

1: Current Status & Evaluation | Neal Miller

Published: Mon, 03 Jul One of the psychology theories that have helped me to assess my behavior and understand myself better is the Dollard and Miller's Stimulus-Response Theory, which stipulates that personality conflicts are learned and could therefore be unlearned (Personality: Theories).

Current Status and Evaluation The application of S-R learning principles to behavioral events outside the laboratory has mostly taken place during the last twenty-five or thirty years. In this interval a very large amount of relevant empirical research has been accumulated. Furthermore, several generations of able psychologists have been trained who possess the technical skill and theoretical conviction necessary to increase enormously the existing stock of such empirical evidence. Thus the recent past has witnessed not only an empirical boom in this area but also the appearance of a large number of individuals actively concerned with extending and modifying the concepts we have discussed. Altogether it seems clear that this brand of personality theory is supported by an unusually vigorous group of adherents, and contrary to the belief or wish of many cognitive and holistic theorists, there is little apparent danger that this theoretical school will vanish in the near future as a result of indifference. Our discussion of the theory and research of Dollard and Miller has made manifest a number of virtues. The major concepts within this theory are clearly expounded and customarily linked to certain classes of empirical events. There is a scarcity of vague allusion or appeal to intuition in the work of these theorists. The hard-headed, positivistic reader will find much to admire in their writings. Moreover, this evident objectivity does not prevent many S-R learning theorist from being ready and eager to embrace a wide range of empirical phenomena with their conceptual tools. Although their formulations began in the laboratory they have shown no timidity about advancing with them upon the most complex of behavioral phenomena. A highly significant contribution of S-R theory to the personality scene is contained in the careful detail with which this position represents the learning process. Obviously the transformation of behavior as a result of experience is a crucial consideration for any adequate theory of personality, and yet many theories have largely overlooked this question or have brushed by it with a few stereotyped phrases. In this sense at least, S-R theory provides a model to be emulated by other theoretical positions. The readiness of Dollard and Miller to extract wisdom from social anthropology and clinical psychoanalysis represents, for many, another attractive feature of their particular position. They make more explicit use of socio-cultural variables than almost any of the other theories we have discussed and we have seen that their theory owes much to the impact of psychoanalysis. The readiness and sophistication with which socio-cultural variables are introduced in the theory may be related to the fact that this theory has been applied by cultural anthropologists more widely than any other theory of personality except psychoanalysis. This willingness to incorporate the hypotheses and speculations of other types of theories, such as psychoanalysis, while appealing to many inside as well as outside the learning group, has not found universal favor among those who advocate the application of learning principles to personality phenomena. Psychologists such as Wolpe and Eysenck, to say nothing of those who take the Skinnerian approach, not only find little necessity for going beyond the principles established in the learning laboratory but may actively disagree with the views of more traditional personality theorists, particularly those of a psychoanalytic persuasion. Although divided on this issue, S-R theorists have characteristically emphasized the function of a theory as a guide to investigation and the necessity of submitting theoretical differences to experimental test. In these respects, members of this group have a definite superiority over most other personality theorists. In general, these theorists have a better sense of the nature and function of theory in an empirical discipline than any other group of personality theorists. In their writing, as compared with the writing of other theorists, there is less reification, less sterile argument over words, and more readiness to look at theories as sets of rules that are used only when they are demonstrably more useful than other sets of rules. This methodological sophistication is undoubtedly responsible for the relative explicitness and formal adequacy of these theories. In many ways S-R theory typifies an experimental, objective approach to human behavior. As such, it has been a prime critical target for the many psychologists who are convinced that an adequate understanding of human

