

LOOSE-LEAF VERSION

ESSENTIALS OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

BIG IDEAS TO GUIDE EFFECTIVE TEACHING

FIFTH EDITION



JEANNE ELLIS ORMROD
BRETT JONES



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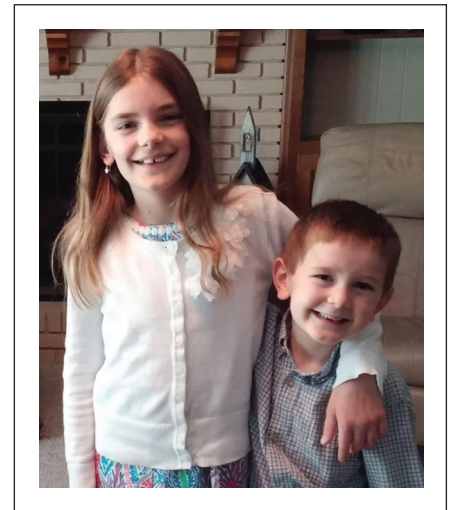


To Olivia, Miles, and Jack Fox (from Jeanne)



and

To Mia and Jack Jones (from Brett)



About the Authors



JEANNE ELLIS ORMROD received her A.B. in psychology from Brown University and her M.S. and Ph.D. in educational psychology from The Pennsylvania State University. She earned licensure in school psychology through postdoctoral work at Temple University and the University of Colorado at Boulder and has worked as a middle school geography teacher and school psychologist. She was Professor of Educational Psychology at the University of Northern Colorado (UNC) until 1998 and is currently Professor Emerita in UNC's School of Psychological Sciences. She has published and presented extensively on cognition and memory, cognitive development, instruction, and related topics but is probably best known for this book and four others: *Human Learning* (currently in its 7th edition); *Educational Psychology: Developing Learners* (9th edition coauthored with Eric Anderman and Lynley Anderman); *Child Development and Education* (coauthored with Teresa McDevitt, currently in its 6th edition); and *Practical Research* (coauthored with Paul Leedy, currently in its 11th edition). After raising three children (two of whom have become teachers themselves), she now lives in New Hampshire with her husband, Richard. Within the past few years, she has had the good fortune to visit schools in diverse cultural settings, including Rwanda, Tanzania, Thailand, Malaysia, and Peru's Amazon region.



BRETT D. JONES is Professor of Educational Psychology in the School of Education at Virginia Tech (Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University). He received his B.A.E. in architectural engineering from The Pennsylvania State University and his M.A. and Ph.D. in educational psychology from the University of North Carolina at Chapel Hill. He has held faculty positions as an educational psychologist at Duke University, the University of South Florida St. Petersburg, and Virginia Tech. He has taught over 20 different types of university courses related to motivation, cognition, and teaching strategies. Dr. Jones has also conducted workshops and invited presentations at several universities and has presented more than 100 research papers at conferences. His research, which includes examining instructional methods that support students' motivation and learning, has led to more than 70 articles, several book chapters, and two other books besides this book (*Motivating Students by Design: Practical Strategies for Professors* and *The Unintended Consequences of High-Stakes Testing*, the latter of which was coauthored with M. Gail Jones and Tracy Hargrove). He and his wife stay busy with their two children, who enjoy school, athletics, and cheering for the Hokies, Nit-tany Lions, and Tar Heels.

Preface

New to the Fifth Edition

Our knowledge about how children and adolescents learn and develop—and also about how best to *help* them learn and develop—grows by leaps and bounds every year. Throughout this fifth edition, we’ve made many changes to reflect new research findings and evidence-based classroom strategies. General changes include the following:

- **Reorganization of chapter sequence:** We have switched the order of “Complex Cognitive Processes” (now Chapter 3) and “Learning in Context” (now Chapter 4) to allow a smoother and more logical transition from “Learning, Cognition, and Memory” (Chapter 2). We have also switched the order of “Motivation and Affect” (now Chapter 5) and “Cognitive Development” (now Chapter 6) so that the latter chapter immediately precedes “Personal, Social, and Moral Development” (Chapter 7), and thus the two chapters about child and adolescent development are together in the book.
- **Explicit organization of chapter content to align with the book’s Big Ideas:** As was true in the fourth edition, each chapter begins with three to six Big Ideas that summarize the chapter’s content. In this edition, each major section of a chapter is explicitly tied to a Big Idea, with a Self-Check quiz and one or more relevant Application Exercises appearing at the end of the section.
- **New graphics to enhance readers’ comprehension:** We have added new graphics in several chapters to visually summarize some of the concepts discussed in the text.
- **Many new online resources:** We have added many book-specific online resources, which can now all be accessed with a single click in the e-book. These resources include:
 - Many updated video examples of children and teachers in action
 - Animated Video Explanations that explain and illustrate certain key concepts and principles (users of the fourth edition may recognize these as short clips from that edition’s lengthy interactive modules)
 - Interactive Application Exercises, many of which include classroom videos requiring analysis
 - Multiple-choice Self-Check quizzes (one connected to each Big Idea section)
 - Interactive exercises similar to those a preservice teacher might find on a licensure exam

More specific, chapter-by-chapter changes are the following additions and modifications:

- **Chapter 1:** Reorganization of the chapter content to move some ideas to other sections; minor revisions to the Ormrod’s Own Psychological Survey; expanded discussion of educational psychology as a discipline; expanded discussion of principles and theories; reorganization of the principles within Big Idea 1.3; expanded discussion of strategies for learning and studying effectively; several new figures and illustrations related to educational psychology, organizations associated with educational psychology, knowledge needed by teachers, and the cyclical process of action research; new Application Exercises related to types of research, action research projects, and study strategies.
- **Chapter 2:** Reorganization to switch the order of Big Ideas 2.1 and 2.2; new title for Big Idea 2.1; new hotlinked Video Explanation that explains the basic structures of the brain; expanded discussion of working memory, with a revised figure consistent with the discussion; new discussion and associated figure to summarize the contents of long-term memory; reorganization of some of the meaningful learning strategies, with a new associated figure; new figure related to declarative and procedural knowledge; reorganization of the strategies provided in the *Encouraging Effective Long-Term Memory Storage Processes* section; new

Application Exercises related to misconceptions about the brain, active knowledge construction, the three-component model of memory, facilitating recall, and applying information processing strategies.

- **Chapter 3:** Reorganization to switch the order of the *Self-Regulation* and *Metacognition* sections and to include both sections in Big Idea 3.1; expanded discussion about the components and cycle of self-regulation, with a new associated figure; new See for Yourself exercise titled “Knowledge About Beliefs”; new examples of specific transfer; expanded discussion of well-defined and ill-defined problems; reorganization of subsections in the *Promoting Self-Regulation Skills and Metacognitive Development* section; new Application Exercises related to studying and remembering, transfer, problem solving and creativity, critical thinking, self-regulation, and instructional strategies associated with creative thinking.
- **Chapter 4:** New Big Idea to accompany the *Social Interaction as Context* section; new figure to show contexts that influence learning; four new art figures related to behavior, reinforcement, and punishment; expanded discussion of negative reinforcement; revision of table distinguishing among reinforcements and punishment; reorganization and revision of the *Technology and Media as Contexts* section; updated figures depicting environmental influences on learners; two new classroom strategies to address stereotypes and prejudice, with a new illustrative artifact; six new hotlinked Video Explanations that explain negative reinforcement, positive reinforcement, punishment, mediated learning experiences, cognitive tools, peer reinforcement, shaping, and intermittent reinforcement.
- **Chapter 5:** New entry titled “Interest theories” in the table related to theoretical perspectives; reorganization of the sections related to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation; change of the key term *personal interest* to *individual interest*; new figure related to self-efficacy; new Application Exercises related to the nature of motivation, psychological needs, cognitive factors influencing motivation, anxiety, and motivational teaching strategies.
- **Chapter 6:** Addition of *development* as a key term, with a new associated figure; new Think About It question related to growth; new figure showing the interplay among genes, the environment, and behavior; revision of the figure depicting neurons; three new figures related to working memory capacity, the development of knowledge, and intelligence; three new hotlinked Video Explanations that explain (a) mediated learning experiences and cognitive tools, (b) the zone of proximal development, and (c) apprenticeships and cognitive apprenticeships; new Application Exercises related to maturation, the zone of proximal development, Piaget’s stages of conservation, dispositions and thinking, and scaffolding.
- **Chapter 7:** New discussion of peer relationships as an important factor influencing classroom climate; new discussion of how students’ social motives influence the kinds of peer relationships they seek; expanded discussion of moral and prosocial development to reflect advancements in research findings; new section on providing support strategies and services for students who are homeless; new discussion of students who are recent refugees from war-torn countries; distinction between autism spectrum disorders and Asperger’s syndrome (in line with some experts’ current thinking about this issue); new Application Exercises related to temperament, social skills, and moral reasoning.
- **Chapter 8:** Revision of opening case study to incorporate the use of technology-based instructional strategies; emphasis on the importance of *evidence-based* strategies in this chapter as well as in Chapter 1; expanded discussion of standards that now includes the Next Generation Science Standards and ISTE standards for technological literacy, rebuttals to several common concerns regarding the Common Core, and the importance of enhancing students’ literacy skills in *all* content domains; new section regarding the importance of planning lessons that enhance students’ engagement; updated and expanded discussion of computer-based instruction (e.g., in intelligent tutoring programs); expanded discussion of students’ independent online research to include webquests and teacher monitoring via a remote desktop feature; new section regarding the use of technology-based simulations and games; new section and Classroom Strategies box regarding modifying and/or supplementing instruction for English language learners; expanded discussion of differentiated instruction to include the importance of scaffolding note taking for students with disabilities and other historically low-achieving students.

