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INTRODUCTION TO PSYCHOLOGY AND PEDAGOGY

Study guide

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as a study guide for foreign students, mastering educational programs of higher education for
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The study guide reveals the basic theoretical information on psychology and pedagogy according to the first section of academic program of the discipline “Psychology and pedagogy”. At the end of each section of this study guide review questions, topics for presentation, and test tasks are provided for the purpose of mastering the studied material, preparing for discussions and self-control.

The study guide is intended for foreign students, mastering educational programs of higher education for specialists in Dentistry in the course of studying “Psychology and pedagogy” as an academic discipline.

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INTRODUCTION

“Introduction to psychology and pedagogy” is the first section of academic program of the discipline “Psychology and pedagogy”. The main task of given study guide is to help students master theoretical knowledge of basic principles of these sciences. The study guide consists of two theoretical sections:

1. Introducing psychology
2. Introducing pedagogy

The first section is devoted to the basic terms and principles of psychology as a science. It defines the psychology, reveals the major methods of study used in psychology, describes its brief history and approaches, provides the underlying issues on fields of psychology. It contains information about psychology research ethics and the use of psychology in medical practice.

The second section is related to the study of fundamental principles of pedagogy as a science. It defines pedagogy, education, and main pedagogical terms, reveals the objective and content of education, gives brief description of historical development of educational objectives and content of education, provides information about the components of education and patient education.

At the end of each section review questions, topics for presentation, and test tasks are provided for the purpose of mastering studied material, preparing for discussions and self-control.

The study guide meets the requirements of the Federal State Educational Standards of Higher Education and the academic program of the discipline “Psychology and Pedagogy”. It is assigned for foreign students mastering educational programs for specialists in Dentistry. It can be used both in classroom and for independent out-of-class work.

Section 1. INTRODUCING PSYCHOLOGY

1.1 What is psychology

Psychology is the scientific study of mind and behavior. The word “psychology” comes from the Greek word “psyche” meaning life, and “logos” meaning explanation. Psychology includes the study of conscious and unconscious phenomena, as well as feeling and thought. It is an academic discipline of immense scope. Psychologists seek an understanding of the emergent properties of brains, and all the variety of phenomena linked to those emergent properties, joining this way the broader neuro-scientific group of researchers. As a social science, it aims to understand individuals and groups by establishing general principles and researching specific cases.

In this field, a professional practitioner or researcher is called a psychologist and can be classified as a social, behavioral, or cognitive scientist. Psychologists attempt to understand the role of mental functions in individual and social behavior, while also exploring the physiological and biological processes that underlie cognitive functions and behaviors.

Psychologists explore behavior and mental processes, including perception, cognition, attention, emotion, intelligence, subjective experiences, motivation, brain functioning, and personality. This extends to interaction between people, such as interpersonal relationships, including psychological resilience, family resilience, and other areas. Psychologists of diverse orientations also consider the unconscious mind.

Psychologists employ empirical methods to infer causal and correlational relationships between psychosocial variables. In addition, or in opposition, to employing empirical and deductive methods, some—especially clinical and counseling psychologists—at times rely upon symbolic interpretation and other inductive techniques. Psychology has been described as a "hub science" in that medicine tends to draw psychological research via neurology and psychiatry, whereas social sciences most commonly draws directly from sub-disciplines within psychology.

While psychological knowledge is often applied to the assessment and treatment of mental health problems, it is also directed towards understanding and solving problems in several spheres of human activity. By many accounts psychology ultimately aims to benefit society. The majority of psychologists are involved in some kind of therapeutic role, practicing in clinical, counseling, or school settings. Many do scientific research on a wide range of topics related to mental processes and behavior, and typically work in university psychology departments or teach in other academic settings (e.g., medical schools, hospitals). Some are employed in industrial and organizational settings, or in other areas such as human development and aging, sports, health, and the media, as well as in forensic investigation and other aspects of law.

1.2 Methods of Study in Psychology

Despite the differences in their interests, areas of study, and approaches, all psychologists have one thing in common: they rely on scientific methods. Research psychologists use scientific methods to create new knowledge about the causes of behavior, whereas psychologist-practitioners, such as clinical, counseling, industrial-organizational, and school psychologists, use existing research to improve the everyday life of others. The science of psychology is important for both researchers and practitioners.

All scientists, whether they are physicists, chemists, biologists, sociologists, or psychologists, use empirical methods to study the topics that interest them. *Empirical methods* include the processes of collecting and organizing data and drawing conclusions about those data. The empirical methods used by scientists have developed over many years and provide a basis for collecting, analyzing, and interpreting data within a common framework in which information can be shared. We can label the scientific method as the set of assumptions, rules, and procedures that scientists use to conduct empirical research.

The Primary Methods of Study in Psychology are:

- Experimental Methods

- Naturalistic Observation
- Case Study
- Survey
- Psychological Testing
- Introspection
- Statistical
- Evidence Based

Experimental Methods

The Scientific Method acquires new knowledge to integrate observations. Fundamental to this approach is the formation of a Hypothesis, which is a testable form of an occurrence or phenomenon. Experiments then prove or disprove the proposed hypothesis.

A *Theory* can be defined as a general principle proposed to explain how a number of separate facts are related.

Every Experiment Has Two Types of *Variables*: Independent Variable – the variable that is manipulated by the experimenter (input variable) and Dependent Variable – the outcome variable (results of the experiment).

Naturalistic Observation

Naturalistic Observation is the monitoring of behavior in a natural environment. It often involves counting behaviors, such as number of aggressive acts, number of smiles, etc. Advantages: This method of study of behavior being observed is naturally occurring, meaning that there is no manipulation by a researcher. Furthermore, it can provide more qualitative data as opposed to merely quantitative information.

Limitations: There are limitations present in naturalistic observation as well. Even the presence of someone observing can cause those being observed to alter their behavior. Researcher's beliefs can also alter their observations; it is very difficult to coordinate multiple observers since observed behaviors must be operationally defined (e.g. what constitutes an aggressive act).

Case Study

A Case Study is the observation of a single case, typically over an extended period of time. This method can involve naturalistic observations in addition to psychological testing, interviews with the subject and others that are related to the experiment, and the application of a treatment. Advantages: A case study can gather extensive information, both qualitative and quantitative and it can be helpful in better understanding rare cases or very specific interventions

Limitations: Only one case is involved, severely limiting the generalization to the rest of the population. It can also be very time consuming and can involve other problems specific to the techniques used, including researcher bias.

Survey

Darwin and Galton are credited for the origins of the Survey Method. Survey is a technique for gathering information from a large number of users. This method is a way to investigate ideas, attitudes, and other responses in a large sample population. Survey may be conducted through a short paper-and-pencil feedback form, telephone, mail, or by intensive interviews. The steps in designing and conducting a survey can be listed as follows:

- Set the goals - What do you want to capture?
- Decide the target population and sample size - Who will you ask?
- Determine the questions - What will you ask?
- Pre-test the survey - Test the questions.
- Conduct the survey - Ask the questions.
- Analyze the data collected - Produce the report.

To analyze the data in order to make conclusions, it is very important to compare results with norms. Norms are set by a large number of subjects and vary from population to population. What is considered to be a normal behavior in one society may be very different in another.

Advantages: A survey can gather large amounts of information in a relatively short period of time, especially with many surveys now being conducted on the internet.

Limitations: Survey data is based solely on subjects' responses, which can be inaccurate due to outright lying, misunderstanding of the question, the placebo effect, or even the manner in which the question is asked.

Psychological Testing

Psychological Testing is the acquisition of data regarding a subject's behavior to learn about the mental state of the individual.

Advantages: Most tests are normalized and standardized, which means they provide reliable and valid results. Psychological test provide information to compliment therapy or enhance employment opportunities.

Limitations: Tests which are not reliable and valid produce inaccurate results.

