	Assignment grades if not accompanied by rubric/scoring guide
Capstone experiences (research papers, theses, presentations, etc.) scored with a rubric	* Admission rates into graduate programs and subsequent graduation rates
Other written work, performances, or presentations scored with a rubric*	Quality/reputation of graduate programs into which alumni are accepted
Portfolios of student work*	Placement rates of graduates into appropriate career positions and starting salaries
Scores of locally designed tests in key courses, qualifying exams, or comprehensive exams accompanied by descriptions of what the tests assess*	Alumni perceptions of their career responsibilities and satisfaction
Systematic observations of student behaviour (presentations, group discussions, etc.)	Student ratings of their knowledge/skills or reflections on what they have learned*
Summaries or analyses of electronic discussion threads*	End-of-semester evaluation questions focused on course not instructor*
Classroom response systems (clickers, etc.)	Student participation rates in faculty research, publications, and conference presentations
Student reflections on values, attitudes, and beliefs	Honors, awards, and scholarships earned by students and alumni

1.7 LOGISTICS OF RECORDING

Behavioural recording is a different approach to assessing a student's conduct that gives us a very clear image of how severe it is. Direct observation of the student by the teacher or assistant allows them to note how long or how frequently a specific behaviour occurs. By employing this technique, we may contrast the frequency of the behaviour with the frequency with which it is displayed by other kids.

This comparison may be used to justify placing the student in a particular educational setting. This approach can be used to determine with accuracy if the student's behaviour is becoming better over time. There are three primary categories of behavioural recordings: frequency, duration, and interval (although many other variations are sometimes used for certain purposes). The method of recording we select will depend on the type of behaviour displayed and the kind of data that would be most useful.

BEHAVIOUR MODIFICATION

Frequency recording is a simple counting of how many times a behaviour occurs during a designated period of time. These predetermined timeslots could be one minute, one hour,

one day, or one week. It works best with actions that are specific, brief in duration, or items that the student has developed, such as the quantity of expletives or brief talk-outs without raising the hand (e.g., number of correct math problems, number of homework assignments submitted). Permanent product recording is the second kind of frequency recording in which we count the number of objects.

Duration recording monitors the percent of time or the total time that a behaviour occurs in a specified time period. The entire number of instances (duration) during which the behaviour happened is divided by the total amount of observation time to determine the percentage. This kind of recording is used to capture actions that go on for longer than a few seconds or for different amounts of time (e.g., paying attention, tapping a pencil, in-seat behaviour).

Interval recording is a shortcut procedure for estimating the duration of a behaviour. In this method, the teacher periodically looks at the student at predetermined (NOT spontaneously selected) intervals and records whether the behaviour is occurring. There are three types of interval recording. When using whole interval time sampling, we watch the student for a few seconds at predetermined intervals to see if the behaviour continues over the entire time period. We are searching for it (mark “yes” or “no” as to whether this behaviour occurred for the whole time). We indicate whether the behaviour happened at least once throughout the brief observation interval while recording partial intervals. In momentary time sampling we glance up at predetermined points right away to see if the behaviour is taking place at that specific moment. The teacher then calculates the percentage of observations for each of the three types where the conduct happened. The same behaviours are recorded with intervals as they are with durations; however this process requires less time and effort and does not require.

1.8 CHOOSING A RECORDING METHOD

1. Define the behaviour that we wish to observe. Be very specific. Be sure that our definition is so narrow in scope that others would observe only what we had in mind.
2. Decide which type of behavioural recording is best suited to monitor the behaviour.
3. Decide when we will observe the behaviour. Do we want to observe the behaviour in a number of situations or just one (e.g., math class, story time)?
4. Decide how long each of our observations will last. Ten to twenty minutes is usually adequate, but the more time we spend observing, the more accurate will be our results. Repeat our observations at least three more times to give a more representative picture.
5. Observe and record the student’s behaviour.
6. If we used frequency recording, figure the average number of occurrences per minute, hour, or day. If we used duration recording, figure the percentage of the total observation time that the behaviour occurred. If we used momentary time sampling, figure the percent of intervals when the behaviour was occurring. Plot the occurrence rate on a graph.
7. Repeat steps 5 and 6.





1.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

In order to influence behaviour, behaviour modification processes analyse and control current environmental occurrences. Behaviour modification techniques can be used to target a behavioural excess or deficit for change. Behavioural principles developed from scientific study are the foundation of behaviour modification techniques. The early scientific studies that formed the groundwork for behaviour modification were carried out by B. F. Skinner. Individuals frequently use behaviour modification techniques in daily life. To demonstrate the efficiency of the behaviour modification techniques, behaviour is measured both before and after their application. Behaviour modification minimises the importance of the past and dismisses theories about the origins of behaviour. All facets of human behaviour, including those related to developmental disabilities, mental illness, education and special education, rehabilitation, community psychology, clinical psychology, business, industry, and human services, child management, prevention, sports psychology, and health-related behaviours, have been successfully changed through the use of behaviour modification techniques.

1.10 REVIEW QUESTIONS

SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. What do you understand by the concept of behaviour?
2. Briefly explain Behaviour modification.
3. Define the steps to choose a recording method.
4. What do you understand by frequency recording?
5. How one should observe the behaviour?

LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. What do you understand by the term behaviour modification? Explain the characteristics features of behaviour modification.
2. Discuss in detail the steps of behaviour modification.
3. Differentiate between Direct Evidence and Indirect Evidence of student's learning.
4. What are the principles of Behaviour Modification?
5. Define the areas of application of behaviour modification.

1.11 MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. Everything that modifies human behaviour is _____
 - a. Human Technique
 - b. Behaviour Modification
 - c. Change in behaviour
 - d. None of the above
2. _____ is essentially anything a person says or does
 - a. Habit
 - b. Character

- c. Behaviour
d. All the above
3. **Behaviour modification is a form of _____**
a. Psychotherapy
b. Psychology
c. Emotional disturbance
d. None of the above
4. **Behaviour modification is the application of fundamental ideas that were first discovered through scientific _____ experimentation.**
a. Human
b. Birds
c. Animal
d. Genetic
5. **The aim of behaviour modification is to identify the immediate environmental events that _____ human behaviour**
a. Regulate
b. Control
c. Modifies
d. All the above
6. **Professionals or _____ with training in behaviour modification create the methods for behaviour modification**
a. Scientist
b. Educationist
c. Paraprofessionals
d. All the above
7. **Reinforcement and punishment are the main _____ of behaviour modification.**
a. Principles
b. Code of conduct
c. Parameters
d. None of the above
8. **_____ reinforcement describes desirable behaviour rewarded with a pleasant stimulus, while negative reinforcement describes desirable behaviour rewarded with the removal of a negative stimulus**
a. Positive
b. Negative
c. Both
d. None of the above
9. **Behavioural _____ helps us to understand the problem in its different aspects, in different contexts and across different settings/situations**
a. Testing
b. Exercising



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- c. Assessment
 - d. All the above
- 10. Organizational behaviour management is the use of behaviour modification in the fields of business, industry, and _____**
- a. Human services
 - b. Machines
 - c. Both
 - d. None of the above

◆◆◆◆

REINFORCEMENT

STRUCTURE

- 2.1 Learning objective
- 2.2 Introduction
- 2.3 Conditioned and unconditioned reinforcers
- 2.4 Factors that influence the effectiveness of reinforcement
- 2.5 Chapter Summary
- 2.6 Review Questions
- 2.7 Multiple Choice Questions



2.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVE

After studying this unit, students will be able to;

- Concept of reinforcement.
- Learn the use of reinforcement.
- Differentiate between positive and negative reinforcement.
- Discuss the purpose of reinforcement.
- Explain the ways of giving reinforcement.

2.2 INTRODUCTION

We have learnt in the previous section that about the behaviour modification, whether a behaviour is learnt or not depends on the response to the behaviour exhibited. In this context, the concepts of Reinforcement play an important role in the learning process. Most experts agree that reinforcement is more important than punishment. That is, people are more likely to learn to exhibit behaviour that is followed by a reward or praise than to stop exhibiting a behaviour that results in punishment. One of the important theories of reinforcement is Thorndike's Law of Effect. According to Thorndike, "Of several responses made to the same situation, those which are accompanied or closely followed by satisfaction (reinforcement)...will be more likely to recur: those which are accompanied or closely followed by discomfort (punishment)...will be less likely to occur."

Introduction to Reinforcement

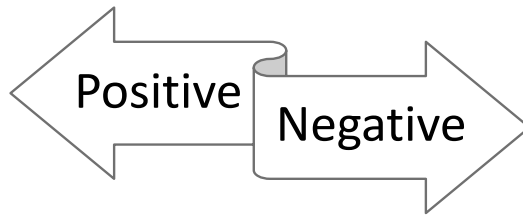
Reinforcement as a term refers to the psychological process of motivating someone. Although motivation and reinforcement are sometimes used interchangeably, there is a little distinction between the two. The psychological process of motivation is vital, and it has a broader meaning than reinforcement. In contrast to reinforcement, which is influenced by the environment, motivation can be thought of as an inherent process. Reinforcement is, to put it simply, any behaviour that a person considers gratifying. A pat on the back, a pay raise, a day off, or a citation are a few examples of popular affirmation actions.

Enhancing the response's potency and encouraging repeat of the behaviour that came before reinforcement are two effects of reinforcement. From the aforementioned viewpoint, it should be recognised that reinforcement is more than just a reward. This indicates that, in the presenter's opinion, the reward component is something that would be desirable (or manager). However, reinforcement will not occur if the employee receiving the prize does not feel it to be sufficiently rewarding.

Reinforcement - positive and negative reinforcement

Reinforcement is a fundamental concept of Operant Conditioning, whose major objective is to increase the rate of certain undesired behaviour from occurring again. Reinforcement is the process in which a behaviour is strengthened by the immediate consequence that reliably follows its occurrence. Reinforcement is when the occurrence of a particular behaviour is followed by an immediate consequence that results in the strengthening of the behaviour.

Reinforcement can be further classified into two major parts:



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The major purpose of both these reinforcement types is to increase the rate of certain behaviour although they have many similarities and differences. By introducing the concept of reinforcement to an individual, the individual gets encouraged to perform the behaviour in a repeated manner

- Whether to avoid any undesirable stimulus
- Receive the desirable reinforcer or reward again



NEGATIVE REINFORCEMENT

UNWANTED STIMULUS REMOVED BY BEHAVIOR



POSITIVE REINFORCEMENT

REWARDING STIMULUS PRESENTED BY BEHAVIOR



Differences between Positive and Negative Reinforcement

Positive Reinforcement	Negative Reinforcement
Positive Reinforcement is a concept of Operant conditioning that presents favourable reinforcer, so that the subject repeats its behaviour.	Negative Reinforcement is the concept of Operant conditioning that presents certain reinforcers, which increases the behaviour of the subject in order to avoid those reinforcers.

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Positive reinforcers are favourable stimulus, which is preferred by subjects involved in the procedure.

Contrary to positive reinforcers, negative reinforcers aren't desired, and subjects are motivated to avoid them.

These examples are taken from the same scenarios; however, different reinforcers are made to interact with the individual. In the examples that fall under positive reinforcement, the subjects in question have been motivated to work hard by providing certain *favourable stimulus*.

- Bonus for the employee
- Praise for the student

On the other hand, in examples that fall under negative reinforcement, subjects have been motivated to work hard by adding a *negative consequence* upon their failure to maintain certain expectations.

- No weekend for the employee
- Summer school for the student

Similarities Between Positive and Negative Reinforcement

Despite their differences, there are plenty of similarities between the two. The major similarity lies with its main objective, which is to increase the rate of any behaviour (operant). Both of these falls under the concept of Operant Conditioning, Reinforcement.

Not only do these share a same goal, but the factors affecting their success rate are also quite similar. Both of these forms of reinforcements are largely influenced by the consistency, frequency and immediate response to the behaviour.

Like in the concept of punishment, another similarity between the two is its ineffectiveness. It's a remarkable learning process, and it's practiced everywhere in the world, in their own terms based on their norms and values. However, it wouldn't be much of a surprise to see some odd balls defying logic, and remaining unmoved by either of these reinforcement techniques.