behavior must involve more than a slavish application of the experimental methods of physical science. These critics feel that although their personal theoretical positions may be vulnerable because they rest on empirical observation that is not adequately controlled, the observation, at least, are relevant to the events with which they purport to deal. In the case of S-R theory, the bulk of the careful investigation is not only concerned with simple instead of complex behavior, but more important, has often been carried out with an animal species that is phylogenetically far removed from and manifestly different in many crucial respects from the human organism. What good are rigor and careful specification in the experimental situation if the investigator is subsequently forced to make a tenuous assumption of phylogenetic continuity in order to apply his findings to important events? We have already seen that S-R theorists consider that learning principles established in laboratory studies of animals must be justified with experimental studies employing human subjects. Thus, there is an essential agreement here concerning the importance of coordinating research; the question becomes one of how much confidence can be placed in the theory until such studies are carried out in considerable quantity. A related criticism frequently leveled at learning theory approaches asserts that most of the positive features of this position, including its careful definitions, explicitness and wealth of research exist only when the theory is applied to animal behavior or very restricted domains of human behavior. As soon as the theory is applied to complex human behavior it is in the same situation as other theories of personality, with ad-hoc definitions, and reasoning by analogy, representing the rule instead of the exception. This criticism suggests that the rigor and relative formal adequacy of S-R theories are illusory as they exist only when their principles are applied within a very limited scope. Once a learning theory is generalized, concepts that were clear become ambiguous and definitions that were tight become flaccid. Perhaps the most important critical objection to S-R approaches is the assertion that they do not provide adequate prior specification of stimulus and response. Traditionally, learning theorists have been concerned almost exclusively with the process of learning and have not attempted to identify the stimuli occurring in the natural environment of the organisms they study or to develop a suitable taxonomy for these stimulus events. Further, these learning processes have been investigated in restricted, controlled, settings in which it is relatively simple to specify the stimuli eliciting observable behavior. The challenge to the personality theorist is to understand the human organism operating in his real-world environment and it can be cogently argued that if the psychologist cannot fully define the stimulus for behavior his task has barely begun. Roughly the same arguments can be made about the response. In fairness to Miller and Dollard it must be admitted that they are well aware of this problem. Miller and Dollard have made attempts to overcome this deficiency, as have others, by specifying at least some of the social conditions under which human learning takes places in addition to the abstract principles governing that learning. Related to this criticism is the fact that S-R theory has remarkably little to say about the structures or acquisitions of personality, which is undoubtedly why many theorists have found psychoanalytic theory useful in their thinking and investigation. This objection also maintains that, with its preoccupation with the process of learning, S-R theory is only a partial theory and that the relatively stable components of personality are an essential element in any attempt to understand human behavior. Certainly the most frequently voiced criticisms of S-R theory point to the simplicity and molecularity of the position. Holists feel that this theory is the very essence of a segmental, fragmented and atomistic approach to behavior. They claim that so little of the context of behavior is seen that one cannot hope to understand or predict human behavior adequately. There is no appreciation of the importance of the whole and the patterning of the parts is overlooked in favor of their microscopic examination. In these objections it is difficult to sort out the polemical and affective components from their legitimate intellectual accompaniment. In defense of learning theory, it is certainly clear that there is nothing in the S-R position to imply that variables must operate singly or in isolation. Interaction of variables is perfectly acceptable, so at least this degree of holism is congruent with S-R theory. Still other psychologists accuse S-R theorists of having neglected language and thought processes and claim that their concepts are inadequate to explain the acquisition and development of these complex cognitive functions. Any acceptable theory of human learning, they contend, must incorporate these cognitive phenomena. Perhaps the core of all these objections is the conviction that the set of variables employed by the S-R theorists is too small and too ordinary to represent human behavior adequately. Again

this is a matter of personal values. Whether progress will eventually stem most rapidly from a complex model that moves toward specificity and detail or a simple model that moves toward comprehensiveness and complexity is impossible to say at this time. In summary, S-R theory is a theoretical position that in many respects is singularly American. It is objective, functional, places much emphasis on empirical research and is only minimally concerned with the subjective and intuitive side of human behavior. As such it provides a striking contrast to many of the theories we have discussed that are deeply indebted to European psychology. Undoubtedly its tough-minded, empirical strengths have made and will continue to make unique contributions to this area of psychology.

2: Frustrationâ€™aggression hypothesis - Wikipedia

the stimulus response theory of dollard and miller The concept of habit, which represents a stable Stimulus-Response connection (SR), is crucial to this position.