Types of Psychological Testing:

- **Intelligence and Achievement Tests** - These tests are designed to measure specific cognitive functioning such as Intelligence, often referred as Intelligence Quotient (IQ) and the extent of learning (Achievement test). Tests, such as the Wexler Adult Intelligence Scale IV edition (WAIS-IV), measures general knowledge, verbal skill, memory, attention span, logical reasoning, and visual/spatial perception. Many tests have been developed to identify academic competence.
- **Personality Tests** - Personality tests describe patterns of behavior, thoughts, and feelings that are not directly available during clinical interview or evaluation. They generally fall within two categories: objective and projective. Objective Measures, such as the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI), are based on restricted answers—such as yes/no, true/false, or a rating scale—which allow for the computation of scores that can then be compared to a normative group. Projective tests, such as the Rorschach Inkblot Test allow for open-ended answers, based on ambiguous stimuli, revealing unconscious psychological dynamics.
- **Neuropsychological Tests** - These tests measure psychological functions linked to a particular brain structure. The instruments are used to assess impairment due to injury, or illness which affect neurocognitive functioning.

Introspection

Introspection is the self-observation and reporting of conscious inner thoughts, desires, and sensations. It is a conscious mental and usually purposive process relying on thinking, reasoning, and examining one's own thoughts, feelings, and in more spiritual cases, one's soul. Introspection may be used synonymously with self-reflection and used in a similar way. This was a central component to the early days of psychology during the Structuralist period. Wundt and other psychologists had people introspect and then report on their feelings, thoughts, etc.

Statistical method

When conducting research, psychologist need statistics to analyze data to support the hypothesis.

Research Biases

To ensure that what is being observed in an experiment is indeed what is occurring, certain precautions must be taken in an attempt to minimize the effects of research biases. Research Biases are aspects of research that can alter or contaminate the results.

Types of Research Bias:

- Selection Bias – Occurs when differences between groups are present at the beginning of the experiment.
- Placebo Effect – Involves the influencing of performance due to the subject's belief regarding the results. In other words, if a subject were to believe that a certain medication is effective, any medication given could result in the subject claiming to feel better, even if only a sugar pill is given. This demonstrates the power of the mind to change a person's perceptions of reality.
- Experimenter Bias – The same way a subject's beliefs can influence his/her perception, so can the beliefs of the experimenter. If an experimenter is convinced of his/her treatment, or if the treatment may result in a positive outcome for the experimenter if found to have a certain outcome (i.e., monetary reward, fame) then one must be cautious of this bias, which may influence the outcome of the experiment.

- Controlling for Biases - After carefully reviewing a study and determining what factors may unintentionally affect the results, these biases must be controlled for. To control for selection bias, most experiments use what's called Random Assignment, which means assigning the subjects to each group based on chance rather than human decision. To control for the placebo effect, subjects are often not informed of the purpose of the experiment. This is called a Blind study because the subjects are not aware of the expected results. To control for experimenter biases, a Double-Blind study can be utilized, which means that both the experimenter and the subjects are blind to the purpose and anticipated results of the study.

1.3 The Evolution of Psychology: brief History and Approaches

Early Psychologists

The earliest psychologists that we know about are the Greek philosophers *Plato* (428–347 BC) and *Aristotle* (384–322 BC). These philosophers asked many of the same questions that today's psychologists ask; for instance, they questioned the distinction between nature and nurture and the existence of free will. In terms of the former, Plato argued on the nature side, believing that certain kinds of knowledge are innate or inborn, whereas Aristotle was more on the nurture side, believing that each child is born as an “empty slate” (in Latin a *tabula rasa*) and that knowledge is primarily acquired through learning and experience.

European philosophers continued to ask these fundamental questions during the Renaissance. For instance, the French philosopher *René Descartes* (1596–1650) also considered the issue of free will, arguing in its favor and believing that the mind controls the body through the pineal gland in the brain (an idea that made some sense at the time but was later proved incorrect). Descartes also believed in the existence of innate natural abilities. A scientist as well as a philosopher, Descartes dissected animals and was among the first to understand that the nerves controlled the muscles. He also addressed the relationship between mind (the mental aspects of life) and body

(the physical aspects of life). Descartes believed in the principle of dualism: that the mind is fundamentally different from the mechanical body.

The fundamental problem that these philosophers faced was that they had few methods for settling their claims. Most philosophers didn't conduct any research on these questions, in part because they didn't yet know how to do it, and in part because they weren't sure it was even possible to objectively study human experience. But dramatic changes came during the 1800s with the help of the first two research psychologists: the German psychologist *Wilhelm Wundt* (1832–1920) (now known as the father of psychology), who developed a psychology laboratory in Leipzig, Germany, and the American psychologist *William James* (1842–1910), who founded a psychology laboratory at Harvard University.

Structuralism

Wundt's research in his laboratory in Leipzig focused on the nature of consciousness itself. Wundt and his students believed that it was possible to analyze the basic elements of the mind and to classify our conscious experiences scientifically. Wundt began the field known as structuralism, a school of psychology whose goal was to identify the basic elements or “structures” of psychological experience. Its goal was to create a “periodic table” of the “elements of sensations”, similar to the periodic table of elements that had recently been created in chemistry.

Structuralists used the method of introspection to attempt to create a map of the elements of consciousness. Introspection involves asking research participants to describe exactly what they experience as they work on mental tasks, such as viewing colors, reading a page in a book, or performing a math problem. A participant who is reading a book might report, for instance, that he saw some black and colored straight and curved marks on a white background. In other studies the structuralists used newly invented reaction time instruments to systematically assess not only what the participants were thinking but how long it took them to do so. Wundt discovered that it took people longer to report what sound they had just heard than to simply respond that they had heard the sound. These studies marked the first time researchers realized that there is a difference between the sensation of a stimulus and the

perception of that stimulus, and the idea of using reaction times to study mental events has now become a mainstay of cognitive psychology.

Perhaps the best known of the structuralists was *Edward Bradford Titchener* (1867–1927). Titchener was a student of Wundt who came to the United States in the late 1800s and founded a laboratory at Cornell University. In his research using introspection, Titchener and his students claimed to have identified more than 40,000 sensations, including those relating to vision, hearing, and taste.

An important aspect of the structuralist approach was that it was rigorous and scientific. The research marked the beginning of psychology as a science, because it demonstrated that mental events could be quantified. But the structuralists also discovered the limitations of introspection. Even highly trained research participants were often unable to report on their subjective experiences. When the participants were asked to do simple math problems, they could easily do them, but they could not easily answer how they did them. Thus the structuralists were the first to realize the importance of unconscious processes—that many important aspects of human psychology occur outside our conscious awareness, and that psychologists cannot expect research participants to be able to accurately report on all of their experiences.

Functionalism and Evolutionary Psychology

In contrast to Wundt, who attempted to understand the nature of consciousness, the goal of *William James* and the other members of the school of functionalism was to understand why animals and humans have developed the particular psychological aspects that they currently possess. For James, one's thinking was relevant only to one's behavior.

James and the other members of the functionalist school were influenced by *Charles Darwin's* (1809–1882) theory of natural selection, which proposed that the physical characteristics of animals and humans evolved because they were useful, or functional. The functionalists believed that Darwin's theory applied to psychological characteristics too. Just as some animals have developed strong muscles to allow them to run fast, the human brain, so functionalists thought, must have adapted to serve a particular function in human experience.

Although functionalism no longer exists as a school of psychology, its basic principles have been absorbed into psychology and continue to influence it in many ways. The work of the functionalists has developed into the field of *evolutionary psychology*, a branch of psychology that applies the Darwinian theory of natural selection to human and animal behavior. Evolutionary psychology accepts the functionalists' basic assumption, namely that many human psychological systems, including memory, emotion, and personality, serve key adaptive functions. Evolutionary psychologists use evolutionary theory to understand many different behaviors including romantic attraction, stereotypes and prejudice, and even the causes of many psychological disorders.