Purpose of Reinforcement

Reinforcement can aid in the learning of new abilities and behaviours. For instance, teaching a kid to walk alone might boost the frequency of previously uncommon but desired behaviours. If a child, for instance, infrequently sits at one spot for five minutes at a time, you can use reinforcement to make this desired behaviour (sitting at one spot for a specific amount of time) more frequent. Keep your positive conduct at a respectable level. It is important to maintain the child's desirable behaviour as it starts to emerge. Reinforcement is used to do this.

Reinforcement makes the process of teaching and learning more pleasurable; makes learning faster and enhances the child's participation in the training programme. As the name implies, reinforcements mean adding strength or reinforce the material on which they are going to be attached. Their purposes are as follows:

- Reinforces the material.
- Adds strength to the material, thus ensuring durability.
- Helps in overcoming shoemaking problems by preventing stretching of material and support high stress areas.
- Helps in retaining the appearance/shape of the shoe.
- Enhances the final get up and appearance of the shoe.



2.3 CONDITIONED AND UNCONDITIONED REINFORCERS

Unconditioned Reinforcer: A primary reinforcer is often referred to as an unconditioned reinforcer. These include reinforcers like food, drink, oxygen, warmth, and sex that don't need to be taught. Getting access to such reinforcers is particularly motivating if one of our fundamental survival impulses is being interfered with in any manner.

Conditioned Reinforcer: Secondary reinforcer is another name for conditioned reinforcer. Through pairs with unconditioned reinforcers, it must be taught. Money is one example of a learnt reinforcer. Money is a worthless piece of paper on its own, but when combined with accessibility to unconditioned reinforcers, it takes on value. Reinforcer with Generalized Conditions.

Reinforcers can be classified by their attributes:

- **Edible Reinforcer** – Highly preferred food items. If you don't like it, it wouldn't serve as a reinforcer. It has to be yummy.
- **Sensory Reinforcer** – Anything that effects pleasure to the senses to the individual. Again, it has to be something that the person likes, otherwise, it is not going to be a reinforcer. This can include massage, music, or a beautiful painting.
- **Tangible Reinforcer** – Any tangible item that the person values. This can be money, stickers or tokens.
- **Activity Reinforcer** – The opportunity to have some fun. This is anything the person enjoys doing: going fishing, watching TV, jumping on a trampoline.
- **Social Reinforcer** – Any positive or desired attention or interaction with another person can serve to reinforce.

These reinforcer types remind me of the "5 Love Languages." The premise behind the Love Language book is that people find different things reinforcing and they want to receive positives from others in different ways. The Love Languages are like Reinforcers in that everyone has different things that they find desirable and therefore reinforcing. In order to find what is reinforcing to an individual, a preference assessment can be performed.

2.4 FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE EFFECTIVENESS OF REINFORCEMENT

We might be justified in thinking that the reinforcers we are using don't actually help to promote those beneficial behaviours. Even though our child adores the reward we give them, specific conditions must exist for it to effectively reinforce the behaviour we are

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attempting to strengthen. Keep going! We'll provide a number of essential ingredients for efficient reinforcement.

Four Components for Effective Reinforcement: Knowing our child's current motivator will be useful when creating rewards. Giving them a choice of a few recently preferred goods or activities before a work begins might be useful in generating motivation. Say our youngster just did everything they love to praise, and got a motivational prize prepared and ready to go. They did not request that they tidy their room! They didn't grumble when they started and finished their arithmetic homework! They lovingly pet the dog! Now what? The following elements are essential to making sure that your punishment is potent enough to promote the behaviour we want to see persist or get worse in the future: Contingency, Immediacy, size, and lack.

1. **Contingency:** Do we only offer reinforcement when the desired behaviour is demonstrated? If a reward is only delivered after the intended behaviour has actually occurred, it will have more impact. We can unintentionally be reinforcing behaviours other than the target desired behaviour if a reward is offered for cleaning, one's room but the parent hasn't verified that their child actually cleaned it or the cleaning was only done partially (ex. cleaning their room).

First/then language and visuals are frequently utilised in therapy sessions or in classrooms to help kids understand this link. We can have that after we complete this. A mother telling her child, "First do your homework, then you can play outside with the neighbours," is an illustration of this. Playtime with the neighbours should not be permitted until the youngster completes his or her homework as required (the desired behaviour). When a child cries, refuses to do their job, or draws instead of finishing it but is still allowed to play outside with their neighbours, problematic behaviour rather than the desired positive behaviour is being encouraged. Access to the "then" reinforcer should only be made possible after the target "first" behaviour has been achieved.

2. **Immediacy:** Since reinforcement is the event that follows a behaviour, it is more probable that we will reinforce the target behaviour and not something else that has happened in the interim if the reinforcer is given right away after the behaviour. If your son says, "I want goldfish," for instance. He begins to scream and weep as you retrieve the goldfish from the kitchen, and you then give them to him. In this situation, what is truly reinforced? Is it the sweet plea for a whole sentence? No. Screaming and crying are the actions that took place in this scenario right before the positive reinforcement, therefore such actions are more likely to take place again in the future. As we raise the reinforcement, the direct effect quickly diminishes.

Ultimately, the more quickly our child gets rewarded, the more likely that we'll be reinforcing the behaviour that we're intending to encourage.

3. **Size:** How much reinforcer ought to we give? Even though it may seem obvious, our child will respond better to rewards that are substantial in size or number, especially if the behaviour is novel or difficult for them to perform. If their income for an eight-hour day was \$4.00, few folks today would likely continue to show up for work and put forth effort in their jobs. Similar to this, the quantity of a reinforcer given to a youngster for finishing a job should correspond to the amount of work required.



Giving a youngster a small amount of praise (such as “excellent work”) together with 30 seconds of a favoured activity may not be as helpful as giving a lot of praise that is focused on the behaviour in question (such as “Wow! You dressed yourself all by yourself! Without any assistance, you put on jeans and a shirt so quickly! That’s incredible!) with a significant incentive in addition (for some, this could be 15 minutes of doing a puzzle).

The amount of the reinforcer should be more substantial at first if the behaviour is one that occurs less frequently or is a greater challenge for the child. Cooper, Heron, and Heward advise adhering to the maxim “Reinforce lavishly, but don’t give away the store” when determining how much reinforcement to deliver. Make sure the amount of reinforcement is proportional to the quality of the reinforcer and the amount of effort required for a child to generate the desired reaction for it to be effective reinforcement.

4. **Deprivation:** The fourth key piece in determining how effective our reinforcer will be is that of deprivation. If a person has limited access to a particular type of reinforcer, or if they have gone a substantial amount of time without access to a reinforcer, then the reinforcer is likely to be more effective than if they have unlimited access to it or have just recently had access.

Satisfaction is the reverse of deprivation. For example, one will be far more motivated to put in more effort or spend more for access to a working phone or internet if one has been travelling in the wilderness without cell service for days as opposed to if we had just spent the day in the office with limitless internet access. Similar to how someone who has just finished a substantial meal will be less likely to request food than someone who hasn’t eaten in a while.

Keeping this in mind, before focusing on a target behaviour, ensure that the reinforcer that we intend on using is actually motivating in the moment to our child. If we plan to reward our child cleaning her room with 15 minutes of screen time, avoid allowing access to screen time close to the time when we are placing that request. It would also be beneficial to limit screen time throughout the day so that it is a true treat, rather than something that could be accessed at any time, regardless of our child’s behaviour.

Conclusion: Contingency, immediacy, size, and deprivation: if we are looking to cook up some stellar, truly effective reinforcement, remember these key ingredients!

How to Give Reinforcement?

Having selected the right reinforcers, it is also equally important to use them appropriately when teaching the child - in other words, we need to present (use) the selected reinforcer (reward) appropriately. Remember the following points when giving reinforcement:

- 1) Give the reinforcer only when the child shows the desirable behaviour. Therefore, before beginning training, decide clearly what are the behaviours to be rewarded and which are not to be rewarded. Also, explain to the child the behaviour that will be rewarded. For instance, tell the child that: “if the child recognizes numbers 5- 10, then only one can go out and play”. If the child is not able to recognize the numbers, he/she is not allowed to go out to play.
- 2) Give the reinforcer immediately after the correct response. In the above example, the child is given the reinforcer (allowed to go out to play) immediately after he

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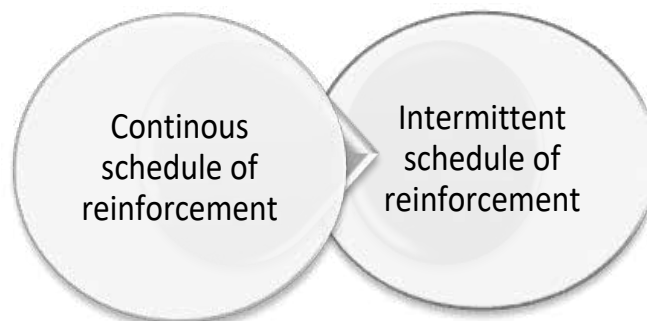
/she points to the correct numbers when asked. If the giving of the reinforcer is delayed, there is a possibility that the behaviour which occurs after the correct response may be reinforced, as it would be followed by the reinforcer. In the above example, if we Individualized Teaching and the Process of Learning delayed giving the reinforcer after the child pointed to the correct numeral, and the child started tapping on the table with his hands and then we gave the reinforcer, the chances are that this behaviour (tapping with hands on the table) will occur again, as the reinforcer followed this behaviour. Therefore, we need to reinforce the child immediately after the correct response.

Also, the more the delay between giving the reinforcer and the desirable behaviour shown by the child, the less will be the effect of the reward. Therefore, if we are planning to use edible reinforcers or activity reinforcers, ensure that they are with us right there, so that we can reinforce the child there and then (within 2-3 seconds).

- 3) Reward clearly: While rewarding, be straightforward and precise. Say, for instance, that when the child chooses the right colour: "I'm glad you recognised red as a colour. The star is yours ". This expressly informs the youngster of the excellent deed he committed and urges him to carry on in the future. He gains knowledge of the connection between a particular behaviour and the reward as well. Don't say anything like, "Great! That is amazing." The youngster might not comprehend what exactly he did that was fantastic and wonderful.
- 4) Combine other types of rewards with social rewards: Use social rewards in conjunction with giving gastronomic, material, or activity rewards. In the end, we want the youngster to exhibit desirable behaviour in anticipation of social reward rather than because he will receive food or entertainment after exhibiting desirable behaviour. As a result, when you start employing social rewards alongside other kinds of rewards, the youngster starts to appreciate them too. The other rewards can be gradually scaled back until they are abolished as the youngster starts to work for social rewards.
- 5) Change the rewards as children (and even adults) tend to lose interest with the same reward being given each time. So, if we are using an edible reward, we could shift to activity reward and then come back to edible reward after some time. As mentioned earlier, we need to make a list of reinforcers rewards for each child. When we notice that the child is losing interest with a specific reward, change to another one.

When to give reinforcement

Reinforcement schedules are of two types. Let us understand when to give reinforcement.



- 1) **Continuous schedule of reinforcement** When the reinforcement is given each time the desired behaviour occurs (i.e., after each appropriate response), it is called a continuous schedule of reinforcement. We need to give continuous reinforcement when we are teaching a new behaviour or a skill.
- 2) **Intermittent schedule of reinforcement** When the reinforcement is given after some appropriate responses and not after other appropriate responses, then it is called intermittent schedule of reinforcement. When the child has learnt the skill or behaviour sufficiently, switch over from continuous reinforcement to intermittent reinforcement. This is because we ultimately want the child to show the desired behaviour because it feels good when he does it, and not because he always gets a reward on doing it. If we continue rewarding the child even after he/she learns the behaviour, then the child will not learn to value or like the behaviour for itself. Thus, rewards must be gradually faded.

If we think about it, we will realize that in everyday life we use intermittent reinforcement. We do not praise or reward people each time they do something good. Intermittent schedule of reinforcement is more natural (this is what we usually do) and it helps in maintaining the acquired behaviour, generalizing it and maintaining its proficiency.