- **Chapter 9:** Chapter title changed to “Strategies for Creating Effective Classroom and School Environments” (to more accurately reflect the chapter’s content); introduction of *school climate* as a key term; new discussion regarding how poor teacher–student relationships can adversely affect teachers’ as well as students’ sense of relatedness and overall well-being; addition of “giving low grades” to the list of what *not* to use as a means of punishing students’ misbehaviors; terms *positive behavior support* (PBS) and *schoolwide positive behavior support* changed to *positive behavioral interventions and supports* (PBIS) and *schoolwide positive behavioral interventions and supports* (SWPBIS), respectively, in line with current usage; new hotlinked Video Explanation that explains and illustrates the use of applied behavior analysis and functional analysis; new Application Exercises related to classroom arrangement, class rules, addressing behavior problems and student conflicts, and SWPBIS.
- **Chapter 10:** Increased emphasis on the use of a backward design; expanded discussion of rubrics, with a new illustrative example; updated and expanded discussions of how teachers might use technology in teacher assessments or student self-assessments; new discussion of how combining criterion-specific scores into a single criterion-referenced score can be problematic; expanded discussion of the downsides of basing final grades on improvement rather than on students’ final achievement levels; new discussion of how computer technology can be used in standardized testing (e.g., via adaptive assessment); new discussion of the Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA), which replaced the No Child Left Behind Act in late 2015; new section on the practice of using standardized achievement test results as possible indicators of teacher effectiveness (e.g., via value-added assessment); two new Video Explanations that (a) clarify and illustrate the difference between summative and formative assessments and (b) describe and illustrate formative assessment (e.g., via rubrics and checklists); new Application Exercises related to student feedback, good assessment practices, use of portfolios, high-stakes testing, and analysis of computer-generated reports of students’ standardized achievement test results.

Our Rationale for This Book

The traditional approach to teaching and writing about educational psychology is to cover one theory at a time, explaining its assumptions and principles and then identifying implications for educational practice. But as we authors have gained increasing experience teaching educational psychology to college students, we’ve started to teach our courses differently, focusing more on commonalities than differences among theories. In fact, although researchers from different traditions have approached human cognition and behavior from many different angles, they sometimes arrive at more or less the same conclusions. The language they use to describe their observations is often different, to be sure, but beneath all the words are certain nuggets of truth that can be remarkably similar.

In this book, we’ve tried to bring educational psychology to the real world of children, teachers, and classrooms. We’ve also tried to integrate ideas from many theoretical perspectives into what is, for us, a general set of principles and strategies that psychology *as a whole* can offer beginning teachers. After a short introduction about the importance of research and study strategies (Chapter 1), we proceed to a discussion of the very essence of human experience: cognition (Chapter 2). From that foundation, we go in five different directions—to complex cognitive processes (Chapter 3), learning in various contexts (Chapter 4), motivation (Chapter 5), cognitive development (Chapter 6), and personal and social development (Chapter 7)—but always returning to basic cognitive processes that underlie various universal human phenomena. The last three chapters of the book build on the earlier ones to offer recommendations in instruction (Chapter 8), classroom management (Chapter 9), and assessment (Chapter 10).

Some of our colleagues in the field may be surprised to see our use of footnotes rather than APA style throughout the book. Our decision has been strictly a pedagogical one. Yes, students need to know that the principles and recommendations in this book are research-based. But we’ve found that APA style can be quite distracting for someone who is reading about psychology for the first time and trying to sort out what things are and are not important to learn and remember. Novice psychologists should be concerned more with the *ideas themselves* than with the people

behind the ideas, and by putting most of the people in small print at the bottom of the page, we can help novices better focus their attention on what things truly are most important to know and understand.



MyEdLab

Video Example 3.4.

In many content domains, one aspect of critical thinking is distinguishing between statements that are indisputable facts versus those that reflect personal opinions. What strategies does this sixth-grade teacher use to help students understand this distinction?



MyEdLab

Video Explanation 4.4.

This video illustrates the use of cognitive tools in a high school physics class.

MYEDUCATIONLAB®

The most visible change in the fifth edition (and certainly one of the most significant changes) is the expansion of the digital learning and assessment resources embedded in the etext. Designed to bring you more directly into the world of K–12 classrooms and to help you see the very real impact that educational psychology concepts have on learning and development, these digital learning and assessment resources also

- Provide you with practice using educational psychology concepts in teaching situations,
- Help you and your instructor see how well you understand the concepts presented in the book and the media resources,
- Help you more deeply think about and process educational psychology and how to use it as a teacher (and as a learner).

The online resources in the Enhanced Etext with MyEducationLab include:

- **Video Examples.** In almost all chapters, embedded videos provide illustrations of educational psychology principles or concepts in action. These video examples most often show students and teachers working in classrooms. Sometimes they show students or teachers describing their thinking or experiences.
- **Video Explanations.** Throughout the text, one of us authors (Jeanne Ormrod) provides video explanations of essential concepts. Excerpted from her series of longer educational psychology Study Modules, these brief lectures include animated slides and worked examples.
- **Self-Checks.** Throughout the chapters you will find MyEducationLab: Self-Check quizzes. There are three to six of these quizzes in each chapter, with one at the end of each Big Idea section. They are meant to help you assess how well you have mastered the concepts covered in the section you just read. These self-checks are made up of self-grading multiple-choice items that not only provide feedback on whether you answered the questions correctly or incorrectly, but also provide you with rationales for both correct and incorrect answers.
- **Application Exercises.** Also at the end of each Big Idea section, you can find one or two application exercises that can challenge you to use chapter content to reflect on teaching and learning in real classrooms. The questions you answer in these exercises are usually constructed-response items. Once you provide your own answers to the questions, you receive feedback in the form of model answers written by experts.

In this chapter, you have learned about a wide variety of strategies for effectively planning and implementing instruction. In the hotlinked Self-Check quiz and Application Exercises that follow, you can check and apply your understandings related to Big Idea 8.4:

Different instructional strategies are appropriate for different instructional goals and objectives and for different students.

MyEdLab Self-Check 8.4

MyEdLab Application Exercise 8.6. In this exercise, you can observe and analyze a bilingual lesson in high school history.



MyEdLab Application Exercise 8.7. In this exercise, you can apply what you have learned about planning and instruction to analyze an actual lesson plan.

- **Practice for Your Licensure Exam features.** Every chapter ends with an exercise that can give you an opportunity to apply the chapter's content while reading a case study

and then answering multiple-choice and constructed-response questions similar to those that appear on many teacher licensure tests. By clicking on the MyEducationLab hotlink at the end of a Practice for Your Licensure Exam exercise, you can complete the activity online and get feedback about your answers.

PRACTICE FOR YOUR LICENSURE EXAM

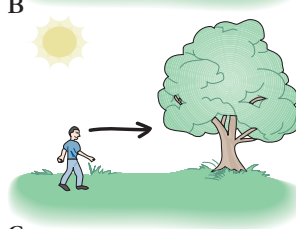
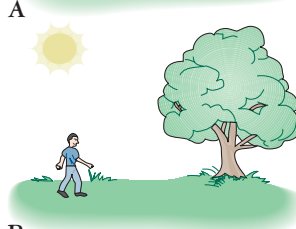
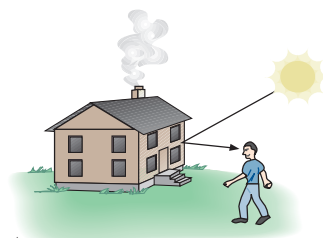
Vision Unit

Ms. Kontos is teaching a unit on human vision to her fifth-grade class. She shows her students a diagram of the various parts of the human eye, such as the lens, cornea, pupil, retina, and optic nerve. She then explains that people can see objects because light from the sun or another light source bounces off those objects and into their eyes. To illustrate this idea, she shows them Picture A.

“Do you all understand how our eyes work?” she asks. Her students nod that they do.

The next day Ms. Kontos gives her students Picture B.

She asks students to draw one or more arrows on the picture to show how light enables the child to see the tree. More than half of the students draw arrows something like the one shown in Picture C.



1. Constructed-response question

Obviously, most of Ms. Kontos’s students have not learned what she thought she had taught them about human vision.

- Explain why many students believe the opposite of what Ms. Kontos has taught them. Base your response on contemporary principles and theories of learning and cognition.
- Describe two different ways in which you might improve on this lesson to help students gain a more accurate understanding of human vision. Base your strategies on contemporary principles and theories of learning and cognition.

2. Multiple-choice question

Many elementary-age children think of human vision in the way that Ms. Kontos’s fifth graders do—that is, as a process that originates in the eye and goes outward toward objects that are seen. When students revise their thinking to be more consistent with commonly accepted scientific explanations, they are said to be

- acquiring a new script.
- acquiring procedural knowledge.
- undergoing conceptual change.
- revising their worldview.

MyEdLab Licensure Exam 2.1

- **Classroom Management Simulations.** In Chapter 9 and in the left-hand navigation bar of MyEducationLab, you will be able to access interactive simulations that engage you in decision making about classroom management strategies. These interactive cases focus on the classroom management issues teachers most frequently encounter on a daily basis. Each simulation presents a challenge scenario at the beginning and then offers a series of choices to solve each challenge. Along the way, you receive mentor feedback on your choices and have the opportunity to make better choices if necessary.
- **Study Modules.** In the left-hand navigation bar of MyEducationLab, you will also find a set of Study Modules. These interactive, application-oriented modules provide opportunities to learn foundational educational psychology concepts in ways other than reading about them. The modules present content through screen-capture videos that include animations, worked examples, and classroom videos. Each module consists of three parts. In the first part, begin with the Learn section that presents several key concepts and strategies. Then work through the problems in the Apply section. These will give you practice applying the concepts and principles to actual teaching and learning scenarios. The third part of each module is a multiple-choice test in the Assess section. This test includes higher-order questions that assess not only what you can remember about the module’s content but also how well you can apply the concepts and strategies you’ve learned to real-life classroom situations.

- **Video Analysis Tool.** Our widely anticipated Video Analysis Tool is also available in the left-hand navigation bar of MyEducationLab. The Video Analysis Tool helps you build your skills in analyzing teaching. Exercises provide classroom videos and rubrics to scaffold your analysis. Timestamp and commenting tools allow you to easily annotate the video and connect your observations to educational psychology concepts you have learned in the text.