Psychodynamic Psychology

Perhaps the school of psychology that is most familiar to the general public is the psychodynamic approach to understanding behavior, which was championed by *Sigmund Freud* (1856–1939) and his followers. Psychodynamic psychology is an approach to understanding human behavior that focuses on the role of unconscious thoughts, feelings, and memories. Freud developed his theories about behavior through extensive analysis of the patients that he treated in his private clinical practice. Freud believed that many of the problems that his patients experienced, including anxiety, depression, and sexual dysfunction, were the result of the effects of painful childhood experiences that the person could no longer remember.

Freud's ideas were extended by other psychologists whom he influenced, including *Carl Jung* (1875–1961), *Alfred Adler* (1870–1937), *Karen Horney* (1855–1952), and *Erik Erikson* (1902–1994). These and others who follow the psychodynamic approach believe that it is possible to help the patient if the unconscious drives can be remembered, particularly through a deep and thorough exploration of the person's early sexual experiences and current sexual desires. These explorations are revealed through talk therapy and dream analysis, in a process called psychoanalysis.

Behaviorism and the Question of Free Will

Although they differed in approach, both structuralism and functionalism were essentially studies of the mind. The psychologists associated with the school of behaviorism, on the other hand, were reacting in part to the difficulties psychologists encountered when they tried to use introspection to understand behavior. Behaviorism is a school of psychology that is based on the premise that it is not possible to objectively study the mind, and therefore that psychologists should limit their attention to the study of behavior itself. Behaviorists believe that the human mind is a “black box” into which stimuli are sent and from which responses are received. They argue that there is no point in trying to determine what happens in the box because we can successfully predict behavior without knowing what happens inside the mind. Furthermore, behaviorists believe that it is possible to develop laws of learning that can explain all behaviors.

The first behaviorist was the American psychologist *John B. Watson* (1878–1958). Watson was influenced in large part by the work of the Russian physiologist *Ivan Pavlov* (1849–1936), who had discovered that dogs would salivate at the sound of a tone that had previously been associated with the presentation of food. Watson and the other behaviorists began to use these ideas to explain how events that people and other organisms experienced in their environment (stimuli) could produce specific behaviors (responses).

The most famous behaviorist was *Burrhus Frederick (B. F.) Skinner* (1904–1990), who expanded the principles of behaviorism and also brought them to the attention of the public at large. Skinner used the ideas of stimulus and response, along with the application of rewards or reinforcements, to train pigeons and other animals. And he used the general principles of behaviorism to develop theories about how best to teach children and how to create societies that were peaceful and productive. Skinner even developed a method for studying thoughts and feelings using the behaviorist approach. The behaviorist research program had important implications for the fundamental questions about nature and nurture and about free will. In terms of the nature-nurture debate, the behaviorists agreed with the nurture approach, believing that we are shaped exclusively by our environments. They also argued that

there is no free will, but rather that our behaviors are determined by the events that we have experienced in our past. In short, this approach argues that organisms, including humans, are a lot like puppets in a show who don't realize that other people are controlling them. Furthermore, although we do not cause our own actions, we nevertheless believe that we do because we don't realize all the influences acting on our behavior. Recent research in psychology has suggested that Skinner and the behaviorists might well have been right, at least in the sense that we overestimate our own free will in responding to the events around us.

The Cognitive Approach and Cognitive Neuroscience

Science is always influenced by the technology that surrounds it, and psychology is no exception. Thus, it is no surprise that beginning in the 1960s, growing numbers of psychologists began to think about the brain and about human behavior in terms of the computer, which was being developed and becoming publicly available at that time. The analogy between the brain and the computer, although by no means perfect, provided part of the impetus for a new school of psychology called cognitive psychology. Cognitive psychology is a field of psychology that studies mental processes, including perception, thinking, memory, and judgment. These actions correspond well to the processes that computers perform.

Although cognitive psychology began in earnest in the 1960s, earlier psychologists had also taken a cognitive orientation. Some of the important contributors to cognitive psychology include the German psychologist *Hermann Ebbinghaus* (1850–1909), who studied the ability of people to remember lists of words under different conditions, and the English psychologist *Sir Frederic Bartlett* (1886–1969), who studied the cognitive and social processes of remembering.

The idea that our memory is influenced by what we already know was also a major idea behind the cognitive-developmental stage model of Swiss psychologist *Jean Piaget* (1896–1980).

In its argument that our thinking has a powerful influence on behavior, the cognitive approach provided a distinct alternative to behaviorism. According to cognitive

psychologists, ignoring the mind itself will never be sufficient because people interpret the stimuli that they experience.

Cognitive psychology remains enormously influential today, and it has guided research in such varied fields as language, problem solving, memory, intelligence, education, human development, social psychology, and psychotherapy. The cognitive revolution has been given even more life over the past decade as the result of recent advances in our ability to see the brain in action using neuroimaging techniques. Neuroimaging is the use of various techniques to provide pictures of the structure and function of the living brain. These images are used to diagnose brain disease and injury, but they also allow researchers to view information processing as it occurs in the brain, because the processing causes the involved area of the brain to increase metabolism and show up on the scan.

Social-Cultural Psychology

A final school, which takes a higher level of analysis and which has had substantial impact on psychology, can be broadly referred to as the social-cultural approach. The field of social-cultural psychology is the study of how the social situations and the cultures in which people find themselves influence thinking and behavior. Social-cultural psychologists are particularly concerned with how people perceive themselves and others, and how people influence each other's behavior. For instance, social psychologists have found that we are attracted to others who are similar to us in terms of attitudes and interests that we develop our own beliefs and attitudes by comparing our opinions to those of others and that we frequently change our beliefs and behaviors to be similar to those of the people we care about—a process known as conformity.

An important aspect of social-cultural psychology are social norms—the ways of thinking, feeling, or behaving that are shared by group members and perceived by them as appropriate. Norms include customs, traditions, standards, and rules, as well as the general values of the group. Many of the most important social norms are determined by the culture in which we live, and these cultures are studied by cross-cultural psychologists. A culture represents the common set of social norms,

including religious and family values and other moral beliefs, shared by the people who live in a geographical region. Cultures influence every aspect of our lives, and it is not inappropriate to say that our culture defines our lives just as much as does our evolutionary experience.

Psychologists have found that there is a fundamental difference in social norms between Western cultures (including those in the United States, Canada, Western Europe, Australia, and New Zealand) and East Asian cultures (including those in China, Japan, Taiwan, Korea, India, and Southeast Asia). Norms in Western cultures are primarily oriented toward individualism, which is about valuing the self and one's independence from others. Children in Western cultures are taught to develop and to value a sense of their personal self, and to see themselves in large part as separate from the other people around them. Children in Western cultures feel special about themselves; they enjoy getting gold stars on their projects and the best grade in the class. Adults in Western cultures are oriented toward promoting their own individual success, frequently in comparison to (or even at the expense of) others.

Norms in the East Asian culture, on the other hand, are oriented toward interdependence or collectivism. In these cultures, children are taught to focus on developing harmonious social relationships with others. The predominant norms relate to group togetherness and connectedness, and duty and responsibility to one's family and other groups. When asked to describe themselves, the members of East Asian cultures are more likely than those from Western cultures to indicate that they are particularly concerned about the interests of others, including their close friends and their colleagues.

Another important cultural difference is the extent to which people in different cultures are bound by social norms and customs, rather than being free to express their own individuality without considering social norms. Cultures also differ in terms of personal space, such as how closely individuals stand to each other when talking, as well as the communication styles they employ.

It is important to be aware of cultures and cultural differences because people with different cultural backgrounds increasingly come into contact with each other as

a result of increased travel and immigration and the development of the Internet and other forms of communication. The social-cultural approach to understanding behavior reminds us again of the difficulty of making broad generalizations about human nature. Different people experience things differently, and they experience them differently in different cultures.