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2.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Much of the human learning could be explained with the help of operant conditioning method. For example, parents and other authorities attempt to discourage aggressive behaviours by punishing them and reward for good behaviours. **Positive Reinforcement:** Reinforcement is any operation or action that increases the rate of response. In Skinner's experiment the rat responded by pressing the lever and obtained food. This is called positive reinforcement. So, a positive reinforcement or reward (e.g., food, sexual pleasure, etc.) is the operation that increases the strength of a specific behaviour. Positive reinforcement is any stimulus that strengthens a response that precedes it (e.g., lever pressing is reinforced by food). **Negative Reinforcement:** Another quite different way of increasing the rate of response is through negative reinforcement. Suppose that in the Skinner Box the rat receives electric shock to the feet every second. When the rat presses the lever, the shock is removed for 10 secs. This increases the rate of response. This procedure is called negative reinforcement which involves application of an aversive stimulus (e.g. heat, electric shock, scudding etc.). The word "negative" refers to the nature of the reinforcer (aversive stimulus). It is a "reinforcement" because it increases the rate of response. This procedure is called "escape" learning because the rat can escape the shock if it presses the lever. There are two main types of schedules of reinforcement – continuous reinforcement and intermittent reinforcement. In continuous reinforcement, the desired behaviour is reinforced each time it is demonstrated. In intermittent reinforcement, the desired behaviour is reinforced often enough to make the behaviour worth repeating, but not each time it is repeated. Intermittent reinforcement can further be divided under ratio schedules (the person is reinforced after giving the desirable response a certain number of times) and interval schedules (the individual is reinforced after specific time intervals).



2.6 REVIEW QUESTIONS

SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. What do you understand by the term reinforcement?
2. Write a brief note on Conditioned and unconditioned reinforcers.
3. Describe the two schedules of reinforcement.
4. In what way reinforcers can be classified?
5. Describe the similarities between positive and negative reinforcement.

LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. What are the four basic reinforcement strategies employed in encouraging desirable behaviour and discouraging undesirable behaviour?
2. What are the schedules of reinforcement? In your opinion, which one of the schedules is more suitable for continuous desirable behaviour?
3. Differentiate between positive and negative reinforcement.
4. Explain the components for effective reinforcement by giving relevant examples.
5. Give the purpose of reinforcement as why it is important for progressive development of the child.

2.7 MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. _____ plays an important role in the learning process
 - a. Punishment
 - b. Behaviour Modification
 - c. Reinforcement
 - d. All the above
2. Reinforcement is a fundamental concept of _____ whose major objective is to increase the rate of certain undesired behaviour from occurring again.
 - a. Operant Conditioning
 - b. Positive Reinforcement
 - c. Classical Conditioning
 - d. None of the above
3. _____ Reinforcement is a concept of Operant conditioning that presents favourable reinforcer, so that the subject repeats its behaviour.
 - a. Behaviour
 - b. Negative
 - c. Positive
 - d. Classical
4. _____ Reinforcement is the concept of Operant conditioning that presents certain reinforcers, which increases the behaviour of the subject in order to avoid those reinforcers.

- a. Negative
 - b. Positive
 - c. Operational
 - d. All the above
5. **A _____ reinforcer is often referred to as an unconditioned reinforcer.**
- a. Territory
 - b. Primary
 - c. Secondary
 - d. None of the above
6. _____ **reinforcer is another name for conditioned reinforcer.**
- a. Primary
 - b. Behaviour
 - c. Secondary
 - d. All the above
7. **When the reinforcement is given each time the desired behaviour occurs (i.e., after each appropriate response), it is called a _____ schedule of reinforcement.**
- a. Continuous
 - b. Intermittent
 - c. Behaviour modification
 - d. All the above
8. **When the reinforcement is given after some appropriate responses and not after other appropriate responses, then it is called _____ schedule of reinforcement**
- a. Deprivation
 - b. Intermittent
 - c. Reinforcement
 - d. None of the above
9. **The Components for Effective Reinforcement are;**
- a. Size
 - b. Deprivation
 - c. Immediacy
 - d. All the above
10. **Enhancing the response's potency and encouraging repeat of the behaviour that came before reinforcement are two effects of _____**
- a. Reinforcement
 - b. Behaviour modification
 - c. Positive reinforcement
 - d. Negative reinforcement

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EXTINCTION

STRUCTURE

- 3.1 Learning Objective
- 3.2 Introduction
- 3.3 Extinction
- 3.4 Punishment
- 3.5 Contrasting, reinforcement and punishment
- 3.6 Factors that influence the effectiveness of punishment
- 3.7 Chapter Summary
- 3.8 Review Questions
- 3.9 Multiple Choice Questions



3.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVE

After going through this unit, students will be able to:

- Understand the nature of extinction.
- Explain the concept of punishment.
- Discuss how reinforcement is different from punishment.
- Explain the factors for effective punishment.

3.2 INTRODUCTION

In the previous unit we had discussed about the reinforcement which means a term refers to the psychological process of motivating a person. Though used synonymously, there is a slight difference between motivation and reinforcement. Motivation is a fundamental psychological process and a broader connotation than reinforcement. Motivation can be referred to as an intrinsic process, whereas reinforcement is related to the environment. Reinforcement is something which enhances the strength of the response and prompts repetitions of the behaviour that preceded reinforcement. It can be both positive and negative. Positive Reinforcement – We behave in a certain way that results in a reward, and as a result, we are more likely to repeat that behaviour • Negative Reinforcement – We behave in a certain way that results in the removal of something unpleasant, and as a result we are more likely to repeat that behaviour (ex: doing a paper early)– In both cases, something happened that we saw as “good” and as a result, we exhibited the behaviour more. In this unit, we will be discussion on the concepts like extinction and punishment. Punishment is a consequence that follows behaviour so that you do the behaviour less often in the future. – Punishment can involve adding something (paying a fine, staying after school) or involve removing something you like (losing recess time, leaving your friends)– In both cases, adding something or removing something, you perceive it as “bad” and as a result, you exhibit the behaviour less. On the other hand, extinction refers to the gradual weakening of a conditioned response that results in the behaviour decreasing or disappearing. In other words, the conditioned behaviour eventually stops. For example, imagine that we taught our dog to shake hands. Over time, this became less interesting.

3.3 EXTINCTION

Eliminating any reinforcement that is maintaining a behaviour is called extinction. For instance, an organization may announce that it wants to adopt an open-door policy to encourage employees to express their opinions to the management. However, the managers may not be responsive to employees who approach them to discuss problems. This lack of responsiveness causes employees to stop coming up to the managers over time. This is known as extinction.

An alternate to punishing undesirable behaviour is extinction. Extinction is the weakening of a behaviour by ignoring it or making sure it is not reinforced. The rationale for using extinction is that a behaviour not followed by any reinforcer is weakened. In other words, if rewards are withdrawn for behaviour that were previously reinforced, the behaviours

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probably will become less frequent and eventually die out. Extinction needs time and patience to be effective.

Extinction, as a type of reinforcement is applied to reduce undesirable behaviour, especially when such behaviours were previously rewarded. From organisational point of view, if an employee is consistently late to work and thus consistently fails to get praise from his superior and is not recommended for a pay raise, then we would expect this reinforcement to lead to “extinction” of the habit of behaviour of coming late to work.

3.4 PUNISHMENT

Punishment is the act of causing an unpleasant consequence to a response to prevent the person from repeating that behaviour. Placing an employee on suspension for excessive absenteeism is an example of punishment. Punishment is not the same as negative reinforcement. Negative reinforcement strengthens and increases behaviour while punishment seeks to weaken and decrease behaviour.

Punishment is the attempt to eliminate or weaken an undesirable behaviour. It is in two ways – one way to punish a person is to apply a negative consequence called punishers – following an undesirable behaviour. The other way to punish a person is to withhold a positive consequence following an undesirable behaviour. Even though punishment may stop an undesirable behaviour of an employee, the potential negative outcomes may be greater than the cost of undesirable behaviour. It is generally accepted that the reinforcing desired behaviour is more effective than punishing undesirable behaviour.

However, C.C. Walters and J.E. Brusek (1977) suggested after a review of research that punishment can be effective if it meets the following conditions:

- The punishment should be quick and short.
- Learning It should be administered immediately after the undesirable behaviour.
- It should be limited to its intensity.
- It should specifically relate to behaviour and not to character traits.
- It should be restricted to the context in which the undesirable behaviour occurs.
- It should not send ‘mixed messages’ about what is accepted behaviour.
- Penalties should take the form of withdrawal of rewards, not physical pain.

Managers rely on punishment because it produces faster and immediate change in the employee’s behaviour. However, it is imperative on the part of the manager to view the long-term detrimental effects of punishment and only try to use a punishment suitable to the situational requirement. Many people confuse negative reinforcement with punishment in operant conditioning, but they are two very different mechanisms. Remember that reinforcement, even when it is negative, always increases a behaviour. In contrast, **punishment** always decreases a behaviour.

In positive punishment, we add an undesirable stimulus to decrease a behaviour. An example of **positive punishment** is scolding a student to get the student to stop texting in class. In this case, a stimulus (the reprimand) is added in order to decrease the behaviour (texting in class).



In **negative punishment**, we remove a pleasant stimulus to decrease a behaviour. For example, when a child misbehaves, a parent can take away a favourite toy. In this case, a stimulus (the toy) is removed in order to decrease the behaviour.

Punishment, especially when it is immediate, is one way to decrease undesirable behaviour. For example, imagine our four-year-old son, Brandon, hit his younger brother. We have Brandon write 50 times “I will not hit my brother” (positive punishment). Chances are he won’t repeat this behaviour. While strategies like this are common today, in the past children were often subject to physical punishment, such as spanking. It’s important to be aware of some of the drawbacks in using physical punishment on children.

First, punishment may teach fear. Brandon may become fearful of the hitting, but he also may become fearful of the person who delivered the punishment—you, his parent. Similarly, children who are punished by teachers may come to fear the teacher and try to avoid school (Gershoff et al., 2010). Consequently, most schools in the United States have banned corporal punishment.

Second, punishment may cause children to become more aggressive and prone to antisocial behaviour and delinquency (Gershoff, 2002). They see their parent’s resort to spanking when they become angry and frustrated, so, in turn, they may act out this same behaviour when they become angry and frustrated. For example, because you spank Margot when you are angry with her for her misbehaviour, she might start hitting her friends when they won’t share their toys.

Reactions to Punishment

Punishment may induce feelings of dread, worry, or hatred toward those who administer it or the circumstances in which it takes place. As a result, youngsters can be afraid of their parents, students would detest school, criminals might be angry with society, and employees might not fully support their supervisor. Related to this is the possibility that the individual may discover ways to get away from or avoid these people or circumstances, which could lead to things like a school phobia or perhaps an increase in absenteeism from work. An attempt to punish an escape or avoidance behaviour may instead increase the avoidance stronger.

Punishing a child with a fear of the dark for not going into the basement at night alone may actually increase the fear. The punished person may spend some time making up excuses and passing the blame to others. The punishing agents may act as models for aggressive behaviour. Children may model after their parents and learn to hit people when mad. Workers may model their supervisors and become overcritical of the errors of their subordinates.

Finally, punished people may become generally less flexible and adaptable in their behaviours. If punishment is to be used, it needs to be applied immediately after the behaviour and applied consistently. The earlier in the response chain the punishment occurs the better, for then it may stop or disrupt a sequence of undesired behaviours.

In general, punishment should be combined with behaviour modification strategies like extinction and reinforcement. All parties concerned should try to see the punishment as a contractual requirement rather than a personal jab.

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Punishment is frequently applied for its obstructive effects rather than its repressive ones. In order to break up undesired ideas or sentiments, a person participating in a self-control programme may wear a rubber band around his wrist and snap it on the underside of his wrist. Additionally, wearing the rubber band serves as a reminder of his behaviour.

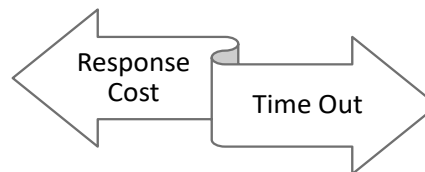
Overcorrection

The overcorrection method of punishment is an alternative. Every time an episode of the unwanted behaviours happens, the client is required to practise the desirable behaviours as part of positive practise overcorrection. For instance, a youngster drawing on the wall might be asked to use pencil and paper to duplicate a series of patterns. A child with autism or excessive energy who is hitting things or himself would be informed of his improper conduct and it would be halted. For the overcorrection behaviour, the child would subsequently receive verbal directions and, if required, physical assistance; in this case, a few minutes of teaching for putting hands at sides, then overhead, then full out, and so forth.