OTHER BOOK FEATURES

The book's 10 chapters have a variety of features that can help readers better understand, remember, and apply what they're reading. First, each chapter begins with three to six **Big Ideas**—overarching principles that provide a general organizational scheme for the chapter's content, Self-Check quizzes, Application Exercises, and end-of-chapter summary. Then, boldfaced **Guiding Principles** and **Key Strategies** throughout the chapter highlight key principles and concrete recommendations that can guide teachers in their decision making and classroom practices.

Immediately following the list of Big Ideas presented at the beginning of each chapter is a **case study** that introduces some of the ideas and issues we address in the chapter. Throughout each chapter, we periodically revisit the case to offer new insights and interpretations.

We often put readers themselves in the position of “learner” and ask them to engage in a short learning or thinking activity. Many of these **See for Yourself** exercises are similar to ones we've used in our own educational psychology classes. Our students have found them to be quite helpful in making concepts and principles more “real” for them—and hence more vivid, understandable, and memorable. An example of such an exercise follows.

SEE FOR YOURSELF

MARTIN'S PLIGHT

Imagine that you're in the ninth grade. You're walking quickly down the school corridor on your way to your math class when you see three boys from the so-called “popular” crowd cornering a small, socially awkward boy named Martin. The boys first make fun of Martin's thick glasses and unfashionable clothing, then they start taunting him with offensive names such as “fag” and “retard.” What do you do?

- You look the other way, pretending you haven't heard anything, and hurry on to class. If you were to stop to help, the boys might taunt you as well, and that will only make the situation worse.
- You shoot Martin a sympathetic look and then head to class so that you won't be late. Afterward, you anonymously report the incident to the principal's office, because you know that the boys' behaviors have violated your school's antibullying policy.
- You stop and say, “Hey, you jerks, cut it out! Martin's a really nice guy and doesn't deserve your insulting labels. Come on, Martin—let's go. We might be late for math class, so we need to hurry.”

An additional feature comes in the form of **Think About It** questions in the margin that encourage readers to connect chapter content to their past experiences or current beliefs and in some cases also encourage readers to take concepts and principles in new directions.

If you quickly flip through the book, you'll see many classroom artifacts—that is, **examples of work created by actual students and teachers**. We use artifacts throughout the book to help readers connect concepts, principles, and strategies to students' behavior and to classroom practices.

To a considerable degree, we talk about concepts and principles that apply to children and adolescents at all grade levels. Yet 1st graders often think and act very differently than 6th graders, and 6th graders can, in turn, be quite different from 11th graders. Chapters 2 through 10 each have one or more **Developmental Trends** tables that highlight and illustrate developmental differences that teachers are apt to see in grades K–2, 3–5, 6–8, and 9–12.

think about it

Using what you've just learned about attention, explain why texting on a phone while driving is illegal in many places. (For an explanation, click [here](#).)

Chapters 2 through 10 also each have two or more **Classroom Strategies** boxes that offer concrete suggestions and examples of how teachers might apply a particular concept or principle. These features should provide yet another mechanism to help our readers apply educational psychology to actual classroom practices. And beginning in Chapter 3, each chapter has a **Cultural Considerations** feature that describes cultural differences in specific areas—for instance, in behavior, reasoning, or motivation.

Although our approach in this book is to integrate the concepts, principles, and educational strategies that diverse theoretical perspectives offer, it's also important for future teachers to have some familiarity with specific psychological theories and with a few prominent theorists who have had a significant influence on psychological thinking (e.g., Jean Piaget, Lev Vygotsky, B. F. Skinner). We occasionally mention these theories and theorists in the text discussion, but we also highlight them in **Theoretical Perspectives** tables in Chapters 2, 5, and 6.

Supplementary Materials

Many supplements to the textbook are available to enhance readers' learning and development as teachers.

Online Instructor's Manual. Available to instructors for download at www.pearsonhighered.com/educator is an *Instructor's Manual* with suggestions for learning activities, supplementary lectures, group activities, and additional media resources. These have been carefully selected to provide opportunities to support, enrich, and expand on what students read in the textbook.

Online PowerPoint® Slides. PowerPoint slides are available to instructors for download at www.pearsonhighered.com/educator. These slides include key concept summarizations and other graphic aids to help students understand, organize, and remember core concepts and ideas.

Online Test Bank. The *Test Bank* that accompanies this text contains both multiple-choice and essay questions. Some items (lower-level questions) simply ask students to identify or explain concepts and principles they have learned. But many others (higher-level questions) ask students to apply those same concepts and principles to specific classroom situations—that is, to actual student behaviors and teaching strategies. The lower-level questions assess basic knowledge of educational psychology. But ultimately, it is the higher-level questions that can best assess students' ability to use principles of educational psychology in their own teaching practice.

TestGen. TestGen is a powerful test generator available exclusively from Pearson Education publishers. Instructors install TestGen on a personal computer (Windows or Macintosh) and create their own tests for classroom testing and for other specialized delivery options, such as over a local area network or on the web. A test bank, which is also called a Test Item File (TIF), typically contains a large set of test items, organized by chapter and ready for your use in creating a test, based on the associated textbook material. Assessments—including equations, graphs, and scientific notation—can be created in either paper-and-pencil or online formats.

The tests can be downloaded in the following formats:

TestGen Testbank file—PC

TestGen Testbank file—MAC

TestGen Testbank—Blackboard 9 TIF

TestGen Testbank—Blackboard CE/Vista (WebCT) TIF

Angel Test Bank (zip)

D2L Test Bank (zip)

Moodle Test Bank

Sakai Test Bank (zip)

Artifact Case Studies: Interpreting Children’s Work and Teachers’ Classroom Strategies. One of us authors, Jeanne Ormrod, has written *Artifact Case Studies* (ISBN 0-13-114671-8) as a supplement to the textbook. It’s especially useful for helping students learn to apply psychological concepts and principles related to learning, motivation, development, instruction, and assessment. The case studies, or *artifact cases*, within this text offer work samples and instructional materials that cover a broad range of topics, including literacy, mathematics, science, social studies, and art. Every artifact case includes background information and questions to consider as readers examine and interpret the artifact. Instructors should contact their local Pearson Education sales representative to order a copy of this book and its accompanying Instructor’s Manual.

Case Studies: Applying Educational Psychology. With the assistance of Linda Pallock and Brian Harper, Jeanne Ormrod and Dinah Jackson McGuire have coauthored *Case Studies: Applying Educational Psychology* (2nd ed., ISBN 0-13-198046-7) to give students more in-depth practice in applying educational psychology to real children, teachers, and classrooms. The 48 cases in the book address many topics in educational psychology (learning and cognition, child and adolescent development, student diversity, motivation, instruction, classroom management, and assessment) across a variety of grade levels (preschool through high school). This book, too, is accompanied by an Instructor’s Manual.

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B. D. J.

Brief Contents

- 1** Introduction to Educational Psychology 2
- 2** Learning, Cognition, and Memory 20
- 3** Complex Cognitive Processes 62
- 4** Learning in Context 102
- 5** Motivation and Affect 152
- 6** Cognitive Development 204
- 7** Personal, Social, and Moral Development 250
- 8** Instructional Strategies 300
- 9** Strategies for Creating Effective Classroom and School Environments 340
- 10** Assessment Strategies 382

Contents

1 Introduction to Educational Psychology 2

Case Study: The “No D” Policy 3

1.1 Using Research Findings to Make Instructional Decisions 4

The effectiveness of various classroom practices can best be determined through systematic research. 4

Educational psychologists focus on the scientific study of psychological principles that are relevant to education. 6

Research can provide quantitative information, qualitative information, or both. 7

Different kinds of research lead to different kinds of conclusions. 8

Drawing conclusions about cause-and-effect relationships requires that all other possible explanations for an outcome be eliminated. 11

Principles and theories can help synthesize, explain, and apply research findings. 11

1.2 Developing as a Teacher 12

Keep up to date on research findings and innovative evidence-based practices in education. 13

Learn as much as you can about the subject matter you teach, about teaching strategies, and about learners and their development. 13

Learn as much as you can about the culture(s) of the community in which you are working. 13

Continually reflect on and critically examine your assumptions, inferences, and teaching practices. 13

Communicate and collaborate with colleagues. 14

Believe that you can make a difference in students’ lives. 14

Integrate action research into your ongoing classroom practices. 14

1.3 Strategies for Learning and Studying Effectively 15

Before you study, prepare for your study session. 16

During your study session, use effective study strategies. 16

After your study session, review what you studied. 17

Summary 18

Practice For Your Licensure Exam 18

2 Learning, Cognition, and Memory 20

Case Study: Making Mountains 21

2.1 Thinking and Learning in the Brain 22

The various parts of the brain work closely with one another. 22

Most learning probably involves changes in neurons, astrocytes, and their interconnections. 22

The brain functions in close collaboration with—rather than in relative isolation from—the rest of the body. 23

Knowing how the brain functions and develops tells us only so much about learning and instruction. 23

2.2 Learning as Active Construction 24

By the time they reach school age, young learners are actively involved in much of their own learning. 24

Cognitive processes influence what is learned. 26

Learners must be selective about what they focus on and learn. 26

Learners actively create—rather than passively absorb—much of what they know and believe about the world. 27

Learners use what they already know and believe to help them make sense of new experiences. 28

2.3 How Human Memory Operates 29

Sensory input stays in a raw form only briefly. 30

Attention is essential for most learning and memory. 30

Working memory—where the action is in thinking and learning—has a short duration and limited capacity. 31

Long-term memory has a long duration and virtually limitless capacity. 32

Information in long-term memory is interconnected and organized to some extent. 33

Some long-term memory storage processes are more effective than others. 35

Practice makes knowledge more automatic and durable. 38

With age and experience, children acquire more effective learning strategies. 39

Prior knowledge and beliefs affect new learning, usually for the better but sometimes for the worse. 39

Learners differ in the factors that influence their ability to learn and remember. 42

2.4 Why Learners May or May Not Remember What They Have Learned 44

How easily something is recalled depends on how it was initially learned. 44

Remembering depends on the context. 45

How easily something is recalled and used depends on how often it has been recalled and used in the past. 45