1.4 Different fields of psychology

Psychology is not one discipline but rather a collection of many subdisciplines that all share at least some common approaches and that work together and exchange knowledge to form a coherent discipline.

Clinical psychology

Clinical psychology integrates science, theory, and practice in order to understand, predict and relieve problems with adjustment, disability, and discomfort. It promotes adaption, adjustment, and personal development. A clinical psychologist concentrates on the intellectual, emotional, biological, psychological, social, and behavioral aspects of human performance throughout a person's life, across varying cultures and socioeconomic levels.

Clinical psychology can help us to understand, prevent, and alleviate psychologically-caused distress or dysfunction, and promote an individual's well-being and personal development. Psychological assessment and psychotherapy are central to the practice of clinical psychology, but clinical psychologists are often also involved in research, training, forensic testimony, and other areas.

Cognitive psychology

Cognitive psychology investigates internal mental processes, such as problem solving, memory, learning, and language. It looks at how people think, perceive, communicate, remember, and learn. It is closely related to neuroscience, philosophy, and linguistics. Cognitive psychologists look at how people acquire, process, and store information. Practical applications include how to improve memory, increase the accuracy of decision-making, or how to set up educational programs to boost learning.

Developmental psychology

This is the scientific study of systematic psychological changes that a person experiences over the life span, often referred to as human development. It focuses not only on infants and young children but also teenagers, adults, and older people. Factors include motor skills, problem solving, moral understanding, acquiring language, emotions, personality, self-concept, and identity formation. It also looks at innate mental structures against learning through experience, or how a person's characteristics interact with environmental factors and how this impacts development. Developmental psychology overlaps with fields such as linguistics.

Forensic psychology

Forensic psychologists apply psychological principles to understand the behavior of judges, attorneys, courtroom juries, and others in the criminal justice system. Forensic psychologists work in the criminal justice system. They may testify in court and may provide information about the reliability of eyewitness testimony and jury selection.

Health psychology

Health psychologists are concerned with understanding how biology, behavior, and the social situation influence health and illness. Health psychologists work with medical professionals in clinical settings to promote better health, conduct research, and teach at universities.

Neuropsychology

Neuropsychology looks at the structure and function of the brain in relation to behaviors and psychological processes. A neuropsychology may be involved if a condition involves lesions in the brain, and assessments that involve recording electrical activity in the brain. A neuropsychological evaluation is used to determine whether a person is likely to experience behavioral problems following suspected or diagnosed brain injury, such as a stroke. The results can enable a doctor to provide treatment that may help the individual achieve possible improvements in cognitive damage that has occurred.

Industrial-organizational psychology

Industrial-organizational psychology applies psychology to the workplace with the goal of improving the performance and well-being of employees. These psychologists help select employees, evaluate employee performance, and examine the effects of different working conditions on behavior. They may also work to design equipment and environments that improve employee performance and reduce accidents.

Personality psychology

These psychologists study people and the differences among them. The goal is to develop theories that explain the psychological processes of individuals, and to focus on individual differences. Most work in academic settings, but the skills of personality psychologists are also in demand in business—for instance, in advertising and marketing. PhD programs in personality psychology are often connected with programs in social psychology.

School and educational psychology

This field studies how people learn in school, the effectiveness of school programs, and the psychology of teaching. School psychologists work in elementary and secondary schools or school district offices with students, teachers, parents, and administrators. They may assess children's psychological and learning problems and develop programs to minimize the impact of these problems.

Social and cross-cultural psychology

This field examines people's interactions with other people. Many social psychologists work in marketing, advertising, organizational, systems design, and other applied fields of study. Topics of study include conformity, group behavior, leadership, attitudes, and person perception.

Sports psychology

This field studies the psychological aspects of sports behavior. The goal is to understand the psychological factors that influence performance in sports, including the role of exercise and team interactions. Sports psychologists work in gyms, schools, professional sports teams, and other areas where sports are practiced.

1.5 Psychology Research Ethics

Ethics refers to the correct rules of conduct necessary when carrying out research. We have a moral responsibility to protect research participants from harm. However important the issue under investigation psychologists need to remember that they have a duty to respect the rights and dignity of research participants. This means that they must abide by certain moral principles and rules of conduct. Moral issues rarely yield a simple, unambiguous, right, or wrong answer. It is therefore often a matter of judgement whether the research is justified or not. For example, it might be that a study causes psychological or physical discomfort to participants, maybe they suffer pain or perhaps even come to serious harm.

On the other hand, the investigation could lead to discoveries that benefit the participants themselves or even have the potential to increase the sum of human happiness.

Finally, if you are ever in doubt as to whether research is ethical or not it is worthwhile remembering that if there is a conflict of interest between the participants and the researcher it is the interests of the subjects that should take priority. Some of the more important ethical issues are the following:

Informed Consent

Whenever possible investigators should obtain the consent of participants. In practice this

means it is not sufficient to simply get potential participants to say “Yes”. They also need to know what it is that they are agreeing to. In other words, the psychologist should, so far as is practicable explain what is involved in advance and obtain the informed consent of participants.

Before the study begins the researcher must outline to the participants what the research is about, and then ask their consent (i.e. permission) to take part. An adult (18ys +) capable of giving permission to participate in a study can provide consent. Parents/legal guardians of minors can also provide consent to allow their children to participate in a study.

However, it is not always possible to gain informed consent. Where it is impossible for the researcher to ask the actual participants, a similar group of people can be asked how they would feel about taking part. If they think it would be OK, then it can be assumed that the real participants will also find it acceptable. This is known as presumptive consent.

However, a problem with this method is that there might be a mismatch between how

people think they would feel/behave and how they actually feel and behave during a study? In order that consent be 'informed', consent forms may need to be accompanied by an information sheet for participants setting out information about the proposed study (in lay terms) along with details about the investigators and how they can be contacted. Participants must be given information relating to:

- Statement that participation is voluntary and that refusal to participate will not result in any consequences or any loss of benefits that the person is otherwise entitled to receive.
- Purpose of the research.
- All foreseeable risks and discomforts to the participant (if there are any). These include not only physical injury but also possible psychological.
- Procedures involved in the research.
- Benefits of the research to society and possibly to the individual human subject.
- Length of time the subject is expected to participate.
- Person to contact for answers to questions or in the event of injury or emergency.
- Subjects' right to confidentiality and the right to withdraw from the study at any time without any consequences.

Debrief

After the research is over the participant should be able to discuss the procedure and the findings with the psychologist. They must be given a general idea of what the researcher was investigating and why, and their part in the research should be explained. Participants must be told if they have been deceived and given reasons why. They must be asked if they have any questions and those questions should be answered honestly and as fully as possible.

Debriefing should take place as soon as possible and be as full as possible; experimenters should take reasonable steps to ensure that participants understand debriefing.

The aim of the debriefing is not just to provide information, but to help the participant leave the experimental situation in a similar frame of mind as when he/she entered it.

Protection of Participants

Researchers must ensure that those taking part in research will not be caused distress. They must be protected from physical and mental harm. This means the psychologist must not embarrass, frighten, offend or harm participants. Normally, the risk of harm must be no greater than in ordinary life, i.e. participants should not be exposed to risks greater than or additional to those encountered in their normal lifestyles.

The researcher must also ensure that if vulnerable groups are to be used (elderly, disabled, children, etc.), they must receive special care. For example, if studying children, make sure their participation is brief as they get tired easily and have a limited attention span.

Researchers are not always accurately able to predict the risks of taking part in a study and

in some cases a therapeutic debriefing may be necessary if participants have become disturbed during the research.

Deception

This is where participants are misled or wrongly informed about the aims of the research. Types of deception include (1) deliberate misleading, e.g. using

confederates, staged manipulations in field settings, deceptive instructions; (2) deception by omission, e.g., failure to disclose full information about the study, or creating ambiguity.