Clients are required to improve the outcomes of their misbehaviour to a better than usual state in restititional overcorrection or restitution. If a youngster makes marks on a wall, the wall may also need to be washed once the marks are removed. If a child knocks over chairs, they might have to set them back up and straighten the rest of the furniture. A very quiet moment may be necessary before screaming.

Negative Punishment

Negative punishment is a contingent event whose offset or decrease results in a decrease in the behaviour it is contingent on. This generally consists of taking away something that is reinforcing from a person when he misbehaves. The procedure of negative punishment generally also results in positive punishment and/or extinction. In behaviour modification there are two major forms of negative punishment and these are:



Response cost: This is the removal or removal of a reinforcement that was conditional on a behaviour. This could be the forfeiture or fine of tokens in a token system, like a penalty for using the incorrect terms. A wide range of behaviours, including smoking, overeating, stammer, psychotic speaking, aggression, and tardiness, have been suppressed using response cost. Response costs may be preferable to positive punishment because they may have less negative side effects and because they place the offender in a teaching environment, whereas time out does not.

Time out (or time out from reinforcement): This is a reference to the method of punishment where the penalty is a time of no access to reinforcement. For instance, time out has been a successful discipline strategy in classrooms. When a youngster misbehaves, the teacher may send him to a time-out area, possibly a screened-off section in the back

of the classroom, where he must remain for ten minutes. The environment the client is pulled from must be reinforcing to him for time out to be effective. Being in times out may result in a period of time during which the student cannot receive tokens in the classroom, which should be a rewarding environment.

Negative and Positive Punishment:

Punishment is the act of making a reaction unpleasant in order to stop the offender from continuing that behaviour. An example of discipline is suspending an employee for frequent absences. Negative reinforcement is not the same as punishment. While punishment aims to weaken and diminish behaviour, negative reinforcement enhances and increases behaviour.

Positive punishment reduces the likelihood of behaviour by making the contingent event more likely. When most people use the word “punishment,” they mean this. If Ali’s algebra teacher responds by assigning him additional remedial work each time, he complains that he is falling behind, this punishment may discourage Ali from seeking help in the future.

A decrease in the probability of behaviour as a result of a reduction in the contingent event is known as negative punishment. In line with some behaviours, this equates to a decline in something beneficial. The interruption of the movie is a negative punishment for stuttering if a person momentarily interrupts a movie, he is viewing each time he stutters and if this reduces stuttering.

Difference between Positive and Negative Punishment:

The distinction between positive and negative punishment is subtle. Positive Punishment denotes that bad behaviour has a negative repercussion. When we punish someone negatively, one deprive them of what they might otherwise enjoy. For instance, denying someone the ability to attend a party would be a negative punishment, however grounding someone would be a positive punishment because it adds a negative consequence. As we can see, the variations can be rather minute.

The distinction probably doesn’t matter all that much to parents. All we really want to know is what works. We are not alone if we are having issues with our child’s behaviour. A behaviour problem has been identified in about 8% of all children. It is advantageous if our child has been diagnosed since we can start home treatment right away.

Positive Punishment Techniques

We can employ a variety of positive punishment techniques in our discipline plan. Making the penalty appropriate for the offence is always a smart idea. If the bad behaviour is small, a reprimand might be sufficient. A harsher penalty could be necessary to break the pattern if the negative behaviour is more severe or regular. Here are some strategies to take into account:

- **Marker System:** The marker system is a good way to incorporate positive punishment with positive reinforcement. This is similar to a method used in schools. A child gets their name written on the board with a mark for bad behaviour. Each time the negative behaviour is displayed, we place another



marker on the chart. If good behaviour is displayed, we take away a marker. If the day ends with no marks on the chart, the child gets a reward.

- **Scolding:** This typical positive punishment is frequently done by parents without much thought. A scolding could be done in public or private, and there are different schools of thought on each. Some teachers implement scolding in front of the entire class. But some psychologists suggest that scolding a child in public can be an embarrassing and traumatic experience.
- **Spanking:** There is a lot of debate around this form of positive punishment. While nearly 70 percent of Americans feel that spanking is an appropriate form of punishment, many psychologists disagree, believing it's ineffective and ultimately harmful.
- **Time Out:** Many psychologists recommend this form of positive punishment, though it should be appropriate for the age. The general rule of thumb is one minute for each year of age. The effectiveness of the time out depends on our consistency and persistence, not to mention the stubbornness of our child.
- **Writing Sentences or Essays:** Schools have used this as a form of positive punishment for decades, and it's an effective form of discipline. We can easily use this form of discipline in our own home as well.
- **Adding Chores:** Adding chores to our child's to-do list can also be used as a form of positive punishment, particularly in place of lengthy time-out sessions or grounding. It keeps the child active, crosses something off the family's to-do list, and has them contributing to the household. It also prevents them from being isolated for long periods.
- **Grounding:** Grounding is another common form of positive punishment. When we ground our child at home and prevent them from going to events or out with their friends, it could be considered negative punishment. Grounding our child to their room would be more in line with positive punishment, but the line between **positive and negative** punishment is very vague when it comes to this practice.
- **Early Bedtime or Extra Nap:** Early bedtime or an extra naptime is an effective positive punishment for younger children. Children do not want to sleep when they could play or be active, so being forced to sleep is a great deterrent to bad behaviour. Also, most small children act out more when they are tired. By making them get some extra sleep, you may be curing the root of the problem.
- **Extra Study Time:** Extra study time is another effective form of positive punishment, especially when it's a response to not doing homework or acting out in class. The extra study time is essentially a natural consequence in these situations. Because the child did not study they were supposed to, they receive extra study time instead of time with games or playing with others.
- **Natural Consequences:** Natural consequences are the best form of positive punishment because they teach your children about life. Natural consequences

do not require any action from the parent. Instead, these are consequences that occur naturally as the result of bad behaviour. For example, if our child doesn't clean their room and gather their laundry, their laundry does not get washed and dried, so they have to wear dirty clothes.

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3.5 CONTRASTING, REINFORCEMENT AND PUNISHMENT

Several common words—positive, negative, reinforcement, and punishment—are used in a specific way when talking about operant conditioning. Positive and negative do not necessarily equal nice or bad in operant conditioning. Positive, on the other hand, denotes contributing something, and negative, detracting from something.

Punishment results in a behaviour being decreased, whereas reinforcement results in an increase in the behaviour. Punishment can be used in a positive or bad way, much like reinforcement. Positive or negative reinforcers alike increase the probability of a behavioural response.

Positive or negative punishments both reduce the chance of a behavioural response. Combine these four phrases now: There are four types of punishment: positive punishment, negative punishment, and positive punishment.

	Reinforcement	Punishment
Positive	Something is <i>added</i> to <i>increase</i> the likelihood of a behavior.	Something is <i>added</i> to <i>decrease</i> the likelihood of a behavior.
Negative	Something is <i>removed</i> to <i>increase</i> the likelihood of a behavior.	Something is <i>removed</i> to <i>decrease</i> the likelihood of a behavior.

The following points are pertinent so far as the difference between reinforcement and punishment is concerned:

1. The process of supporting or augmenting a pattern of behaviour, to let it happen again in future is called reinforcement. On the contrary, punishment means inflicting a penalty or any other undesirable outcome, to discourage bad behaviour.
2. While reinforcement is an enthusiastic outcome, for good performance, punishment is an aversive consequence, of wrongdoing.
3. Reinforcement strengthens response, whereas punishment weakens the same.
4. The result of reinforcement will increase the frequency of behaviour. Conversely, punishment will lead to the decrease in the frequency of behaviour.
5. Reinforcement involves gain of desirable stimulus or forfeiture of undesirable one. As against this, punishment entails the imposition of unpleasant stimulus or withdrawal of a pleasant one.

3.6 FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THE EFFECTIVENESS OF PUNISHMENT

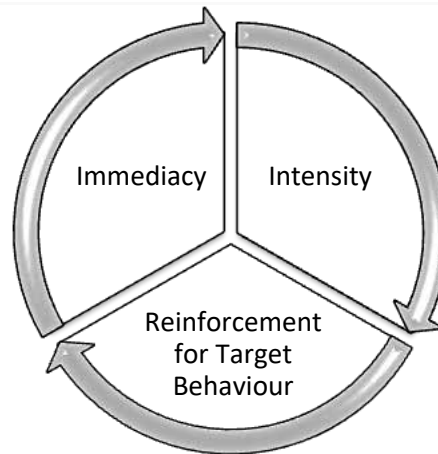
The effectiveness of punishment depends on several factors: Frequency of punishment, immediacy of punishment, and positive reinforcement on positive or good behaviour.

EXTINCTION

NOTES



However, punishment may also have serious negative effects if not carried out properly. The factors that influence the effectiveness of punishment are as follows:



Immediacy: Maximum suppressive effects are obtained when the onset of the punisher occurs as soon as possible after the occurrence of a target response.

Intensity: The more intense the punishing stimulus is the greater it will reduce future responding.

Reinforcement for the Target Behaviour: The effectiveness of punishment is modulated by the reinforcement contingencies maintaining the problem behaviour. To the extent that reinforcement maintaining the problem behaviour can be reduced or eliminated, punishment will be more apparent.

The five conditions for effective punishments

1. The punishment has to be relative intense. The subject should feel it as a punishment)
2. It has to be given promptly. This is one of the problems with the current law system. There is too much time between the crime and the punishment. The person has to feel that it is related. Even when he/she knows it is related, the brain might not make the connection.
3. It should be given consistent. Some parents feel bad when they give their children all the time a remark. When it is not given consistent it does not work. In fact, when the punishment is not followed, the children (team members) are negatively enforced.
4. The punishment should not be associated with any kind of positive enforcement. If a punishment is associated with a positive enforcement, the behaviour will increase instead of decrease. A pattern that happens a lot with children is that people punish their children and immediately after tell them they love the child. They do that out of a kind of remorse or to make the child at ease. When this happens, the punishment had no sense. Also when the punishment is the only kind of attention the children or team members get from the parents (leaders)
5. It should not lead to escaping or avoidance behaviour.



3.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY

People regularly use behaviour modification techniques in daily life. To demonstrate the efficiency of the behaviour modification techniques, behaviour is measured both before and after their application. Behaviour modification minimises the importance of the past and dismisses theories about the origins of behaviour. Reinforcement is the term for the results of a behaviour. A kind of feedback about the effectiveness of previous behaviour, reinforcement is an attempt to grow or strengthen good behaviour. A set of routines is used to give either positive or negative reinforcement. Extinction is the process through which the likelihood of a behaviour returns to its initial value after contingent events have been eliminated (baseline). The implementation of an intermittent reinforcement schedule increases resistance to extinction. Punishment should normally be avoided as a change process because to its unfavourable side effects, but it can be used successfully to stop or suppress poor behaviour while a more effective option is being developed. A reinforcer may be taken away or lost as part of a negative punishment, and there may also be a time period during which reinforcers are not available. Techniques for positive punishment include overcorrecting and inflicting an unfavourable occurrence (time out).

3.8 REVIEW QUESTIONS

SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. Define Reinforcement.
2. What is the meaning of extinction?
3. Define the term punishment.
4. What is the difference between reinforcement and punishment?
5. What do you understand by grounding?

LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. Write a short note on: Extinction and Punishment.
2. Define the techniques of positive punishment.
3. Distinguish between negative reinforcement and punishment with examples from everyday life.
4. Compare and contrast the terms reinforcement and punishment.
5. Explain the factors responsible for effective punishment.