Recall often involves construction or reconstruction. 46

Long-term memory isn't necessarily forever. 47

2.5 Promoting Effective Cognitive Processes 47

Supporting Optimal Brain Functioning 48

Provide ongoing intellectual stimulation, but don't overdo it. 48

Encourage physical exercise. 48

Encourage students to get plenty of sleep. 48

Remembering the Limitations of Attention and Working Memory 48

Grab and hold students' attention. 49

Keep the limited capacity of working memory in mind. 49

Encouraging Effective Long-Term Memory

Storage Processes 50

Relate new ideas to students' prior knowledge and experiences. 50

Take advantage of students' diverse background knowledge in designing instruction. 50

Provide experiences on which students can build. 51

Help students organize ideas by making connections among them. 51

Facilitate visual imagery. 52

Present questions and tasks that encourage elaboration. 52

Suggest mnemonics for hard-to-remember facts. 52

Give students time to think. 52

Facilitating Retrieval 54

Provide many opportunities to practice important knowledge and skills. 55

Give hints that help students recall or reconstruct what they've learned. 55

Monitoring Students' Progress 56

Regularly assess students' understandings. 56

Identify and address students' misconceptions. 57

Focus assessments on meaningful learning rather than rote learning. 57

Be on the lookout for students who have unusual difficulty with certain cognitive processes. 57

Summary 60

Practice For Your Licensure Exam 61

3 Complex Cognitive Processes 62

Case Study: Taking Over 63

3.1 Self-Regulation and Metacognition 64

Effective Self-Regulated Learning 64

Self-regulating learners establish goals for their performance and plan their actions accordingly. 65

Self-regulating learners control and monitor their processes and progress during a learning task. 65

Self-regulating learners seek assistance and support when they need it. 66

Self-regulating learners monitor and try to control their motivation and emotions. 66

Self-regulating learners evaluate the final outcomes of their efforts. 66

Self-regulating learners self-impose consequences for their performance. 66

Most learners become increasingly self-regulating over the course of childhood and adolescence, partly as a result of maturation in key areas of the brain. 67

The Roles of Metacognition 69

Some effective study strategies are easily seen in learners' behaviors. 70

Study strategies are effective only to the extent that they involve productive cognitive processes. 71

Metacognitive knowledge and skills gradually improve with age. 72

Learners' beliefs about the nature of knowledge and learning influence their approaches to learning tasks. 74

3.2 Transfer 75

Meaningful learning and conceptual understanding increase the probability of transfer. 76

Both positive and negative transfer are more common when a new situation appears to be similar to a previous one. 76

Knowledge and skills can be transferred to very different situations. 77

Learning strategies, general beliefs, and attitudes can also transfer to new situations. 78

Transfer increases when the learning environment encourages it. 78

3.3 Problem Solving and Creativity 79

The depth of learners' knowledge influences their ability to solve problems and think creatively. 80

Both convergent and divergent thinking are constrained by working memory capacity. 81

How learners represent a problem or situation influences their strategies and eventual success. 81

Problem solving and creativity often involve heuristics that facilitate but don't guarantee successful outcomes. 82

Effective problem solving and creativity require self-regulation and metacognition. 83

3.4 Critical Thinking 84

Critical thinking requires sophisticated epistemic beliefs. 85

Critical thinking is a disposition as much as a cognitive process. 86

3.5 Promoting Self-Regulation Skills and Metacognitive Development 87

Guide and support self-regulated learning and behavior. 88

Encourage metacognitive self-reflection. 90

Explicitly teach effective learning strategies. 90

Communicate that acquiring knowledge is a dynamic, ongoing process—that one never completely knows something. 92

3.6 Creating a Classroom Environment That Nurtures Complex Processes 93

Create an atmosphere in which transfer, creative problem solving, and critical thinking are both expected and valued. 93

Teach complex thinking skills within the context of specific topics and content domains. 94

Pursue topics in depth rather than superficially. 94

Provide numerous and varied opportunities to apply classroom subject matter to new situations and authentic problems. 94

Use technology to simulate real-world-like tasks and problems. 96

Present questions and tasks that require students to think flexibly about classroom topics. 96

Encourage critical evaluation of information and ideas presented in printed materials and online. 97

Support complex cognitive processes through group discussions and projects. 98

Incorporate complex cognitive processes into assessment activities. 99

Summary 100

Practice For Your Licensure Exam 101

4 Learning in Context 102

Case Study: Why Jack Wasn't in School 103

4.1 Immediate Stimuli as Context 104

Some stimuli tend to elicit certain kinds of responses. 104

Learners are more likely to acquire behaviors that lead to desired consequences. 105

Learners are also likely to acquire behaviors that help them avoid or escape unpleasant circumstances. 107

Learners tend to steer clear of behaviors that lead to unpleasant consequences. 109

Learners acquire many behaviors by observing other people's actions. 109

Learners learn what behaviors are acceptable and effective by observing what happens to people whom they perceive to be similar to themselves. 112

By seeing what happens to themselves and others, learners form expectations about the probable outcomes of various actions. 112

Acquired knowledge and skills are often tied to a limited set of activities and environments. 113

Learners often think and perform more effectively when they can offload some of the cognitive burden onto something or someone else. 114

4.2 Social Interaction as Context 114

Learners sometimes co-construct new understandings with more experienced individuals. 115

Learners also co-construct knowledge and understandings with peers who have ability levels similar to or greater than their own. 115

Other people sometimes provide the support learners need to take on challenging new tasks. 117

4.3 Culture, Society, Technology, and Academic Domains as Contexts 118

Culture as Context 119

Any cultural group encourages and models certain behaviors and actively discourages certain other behaviors. 119

Every culture passes along many cognitive tools that enhance learners' thinking capabilities. 120

Every culture instills certain worldviews that color people's interpretations of events. 120

Every culture has certain ways of doing things, and these, too, are passed from generation to generation. 122

Inconsistencies between home and school cultures can interfere with school learning and performance. 123

Society as Context 124

Any large society has multiple layers that all affect children's learning and development either directly or indirectly. 125

Different members of a society have different specialties, and they call on one another's areas of expertise as needed. 126

In most situations, some society members have greater access to the society's resources than other members do. 126

Technology and Media as Contexts 128

Mobile devices allow learners to connect to a wide variety of people and resources. 128

Some media create "virtual" contexts that simulate real-world-like environments and events. 128

Academic Content Domains as Contexts 129

Each academic discipline provides many cognitive tools that enhance thinking and problem solving. 129

Different content domains require somewhat different cognitive processes and, as a result, somewhat different ways of learning. 130

4.4 How Learners Modify Their Environments 131

Learners alter their current environment through both their behaviors and such internal variables as beliefs, mental processes, feelings, and personality traits. 131

Learners actively seek out environments that are a good fit with their existing characteristics and behaviors. 133

4.5 Providing Supportive Contexts for Learning 134

Encouraging Productive Behaviors 134

Create conditions that elicit desired responses. 134

Make sure that productive behaviors are reinforced and that unproductive behaviors are not reinforced. 134

Make response–reinforcement contingencies clear. 135

As an alternative to punishment, reinforce productive behaviors that are incompatible with unproductive ones. 136

Model desired behaviors. 136

Provide a variety of role models. 137

Shape complex behaviors gradually over time. 138

Have students practice new behaviors and skills in a variety of contexts—ideally including real-world settings outside of school. 139

Providing Physical, Social, and Technological Support for Effective Cognitive Processes 138

Provide physical and cognitive tools that can help students work and think more effectively. 139

Equip students with the literacy skills they need to effectively use and learn from various technologies and media. 140

Encourage student dialogue and collaboration. 142

Use computer technology to support both within-class and across-class communication. 143

Create a community of learners. 143

4.6 Taking Students' Broader Cultural and Socioeconomic Contexts into Account 145

Learn as much as you can about students' cultural backgrounds, and come to grips with your own cultural lens. 145

Remember that membership in a particular cultural or ethnic group is not an either-or situation but, instead, a more-or-less phenomenon. 145

Incorporate the perspectives and traditions of many cultures into the curriculum. 145

Be sensitive to cultural differences in behaviors and beliefs, and when appropriate, adapt instructional methods to students' preferred ways of learning and behaving. 146

Be sensitive to the culture shock that recent immigrants might be experiencing. 147

Work hard to break down rigid stereotypes of particular cultural and ethnic groups. 147

Identify and, if possible, provide missing resources and experiences important for successful learning. 148

Summary 150

Practice For Your Licensure Exam 151

5 Motivation and Affect 152

Case Study: Passing Algebra 153

5.1 The Nature of Motivation 154

5.2 Basic Human Needs 159

Learners have a basic need for arousal. 159

Learners want to believe they are competent and have self-worth. 160

Learners want to determine the course of their lives to some degree. 160

Learners want to feel connected to other people. 161

Learners experience greater enjoyment and interest in school activities when their basic psychological needs are met. 161

5.3 Cognitive Factors in Motivation 163

Learners find some topics inherently interesting. 163

To engage voluntarily in activities, learners want their chances of success to be reasonably good. 165

When learners think their chances of success are slim, they may behave in ways that make success even less likely. 166

Learners are more likely to devote time to activities that have value for them. 167

Learners typically form goals related to their academic achievement; the specific nature of these goals influences learners' cognitive processes and behaviors. 169

Learners must juggle their achievement goals with their many other goals. 171

Learners identify what are, in their minds, the likely causes of their successes and failures. 172

Learners' attributions for past successes and failures affect their future performance. 174

Learners' attributions are affected by their teachers' attributions and resulting expectations for students' performance. 176

With age, learners increasingly attribute their successes and failures to ability rather than to effort. 177

Over time, learners acquire a general attributional style. 177

Culture influences the cognitive factors underlying motivation. 179

5.4 Affect and Its Effects on Motivation and Learning 181

- Affect and motivation are interrelated.* 181
- Affect is closely tied to learning and cognition.* 181
- Productive affect can trigger effective learning strategies.* 183
- Affect can also trigger certain behaviors.* 183
- Some anxiety is helpful, but a lot is often a hindrance.* 183
- Different cultures nurture different emotional responses.* 184

5.5 Promoting Motivation and Productive Affect 187**Strategies That Empower Students 188**

- Give students control over some aspects of classroom life.* 188
- Evaluate students' performance in a noncontrolling manner.* 189
- Use extrinsic reinforcers when necessary, but do so in ways that preserve students' sense of autonomy.* 189
- Ask students to set some personal goals for learning and performance.* 190