The researcher should avoid deceiving participants about the nature of the research unless

there is no alternative – and even then this would need to be judged acceptable by an independent expert. However, there are some types of research that cannot be carried out without at least some element of deception. This is sometimes necessary in order to avoid demand characteristics (i.e. the clues in an experiment which lead participants to think they know what the researcher is looking for). However, participants must be deceived as little as possible, and any deception must not cause distress. Researchers can determine whether participants are likely to be distressed when deception is disclosed, by consulting culturally relevant groups. If the participant is likely to object or be distressed once they discover the true nature of the research at debriefing, then the study is unacceptable.

Some researchers argue that deception can never be justified and object to this practice as

it (1) violates an individual's right to choose to participate; (2) is a questionable basis on which to build a discipline; and (3) leads to distrust of psychology in the community.

Confidentiality

Participants, and the data gained from them must be kept anonymous unless they give their full consent. No names must be used in a research report.

What do researchers do if they find out something which should be disclosed (e.g. criminal act)? Researchers have no legal obligation to disclose criminal acts and have to determine which is the most important consideration: their duty to the participant vs. duty to the wider community.

Ultimately, decisions to disclose information will have to be set in the context of the aims of the research.

Withdrawal from an Investigation

Participants should be able to leave a study at any time if they feel uncomfortable. They should also be allowed to withdraw their data. They should be told at the start of the study that they have the right to withdraw. They should not have pressure placed upon them to continue if they do not want to.

Participants may feel they shouldn't withdraw as this may 'spoil' the study. Many participants are paid or receive course credits, they may worry they won't get this if they withdraw. Even at the end of the study the participant has a final opportunity to withdraw the data they have provided for the research.

1.6 Psychology in medical practice

Psychology is seen as a "soft" subject by many practitioners of medicine. In comparison to pharmacology, surgery, emergency medicine, and many other fields, it is relatively intangible. But that doesn't mean it doesn't matter.

Psychology, as a field of its own, is a real branch of medicine based on evidence and peer-reviewed research. It uses the scientific method like every other branch of medical science to learn about the various afflictions of our species and how to alleviate or heal them.

It's also a field that has close linkages to the "harder" fields of medicine. The truth is, there is an intimate link between a person's mental state and their physical health. In many cases, the two areas—the mind and the body—are inseparable for the purposes of diagnosis, treatment, and healing.

Part of this may also be due to the difference between psychologists and psychiatrists. The suffix "-iatry" refers to medical treatment, and as such, psychiatrists are medical doctors who have been through medical school and often practice in a hospital setting. Psychologists don't have this same type of training and often practice out of clinics or small practices. Psychologists are unable to prescribe drugs (in most jurisdictions), and thus may be seen as "less serious" than doctors and psychiatrists.

In the past, the negative perceptions of psychology within the medical establishment have hindered the spread of vital psychological training. But

increasingly, medical schools are recognizing the importance of training future medical practitioners on psychological issues.

Using Psychology in a Normal Medical Practice

In a primary care setting, psychological skills are critical. Smoking, drug and alcohol abuse, eating disorders and obesity, depression, schizophrenia, mental disabilities, and the interactions of all these psychological issues are profoundly important for understanding and treating health issues in the general population.

Even specialists would do well to have a basic understanding of psychology and common psychiatric disorders. Due to the low importance put on these issues in the past, it's likely that many patients who end up at specialists for one reason or another may have underlying, undiagnosed psychological conditions that are contributing to their health issues.

Preventative Care

Perhaps one of the reasons that psychology has received short shrift in the past is the preventative nature of much psychiatric care. Medical doctors, more often than not, may only see psychiatric patients whose issues have progressed to causing harm to the body or serious disruption to normal functioning.

But preventative care—including psychological evaluation and treatment—is a priority for medical doctors as well. Patients provided with preventative care have better health outcomes with lower costs and less risk of complications and ongoing issues. Just because the issue is psychological does not mean preventative care is any less possible.

Fundamentals of Psychology for medical specialists

For medical practitioners of all sorts, one critical issue is doctor-patient communication: how the transmission of potentially life-changing medical knowledge can best be handled. Even in low-stakes situations, understanding the psychology of a patient can provide key insights into the best motivations and methods for promoting their positive health. This is part of the bedside manner, and it's generally an under-appreciated part of the field. Good communication skills are

essential for medicine, and understanding psychology can truly help develop this talent.

Review Questions

1. Give the definition to the term “psychology”.
2. What mental processes do psychologists explore?
3. What methods are used in psychological research?
4. What is theory?
5. What variables do experiments always have?
6. What limitations does naturalistic observation method have?
7. What is a case study?
8. What limitations does case study method have?
9. Who originated the Survey Method?
10. Describe the advantages and limitations of survey method.
11. Who is now known as the father of psychology?
12. Who is the best known of the structuralists?
13. What is introspection?
14. Does functionalism still exist as a school of psychology?
15. What is evolutionary psychology?
16. Who was the founder of psychodynamic psychology?
17. What are the main principles of behaviorism approach?
18. What does cognitive psychology study?
19. What are social norms?
20. What subdisciplines the psychology is divided into?
21. What are the most important ethical issues in psychological research?
22. What is debriefing?
23. How the researchers should protect their participants?
24. Is it possible to deceive the participants of psychological investigation?
25. Why psychological knowledge is so important for medical practitioners?

Topics for presentations

1. Empirical methods used in psychological research
2. The most common types of psychological testing
3. The most common personality tests
4. Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory
5. Projective tests examples
6. Rorschach Inkblot Test
7. Placebo effect
8. Greek philosophers and their influence on modern psychology
9. Wilhelm Wundt's contribution to the development of psychological science
10. The main features of structuralism
11. The main features of functionalism
12. William James' contribution to functionalism theory
13. Psychodynamic psychology main principles
14. Psychoanalysis
15. Sigmund Freud's contribution to psychoanalysis
16. Burrhus Frederick Skinner's research works
17. Cognitive-developmental stage model of Jean Piaget
18. The differences in social norms between Western cultures and East Asian cultures
19. Clinical psychology
20. Forensic psychology
21. Neuropsychology
22. Industrial-organizational psychology
23. Educational psychology
24. Psychology research ethics
25. Correlation of psychology and medicine

Test tasks

1. THE MONITORING OF BEHAVIOR IN A NATURAL ENVIRONMENT IS KNOWN AS:

- a) case study
- b) survey
- c) naturalistic observation
- d) psychological testing

2. SURVEY IS A TECHNIQUE FOR GATHERING INFORMATION FROM:

- a) a large number of users
- b) one user
- c) two users
- d) three users

3. THE FRENCH PHILOSOPHER WHO CONSIDERED THE ISSUE OF FREE WILL, ARGUING IN ITS FAVOR AND BELIEVING THAT THE MIND CONTROLS THE BODY THROUGH THE PINEAL GLAND IN THE BRAIN IS:

- a) Charles Darwin
- b) Aristotle
- c) Plato
- d) René Descartes

4. WUNDT BEGAN THE FIELD KNOWN AS:

- a) functionalism
- b) structuralism
- c) behaviorism
- d) cognitivism

5. THEY WERE THE FIRST TO REALIZE THE IMPORTANCE OF UNCONSCIOUS PROCESSES:

- a) the structuralists
- b) the functionalists
- c) the behaviorists
- d) the cognitivists

6. HE GREATLY INFLUENCED THE FUNCTIONALIST SCHOOL'S THEORY:

- a) Wilhelm Wundt
- b) Charles Darwin
- c) Sigmund Freud
- d) Erik Erikson

7. BEHAVIORISTS WERE INFLUENCED IN LARGE PART BY THE WORK OF:

- a) Sigmund Freud
- b) Carl Jung
- c) Charles Darwin
- d) Ivan Pavlov

8. COGNITIVE PSYCHOLOGY USES THE ANALOGY BETWEEN THE BRAIN AND:

- a) computer
- b) society
- c) culture
- d) nature

9. PSYCHOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT AND PSYCHOTHERAPY ARE CENTRAL TO THE PRACTICE OF THIS BRANCH OF PSYCHOLOGY:

- a) cognitive psychology
- b) forensic psychology
- c) clinical psychology
- d) sport psychology

10. THIS PSYCHOLOGY FIELD INVESTIGATES INTERNAL MENTAL PROCESSES, SUCH AS PROBLEM SOLVING, MEMORY, LEARNING, AND LANGUAGE:

- a) cognitive psychology
- b) developmental psychology
- c) forensic psychology

d) neuropsychology

11. THESE PSYCHOLOGISTS WORK IN THE CRIMINAL JUSTICE SYSTEM:

- a) forensic psychologists
- b) clinical psychologists
- c) health psychologists
- d) social psychologists

12. THIS FIELD EXAMINES PEOPLE'S INTERACTIONS WITH OTHER PEOPLE:

- a) personality psychology
- b) industrial-organizational psychology
- c) social psychology
- d) cognitive psychology

13. THE RESEARCHER SHOULD AVOID IT UNLESS THERE IS NO ALTERNATIVE:

- a) confidentiality
- b) deception
- c) debriefing
- d) informed consent

14. IN THE WORD "PSYCHIATRY" THE SUFFIX "-IATRY" REFERS TO:

- a) psychological assessment
- b) psychological help
- c) psychological testing
- d) medical treatment

15. FOR MEDICAL PRACTITIONERS THE MOST IMPORTANT PSYCHOLOGICAL SKILL IS PROVIDING GOOD:

- a) medical assessment
- b) evaluation and treatment
- c) medical knowledge
- d) doctor-patient communication

Section 2. INTRODUCING PEDAGOGY

2.1 What is pedagogy

Pedagogy is an independent social anthroposophical science (science about humans). It represents an organized system of findings about educational processes and its results, conditions and factors that determine the education, as well as the main agents of the process. Pedagogy studies education in its versatility and diversity.

Pedagogy describes, explains, compares, evaluates and generalizes the findings about pedagogical phenomena. It reveals and formulates the pedagogical principles and rules which reflect the relationships and connections in educational practice. Based on these findings, pedagogy proposes constructs and concepts (theories, models, plans) which are subsequently verified in practice. The findings are thus specified, and a pedagogical theory is developed, together with other fields within interdisciplinary character.

In other words, pedagogy is a *normative science* (formulating norms, rules, principles and guidelines for education and upbringing) and a *descriptive science*. It is also an *explorative science* (exploring and studying new educational phenomena), as well as an *explanatory science* (identifying and explaining processes, results, and factors of education), which is an essential activity for pedagogy. And last but not least, it is a *projecting science* (proposing new and more effective processes, resources or entire programs). Sometimes, the aforementioned attributes are described as functions of pedagogy.

Pedagogy is concerned with all forms and means of education (in family, at school, extracurricular and media effects) and pays major attention to anthropogenic factors of education. Even though people have long been thinking about education, pedagogy as an independent science was established only approximately in the mid-19th century. Pedagogy is a science as it meets the following requirements:

1. Pedagogy has an object of study, i.e. education.

2. Pedagogy has its scientific theory: a verified, comprehensive and coherent set of findings from the field classified in the scientific discipline structure. It operates with specific terms and uses a scientific language (terminology).

3. Pedagogy has its own methodology, dealing with principles, strategies and procedures, tools and norms for the functioning and development of objective findings and practical transformation of objective reality phenomena. Pedagogy is concerned with all aspects of research, theoretical studies and innovation cycle within theory, including research methods. It determines objective facts and formulates objective findings about individual phenomena and processes in educational reality.

4. Pedagogy has formed its own infrastructure, i.e. a system in support of science which forms information sources, associations, books and databases, research and educational workplaces where the relevant science is taught. The system's components are mutually linked and support the development of the science at home and abroad in a complex manner. Pedagogical (teaching) professionals contribute to the development of pedagogy by publishing the results of their research in various publications.

Pedagogy is a dynamic science as it uncovers new findings, thus deepening and expanding the field of its research and responding to changes in the society and educational processes. There are notable changes in the concept of pedagogy during the historical development in the context of the development of the methodology of pedagogy: *traditional pedagogy* described the opinions and concepts of pedagogical theoreticians who were merely presenting their ideals on education without any support from research findings and/or practice. *Modern pedagogy* is useful for the contemporary development of the science. It explains real phenomena of upbringing and education through specific research procedures.

In the past, pedagogy used to deal primarily with the education of children whereas now its scope covers education of the entire population in terms of age as well as various groups, e.g. professionals, persons with specific requirements, etc. Pedagogues even contribute to the solving of social problems related to education.

2.2. Education

Education or upbringing is the basic term in pedagogy. There are different explanations of this term. Most often (especially among laymen), it is understood as moral education, emotional and volitional education or as a component of education. This approach to education is denoted as education in the strict sense of the word. In this case, education is related to the intellectual aspects of personality. However, the term education in this respect contains both aspects (upbringing and training) because the intellectual component can be hardly separated in moral or another education. And if education is understood as the development of the intellectual component, it can hardly do without the emotional component. Both processes contribute to personality development and are complementary.

If education involves the development of personality with respect to the basic personality components (intellectual, skills-based and emotional) or to all five basic components of education (intellectual, moral, physical, esthetical and working), it is education in a broader sense.

Education is an intentional, more or less systematic development of emotional and intellectual properties of humans, creation of their attitudes, types of behavior in conformity with the objectives of the given group, culture, etc.

Education is a process of intentional and goal-directed creation and influencing of conditions enabling the optimal development of each individual in line with individual predispositions and stimulating one's own efforts to become an authentic, internally integrated and socialized personality. Education is optimization of the man and his world; it is intentional perfection of the man's coherent, conscious, active and creative relationship toward the world, meaning the nature, society and one's self.

Education is an intentional and goal-directed activity manifested through the universal shaping of personality and having an adapting, anticipating and permanent character. It is a specific human activity.

2.3 Basic Terms in Pedagogy

- *Education* – substitutes for and encompasses the terms upbringing, training and education. It contains the component of intentionality – we observe the concept and notion, the degree of education and upbringing that we want to achieve through the educational process.
- *Schooling* – the process of intentional and organized mastering of knowledge, skills, attitudes etc., carried out predominantly through school education, professional pedagogues with a legislatively defined goal, content, place and time education – the outcome of the educational process.
- *Educational process* – the process of activity, during which one person is learning and another is mediating the learning.
- *School education* - upbringing and education taking place in school environment.
- *Educational reality* – reality in which educational processes are taking place.
- *Educational environment* – the environment in which the educational process is taking place, determined by the space with its physical and material condition and the psychosocial climate.
- *Educational constructs* – theories, models, plans..., theoretical creations.
- *Outcomes of schooling and upbringing* – the outputs of schooling and upbringing, e.g. knowledge, skills, capacity, habit, competence.
- *Personality* – in psychological approach, every human being with the unique structure of his/her psychical qualities and dispositions. Personality is a unity of intelligence, character, temperament and constitution. It is characterized by uniqueness, exceptionality, distinction. Personality structure is established through motivation, abilities and creativity, character and temperament.

2.4 Objective and content of education

The objective of education

The objective of education (educational goal) is the intent that we want to achieve through an educational activity. It is the foreseen, anticipated or desirable outcome. Determining factors:

- society and social factors;
- tradition;
- opportunities and inspiration offered by the environment in which the educational process is carried out;
- worldview, life philosophy of those contributing to the development of the personality.

It is difficult to determine who and what should influence the definition of long-term objectives and the hierarchy. Another problem is that the pedagogical science based on the pluralism of opinions brings diverse ideals and a large amount of objectives and changes that the education should observe and achieve. It is therefore uneasy to define concrete and content-specific objectives.