3.9 MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. Which statement concerning punishment is NOT correct?
 - a. Mild punishment is not as effective as the use of positive rewards.
 - b. Behaviours learned under punishment conditions extinguish quickly.
 - c. Punishment has longer lasting effects than positive reinforcement.
 - d. Punishment may result in unforeseen negative emotional consequences
2. In the extinction process the
 - a. Client is not permitted to behave
 - b. Client is allowed intermittent reinforcement



- c. Reinforcement is totally eliminated
d. Stimulus satiation is an important factor
3. **Which of the following is the best example of punishment through satiation to eliminate an undesirable behaviour?**
- a. Administering an aversive stimulus whenever the client displays an undesirable behaviour
b. Giving the client an overabundance of whatever he or she wants
c. Withdrawing privileges whenever the client's behaviour becomes excessive
d. Allowing the client to do whatever he or she pleases and rewarding him or her only for desirable behaviour.
4. **The marker system is a good way to incorporate positive punishment with positive reinforcement**
- a. Scolding
b. Time out
c. Marker system
d. All the above
5. _____ **is the act of making a reaction unpleasant in order to stop the offender from continuing that behaviour.**
- a. Reward
b. Reinforcement
c. Punishment
d. None of the above
6. _____ **may be preferable to positive punishment because they may have less negative side effects and because they place the offender in a teaching environment, whereas time out does not.**
- a. Response costs
b. Time out
c. Intensity
d. Immediacy
7. **Punishment is the attempt to eliminate or weaken an _____ behaviour. It is in two ways - one way to punish a person is to apply a negative consequence called punishers - following an undesirable behaviour.**
- a. Desirable
b. Undesirable
c. Tolerable
d. None of the above
8. **Adding chores to our child's to-do list can also be used as a form of positive punishment, particularly in place of lengthy time-out sessions or _____**
- a. Sparking

- b. Grounding
 - c. Scaffolding
 - d. None of the above
9. **The effectiveness of punishment depends on several factors: Frequency of punishment, _____, and positive reinforcement on positive or good behaviour**
- a. Tendency
 - b. Negative punishment
 - c. Immediacy of punishment
 - d. None of the above
10. **Behaviour modification minimises the importance of the past and dismisses theories about the origins of _____**
- a. Character
 - b. Habit
 - c. Personality
 - d. Behaviour

◆◆◆◆

NOTES



SHAPING

STRUCTURE

- 4.1 Learning Objective
- 4.2 Introduction
- 4.3 Shaping
- 4.4 Applications of Shaping
- 4.5 Prompting
- 4.6 Fading
- 4.7 Types of Prompts
- 4.8 Prompt Fading
- 4.9 Chapter Summary
- 4.10 Review Questions
- 4.11 Multiple Choice Questions



4.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVE

After studying this unit, the students will be able to;

- Explain the concept of shaping.
- Discuss the ways of using shaping in classroom teaching.
- Explain the meaning of prompting and fading.
- Discuss the different types of prompts.

4.2 INTRODUCTION

An ineffective employee could continue to think that he or she is very effective and making every effort to meet the goals set for him or her. Even when his performance falls short of the manager's expectations, he cannot listen to corrections or attempts to make improvements because he feels he doesn't need any. Additionally, the Law of Effect has its restrictions and cannot be applied as a general theory of learning because learning may be influenced by causes other than positive and negative reinforcement. The Law of Effect is still a crucial component of the theory of learning, even with its limitations, and it can be utilised to influence behaviour. Shaping describes the efforts undertaken to use various techniques to shape people's behaviour. Generally speaking, there are three ways to influence behaviour: Extinction, Punishment, and Reinforcement. In psychology, shaping refers to the practise of teaching a learnt behaviour that does not naturally occur. Up until the desired behaviour is attained, a reinforcement or reward is given for each action that brings the desired result closer. This method of behaviour modification, known as shaping, is commonly used to teach both children and animals. Remember that psychology is concerned with both people and animals, and that this method applies to both, as per studies.

4.3 SHAPING

Shaping in psychology means an increase in a specific behaviour by reward in a process of sequential approach. The shaping process can start once the target behaviour has been identified and an appropriate reinforcement has been selected. Because rewarding (reinforcing) a behaviour that resembles the desired final behaviour at first is the first step in shaping, shaping is a process. Up until the ultimate desired behaviour is reinforced, behaviours that resemble the targeted behaviour more closely are rewarded one at a time.

Shaping is part of operant conditioning learning theory and is based on the association of a voluntary behaviour being paired with a reinforcing stimulus. The discovery of this link and its ability to shape behaviour are largely based on the work of B.F. Skinner and mostly come from studies on animals.

Shaping involves progressively reinforcing behaviours that are closer and closer to the final behaviour that is sought. Early life is when behaviour is first formed. For instance, a youngster learns to pull itself up, to stand, to walk, and eventually to move about by being reinforced for somewhat outlier behaviours. A youngster may not walk at first spontaneously, but their behaviour can be changed by giving them little rewards for reaching a toy or moving more independently.

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B. F. Skinner the behaviourist had a key role in the development of the behaviour analyst model of punishment and the use of rewards to modify student behaviour. By attempting to train a pigeon to bowl, Skinner conducted his initial investigation into the behavioural processes of shaping. The goal was for a wooden ball to be swiped by the bird's beak and sent rolling down a miniature alley toward a set of toy pins. A program—a succession of discriminative stimuli and reinforcements for minute changes in response—were used in that procedure. The behavioural objective and target behaviour must be well defined in order for shaping to be effective. It is also crucial to know when to give or withhold reward.

4.4 APPLICATIONS OF SHAPING

Steps Involved in the Shaping Process

There are specific steps to follow in the process of shaping behaviours.

1. Reinforce any response that in some way resembles the terminal behaviour.
2. Reinforce the response that closely approximates the terminal behaviour (no longer reinforcing the previous reinforced response).
3. Reinforce the response that resembles the terminal behaviour even more closely.
4. Continue reinforcing closer and closer approximations to the terminal behaviour.
5. Reinforce only the terminal behaviour.

Process of Shaping in Detail

Through behavioural modification, one must learn to link a behaviour to the reinforcement of food. The procedure of successive approximation is used to learn this pairing. A frequent illustration of shaping in psychology is teaching a dog to sit. Any animal must learn and be reinforced in this targeted behaviour before it can sit on demand. The intended behaviour of sitting down must first be coupled with the command "sit." The association between the behaviour and the order is started by saying "Sit" and then pressing on the dog's hindquarters until they sit down. Then, this behaviour is encouraged, usually with a tasty reward. Soon, the behaviour of sitting down in expectation of something will be combined with the instruction "sit."

The desired behaviour develops together with the amount of pairings until it no longer has to be reinforced each time it is performed. When requested to "sit," the dog will do so and perform this behaviour as long as incentive is occasionally given. One of many instances of behaviour moulding is this. The same method may be used to expand upon the sit pairing once it has been learned. For example, "sit" followed by "remain."



When the animal complies with the command, another reinforcement is given, increasing the likelihood that the behaviour will take place again in the future. The link becomes stronger with more pairings, and the behaviour will persist as long as the reinforcement is fairly expected.



How Shaping Work?

In 1953, Skinner stated: “We raise a rare answer to a very high likelihood in a short time by reinforcing a series of subsequent approximations. ... The entire act of walking toward the spot from any point in the box, turning to face it, raising the head, and hitting the spot may appear to be a functionally coherent unit of behaviour, but it is actually created through a continuous process of differential reinforcement from undifferentiated behaviour, much like how a sculptor creates a figure from a lump of clay. When teaching a new behaviour, shaping can be a very effective approach. The teacher gradually reinforces each successfully closer approximation when the student displays behaviours that are getting closer and closer to the intended behaviour. At first, this can entail rewarding any behaviour that resembles the intended reaction even in the slightest. Until the right response is given and then further reinforced, the learner’s behaviour becomes closer and closer to the intended result.

How to Use Shaping

Shaping is a valuable technique that parents, teachers, and doctors can employ. Martin and Pear (1999) identified four important factors to take into account while utilising shaping:

- It is crucial to specify the desired outcome. The “trainer” will be better able to use reinforcement consistently if they have a clear behavioural aim in mind.
- Choose your initial behaviour. To receive reinforcement, the trainer must pick a beginning behaviour that is likely to occur.
- Decide on shaping steps. The trainer should take some time to analyse the potential behaviours that could happen between the initial behaviour and the target behaviour before shaping begins. The trainer will be more likely to provide reinforcement consistently if they choose which approximations should be reinforced.
- Maintain a steady pace. Try taking easier steps if the person doesn’t make any progress. Try tightening the criterion for reinforcement if progress is occurring too quickly.

4.5 PROMPTING

This is another effective teaching method. Children with mental impairment may need assistance while learning a new skill or hobby. The act of “prompting” a person to develop in a desired way is referred to as providing help or assistance, and the type of help provided is referred to as a “prompt.” A prompt is used to assist a child who is struggling to complete a task. The kind of stimulus used would depend on the child’s aptitude.

Points to remember when selecting and using prompts

1. Only use prompts if the child exhibits the behaviour, activity, or skill as it should be done.
2. Keep the prompt as succinct as we can.
3. Make sure the physical and vocal cues we provide are in a language the youngster can understand.

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4. Before we use prompts to teach a skill to a child, be sure they are paying attention to us.
5. Use a combination of several prompt types, if necessary, to maximise the impact of our instruction.
6. When choosing prompts for the child, consider his degree of proficiency.
7. The cues chosen should help the kid develop the desired behaviour as quickly as feasible according to Teaching Strategies.
8. As soon as we can, fade prompts. When first starting to teach new behaviours, the trainer might handle more of the work than the pupil. But as the kid gets better at the job, he should be doing more of it on his own. Only when the prompts are fading can this occur.

4.6 FADING

Fading is the steady reduction of something, usually reinforcement (for more information on reinforcement, see Reinforcement and Token Economies) or encouragement to finish a task. The key to fading is to do it methodically at the proper moment, with the proper thing, and in the proper amount.

The ideal moment is neither too soon nor too late. It's not the correct time if your youngster is having difficulties. It can be the ideal moment if they are excelling and advancing steadily. If, for instance, you give your child a skittle after every successful toileting attempts and they have done so consistently for two weeks, it could be time to begin reducing that reinforcement.

The most popular combination of prompts and fading is an applied behaviour analysis (ABA) method. The level of support required to execute a task or activity is said to be fading. The ultimate objective of skill instruction is for the student to finally use the skill on their own. For instance, as soon as the learner is able to complete the activity without prompting, the hand-over-hand prompt that was used to teach the ability should be removed. As a result, the prompt fades to a less distracting prompt as a person masters a skill at a specific prompt level (i.e., from hand-over-hand to touching a hand). This prevents the person from becoming unduly reliant on a specific stimulus when learning a new skill.

The steps of fading include:

1. Identify the behaviour to be taught and level of prompts needed for the student to complete the task.
2. Identify the process that will be used to fade the prompt or prompts.
3. Identify criteria that will indicate that the prompt or prompts can be faded (i.e., 80% accuracy over three days).
4. Put process into effect.
5. Take data.
6. Fade prompts as planned.

When to Use

Fading can be used at home or in the school environment when teaching new skills through the use of prompts. It is important to systematically withdraw or fade these prompts so that the individual can perform skills independently.

4.7 TYPES OF PROMPTS

The various types of prompts are as follows:

Verbal prompt: You ask the child to complete the activity in the same way that you would ask any other child, for instance, “Rani, could you please wear the shirt.” verbal command Teaching Techniques A verbal request might not be sufficient for some kids to complete the activity. They could require assistance in the form of vocal comments or directions outlining each step of the work that has to be completed. This is known as a “verbal prompt.” Giving additional instructions, highlighting key phrases by making them louder or longer, providing single-word reminders, and pausing to call attention to each crucial section of the lesson are a few vocal techniques questions used in instructional tasks.

For instance, the mother is giving a verbal prompt when she says, “Rani, please wear the red coloured shirt that is kept on your bed.” She might need to repeat the command by saying, “Rainwear the shirt.” You can utilise gestural cues in addition to verbal cues (described in the section below). In this case, the mother might not only give a verbal cue but also point at the garment. You might simply need to provide verbal clues rather than detailed vocal directions as the child becomes more adept at doing the task on his own. You might use the term “wash” instead of saying the entire chore of bathing, or you could use words like “smile” and “sit” to remind the youngster of the appropriate behaviour.