Strategies That Demonstrate the Usefulness of Activities 191

- Explicitly relate class activities to students' existing values and goals.* 191
- Create conditions that foster internalization of values essential for students' long-term academic and professional success.* 191

Strategies That Foster Success 191

- Protect and enhance students' self-efficacy and overall sense of competence and self-worth.* 191
- Present challenges that students can realistically accomplish.* 192
- Form and communicate optimistic expectations and attributions.* 193
- Minimize competition.* 194
- Focus students' attention more on mastery goals than on performance goals.* 195

Strategies That Stimulate Interest 196

- Conduct interest-arousing lessons and activities.* 196
- Relate activities to students' individual interests.* 197

Strategies That Show and Promote Caring 198

- Show students that you like them and are concerned about their well-being.* 198
- Provide regular opportunities for students to interact productively with one another.* 198

Strategies That Generate Productive Affect for Learning 198

- Get students emotionally involved in the subject matter.* 198
- Foster emotion regulation.* 199
- Keep anxiety at a low to moderate level.* 200

As students make the transition to middle school or high school, make an extra effort to minimize their anxiety and address their need for relatedness. 200

Summary 202**Practice For Your Licensure Exam 203****6 Cognitive Development 204****Case Study: Hidden Treasure 205****6.1 General Principles of Development 206**

- The sequence of development is somewhat predictable.* 206
- Children develop at different rates.* 206
- Development is often marked by spurts and plateaus.* 208
- Development involves both quantitative and qualitative changes.* 208
- Heredity and environment interact in their effects on development.* 209
- Children's own behaviors also influence their development.* 209

6.2 Developmental Processes 210

- The brain continues to develop throughout childhood, adolescence, and adulthood.* 210
- Children have a natural tendency to organize their experiences.* 212
- Children are naturally inclined to make sense of and adapt to their environment.* 212
- Development builds on prior acquisitions.* 213
- Observations of the physical environment—and, ideally, frequent interactions with it—promote development.* 213
- Language development facilitates cognitive development.* 213
- Interactions with other people promote development.* 214
- Formal schooling promotes development.* 214
- Inconsistencies between existing understandings and new events promote development.* 215
- Challenging tasks promote development.* 216

6.3 Trends in Cognitive Development 217

- Children's growing working memory capacity enables them to handle increasingly complex cognitive tasks.* 217
- Children's growing knowledge base enhances their ability to learn new things.* 217
- Children's knowledge, beliefs, and thinking processes become increasingly integrated.* 217
- Thinking becomes increasingly logical during the elementary school years.* 218
- Thinking becomes increasingly abstract in the middle school and secondary school years.* 219

Several logical thinking processes important for mathematical and scientific reasoning improve considerably during adolescence. 220

Children can think more logically and abstractly about tasks and topics they know well. 221

True expertise comes only after many years of study and practice. 223

6.4 Intelligence 224

Intelligence can be measured only imprecisely at best. 225

To some degree, intelligence reflects the general speed, efficiency, and control of cognitive processing. 226

Intelligence also involves numerous specific processes and abilities. 226

Learners may be more intelligent in some domains than in others. 227

Intelligence is a product of both inherited characteristics and environmental influences. 228

Intelligence may take different forms at different age levels. 229

Learners may have specific cognitive styles and dispositions that predispose them to think and act in more or less intelligent ways. 229

Learners act more intelligently when they have physical or social support for their efforts. 232

6.5 Addressing Students’ Developmental Needs 233

Accommodating Developmental Differences and Diversity 233

Explore students’ reasoning with problem-solving tasks and probing questions. 233

Interpret intelligence test results cautiously. 235

Look for signs of exceptional abilities and talents. 235

Consult with specialists if children show significant delays in development. 236

Fostering Cognitive Development in All Students 238

Encourage play activities. 238

Share the wisdom of previous generations. 239

Rely heavily on concrete objects and activities, especially in the early elementary grades. 239

Present abstract ideas more frequently in the middle school and high school grades, but tie them to concrete objects and events. 240

Initially introduce sophisticated reasoning processes within the context of familiar situations and group work. 240

Scaffold students’ early efforts at challenging tasks and assignments. 243

Involve students in age-appropriate ways in adult activities. 244

Be optimistic that with appropriate guidance and support, all students can perform more intelligently. 245

Summary 247

Practice For Your Licensure Exam 248

7 Personal, Social, and Moral Development 250

Case Study: The School Play 251

7.1 Personality and Sense of Self 252

Heredity and environment interact to shape personality. 252

Despite some relatively stable personality traits, children often behave somewhat differently in different contexts. 253

Behaviors related to self-control are at least partly the result of brain development. 254

As children grow older, they construct increasingly multifaceted understandings of who they are as people. 254

With age, self-perceptions become more realistic, abstract, and stable. 255

As children reach puberty, they understand that they are unique individuals, but they may overestimate their uniqueness. 256

Self-perceptions influence children’s behaviors, and vice versa. 257

Other people’s behaviors affect children’s sense of self. 257

Group memberships also affect children’s sense of self. 258

Gender plays a significant role in most children’s sense of self. 258

Despite the influence of others, growing children define and socialize themselves to a considerable degree. 260

7.2 Peer Relationships 261

Peer relationships promote personal, social, and academic development in ways that adult–child relationships often cannot. 261

Peers help define “appropriate” ways of behaving. 262

On average, boys and girls interact with peers in distinctly different ways. 262

Social groups become increasingly important in adolescence. 263

Romantic relationships in adolescence can provide valuable practice for the intimate relationships of adulthood. 264

Truly popular children have good social skills. 265

In recent decades, digital technologies have provided new mechanisms for interacting with peers. 266

Social Cognition 266

As children get older, they become increasingly aware of other people’s thoughts and feelings. 267

Children’s cognitive processes in social situations influence their behaviors toward others. 268

Aggressive behavior is often the result of counterproductive cognitive processes. 268

7.3 Moral and Prosocial Development 270

Children begin applying internal standards for behavior at a very early age. 271

Children increasingly distinguish between moral and conventional transgressions. 271

Children's capacity to respond emotionally to other people's misfortunes and distress increases throughout the school years. 271

With age, reasoning about moral issues becomes increasingly abstract and flexible. 273

Challenges to current moral perspectives can promote advancement toward more sophisticated reasoning. 275

Cognition, affect, and motivation all influence moral and prosocial behavior. 275

Moral values become an important part of some young people's sense of self. 277

7.4 Promoting Personal, Social, and Moral Development 278**Fostering Personal Development 278**

Accommodate students' diverse temperaments. 278

Help students get a handle on who they are and who they want to become. 278

Create a warm, supportive environment with clear standards for behavior and explanations of why some behaviors are unacceptable. 280

Channel adolescents' risk-taking tendencies into safe activities. 280

Encouraging Effective Social Cognition and Interpersonal Skills 281

Foster perspective taking and empathy. 281

Talk with students about what it really means to be popular. 282

Provide frequent opportunities for social interaction and cooperation. 283

Explicitly teach social skills to students who have trouble interacting effectively with others. 283

Explain what bullying is and why it cannot be tolerated. 284

Be alert for incidents of bullying and other forms of aggression, and take appropriate actions with both the victims and the perpetrators. 285

Explicitly discourage inappropriate communications and postings via cell phones and the Internet. 286

Promote understanding, communication, and interaction among diverse groups. 286

Promoting Moral Reasoning and Prosocial Behavior 287

Expose students to numerous models of moral and prosocial behavior. 287

Engage students in discussions of social and moral issues. 287

Discourage all forms of cheating. 288

Get students actively involved in community service. 289

7.5 Supporting Students Who Face Exceptional Personal or Social Challenges 290

Be on the lookout for exceptional challenges that students may have previously faced or are currently facing at home. 290

Identify additional supportive strategies and services for students who are homeless. 291

Also be on the lookout for students who appear to be social outcasts. 292

Provide extra support and guidance for students who have disabilities that affect their personal or social functioning. 292

Know the warning signs of severe depression and possible suicide. 293

Intervene early and often with students who are at risk for dropping out of school. 294

Summary 296**Practice For Your Licensure Exam 297****8 Instructional Strategies 300****Case Study: Westward Expansion 301****8.1 Planning Instruction 302**

Begin by identifying what students should ultimately know and be able to do. 302

Align long-term instructional goals with appropriate standards for various content domains. 303

Include goals and objectives at varying levels of complexity and sophistication. 305

Ask students to identify some of their own goals for instruction. 306

Break complex tasks and topics into smaller pieces, identify a logical sequence for the pieces, and decide how best to teach each one. 306

Consider how you might best get and keep students actively engaged in instructional activities. 308

Develop step-by-step lesson plans. 309

Create a class website to share goals and facilitate communication throughout the school year. 310

8.2 Conducting Teacher-Directed Instruction 311

Begin with what students already know and believe. 311

Encourage and support effective cognitive processes. 311

Intermingle explanations with examples and opportunities for practice. 312

Take advantage of well-designed instructional software and Internet websites. 313

Ask a lot of questions. 315

Extend the school day with age-appropriate homework assignments. 316

Shoot for mastery of basic knowledge and skills. 318

8.3 Conducting Learner-Directed Instruction 320

- Have students discuss issues that lend themselves to multiple perspectives, explanations, or approaches. 320*
- Create a classroom atmosphere conducive to open debate and the constructive evaluation of ideas. 321*
- Conduct activities in which students must depend on one another for their learning. 322*
- Have students conduct their own research about certain topics. 323*
- Have students teach one another. 325*
- Use computer technology to enhance communication and collaboration. 327*
- Assign authentic real-world tasks and simulations, perhaps as group activities. 327*
- When real-world tasks and simulations are impractical or impossible, consider using computer-based simulations and games. 328*
- Provide sufficient scaffolding to ensure successful accomplishment of assigned tasks. 329*

8.4 General Instructional Strategies 330

- Take group differences into account. 331*
- Consider how you might productively modify or supplement instructional strategies for the benefit of English language learners in your classroom. 333*
- Also take developmental levels, individual differences, and special educational needs into account. 333*
- Combine several instructional approaches into a single lesson. 335*