Recently, neutrality and independence has been the typical requirements in a very wide range of things, including education. The prevailing tendency of low requirements in this segment is dangerous, as it is transferred directly to other spheres of human life.

Some researchers do not make any difference between the objective of education and the ideal of education. However, defining the ideal for education as the perfect (ideal) vision and the best possibly quality of education has its reason, even though it cannot be achieved, only approximated.

The ideal of education is the general notion of human beings as the bearers of the most important values. Ideals differ in the worldview and value determination. They are thus forming various notions of humans and thus various goals for education. The ideal of current education is human relation to the world, to the nature and to oneself.

The ideal, the notion of a perfect human, has two functions: - the basis for the formulation of an educational objective; - indicating the direction for self-improvement for the object of education.

For practical reasons, the objectives of education have to be specified on the basis of ideals. The objectives stand for the content expression of the ideal of education. They determine the levels of education, content, instruments and form of education.

Educational objectives have the following functions:

- motivational,
- regulatory
- self-evaluating.

The form of the expression of the objectives of education must be adopted accordingly.

Requirements on the formulation of the objectives of education:

- should be easy to understand and unambiguous;
- verifiable and evaluable;
- expressed in the educated person's activities (verbs).

Should the objectives focus on the development of personality, we have to take into account the structure of the goals within their selection and formulation which would reflect the basic components of the personality: cognitive, connective and emotional.

A wide range of classifications of educational objectives exists. Most frequently, they are divided into general (long-term) and specific (short-term). Other classifications are based on the age periods, educational system stage, educational institutions or scientific sectors. Objectives may also be classified according to individual components of education. We speak about vertical and horizontal classification of objectives.

Current educational outcomes should comprise the so-called key competencies, i.e. a complex set of knowledge, skills and attitudes that one needs in various spheres of life (profession, education, leisure time, health, social area) and in private, public and professional life. The skills include e.g. learning, communication, critical thinking, problem solving, handling ICT, etc. These life

skills are thus part of educational documents which constitute one of the levels of objectives of education.

The objectives stipulated in educational documents, i.e. so-called general educational programs for various school stages, have two levels – general objectives of education and objectives for educational fields. The two-level aspect is also present in the objectives of educational subjects (educational fields) on one level and key competences on the second level.

Content of education

Objectives of education are achieved through the content of education. The content of education is the summary of everything that people should specifically master, learn to control or develop in themselves in order to achieve the objective of education. In a wider sense, objectives involve pedagogical transformation of social and cultural values, i.e. valuable phenomena from the area of science, arts and morals. The process of adaptation of these values is a long-term and complicated one.

The content of education has its own internal structure, represented by:

1. knowledge
2. skills
3. habits
4. attitudes and values
5. character and conative qualities
6. experience.

2.5 Historical Development of Educational Objectives and Content of Education

The objectives and content of education are determined socially and historically. Their transformation in individual historical periods is described below:

- During the period of primitive communal society the physical component of education was developed most extensively; work, intellectual and aesthetic educational components were developed more gradually.
- During Antiquity period (Ancient Greece) harmony of body and intellect were at the first place, it was thought that beautiful spirit lives in a beautiful body (in a wealthy society); the development of intellectual, moral, physical and aesthetic aspects of education began to be more important.
- In Sparta there was an accent on physical fitness, work and ethical (moral) component of personality, as well as the development of aesthetic aspects of education.
- In Ancient Rome intellectual, moral and aesthetic components of personality were mostly developed.
- Christianity brought Christian virtues, meekness, love to neighbor, self-denial of earthly delights and material values, elevation to the God.
- In Middle Ages education of church dignitaries thrived – they preached moral education, religious values, as well as rational aspects.
- During Renaissance there was return to antic culture – physical, aesthetic, intellectual, moral and work components of personality increased, with respect for Christian virtues.
- During Enlightenment period there was an accent on intellectual aspect of education. John Lock confirmed that the aim of education is to raise a gentleman (accent on intellectual, moral and physical components); J. J. Rousseau said that the aim of education is to raise a free human; according to J. B. Bassedow the aim of education is to grow satisfied and practically-minded people (all five components of education must be developed).
- In the 19-th century J. H. Pestalozzi insisted that the aim of education is to develop strengths and talents harmonically (development of natural prerequisites; development of head, heart and hand); according to J. F. Herbart the virtue is the objective of education – accent on moral aspects; A.

Diesterweg affirmed that independence and own activity of people is the objective of education (motivate people to learn and educate themselves); G. A. Lindner said that the objective of education is virtue and moral character.

- During the end of-19th and the beginning of 20-th century L. N. Tolstoy put forth an idea that the objective of education is a free man; J. Dewey insisted that the objective of education is growth and development of humans (in intellectual and moral areas), forming a free and strong character.
- In the 20-th century A. S. Makarenko was one of the most prominent pedagogues, he suggested that one's character is the objective of education.
- During the contemporary era the objective of education is to achieve harmony of the physical and intellectual aspects of personality, to fulfil the objectives of all components of education.

2.6. Components of education

Education is classified into partial domains. They focus on the development of the basic components of the personality, as well as culture, which helps cultivate personality. The domains thus meet the requirement for universal development of personality – biological, psychological and social. Experts mostly classify intellectual, ethical (moral), work and physical components of education. The components supplement and influence each other with regard to complex reality.

The general objective of upbringing a universally developed personality is fulfilled through goals and content of individual components of education.

Intellectual education

The aim of intellectual education is to develop speech and cognitive processes, i.e. intellect. The educated persons should master the knowledge and understanding (information, terms, rules, definitions and theories) from various scientific fields and develop cognitive processes (perception, notions and primarily thinking) predominantly in school institutions, but also with the help of various media, in order to get to know and adapt to the surrounding world. Intellectual skills have to be developed, e.g. the ability to think about various

phenomena, the ability to use knowledge creatively and evaluate it and to handle problem-solving. The important task for intellectual education is to learn to be learning not only during the school attendance period, but to pursue lifelong education. For this reason, it is important to form a positive relationship to cognition and education.

Moral education

The aim of moral education is to raise an individual that behaves and acts morally, in compliance with the ethical norms of the given society and his/her own conscience. The content of moral education consists of the formation of moral awareness, habits, feeling, moral conviction and actions, attitudes and values by the individual. It also includes the development of conative, character and prosocial qualities of an individual. All basic components of the personality in the area of ethics are thus being influenced.

Occupational (polytechnical) education

The aim of occupational education is to master working skills and habits, both for manual and intellectual work. The content is supplemented by the requirement of individual's endowment with theoretical knowledge of the relevant field, linked purposefully to the practice. Cultivating positive attitudes to work is very important. The issues of professional orientation, labor qualification, working culture and others are related to the given component. Polytechnical education focuses the attention of the educated persons to reasonable utilization of various technologies that accompany our private and (primarily) professional lives. The work component of education utilises the contents from all other components of education.

Aesthetic education

Aesthetic education is expected to cultivate one's aesthetic feelings, the ability to perceive, understand and experience beauty and cultivate the relationship to arts as the artistic depiction of reality, as well as the relationship to the beauty of reality – nature, other people and things. Active aesthetic creation is the content and tool of aesthetic education. In schooling, aesthetic education is applied in

separate school subjects, as part of other school subjects and through aestheticism of the environment.

Physical education

The aim of physical education is to cultivate the physical and psychological aspects of personality and boost one's health and healthy lifestyle. Its specific content includes the development of movement abilities, fitness and the habit of moving regularly and doing sports, as well as stirring up the interest in accustoming one's body to the cold and hardening systematically. Physical education also aims to support and form courage, persistence, willpower, fair play behavior etc. Physical education is taught at schools as a separate subject, but there are also other opportunities for exercising and sports offered by other institutions where young people and adults may spend their free time.