Gestural prompts: A gestural prompt is when assistance is given to the youngster by gestures. Some gestural cues include pointing to the location of the answer (for example, pointing to the bathroom to remind the youngster that he needs to use the restroom) and generating a sound by tapping the finger in the appropriate location (e.g. tapping the sink to remind him to keep the plate there).

Modelling prompt: A technique for teaching by example is modelling. The child imitates you as you demonstrate how to carry out the task. For instance, while teaching a youngster to wash their teeth, stand behind them while they are looking in the mirror and really do it yourself. The youngster will imitate you and carry out the task. Alternately, while instructing the youngster on how to put on the shirt, you put one on and follow your example, having the youngster follow you at each step.

Physical prompt: When a youngster needs physical or manual assistance to complete a task, this is referred to. Depending on the child’s capabilities, you may provide either full or partial physical support. You may hold the child’s body as he learns to balance himself on the see-saw, for instance, to prevent him from falling. The mother might need to hold the child’s arm while putting it into the shirt to educate the child how to wear it. Personalized Instruction When beginning to teach a new and the Process of Learning work to the child, physical prompts are typically required.





4.8 PROMPT FADING

Two crucial teaching strategies, prompting and fading, can (and should) be utilised in routine tasks like picking up after play, learning self-care practises like brushing teeth, and teaching acceptable social skills. Both at home and in the classroom, these methods can be applied.

There are only five easy steps to keep in mind:

1. **Describe the desired behaviour (action, skill, or partial steps).** The steps required to complete a skill that has to be taught are identified using TASK ANALYSIS.
2. **Identify suitable prompts.** Go through the steps of the task analysis with the child and determine the most amount of prompting (cues, assistance) needed to get through each step. It may be that different steps of the skill need different levels of prompting. Prompts will change as your child begins to learn the steps.
3. **Prompt, reinforce, and fade.** The goal of encouraging behaviour is to reinforce it with praise or any other kind of incentive that will encourage learning. Allow your kid enough time to answer. It is recommended to wait a few seconds before suggesting again after offering a minor prompt (like “Modeling”) unless you are providing direct hand-over-hand help. In order to determine whether he will make an attempt at a suitable response, we must wait. That will inform you of the appropriate prompt level. As your child starts to perform the desired activity, start to reduce the need for prompting by being less “hands on” and using more subdued cues, such gestures, instead.
4. **Monitor results.** To determine whether your progress is satisfactory, you must know this. Keep track of the prompts that are utilised at each stage of the task analysis so that you don’t unintentionally give your child too little or too much prompting the following time you teach them the skill.
5. **When required, go back to a tougher prompt.** Sometimes you can believe that your child has mastered a skill just to find out the next day that they are having trouble. When this happens, it’s acceptable to prompt your youngster at a previous, more intense level until he can perform that step competently once more. Always remember to switch as soon as you can to a weaker prompt.

It sometimes takes a little practice to feel comfortable using these techniques, but making prompting and fading part of your daily teaching toolkit is a useful way to help all children learn new skills.

4.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

Shaping’, where you reinforce the child even if he shows a part of the behaviour, is also a useful strategy for teaching. Prompting and fading is another teaching strategy. ‘Prompt’ refers to giving help ‘and ‘fading, refers to gradually withdrawing help. The types of prompts you can use are verbal prompt, gestural prompt, modelling prompt and physical prompt. This is another effective teaching method. Children with mental impairment may need assistance while learning a new skill or hobby. The act of “prompting” a person to develop in a desired way is referred to as providing help or assistance, and the type of help provided is referred to as a “prompt.” A prompt is used to assist a child who is struggling to complete a task. The kind of stimulus used would depend on the child’s aptitude. In

1953, Skinner stated: "We raise a rare answer to a very high likelihood in a short time by reinforcing a series of subsequent approximations. Two crucial teaching strategies, prompting and fading, can (and should) be utilised in routine tasks like picking up after play, learning self-care practises like brushing teeth, and teaching acceptable social skills

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4.10 REVIEW QUESTIONS

SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. Define the term Shaping in psychology.
2. What do you understand by the concept of prompting?
3. How prompting and fading are different from each other?
4. Define physical prompt.
5. How will you explain the usage of shaping in classroom?

LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. Define the concept of shaping and also give its application.
2. Describe the points to remember when selecting and using prompts.
3. What do you understand by the term fading and also explain the steps of using fading?
4. Elaborate the procedure of working of shaping as one of the functional teaching strategies in psychology.
5. Describe the steps of prompting and fading while using in classroom and at home.

4.11 MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. _____ in psychology means an increase in a specific behaviour by reward in a process of sequential approach
 - a. Shaping
 - b. Modelling
 - c. Prompting
 - d. All the above
2. _____ the behaviourist had a key role in the development of the behaviour analyst model of punishment and the use of rewards to modify student behaviour
 - a. Piaget
 - b. Thorndike
 - c. B. F. Skinner
 - d. None of the above
3. A frequent illustration of shaping in psychology is teaching a _____ to sit.
 - a. Cat
 - b. Rabbit
 - c. Sparrow
 - d. Dog



4. **In _____, Skinner stated: “We raise a rare answer to a very high likelihood in a short time by reinforcing a series of subsequent approximations**
 - a. 1953
 - b. 1976
 - c. 1999
 - d. None of the above
5. **Martin and Pear (1999) identified _____ important factors to take into account while utilising shaping:**
 - a. One
 - b. Six
 - c. Four
 - d. Five
6. **A _____ is used to assist a child who is struggling to complete a task.**
 - a. Shaping
 - b. Prompt
 - c. Fading
 - d. All the above
7. **_____ is the steady reduction of something, usually reinforcement (for more information on reinforcement, see Reinforcement and Token Economies) or encouragement to finish a task.**
 - a. Fading
 - b. Prompting
 - c. Modelling
 - d. Shaping
8. **The most popular combination of prompts and fading is an _____ method.**
 - a. Applied behaviour analysis (ABA)
 - b. Behaviour analysis (BA)
 - c. Personality analysis (PA)
 - d. None of the above
9. **A gestural prompt is when assistance is given to the _____ by gestures.**
 - a. Infants
 - b. Kids
 - c. Adults
 - d. Youngster
10. **Two crucial teaching strategies, _____, can (and should) be utilised in routine tasks like picking up after play, learning self-care practises like brushing teeth, and teaching acceptable social skills**
 - a. Prompting and modelling
 - b. Shaping and fading
 - c. Prompting and fading
 - d. None of the above

BEHAVIOURAL SKILLS AND TRAINING PROCEDURES

STRUCTURE

- 5.1 Learning Objective
- 5.2 Introduction
- 5.3 Behavioural Skills and Training Procedures
- 5.4 Components of the Behavioural Skills Training Procedure
- 5.5 Modelling
- 5.6 Rehearsal
- 5.7 Enhancing Generalization After Behavioural Skills
- 5.8 How to Use Behavioural Skills Training Procedure
- 5.9 Chapter Summary
- 5.10 Review Questions
- 5.11 Multiple Choice Questions



5.1 LEARNING OBJECTIVE

After completing this unit, you will be able to:

- Define behavioural skills.
- Describe the components of behavioural skills.
- Discuss the skills of modelling and rehearsal.
- Explain how to use and when to use behavioural skills.

5.2 INTRODUCTION

Early in the 20th century, behavioural psychology, also known as behaviourism, emerged in opposition to the method of introspection that dominated psychology at the time. The founder of behaviourism, John B. Watson, had previously researched animal psychology. The ideas and techniques that characterised psychoanalytic and humanistic therapies were dramatically altered by the advent of behaviour approaches in the 1960s. They maintained that psychology should only focus on overt behaviour and other phenomena that may be seen by the general population. Behaviouristic thought contends that as mental content is not publicly apparent, it cannot be the subject of in-depth scientific analysis.

An important skill set for many behaviour analysts is how to conduct behavioural skills training (BST). Behavioural skills training is an evidence-based approach for training human service personnel to implement behaviour change and related procedures (Parsons, Rollyson, & Reid, 2012). Numerous work skills have been trained to staff in the human services through BST including how to teach consumers with disabilities (Sarokoff & Sturmey, 2004) and implement procedures to reduce problem behaviour (Miles & Wilder, 2009). The significance of behaviour analysts being skilled in BST is highlighted by demonstrations that without such skills, staff training is not likely to be consistently effective even if the staff trainer (e.g., behaviour analyst) is skilled in implementing the behaviour-change procedure that is being trained to staff (McGimsey, Greene, & Lutzker, 1995; Parsons & Reid, 1995).

5.3 BEHAVIOURAL SKILLS AND TRAINING PROCEDURES

Behavioural Skills

Behavioural Skills Training (BST) is a technique for training teachers, parents, and anybody else who works with students. Performance and proficiency with a certain skill or set of skills are combined to generate BST. These competencies affect a person's interpersonal interactions and situational reactions. These abilities can be used to interpret a person's behaviour, ideas, and feelings. Many behavioural traits are social abilities that support interpersonal connections and relationship formation.

Interpersonal, self-control, and task-related behaviours are known as behavioural skills, and they are linked to successful performance in both educational and professional settings. The behavioural skills are intended to support people in succeeding through effective communication, stress reduction, and steadfast effort. The ability to reflect on the features of the situations one may encounter is referred to as having behavioural skills.

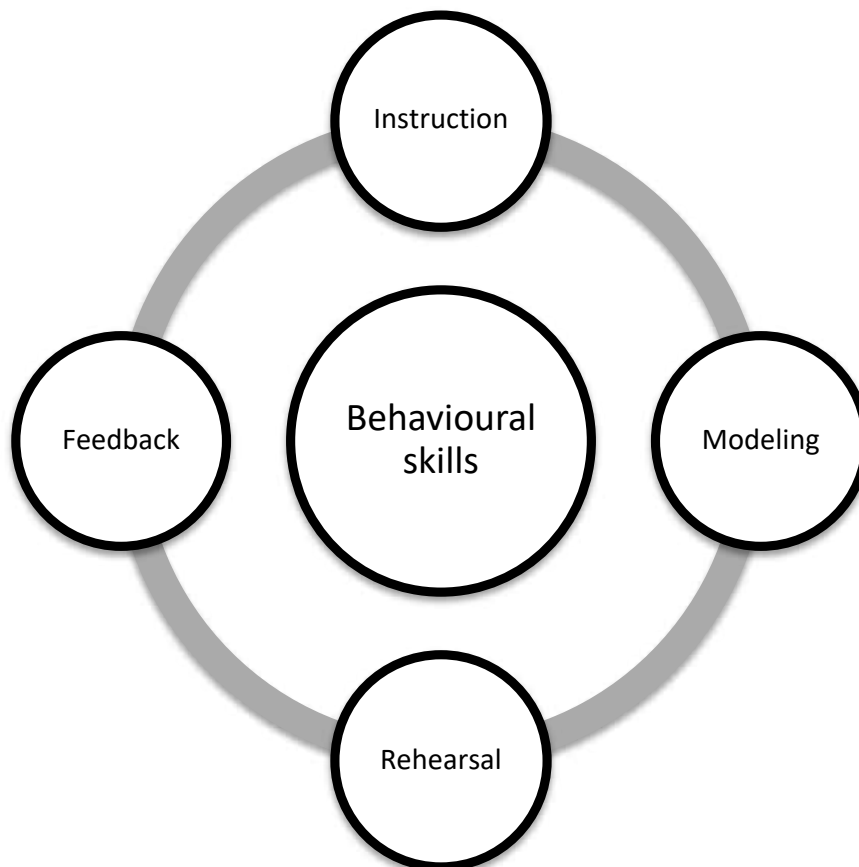
This skill could be organisational when the person responds to the calibre of his or her work, for example, prioritising, anticipating, checking, etc., social or interpersonal when the person responds to others and forges relationships, for example, negotiating, discussing, cooperating, etc., or emotional and psychological (when the individual reacts to him or herself and his or her own limits, e.g.: adapting, taking training, etc.).