Summary 337

Practice for Your Licensure Exam 338

9 Strategies for Creating Effective Classroom and School Environments 340

Case Study: A Contagious Situation 341

9.1 Creating an Environment Conducive to Learning 342

- Arrange the classroom to maximize attention and minimize disruptions. 342*
- Communicate caring and respect for every student. 343*
- Work hard to improve relationships that have gotten off to a bad start. 344*
- Create a sense of community and belongingness. 345*
- Create a goal-oriented and businesslike (but nonthreatening) atmosphere. 345*
- Establish reasonable rules and procedures. 346*
- Enforce rules consistently and equitably. 348*
- Keep students productively engaged in worthwhile tasks. 348*

Plan for transitions. 349

Take individual and developmental differences into account. 350

Continually monitor what students are doing. 350

9.2 Expanding the Sense of Community Beyond the Classroom 353

- Collaborate with colleagues to create an overall sense of school community. 353*
- Work cooperatively with other agencies that play key roles in students' lives. 354*
- Communicate regularly with parents and other primary caregivers. 354*
- Invite families to participate in the academic and social life of the school. 356*
- Make an extra effort with seemingly "reluctant" parents. 356*

9.3 Reducing Unproductive Behaviors 357

- Consider whether instructional strategies or classroom assignments might be partly to blame for off-task behaviors. 358*
- Consider whether cultural background might influence students' classroom behaviors. 359*
- Ignore misbehaviors that are temporary, minor, and unlikely to be repeated or copied. 360*
- Give signals and reminders about what is and is not appropriate. 360*
- Get students' perspectives about their behaviors. 361*
- Teach self-regulation techniques. 363*
- When administering punishment, use only those consequences that have been shown to be effective in reducing problem behaviors. 364*
- Confer with parents. 367*
- To address a chronic problem, plan and carry out a systematic intervention. 368*
- Determine whether certain undesirable behaviors might serve particular purposes for students. 371*

9.4 Addressing Aggression and Violence at School 374

- Make the creation of a nonviolent school environment a long-term effort. 375*
- Intervene early for students at risk. 376*
- Provide intensive intervention for students in trouble. 376*
- Take additional measures to address gang violence. 377*

Summary 379

Practice For Your Licensure Exam 380

10 Assessment Strategies 382

Case Study: B in History 383

10.1 Using Assessments for Various Purposes 384

- Guiding Instructional Decision Making 385
- Diagnosing Learning and Performance Problems 385

- Determining What Students Have Ultimately Learned from Instruction 386
- Evaluating the Quality of Instruction 386
- Promoting Learning 386
- Assessments can motivate students to study and learn.* 386
 - Assessments can influence students' cognitive processes as they study.* 387
 - Assessment activities can be learning experiences in and of themselves.* 387
 - Assessments can provide feedback about learning progress.* 387
 - Assessments can encourage intrinsic motivation and self-regulation if students play an active role in the assessment process.* 388
- 10.2 Enhancing Learning Through Classroom Assessment Practices 388**
- Through both words and deeds, communicate that promoting learning and mastery—not passing judgment—is the ultimate goal.* 388
 - Make assessment criteria explicit early in the instructional process.* 389
 - Ask students to evaluate their own performance.* 390
 - Assess students' ability to learn new things given varying levels of guidance and support.* 391
 - Take advantage of technology-based formative assessment tools.* 391
- 10.3 Important Qualities of Good Assessment 392**
- A good assessment is reliable.* 393
 - A good assessment is standardized for most students.* 394
 - A good assessment has validity for its purpose.* 395
 - A good assessment is practical.* 399
- 10.4 Informally and Formally Assessing Students' Progress and Achievements 400**
- Conducting Informal Assessments 400
- Observe both verbal and nonverbal behaviors.* 400
 - Ask yourself whether your existing beliefs and expectations might be biasing your judgments.* 401
 - Keep a written record of your observations.* 401
 - Don't take any single observation too seriously; instead, look for patterns over time.* 402
- Designing and Giving Formal Assessments 402
- Get as much information as possible within reasonable time limits.* 402
 - When practical, use authentic tasks.* 403
 - Use paper–pencil assessment tasks when they are consistent with instructional goals.* 404
 - Use performance assessments when necessary to ensure validity.* 405
 - Define tasks clearly, and give students some structure to guide their responses.* 407
- Carefully scrutinize items and tasks for characteristics that might put some groups at an unfair disadvantage.* 409
 - When giving tests, encourage students to do their best, but don't arouse a lot of anxiety.* 410
 - Establish conditions for the assessment that enable students to maximize their performance.* 411
 - Take reasonable steps to discourage cheating.* 412
- Evaluating Students' Performance on Formal Assessments 413
- After students have completed an assessment, review evaluation criteria to be sure they can adequately guide scoring.* 413
 - Be as objective as possible.* 413
 - Make note of any significant aspects of a student's performance that predetermined scoring criteria don't address.* 414
 - When determining overall scores, don't compare students to one another unless there is a compelling reason to do so.* 414
 - Accompany any test scores with specific, constructive feedback.* 415
 - Make allowances for risk taking and the occasional "bad day."* 415
 - Respect students' right to privacy.* 416
- 10.5 Summarizing Students' Achievement with Grades and Portfolios 417**
- Base final grades largely on final achievement levels and hard data.* 418
 - Use many assessments to determine final grades, but don't count everything.* 418
 - Share grading criteria with students, and keep students continually apprised of their progress.* 418
 - Keep parents in the loop.* 419
 - Accompany grades with descriptions of what the grades reflect.* 420
 - Also accompany grades with qualitative information about students' performance.* 420
 - Use portfolios to show complex skills or improvements over time.* 421
- 10.6 Assessing Students' Achievement and Abilities with Standardized Tests 424**
- High-Stakes Tests and Accountability 426
- Using Standardized Achievement Tests Judiciously 427
- When you have a choice in the test you use, choose one that has high validity for your curriculum and students.* 427
 - Teach to the test if—but only if—it reflects important instructional goals.* 427
 - When preparing students for an upcoming standardized test, tell them what the test will be like and teach them good test-taking skills.* 428

When administering the test, follow the directions closely and report any unusual circumstances. 428

Make appropriate accommodations for English language learners. 428

When interpreting test results, take students' ages and developmental levels into account. 429

If tests are being used to measure teacher or school effectiveness, advocate for a focus on students' improvement over time rather than on age-group averages. 429

Never use a single test score to make important decisions about students. 430

[Summary 431](#)

[Practice For Your Licensure Exam 432](#)

[Appendix A: Describing Associations with Correlation Coefficients A-1](#)

[Appendix B: Understanding and Interpreting Standardized Test Results B-1](#)

[Glossary G-1](#)

[References R-1](#)

[Name Index N-1](#)

[Subject Index S-1](#)

ESSENTIALS OF
**EDUCATIONAL
PSYCHOLOGY**

BIG IDEAS TO GUIDE EFFECTIVE TEACHING



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1

Introduction to Educational Psychology

Big Ideas to Master in this Chapter

- 1.1** Effective teachers use research findings and research-based theories to make decisions about instructional strategies, classroom management, and assessment practices.
- 1.2** Effective teachers continually work to enhance their professional knowledge and skills.
- 1.3** Learners read, study, and learn more efficiently when they plan appropriately and use effective strategies.

CASE STUDY: THE “NO D” POLICY

Anne Smith is a ninth-grade English teacher with 10 years of teaching experience, and by all accounts she’s an excellent teacher. Even so, in previous years many of her students haven’t invested much time or energy in their writing assignments and seemingly haven’t been bothered by the Cs and Ds they’ve earned in her classes. In an effort to more fully engage this year’s students in their schoolwork, Ms. Smith begins the school year by initiating two new policies. First, to pass her course, students must earn at least a C; she won’t give anyone a final grade of D. Second, students will have multiple opportunities to revise and resubmit assignments. She’ll give whatever feedback students need on the assignments—and, if necessary, one-on-one instruction—to help them improve their work. She solicits students’ questions and concerns about the new policies, gains their agreement to “try something new,” and engages them in a discussion of specific, concrete characteristics of A-quality, B-quality, and C-quality work. Then, as the school year progresses, she regularly administers brief surveys to get students’ feedback about her innovations, asking such questions as “How is the ‘no D’ policy working for you?” “Do you think your grade is an accurate reflection of your learning?” and “Any suggestions?”

Students’ responses on the surveys are overwhelmingly positive. Students mention noticeable improvements in the quality of their writing and increasingly report that they believe themselves to be in control of both their learning and their grades. Furthermore, they begin to see their teacher in a new light—“as one who will help them achieve their best work, not as one who just gives out grades . . . as a coach encouraging them along the long race of learning.” Final course grades also confirm the value of the new policies: A much higher percentage of students earn grades of C or better than has been true in past years.¹

- Effective teachers don’t simply transmit new information and skills to students; they also work hard to help students *master* the information and skills. In the case study just presented, what strategies does Ms. Smith use to foster her students’ writing development?

Teaching other people—especially teaching the generation that will follow you into the adult world—can be one of the most rewarding professions on the planet. It can also be a very challenging profession. Certainly effective teaching involves presenting a topic or skill in such a way that students can understand and master it. Yet it involves many other things as well. For instance, teachers must motivate students to *want* to learn the subject matter, must help students recognize what true mastery involves, and—to appropriately individualize instruction—must assess where each student currently is in his or her learning and development. And, in general, effective teachers create an environment in which students believe that if they work hard and have reasonable support, they can achieve at high levels. In the opening case study, Anne Smith does all of these things.