Other components of education are determined by individual requirements. They aim either at refining educational segments or are based on the society's current needs. We may encounter e.g. worldview education, environmental, legal or medical education, as well as education to human rights, health, business, etc. Individual components cannot be perceived in isolation. Their importance grows if they are perceived and developed in mutual relations and links.

2.7 Patient education

Education may be provided by any healthcare professional who has undertaken appropriate training education, education on patient communication and education is usually included in the healthcare professional's training.

Health education is also a tool used by managed care plans and may include both general preventive education or health promotion and disease or condition specific education.

Important elements of patient education are skill building and responsibility: patients need to know when, how, and why they need to make a lifestyle change. Group effort is equally important: each member of the patient's health care team

needs to be involved. It can also help the patients by a better lifestyle, it gives them the ability to learn new information.

The value of patient education can be summarized as follows:

- Improved understanding of medical condition, diagnosis, disease, or disability.
- Improved understanding of methods and means to manage multiple aspects of medical condition.
- Improved self-advocacy in deciding to act both independently from medical providers and in interdependence with them.
- Increased Compliance – Effective communication and patient education increases patient motivation to comply.
- Patient Outcomes – Patients more likely to respond well to their treatment plan – fewer complications.
- Informed Consent – Patients feel you've provided the information they need.
- Utilization – More effective use of medical services – fewer unnecessary phone calls and visits.
- Satisfaction and referrals – Patients more likely to stay with your practice and refer other patients.
- Risk Management – Lower risk of malpractice when patients have realistic expectations.
- The competencies of a health educator include the following:
 - Incorporate a personal ethic in regards to social responsibilities and services towards others.
 - Provide accurate, competent, and evidence-based care.
 - Practice preventive health care.
 - Focus on relationship-centered care with individuals and their families.
 - Incorporate the multiple determinants of health when providing care.
 - Be culturally sensitive and be open to a diverse society.
 - Use technology appropriately and effectively.
 - Be current in the field and continue to advance education.

There are many areas where patient education can improve the outcomes of treatment.

- For example, in patients with amputations, patient education has been shown to be effective when approached from all angles by the healthcare team (nurse, primary care physician, prosthetist, physical therapist, occupational therapist etc.). Support groups have been shown to be a helpful method for dealing with depression in this population. Preoperative patient education helped patients with their decision making process by informing them of factors related to pain, limb loss, and functional restriction faced after amputation.
- In the case of arthritis, patient education was found to be administered through three methods, including individual face to face meetings with healthcare professionals, patient groups, online support programs. Category I evidence was found for individual, face to face counseling. Meeting with rheumatologists, occupational therapists, physical therapists, nurses, and other healthcare providers was found to be effective in creating adherence to treatment, medication, and for improving overall patient health.
- In the case of rheumatoid arthritis, patient education has been shown as an effective non-pharmacological treatment.

Review Questions

1. What is pedagogy?
2. What does the pedagogy study?
3. What did the traditional pedagogy describe?
4. What is modern pedagogy useful for?
5. What is education?
6. What are five basic components of education?
7. What is educational environment?
8. What is educational goal?
9. What is the ideal of education?
10. What are the functions of educational objectives?

- 11.What kind of structure does the content of education have?
- 12.What the objectives and content of education are determined by?
- 13.Describe the objectives and content of education during primitive communal society.
- 14.Describe the objectives and content of education during Middle Ages.
- 15.Describe the objectives and content of education during Enlightenment Period.
- 16.Describe the objectives and content of education during Contemporary era.
- 17.What are the components of education?
- 18.What is intellectual education?
- 19.What is moral education?
- 20.What is occupational education?
- 21.What is aesthetic education?
- 22.What is physical education?
- 23.What are the most important elements of patient education?
- 24.What is the value of patient education?
- 25.What are the areas where patient education can improve the outcomes of treatment?

Topics for presentations

1. Pedagogy as a social science
2. Modern pedagogy in your country
3. Modern school education system in your country
4. Modern higher education system in your country
5. Education in Ancient Greece
6. Education in Sparta
7. Education in Ancient Rome
8. J. J. Rousseau's contribution to pedagogy
9. J. H. Pestalozzi's contribution to pedagogy
10. John Lock's contribution to pedagogy
11. A. S. Makarenko – the prominent Russian scientist

12. L. N. Tolstoy and his contribution to pedagogy

13. Prominent pedagogues of your country

14. Physical education in schools of your country

15. Aesthetic education in schools of your country

Test tasks

1. AS AN INDEPENDENT SCIENCE THE PEDAGOGY WAS ESTABLISHED ONLY APPROXIMATELY IN THE:
 - a) mid-17th century
 - b) mid-18th century
 - c) mid-19th century
 - d) mid-20th century
2. PEDAGOGY IS CONCERNED WITH ALL FORMS AND MEANS OF:
 - a) treatment
 - b) education
 - c) support
 - d) evaluation
3. IN THE PAST, PEDAGOGY USED TO DEAL PRIMARILY WITH THE EDUCATION OF:
 - a) the entire population
 - b) adults
 - c) children
 - d) adolescents
4. THE PROCESS OF ACTIVITY, DURING WHICH ONE PERSON IS LEARNING AND ANOTHER IS MEDIATING THE LEARNING IS KNOWN AS:
 - a) developmental process
 - b) educational process
 - c) learning process
 - d) upbringing process

5. HE INSISTED THAT THE AIM OF EDUCATION IS TO DEVELOP STRENGTHS AND TALENTS HARMONICALLY:

- a) John Lock
- b) J. J. Rousseau
- c) J. B. Bassedow
- d) J. H. Pestalozzi

6. HE INSISTED THAT THE AIM OF EDUCATION IS TO RAISE A FREE HUMAN:

- a) John Lock
- b) J. J. Rousseau
- c) J. B. Bassedow
- d) J. H. Pestalozzi

7. THE AIM OF EDUCATION DURING CONTEMPORARY ERA WAS:

- a) to achieve harmony of the physical and intellectual aspects of personality
- b) growth and development of humans
- c) to educate satisfied and practically-minded people
- d) to raise a free human

8. THE AIM OF THIS EDUCATION IS TO DEVELOP SPEECH AND COGNITIVE PROCESSES:

- a) moral education
- b) occupational education
- c) intellectual education
- d) physical education

9. THE AIM OF THIS EDUCATION IS TO CULTIVATE THE PHYSICAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS OF PERSONALITY AND BOOST ONE'S HEALTH AND HEALTHY LIFESTYLE:

- a) physical education
- b) aesthetic education
- c) intellectual education
- d) moral education

10. THE AIM OF THIS EDUCATION IS TO CULTIVATE THE ABILITY TO PERCEIVE, UNDERSTAND AND EXPERIENCE BEAUTY:

- a) physical education
- b) occupational education
- c) intellectual education
- d) aesthetic education

KEYS TO THE TEST TASKS

SECTION 1	SECTION 2
1. - c	1. - c
2. - a	2. - b
3. - d	3. - c
4. - b	4. - b
5. - a	5. - d
6. - b	6. - b
7. - d	7. - a
8. - a	8. - c
9. - c	9. - a
10. - a	10. - d
11. - a	
12. - c	
13. - b	
14. - d	
15. - d	

RECOMMENDED LITERATURE

Main literature

1. Лукацкий, М. А. Психология : учебник для вузов / М. А. Лукацкий, М. Е. Остренкова. – М.: ГЭОТАР - Медиа, 2013. - 664 с.
2. Психология и педагогика высшей школы : учебник / Л. Д. Столяренко [и др.]. - Ростов-на-Дону: Феникс, 2014. - 620 с.

Additional literature

1. Окладников, В. И. Личность: (типовология, адаптация, коррекция) / В. И. Окладников. - Иркутск: Изд-во ИрГТУ, 2010. - 216 с.

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Study guide