A resource to use as part of the skills-based approach are behavioural skills. The learning process for the skills-based approach is centred on the skills needed in a particular setting. These abilities will dictate the aims to be pursued in training and the subjects to be covered. An individual's capacity to accomplish the tasks that make up a trade and to deal with the realities and circumstances they may encounter while practising it can be built increased over time by receiving training in skill development.

The construction of training programmes will be influenced by the skills that must be learned for each trade as a result of the implementation of a skills-based approach. The monitoring of candidates will also be impacted by this, and it will need to be set up such that it can confirm whether those abilities have actually been gained. The skills-based approach also makes it possible to specifically identify the behavioural skills required for the occupation.

The Four Parts of Behavioural Skills Training

BST consists of four parts: instruction, modeling, rehearsal, and feedback. For additional information, read about BST with ABA therapists.



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Instruction: Give the professionals or carers precise, concise directions. This translates to simple instructions that emphasise the key teaching ideas. As a reminder, text cues are excellent visual reminders, so include these instructions in a visual cue as well. Knowing why one is doing something aids in maintaining attention on the abilities that will close the learning gap.

Example: if we are developing a programme for a learner who is “waiting,” it can involve randomly asking learners to sit, stand, or take part in another activity. Professionals and caregivers can teach relevant contexts and scenarios to learners when they are aware of why we are teaching a skill like waiting in the first place.

It’s crucial for children to learn to wait until their parents can give them the required attention safely, whether they are cleaning the dishes, cooking dinner, talking on the phone, or bathing a sibling. Finding another safe thing to do while you wait for the caregiver to arrive might be considered waiting rather than just standing motionless.

In order to develop a learner’s waiting repertoire, our teachers can mimic scenarios in the learning environment.

Modeling: The BST process begins with being as clear and succinct as feasible and with textual hints. The end of a lecture-style instruction may typically be here. Even when I believe I am communicating clearly, misunderstandings inevitably occur.

We underestimate how frequently miscommunications occur. I know you think you understand what you thought I said, but I’m not sure you comprehend that what you heard is not what I meant, Robert McCloskey is cited as saying.

Showing it to them is one way to put any misunderstandings to rest. Give a concrete example of how it will be done, including how it will sound and appear. The training we undertake with professionals and caregivers will be strengthened by using as many different teaching modalities as we can because we are aware that there are various types of learners. In addition to being a terrific tool for our students, video modeling is also helpful for teachers and caregivers. In-vivo (in-person) modeling is strongly advised whenever it is practical.

Example: Be the teacher and demonstrate how the training procedures and instructions sound and look when instructing professionals or caregivers on how to operate a “waiting” program.

Rehearsal: This step is being included by more and more trainings to their curricula! If you’ve attended training sessions, workshops, or conferences, it’s possible that you’ve watched a tape of the programme being used by a learner in action.

To take it a step further, after reviewing the directions and seeing the model, the professional and/or caregiver then practises the new skill in BST. Depending on the kind of training, experts and/or caregivers can simulate scenarios with one another or, if possible, practise putting the programme into action with the learner.

When we work with our students, we mould behaviour to come closer to the ultimate objective. Professionals and caregivers who are educated utilising the BST model can use the same teaching strategy.



Feedback: Giving feedback can be difficult to master if you are in a supervisory position, and impostor syndrome can strike strongly (don't worry, you can utilise BST to practise giving feedback to others!). Recall to provide them both constructive and encouraging remarks on their performance and avoid concentrating simply on their shortcomings.

Who Can Use BST?

The good news is that we really should be doing behaviour skill training if we are a human, which we hope we are, and we teach things to other people. This is not a teaching method for students who must meet certain requirements, nor is it a method for students of a particular age. This approach is suitable for ALL students of ALL ages. That proves that the behaviour skills training approach works well for both staff and kids! Having we already heard the angels singing?

Why It is Important?

A proven method for staff training is behavioural skills training. BST instructs a person on what to do in specific situations or places. It enables modelling and practise so that the person can become proficient with the abilities and increase staff uniformity. Feedback is used to enhance each person's competencies (Parsons, et al, 2012).

Training Procedure

Training is the process of enhancing a worker's knowledge and abilities so that he can accomplish the duties that have been allocated to him. It is a quick process. An employee must be given access to training resources after being chosen, assigned, and welcomed into the organisation so that he may do his job effectively and efficiently.

Development is a lengthy educational process that uses a planned and organised technique to help managerial staff members understand theoretical and conceptual information for general use. It includes both those actions that enhance an employee's personality and those that enhance job performance. Training is a learning process that includes knowledge acquisition, skill development, idea refinement, rule clarification, or attitude and behaviour modification to improve performance.

Training knows how to help you achieve your life goals. It is aware of how to bring you there. Training is gaining the knowledge necessary to achieve your goals. It is a goal that is set for oneself. Knowing your current position and where you will go in the future is an important part of training.

Training is the process of acquiring knowledge, talents, and skills through career growth. Learning a series of pre-programmed behaviours is the process of training. Instructions for technical and mechanical procedures are part of the short-term process.

5.4 COMPONENTS OF THE BEHAVIOURAL SKILLS TRAINING PROCEDURE

Steps for Implementation

Step 1: Instruction – Describe the desired competency in writing or speech (this may include a task analysis). Professionals can sometimes begin and end here. Saying

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something like, “Well, I told her what to do about 8 times, but she still isn’t doing it!” More than merely giving orders is part of effective teaching.

Step 2: Modeling – The person is shown what to do in this phase. It is crucial to practise the skill with the real student in the real situation (or the closest approximation possible). Before demonstrating the talent, be sure you have perfected it. This step can be further supported by visual supports and video modelling.

Step 3: Rehearsal- In addition to modelling, training must give students the opportunity to practise under close observation if skills are to be acquired. To achieve mastery and fluency, new behaviours must first be practised in a role-playing scenario before being used in the real world.

Step 4: Feedback – Time restrictions may make it possible to skip providing feedback. However, in order to enhance skill sets, this stage is crucial. If at all feasible, fix errors right away while the person still has the ability to do so. Prior to providing critical comments, employ positive affirmations. Positive criticism is used to point up the performer’s strengths. Corrective feedback is given to a person to help them improve their performance of a skill or behaviour. Correct a mistake in the first step right away; otherwise, the person may practise the incorrect skill and learn it by the time the full procedure is finished.

5.5 MODELLING

The act of teaching employees how to accomplish something by demonstrating the typical modelled behaviour is known as behaviour modelling, which is a concept from the Social Learning Theory. This method is based on the idea that people inherently learn what they experience first hand.

As a teaching method, behaviour modelling involves:

1. Demonstrating to learners the proper (or “model”) way to do something,
2. Allowing students to practise in such manner,
3. Providing evaluations of the trainees’ work.

One of the most popular, thoroughly studied, and well-respected psychologically based training strategies is behaviour modelling training. One way that conduct is learned is through modelling. A person is modelling the behaviour when they see another person’s behaviour and then copy it. This is often referred to as social learning or observational learning. Modeling is a form of indirect instruction that does not require direct instruction. In fact, a person may not even be aware that another is copying their conduct. The frequency of a previously learned behaviour may change, a new behaviour may be taught, or a comparable behaviour may become more common as a result of modelling.

Behaviour Modeling Process

The process of Behaviour Modeling has the following steps

1. Modeling: Candidates watch live or videos examples that shows the correct behaviour in a problem situation.
2. Role Playing: Candidates rehearse and practice on some of the problem situation in a simulated environment.

3. Feedback: The supervisor provides constructive feedback to all the candidates.
4. Execution: Candidates are encouraged to apply their newly acquired skills when they are back on their jobs.

Advantages of Behaviour Modeling

1. Comparing the price of behaviour modelling to other training techniques, it is affordable.
2. It emphasises actual conduct rather than abstract concepts.
3. Beneficial behaviour modelling can enhance individual success, achieve corporate goals, and have a positive impact on the workplace.
4. It encourages people to approach any difficult circumstance in a constructive way.

Disadvantages of Behaviour Modeling

1. Although behaviour modelling has been effectively used in many businesses, it still has flaws since it lacks a sufficient theory.
2. A lack of instances of inappropriate behaviour, which frequently results in faulty comprehension

Components of Modeling

Four steps are involved in the modeling of behaviour:

1. First, pay attention. A behaviour must be observed carefully before it can be repeated.
2. Retention is the next step. The observed conduct must be recalled or retained.
3. Reproduction is the third stage. The ability to translate the behaviours of others into one's own behaviour is necessary. Simply put, one must be able to mimic the conduct.
4. The motivational stage is the last. Ultimately, one needs to be inspired to copy the conduct. One will not imitate the behaviour up till there is a justification.

Behaviours Influenced by Modeling

Modeling has been shown to have an impact on a wide range of behaviour categories. Helping falls within this type of behaviour. Studies have shown, for instance, that kids who were exposed to prosocial models were more helpful than kids who weren't. Aggression is also influenced by modelling. Children who observed an aggressive model playing later imitated such aggressive play, in contrast to peers who were not exposed to the aggressive model. According to research, kids acted more aggressively when they saw an aggressive conduct that resulted in favourable effects for the model. It appears that the observer's aggressive conduct increased after seeing a successful outcome for an aggressive model. Additionally, gender-role behaviour is influenced by modelling. Children imitate adults to pick up gender-appropriate habits and preferences.

Effective Models

An effective model depends on a variety of things. Typically, a model's likelihood of being mimicked increases with how desirable or appealing it is to the viewer. The model's desirability or attractiveness is determined in part by the observer's perception of the



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model's status. This explains why educators and parents frequently act as role models. Similarity has some effect on the model's efficacy as well. The effectiveness of the model will increase with the observer-model similarity. This explains why peers serve as such powerful role models. Effective models don't have to be human or live, either. Characters from television and movies, as well as puppets, are frequently used as effective models.

5.6 REHEARSAL

The opportunity to practise behaviours in a secure and encouraging atmosphere while employing real-world events is known as behavioural rehearsal. In contrast to "role plays," they place more emphasis on skill practise than emotional enactment or acting "in character." The phrase "role play" may imply that participants are required to put on uncomfortable emotional performances. IHT staff members practise their abilities with co-workers who stand in for a young person, family member(s), and/or stakeholder in a real or made-up case situation (s). You can set up behavioural rehearsals as dyads, dyads with an observer, or fishbowls (a dyad practising in front of a group). Some should be set up such that a single IHT staff member (a clinician or TTS) may hone their abilities, whereas others could.

In order to assist staff in developing knowledge and abilities that can be applied from practise settings to real-life family contexts, supervisors conduct structured group learning sessions employing behavioural rehearsals. These gatherings are designed to assist staff in their professional development by bringing together staff from a unit or programme site. These meetings are not a place where clinical judgments about how to treat a kid or family are made.

Purpose: Behavioural rehearsal allows supervisors to:

- Bring staff together in a group venue to share experiences and expertise.
- Build a collaborative work environment.
- Share best practices among staff.

Outcomes: Consistent and meaningful behavioural rehearsal should lead to:

- Increased staff confidence
- Decreased staff performance anxiety
- Increased practice consistency across staff

Frequency: Regular sessions of behavioural rehearsal and learning should be held by supervisors. In order for participants to become proficient, effective, and at ease when using behavioural rehearsal, it is advised that they do so once a month. Instead, than waiting for a specific occasion, behavioural rehearsal could be employed in ongoing training and group supervision sessions.

Preparation: The scenario or clinical setting that will serve as the foundation for the behavioural rehearsal is developed by the supervisor in collaboration with their employees. Staff evaluations of their own performance and/or field observations may have an impact on the choice. Scenarios might be simple or complex, and the behavioural reactions that

are required range from short, planned responses to prolonged sequences of interaction in which participants can improvise quite a bit. It is usually advisable to start with simple scenarios and work your way up to more difficult ones. As an illustration, a scenario from the Engagement core aspect can centre on orienting family to services. The scenarios that are employed should progress throughout time, representing family situations that call for practise in a variety of fundamental areas.

Conducting a behavioural rehearsal

- Practice case scenarios are provided to the participants.
- Set a time for conducting the rehearsal and keep to it. 10 to 15 minutes allows for meaningful practice. Don't let the rehearsal drift into a conversation about the scenario; stay in the scenario.
- Assign a time-keeper.
- During the rehearsal, observers watch and listen attentively and make notes on the observation tool. They do not comment on, coach, or otherwise participate in the rehearsals.