They proposed a new theory in behaviorism called reinforcement theory. There are four fundamentals to their theory: Drive, or the want, is the internal stimuli or change within someone that compels them to act. There are two kinds of drive: Cue, or the notice, is the external stimuli or change within the environment that someone detects. Cue can also be internal, but is related to drive. Response is how someone chooses to act in response to the cue. If the response is successful in satisfying the drive, then it is rewarded and the behavior is reinforced. Stimulus Generalization Dollard and Miller believed in the idea of stimulus generalization, or the grouping of similar stimuli together. As a result, behaviors that occur in one situation will be the same in similar situations. Humans categorize and generalize and this is what helps them get through their day. Another type of generalization is mediated-stimulus generalization, or when learning a response in one setting is generalized to another because of their similarity. When someone learns to label someone or something as having a certain characteristic, such as a bear being scary then all bears become scary to that person. Lastly, Dollard and Miller emphasized the importance of language in cue-producing response. Using certain words when labeling something or someone influences behavior, such as calling something fun versus calling it procrastination. Structure of Personality Dollard and Miller proposed the idea that infant has innate characteristics: As the name implies, specific reflexes allow the infant to respond to very specific stimuli. Innate response hierarchies is the preference of certain responses to stimuli over the others in a specific situation. Primary drives are the innate internal stimuli such as hunger, thirst, etc. The first situation is the feeding situation, which has to do with how a parent feeds their child. If a parent does not feed their child when the child cries, then the child learns a lack of trust or becomes disinterested in the world. A balanced feeding situation is needed for a strong foundation of love and social growth. The second situation is cleanliness training, or how parents teach potty training. If a child has an accident and they are punished by their parents, then the child can learn to associate parents with punishment. As a result, they may either avoid their parents or conform to their rules to avoid punishment. Lastly, the fourth situation is anger-anxiety conflicts. If a child gets angry and they are punished by their parents, then the child will learn to suppress their anger and become less assertive as a result. The approach-approach conflict results when a choice must be made between two desirable alternatives such as eating a cookie or eating a cupcake. Avoidance-avoidance conflict results when a choice must be made between two undesirable alternatives such as doing homework or doing chores. Approach-avoidance conflict results when a decision regarding whether to pursue or avoid something has both positive and negative aspects. For example, one may feel the desire to watch a movie approach , but by doing so will fail to study for their exam the next day and will receive a bad grade as a result avoidance. Generally, Dollard and Miller proposed that the drive to avoid a negative goal is stronger than the drive to approach a positive one.

3: Learning and Motivation | Neal Miller

Quick Answer Miller and Dollard developed a personality theory that was based on Clark L. Hull's stimulus-response learning theory. They used this theory and a number of psychoanalytic concepts.

He grew up in the Pacific Northwest. His senior year he decided that psychology would allow him to pursue his wide variety of interests. Afterwards he studied at Stanford University where he received his M. There he was encouraged by another professor to further study psychoanalysis. He spent a total of 30 years at Yale University, and in he was appointed professor at Yale, a position he held until In he began teaching at Rockefeller University and afterwards spent the early s teaching at Cornell University Medical College. In he returned to Yale as a research associate. His most notable topic was fear. Miller came to the conclusion that fear could be learned through conditioning. Miller then decided to extend his research to other autonomic drives, such as hunger, to see if they worked in the same way. Miller was also one of the founding fathers behind the idea of biofeedback. Today, many of his ideas have been expanded and added to, but Miller has been credited with coming up with most of the basic ideas behind biofeedback. Miller was doing experimentation on conditioning and rats when he discovered biofeedback. Hobart Mowrer, helped to integrate behavioral and psychoanalytic concepts. Specifically, they focused on the stimulus-response theory. Miller, Dollard and Mowrer believed that a person who was relieved of high anxiety levels would experience what is called "anxiety relief". Together with fellow psychologist O. He once argued that if people had no right to use animals in research, then they had no right to kill them for food or clothing. Even so, Miller acknowledged that the issue was complex, saying: But where do we draw the line? Cats kill birds and mice. Dogs exploit other animals by killing and eating them. In he received the National Medal of Science from President Johnson, the first psychologist to receive this honor.

4: Teori Stimulus Respon Hull, Dollard & Miller " psychologygarut

Dollard and Miller: Psychoanalytic Learning / Stimulus Response Theory General theory is a translation of psychoanalytic theory into behavioristic language and depiction, so concepts could be tested in the laboratory.