How children and adolescents think and learn, what knowledge and skills they have and haven’t mastered, where they are in their developmental journeys, what their interests and

CHAPTER OUTLINE

Case Study: The “No D” Policy
Using Research Findings to Make
Instructional Decisions

Developing as a Teacher
Strategies for Learning and
Studying Effectively

Summary

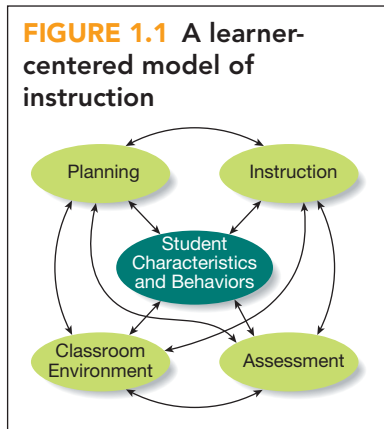
Practice for Your Licensure Exam:
New Software

¹ Action research project described in A. K. Smith, 2009.

priorities are—all of these factors influence the effectiveness of various classroom strategies. Thus, the decisions *teachers* make in the classroom—decisions about what topics and skills to teach (*planning*), how to teach those topics and skills (*instruction*), how to keep students on task and supportive of one another's learning efforts (creating an effective *classroom environment*), and how best to determine what students have learned (*assessment*)—must ultimately depend on students' existing characteristics and behaviors.

Of course, as we saw from Anne Smith in the opening case study, teachers' classroom strategies also change what *students* know, think, and can do. Thus, the relationship between student characteristics and behaviors, on the one hand, and teacher strategies, on the other, is a two-way street. Furthermore, as you'll discover in later chapters, planning, instruction, the classroom environment, and assessment practices influence one another, as depicted in Figure 1.1. Notice how student characteristics and behaviors are at the center of the figure, because these must drive almost everything that teachers do in the classroom. Such an approach to teaching is sometimes known as **learner-centered instruction**.²

The purpose of this book is to help you understand children and adolescents—how they learn and develop, how they're likely to be similar to but also different from one another, what activities and assignments are apt to engage them in the classroom, and so on. It will also give you a toolbox of strategies for planning and carrying out instruction, creating an environment that keeps students motivated and on task, and assessing students' progress and achievement. Such topics are the domain of **educational psychology**, which is an academic discipline that (a) systematically studies the nature of human learning, development, motivation, and related topics and (b) applies its research findings to the identification and development of effective instructional practices. We begin by exploring how teachers can use different types of research findings to make instructional decisions.



1.1 USING RESEARCH FINDINGS TO MAKE INSTRUCTIONAL DECISIONS

Big Idea 1.1 Effective teachers use research findings and research-based theories to make decisions about instructional strategies, classroom management, and assessment practices.

Teachers make instructional decisions based on their prior experiences, advice from others, knowledge and skills they learned in their formal schooling, and so on. Although many of these sources of information are potentially useful to teachers' instructional decisions, effective teachers rely on research findings and research-based theories to inform their practices. In the principles that follow, we discuss why teachers need to understand research, we examine the different types of research conducted by educational psychologists, and we explain how this research can be synthesized and organized to be helpful to teachers.

The effectiveness of various classroom practices can best be determined through systematic research.

You yourself have been a student for many years now, and you've undoubtedly learned a great deal about how individuals learn and develop and about how teachers can foster their learning and development. But exactly how much *do* you know? To help you find out, one of us authors has developed a short pretest titled *Ormrod's Own Psychological Survey (OOPS)*.

² For good general discussions of learner-centered instructional practices, see McCombs, 2005; National Research Council, 2000. You may also want to look at the American Psychological Association's (APA's) 14 *Learner-Centered Psychological Principles* on the APA website at www.apa.org; type "learner-centered principles" in the search box on APA's home page.

SEE FOR YOURSELF

ORMROD'S OWN PSYCHOLOGICAL SURVEY (OOPS)

Decide whether each of the following statements is *true* or *false*.

True/False

- 1. Some children are predominantly left-brain thinkers, whereas others are predominantly right-brain thinkers.
 - 2. The best way to learn and remember a new fact is to repeat it over and over.
 - 3. Students often misjudge how much they know about a topic.
 - 4. Anxiety sometimes helps students learn and perform more successfully in the classroom.
 - 5. Instruction is most effective when it is tailored to students' individual learning styles.
 - 6. Children's personalities are largely the result of their home environments.
 - 7. Playing video games can enhance children's cognitive development.
 - 8. The ways in which teachers assess students' learning influence what and how students actually learn.
-

Now let's see how well you did on the OOPS. The answers, along with an explanation for each one, are as follows:

1. Some children are predominantly left-brain thinkers, whereas others are predominantly right-brain thinkers. FALSE—With the development of new medical technologies in recent years, researchers have learned a great deal about how the human brain works and which parts of it specialize in which aspects of human thinking. As we'll discover in Chapter 2, the two halves, or *hemispheres*, of the brain do seem to have somewhat different specialties, but they continually communicate and collaborate in tackling even the simplest of daily tasks. Practically speaking, there's no such thing as left-brain or right-brain thinking.³

2. The best way to learn and remember a new fact is to repeat it over and over. FALSE—Although repeating new information several times is better than doing nothing at all with it, repetition of specific facts is a relatively *ineffective* way to learn. Students learn new information more easily and remember it longer when they connect it with things they already know. One especially effective strategy is **elaboration**: using prior knowledge to expand or embellish on a new idea in some way, perhaps by drawing inferences from a historical fact, identifying new examples of a scientific concept, or thinking of situations in which a mathematical procedure might be helpful. Chapter 2 describes several cognitive processes that help students learn and remember school subject matter effectively.

3. Students often misjudge how much they know about a topic. TRUE—Contrary to popular opinion, students are usually *not* the best judges of what they do and don't know. For example, many students think that if they've spent a long time studying a textbook chapter, they must know its contents very well. Yet if they've spent most of their study time inefficiently—perhaps by “reading” while thinking about something else altogether or by mindlessly copying definitions—they may know far less than they think they do. We'll consider this *illusion of knowing* further in Chapter 3.

4. Anxiety sometimes helps students learn and perform more successfully in the classroom. TRUE—Many people think that anxiety is always a bad thing. In fact, a little bit of anxiety can actually *improve* learning and performance, especially when students perceive a task to be something they can accomplish with reasonable effort. For instance, a small, manageable amount of anxiety can spur students to complete their work carefully and to study for tests. We'll explore the effects of anxiety and other emotions in Chapter 5.

5. Instruction is most effective when it is tailored to students' individual learning styles. FALSE—Contrary to a popular belief, most measures of supposed “learning styles” merely reflect students' self-reported *preferences*, and tailoring instruction to such preferences doesn't

³Schlegel, Alexander, & Tse, 2016.

noticeably enhance students' learning or academic achievement.⁴ It is far more important that teachers base their instructional practices on knowledge of the cognitive processes that underlie how virtually *all* students think and learn. We'll learn more about students' preferences and *cognitive styles* in Chapter 6.

6. Children's personalities are largely the result of their home environments. FALSE—Certainly children's home environments shape their behaviors to some extent. But heredity also has a significant impact. From birth, infants are noticeably different in the extent to which they're calm or fussy, shy or outgoing, fearful or adventurous, and so on. As we'll see in Chapter 7, such differences in *temperament* appear to have their roots in biology and genetics, and they persist throughout the childhood years and into adulthood.

7. Playing video games can enhance children's cognitive development. TRUE or, more accurately, SOMETIMES TRUE—A great deal of time spent playing video games *instead of* reading, doing homework, and engaging in other school-related activities can definitely interfere with children's long-term academic success. But some video games can be powerful tools for promoting important cognitive abilities, such as spatial abilities and the flexible use of attention.⁵ And educational technologists have increasingly been designing highly motivating video games that simulate real-world problems and foster complex problem-solving skills.⁶ In upcoming chapters (especially Chapter 4 and Chapter 8), we'll examine many ways in which computer technologies can support students' learning and cognitive development.

8. The ways in which teachers assess students' learning influence what and how students actually learn. TRUE—What and how students learn depend, in part, on how they expect their learning to be assessed. For example, in the opening case study, Anne Smith's "No D" and multiple-submission policies encourage students to seek feedback about their work, benefit from their mistakes, and enhance their writing skills. In Chapter 10 we'll look more closely at the potential effects of classroom assessment practices on students' learning.

How many of the OOPS items did you answer correctly? Did some of the false items seem convincing enough that you marked them true? Did some of the true items contradict certain beliefs you had? If either of these was the case, you're hardly alone. College students often agree with statements that seem obvious but are, in fact, partially or completely incorrect.⁷ Furthermore, many students in teacher education classes reject research findings when those findings appear to contradict their personal beliefs and experiences.⁸

It's easy to be persuaded by "common sense" and assume that what seems logical must be true. Yet common sense and logic don't always give us the real scoop about how people actually learn and develop, nor do they always give us appropriate guidance about how best to help students succeed in the classroom. Educational psychologists believe that knowledge about teaching and learning should come from a more objective source of information—that is, from systematic research. Increasingly, educators and policy makers alike are calling for **evidence-based practices**—the use of instructional methods and other classroom strategies that research has consistently shown to bring about significant gains in students' development and academic achievement.⁹

Educational psychologists focus on the scientific study of psychological principles that are relevant to education.

Integrating evidence-based practices into your teaching takes time and practice, of course. But it also takes knowledge of topics within the discipline of educational psychology, including knowledge of human learning and motivation, developmental trends, individual and group differences, classroom assessment and standardized testing, and effective classroom practices. Educational psychologists

⁴Kirschner & van Merriënboer, 2013; Kozhevnikov, Evans, & Kosslyn, 2014; Krätzig & Arbuthnott, 2006; Mayer & Massa, 2003.

⁵Green, 2014; Rothbart, 2011; Tobias & Fletcher, 2011.

⁶Blumberg, 2014; Squire, 2011.

⁷Gage, 1991; L. S. Goldstein & Lake, 2000; Woolfolk Hoy, Davis, & Pape, 2006.

⁸Gregoire, 2003; Holt-Reynolds, 1992; T. M. McDevitt & Ormrod, 2008; Patrick & Pintrich, 2001.