Debriefing a behavioural rehearsal

- Begin by asking rehearsing clinician or T/TS worker to reflect on their practice. It is important that person who will be receiving feedback reflects on their experience first. Ask thought-provoking and reflective questions, such as:
 - a. What did you notice about the experience? How did it feel to you?
 - b. What did you like about what you did?
 - c. If you could have a do over, what might you do differently?
 - d. How will you use this going forward?
- Next, ask the person on the receiving end of the practice to provide their feedback. They won't have written notes, so their feedback will be more impressionistic than that of the observers. Ask them to reflect on:
 - a. What did you notice about the experience?
 - b. What did you like about what the practitioner did?
 - c. Is there something you would suggest they do differently?
- After the participants in the behavioral rehearsal reflect on their experience, ask the observer(s) to provide feedback based on their notes.

Providing Feedback:

To assist the physician or TTS worker in further developing their IHT knowledge and skills, feedback is given. We can make sure that our feedback is productive by paying close attention to its tone, manner, and content. The observer should approach the situation with curiosity and interest rather than from a position of authority.

- **Positive, forthright, and realistic:** Describe what we thought was done successfully and use simple language to convey your meaning. Please focus our

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comments on areas that can be changed. Be sure to limit our comments to what the person is genuinely capable of.

- **Non-judgmental:** Provide our own expert viewpoint. Pay attention to observations that will aid our colleague in developing their knowledge, skill, and ability.
- **Particular:** Make our points based on actual, observed behaviour. Give enough details for the person to be able to identify the locations you are referring to. As needed, use examples to further illustrate your points. The statement “We have a nice connection with the family” doesn’t specify what specific actions were seen to imply the rapport is good.
- **Timely:** Arrange the timing of our remarks. The timing of feedback is crucial for its effectiveness. Check to see if the person is in a mental and emotional state that will allow them to receive feedback.
- **Individualized Avoid comparisons** and treat each person’s effort independently. Please refrain from saying, “We accomplished that so much better than so-and-so.” Give people the chance to ask questions to get more information so they can comprehend our feedback.

Receiving Feedback: It’s critical to be equipped to take criticism. Pay attention to the feedback-giver as well as the supplied information. Specify the form of criticism that will be most beneficial. Our advantage from other people’s comments is reflected in their ability to more precisely and effectively respond to our requirements.

- Pay close attention to what is being stated. Pay attention to what the other person wants us to know, not what we want to hear. Make notes about the criticism so we can refer to them later when we’re thinking about changing our technique.
- Pay attention to how we respond as the feedback is being given. Push aside any unfavourable emotions and thoughts and continue to absorb the contents of what is being offered. Stay open to alternative viewpoints.

5.7 ENHANCING GENERALIZATION AFTER BEHAVIOURAL SKILLS

After training is complete, when abilities learnt in a training context transfer to the natural environment, it is known as generalisation, defined most generally (Stokes & Baer, 1977). Generalization is a behavioural word used to explain the spread of an instructional procedure’s effects to untrained stimuli and responses, as well as the persistence of therapeutic benefits over time.

Stimulus generalisation, response generalisation, and maintenance are three distinct types of generalisations. The occurrence of a behaviour in response to another similar stimuli is referred to as stimulus generalisation. For instance, if a youngster learns to respond with the word “ball” to an image of a ball (a trained stimulus), he would exhibit stimulus generalisation when responding with the word “ball” to an actual object (new stimulus). The spread of an effect from a trained response to other like responses is known as response generalisation. For instance, a youngster who is...

The following are some of the behavioural skills:

- 1. Communication:** There are several facets to communication, from acceptable body language and eye contact to the capacity to compose a precise and accurate piece of information. The ability to listen intently and follow directions accurately is one of the key communication abilities. We frequently have a tendency to overlook what people say or even follow up to make sure they understood. This causes false assumptions, inefficiencies, and workplace dissatisfaction. Excellent communication skills might genuinely facilitate your effective advancement inside an organisation.
- 2. Conflict Resolution:** Because of staff conflicts of interest or disagreements, there can be unbalance and friction within an organisation. Communication can be considered as a by-product of resolution, but because of workplace hesitancy and intimacy, resolution is a special talent that is difficult to master. These conflicts have the potential to severely harm relationships and a person's reputation. Additionally, it may have an impact on the business as a whole. As a result, one of the most crucial behavioural skills is conflict resolution. It teaches individuals how to handle various conflict situations, raises awareness of possible issues, and promotes employee cooperation and teamwork. People can develop coordination through feedback.
- 3. Patience:** Despite being one of the less commonplace abilities on the list, it plays a crucial part. We tend to lose sight of the fact that everything moves at its own pace and that all we need is a little patience to hang onto our emotions and personal greed in this technologically accelerated environment. Time management, finishing tasks, developing abilities, and achieving objectives are a few of the crucial behavioural skills in this section.
- 4. Balance Between Professional & Personal Life:** Bringing a balance between our professional and personal obligations is one of the most important behavioural skills, but it can be challenging. A demanding work schedule can undoubtedly affect your physical and mental health, so it is crucial to maintain a healthy balance between these two facets of your life. Therefore, it is beneficial to give our all to our work and fervently support the expansion of our organisation, but it is also crucial to cultivate self-awareness of our capabilities and health, which will only enable us to operate in the most productive and effective way possible.
- 5. Empathy:** One of the most important behavioural traits for employees to possess in both the business and one's personal life is empathy. It can be summed up as having the awareness or sensibility to perceive another person's thoughts, feelings, and emotions from their perspective. A good team at work is created when members are sensitive to one another's opinions and sensibilities, and the team leader can assign duties knowing what each member is capable of completing.
- 6. Decision-Making:** Another crucial behavioural trait that might help us succeed in our profession is the capacity to make decisions in an efficient and effective manner. We need to gather the necessary data, consider potential solutions, weigh the pros and drawbacks, and then address the issue in order to make a decision. Although this process might be demanding, making the best decisions can help us succeed in life, making it a crucial ability to have in the modern, rapidly changing world.

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7. **Problem-Solving:** To achieve any goal or milestone at work, whether we are a manager or a team member, we would need strong problem-solving abilities. We must first identify the issue, set priorities, investigate alternate answers, and then put those solutions into practise to determine how well they work for you. This is one of the most in-demand behavioural talents across all job sectors because it helps us to achieve at work by enabling us to be a strong leader as well as team member.

5.8 HOW TO USE BEHAVIOURAL SKILLS TRAINING PROCEDURE

The behavioural skills outlined in this book have a significant impact on a student's preparation for college and the workforce. Independently of and in addition to more conventional predictors like demographics and achievement test results, these skills can accurately predict critical academic outcomes like GPA and retention.

After graduating from high school, these abilities continue to be useful. They continue to be important indicators of grades in college, particularly of perseverance and on-time graduation. For instance, a key predictor of retention in college is the emergence of a sense of social belonging. Being prepared for the workforce is a crucial component of a successful college experience, so students must continue to work on these behavioural skills during their time in school to be prepared for the workforce by graduation.

These abilities predict a wide range of outcomes after an individual enters the employment, including job performance, engaging in moral behaviour at work, teamwork, job satisfaction, and perceived work stress. They are especially crucial in the long run since as time goes on, these abilities become increasingly indicative of work performance.

Tracking & Evaluating Skills

How do we begin? How do we assess and incorporate behavioural talents into our institution or company?

ACT is committed to assisting with the behavioural domain of the Holistic Framework's student and staff development and evaluation.

A short and simple test testing the attitudes and behaviours mentioned in this book is called ACT Engage. We'll have a clearer understanding of where our students stand and how to help them succeed in only 30 minutes. Use with college students or students in grades 6–9, 10–12, or 6.

The ACT Work Keys Talent assessment, which focuses on the personality qualities identified in this book, measures work-related attitudes and behaviours to assist companies in finding and developing personnel.

5.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY

A well-researched, competency- and performance-based method of teaching job skills to human service staff is behavioural skills training (BST). When behaviour analysts are required to train large numbers of employees or employees in several places, pyramidal behavioural skills training is considered to be most advantageous. One way that conduct is learned is through modelling. A person is modelling the behaviour when

they see another person's behaviour and then copy it. This is often referred to as social learning or observational learning. The opportunity to practise behaviours in a secure and encouraging atmosphere while employing real-world events is known as behavioural rehearsal. In contrast to "role plays," the emphasis is on skill practise rather than emotional enactment or being in role

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5.10 REVIEW QUESTIONS

SHORT ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. What do you understand by behavioural skills?
2. Why It is Important to have the knowledge of behavioural skills?
3. Write a short not on: 1- Rehearsal, 2- Feedback
4. Define the term training in educational set up
5. Explain two behavioural skills

LONG ANSWER TYPE QUESTIONS

1. Define behavioural skills and also explain the different components of the behavioural skills?
2. Describe the process of Behaviour Modelling Process? Gives its advantages and disadvantages?
3. How to use behavioural skills training procedure in classroom?
4. In what way one enhances generalization after behavioural skills?
5. Explain in detail Rehearsal as one of the strategies of behavioural skills?

5.11 MULTIPLE CHOICE QUESTIONS

1. _____ training is an evidence-based approach for training human service personnel to implement behaviour change and related procedures
 - a. Attitudinal skills
 - b. Personality skills
 - c. Behavioural skills
 - d. None of the above
2. Behavioural Skills Training (BST) is a technique for training teachers, parents, and anybody else who works with _____
 - a. Family
 - b. Students
 - c. Community
 - d. All the above
3. BST consists of four parts: instruction, modeling, rehearsal, and _____
 - a. Shaping
 - b. Immediacy
 - c. Intensity
 - d. Feedback



4. **An employee must be given access to _____ resources after being chosen, assigned, and welcomed into the organisation so that he may do his job effectively and efficiently.**
 - a. Learning
 - b. Training
 - c. Experimenting
 - d. None of the above
5. **The act of teaching employees how to accomplish something by demonstrating the typical modelled behaviour is known as _____**
 - a. Behaviour modelling
 - b. Rehearsal
 - c. Feedback
 - d. None of the above
6. **_____ is also influenced by modelling**
 - a. Depression
 - b. Anxiety
 - c. Aggression
 - d. Stress
7. **Purpose: Behavioural rehearsal allows supervisors to:**
 - a. Bring staff together in a group venue to share experiences and expertise.
 - b. Build a collaborative work environment.
 - c. Share best practices among staff.
 - d. All the above
8. **Another crucial behavioural trait that might help us succeed in our profession is the capacity to make _____ in an efficient and effective manner**
 - a. Planning
 - b. Communicating
 - c. Maintaining relations
 - d. Decisions
9. **Outcomes: Consistent and meaningful behavioural rehearsal should lead to:**
 - a. Increased staff confidence
 - b. Decreased staff performance anxiety
 - c. Increased practice consistency across staff
 - d. All the above
10. **The opportunity to practise _____ in a secure and encouraging atmosphere while employing real-world events is known as behavioural rehearsal**
 - a. Behaviours
 - b. Habits

- c. Both a and c
- d. None of the above

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ANSWER KEY

UNIT I

QUESTION	ANSWER	QUESTION	ANSWER
1	b.	6	c.
2	c.	7	a.
3	a.	8	a.
4	c.	9	c.
5	a.	10	a.

UNIT II

QUESTION	ANSWER	QUESTION	ANSWER
1	c.	6	c.
2	a.	7	a.
3	c.	8	b.
4	a.	9	d.
5	a.	10	a.

UNIT III

QUESTION	ANSWER	QUESTION	ANSWER
1	c.	6	a.
2	c.	7	b.
3	b.	8	b.
4	c.	9	c.
5	c.	10	d.

UNIT IV

QUESTION	ANSWER	QUESTION	ANSWER
1	a.	6	b.
2	c.	7	a.
3	d.	8	a.
4	a.	9	d.
5	c.	10	c.

UNIT V

QUESTION	ANSWER	QUESTION	ANSWER
1	c.	6	c.
2	b.	7	d.
3	d.	8	d.
4	b.	9	d.
5	a.	10	a.

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