⁹Cook, Smith, & Tankersley, 2012. For example, see Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Waterhouse, 2006.

develop this knowledge by solving problems in the field of education through the use of rigorous scientific methods.¹⁰ Topics in educational psychology are also studied by researchers in closely related disciplines, such as education, instructional design and technology, learning science, cognitive science, and other overlapping areas of psychology (e.g., behavioral, cognitive, developmental, social, and school psychology). In addition, neurologists, cognitive psychologists, and researchers from other disciplines are working together to discover how the *brain* influences people's behavior and learning and, conversely, how people's behavior and learning experiences can influence brain development. This rapidly expanding field, known as *cognitive neuroscience*, is making many noteworthy contributions to our understanding of human learning. As Figure 1.2 shows, educational psychology informs and is informed by many different disciplines.

One way that individuals contribute to the field of educational psychology is to publish their research findings in academic journals and books. Many educational psychologists also belong to regional, national, and international organizations to share their research and discuss ideas with others (see Figure 1.3 for examples). We authors synthesized much of this research in developing the Big Ideas presented in this book.

When educational psychologists write about and present their research, they identify the particular research articles, books, conference presentations, and other sources on which they base their claims. Most educational psychology publications and conferences require authors to follow **APA style**, guidelines prescribed by the American Psychological Association for identifying sources and preparing references.¹¹ In APA style, a source is cited by presenting the author(s) and date of publication in the body of the text. For example, this sentence from a prior paragraph would be cited as follows in APA style: College students often agree with statements that seem obvious but are, in fact, partially or completely incorrect (Gage, 1991; Goldstein & Lake, 2000; Woolfolk Hoy, Davis, & Pape, 2006). In this book, we've intentionally deviated from APA style by presenting the references in footnotes. We hope this style will help you focus on the *ideas* instead of on the names and dates provided in the references. But when you find some of the book's ideas especially interesting, exciting, or surprising, we urge you to read the footnoted sources firsthand by finding the detailed citations in the book's References list.

FIGURE 1.2 Educational psychology informs and is informed by other disciplines.

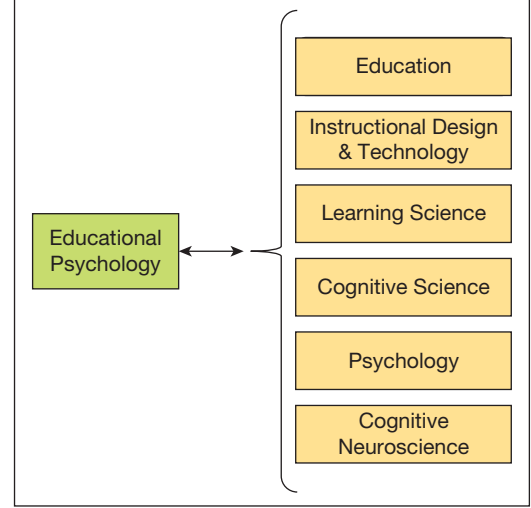


FIGURE 1.3 Examples of organizations that represent educational psychology

Organizations	Website URL
American Educational Research Association (AERA)	http://aera.net/
American Psychological Association (APA)	http://www.apa.org/
Association for Psychological Science (APS)	http://www.psychologicalscience.org/
International Society of the Learning Sciences (ISLS)	https://www.isls.org/

Research can provide quantitative information, qualitative information, or both.

Many research studies involve **quantitative research**: They yield numbers that reflect percentages, frequencies, or averages related to certain characteristics or phenomena. For example, a quantitative study might provide information about students' scores on achievement tests, students' responses to rating-scale questionnaires, or school district records of students' attendance and dropout rates.

Other studies involve **qualitative research**: They yield nonnumeric data—perhaps in the form of verbal reports, written documents, pictures, or maps—that capture many aspects of a complex situation. For example, a qualitative study might involve lengthy interviews in which students describe their hopes for the future, a detailed case study of interpersonal relationships within a tight-knit clique of adolescent girls, or in-depth observations of several teachers who create distinctly different psychological atmospheres in their classrooms.

¹⁰ Harris, Graham, & Urdan, 2012; Reynolds & Miller, 2013.

¹¹ For more information on APA style, see its *Publication Manual* (APA, 2010) or visit www.apastyle.org

Table 1.1 • Contrasting Various Types of Research

	QUALITATIVE RESEARCH		QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH	
	Descriptive Studies	Descriptive Studies	Correlational Studies	Experimental and Quasi-Experimental Studies
General Nature and Purposes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Portray the complex, multifaceted nature of human behavior, especially in real-world social settings 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Capture the current state of affairs regarding a real-world issue or problem 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identify associations among characteristics, behaviors, and/or environmental conditions Enable predictions about one variable, given knowledge of the degree or quantity of another variable Provide an alternative when experimental manipulations are unethical or impossible 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Manipulate one (independent) variable in order to observe its possible effect on another (dependent) variable Eliminate other plausible explanations for observed outcomes (especially in carefully controlled experimental studies) Enable conclusions about cause-and-effect relationships
Limitations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Don't enable either predictions or conclusions about cause-and-effect relationships 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Don't enable either (1) predictions about one variable based on another variable or (2) conclusions about cause-and-effect relationships 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Enable only imprecise predictions, with many exceptions to the general relationships observed Don't enable conclusions about cause-and-effect relationships 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> May not completely eliminate alternative explanations for observed outcomes (especially true for quasi-experimental studies) In some cases, involve artificial laboratory conditions that don't resemble real-life learning environments (true for many tightly controlled experimental studies)
Examples of Questions That Might Be Addressed	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> What things do high-achieving students say they do "in their heads" when they read and study their textbooks? What distinct qualities characterize high schools in which members of various adolescent gangs interact congenially and respectfully? In what ways do teachers' instructional practices change when their jobs and salaries depend on their students' scores on statewide or national achievement tests? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> How pervasive are gender stereotypes in popular children's literature? What kinds of aggressive behaviors occur in schools, and with what frequencies? How well have students performed on a recent national achievement test? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Are better readers also better spellers? Are students more likely to be aggressive at school if they often see violence at home or in their neighborhoods? To what extent are students' class grades correlated with their scores on achievement tests? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Which of two reading programs produces greater gains in reading comprehension? Which method is most effective in reducing aggressive behavior—reinforcing appropriate behavior, punishing aggressive behavior, or a combination of both? Do different kinds of tests (e.g., multiple-choice vs. essay tests) encourage students to study in different ways?

Ultimately educators gain a better understanding of students and effective classroom practices when they consider findings from *both* quantitative and qualitative research. Research that includes both quantitative and qualitative elements is called **mixed methods research**.¹² For example, in the research project described in the opening case study, Anne Smith tabulates students' responses to various survey questions and computes the percentages of various final class grades—all of which are quantitative information. But when she collects students' completed surveys, she also looks closely at their specific comments and suggestions, which provide qualitative information.

Different kinds of research lead to different kinds of conclusions.

In addition to yielding either quantitative or qualitative data (or both), research studies typically fall into one of four general categories: descriptive, correlational, experimental, or quasi-experimental. These various kinds of studies enable different kinds of conclusions and are appropriate for different types of research questions (see Table 1.1).

¹²Creswell, 2014.

A **descriptive study** does exactly what its name implies: It *describes* a situation. Descriptive studies might give us information about the characteristics of students, teachers, or schools. They might also provide information about how frequently certain events or behaviors occur. Descriptive studies allow us to draw conclusions about the way things are—the current state of affairs. Virtually all qualitative studies are primarily descriptive in nature, and some quantitative studies fall into the descriptive category as well.

A **correlational study** explores possible relationships among two or more variables. For example, it might tell us how closely various human characteristics are associated with each other, or it might give us information about the consistency with which certain human behaviors occur in conjunction with certain environmental conditions. In general, correlational studies enable us to draw conclusions about **correlation**: the extent to which two characteristics or phenomena tend to be found together or to change together. Two variables are correlated when one increases as the other increases (a *positive correlation*) or when one *decreases* as the other increases (a *negative correlation*) in a somewhat predictable manner. The bottom row of the fourth column in Table 1.1 presents three examples of possible correlational relationships: those between (1) reading and spelling ability, (2) aggressive behavior at school and violence at home, and (3) class grades and achievement test scores. Correlations are often described numerically with statistics known as *correlation coefficients*, described in Appendix A.

If a correlation exists between two variables, knowing the status of one variable allows us to make *predictions* about the other variable. For example, if we find a positive correlation between reading ability and spelling ability, we can predict that, on average, students who are proficient readers will also be good spellers. Our predictions will be imprecise at best, with exceptions to the general rule; for instance, we may occasionally see very good readers who are poor spellers. A more significant limitation of correlational studies is that although they may demonstrate that a relationship exists, they never tell us for certain *why* it exists. They don't tell us what specific factors—previous experiences, personality, motivation, or perhaps other things we haven't thought of—are the cause of the relationship we see. In other words, *correlation does not necessarily indicate causation*.

Descriptive and correlational studies describe things as they exist naturally in the environment. In contrast, an **experimental study**, or **experiment**, is a study in which the researcher somehow changes, or *manipulates*, one or more aspects of the environment (called *independent variables*) and then measures the effects of such changes on something else (called the *dependent variable*). In educational research the dependent variable is often some aspect of student behavior—perhaps end-of-year grades, skill in executing a complex physical movement, persistence in tackling difficult math problems, or ability to interact appropriately with peers.¹³ In a good experiment a researcher *separates and controls variables*, testing the possible effects of one variable while keeping constant all other potentially influential variables. When carefully designed and conducted, experimental studies enable us to draw conclusions about causation—about what variables cause or influence certain other variables.

Often experimental studies involve two or more groups that are treated differently. Consider these examples:

- A researcher uses two different instructional methods to teach reading comprehension skills to two different groups of students. (Instructional method is the independent variable.) The researcher then assesses students' reading ability (the dependent variable) and compares the average reading-ability scores of the two groups.
- A researcher gives three different groups of students varying amounts of practice with woodworking skills. (Amount of practice is the independent variable.) The researcher subsequently scores the quality of each student's woodworking project (the dependent variable) and compares the average scores of the three groups.
- A researcher gives one group of students an intensive instructional program designed to improve their study skills. The researcher gives another group of students no instruction and gives a third group instruction in subject matter unrelated to study skills. (Presence

¹³ You might think of the distinction this way: Student behavior (the dependent variable) *depends* on instructional practice or some other aspect of the environment (the independent variable).