Learning Theory Behaviourist approach According to behaviourists, behaviour is not innate but learned. Learning can be due to associations being made between different stimuli classical conditioning or behaviour can be altered by patterns of reinforcement reward and punishment operant conditioning. Neo-behaviourists suggest that we learn by watching others social learning theory or SLT. Social learning of this sort is particularly powerful when we see others being reinforced or punished for their actions. Classical conditioning This offers a very simple explanation of how food provides attachment. If you want this in technical terms: Food is an unconditioned stimulus UCS that produces an unconditioned response pleasure. At the outset, mother is a neutral stimulus NS who produces no response pleasure However, because she is continually paired with the unconditioned stimulus food she slowly becomes associated with it until eventually mother alone can produce pleasure. Mother has now become a conditioned stimulus CS and the pleasure she brings is a conditioned response CR. Again think of conditioned as learned whereas unconditioned is something that was there all the time. The attachment is due to a learned association between mother and the bringer of pleasure food. Evaluation As always the behaviourist explanation is reductionist because it takes a complex human behaviour and tries to explain it in the simplest terms possible. It does not consider any internal processes or seek to explain the emotional nature of attachments simply how they arise as behaviours. Operant conditioning Dollard and Miller suggested that the attachment was due to drive reduction. Hunger and cold have a strong motivating affect on the child, driving the child to satisfy its need by eating or seeking warmth. Obtaining food or warmth results in drive reduction which in itself provides reward for the child. Hunger and cold discomfort are referred to as primary drives and food and warmth are primary reinforcers. The person supplying the food and warmth usually the mother becomes associated with the food and warmth and acts as a secondary reinforcer. The attachment occurs because the child wants the person providing the food and warmth. When the child is cold and hungry it cries. This is unpleasant for the mother punishment who is likely to feed and cuddle the child. The child stopping crying acts as a negative reinforcer for the mother something unpleasant has been taken away. In both classical and operant explanations the attachment is formed because the child seeks the person providing the food. Evaluation A number of studies tell us that food is not relevant to attachment formation: They would only visit the wire mum for food. When frightened they always sought comfort on the cloth mum, not the one that fed them! Again no food required. However, before we dismiss learning theories completely, it could be that mum is satisfying primary needs in other ways such as comfort and warmth. In behaviourist terms she could still be a secondary reinforcer. Social Learning Theory SLT This is similar in some respects to learning theory, in that both emphasise the role of reinforcement an action that is rewarded being more likely to be repeated. However, SLT emphasises the role of imitation. We watch others and if they are rewarded for their behaviour we are likely to copy it ourselves. Hay and Vespo suggested that attachments develop because parents teach their children to love them. This can be achieved in three ways: Evaluation Durkin does not believe that SLT can explain the intensity of emotion that the attachment produces.

5: Neal E. Miller - Wikipedia

Dollard and Miller learning theory - Free download as Powerpoint Presentation .ppt /.pptx), PDF File .pdf), Text File .txt) or view presentation slides online. A power point presentation about the theory of dollard and miller (stimulus response theory).

They used this theory and a number of psychoanalytic concepts to explain how neurosis develops. They also showed how psychotherapy could be conceptualized as a learning process by using an S-R model of higher mental processes. How human beings learn is one of the central, and most controversial, topics in psychology. Miller and John Dollard used principles of learning developed by Clark L. Hull, who studied how animals learn, and applied them to explain complex human behavior. According to Miller and Dollard, human behavior occurs in response to cues. A red traffic light, for example, is a cue to stop, Introduction Much, if not most, human behavior is learned. A red traffic light, for example, is a cue to stop, whereas green is a cue to go. A cue is simply any stimulus that is recognized as different from other stimuli. A cue may bring about a variety of responses, but some responses are more likely to occur than others. The response to a cue most likely to occur is called the dominant response. Responses to a cue are arranged in a response hierarchy, from the dominant response to the response least likely to occur. The hierarchy that a person has originally is called the initial hierarchy. If the initial hierarchy is inborn, it is known as the innate hierarchy. When a hierarchy changes, the result is known as the response hierarchy. Response Hierarchy and Learning Change in a response hierarchy occurs as a result of learning. There are four fundamental considerations in the explanation of how learning occurs: A drive is an intense stimulus, such as hunger, that motivates a response. The cue is the stimulus that elicits the response. If the dominant response in the hierarchy results in a reduction in the drive, then reinforcement will occur. Reinforcement means that the association, or connection, between the cue stimulus and response is strengthened; the next time the cue occurs, therefore, that response will be even more likely to occur. Reinforcement occurs when a person realizes that the response has led to a reward, although such awareness is not always necessary; reinforcement can also occur automatically. If the dominant response does not result in a reward, the chance that the dominant response will occur again is gradually lessened. This process is called extinction. Eventually, the next response in the hierarchy will occur in other words, the person will try something else. If that response results in reward, it will be reinforced and may become the dominant response in the hierarchy. In this way, according to Miller and Dollard, humans learn and change their behavior. According to this theory, connections between stimulus and response are learned; these are called habits. Theories that view learning in this way are called stimulus-response, or S-R, theories. Role of Drives Drives, as previously noted, motivate and reinforce responses. Some drives, such as hunger, thirst, sex, and pain, are inborn and are known as primary drives. These drives are naturally aroused by certain physiological conditions; through learning, however, they may also be aroused by cues to which they are not innately connected. For example, one may feel hungry when one sees a favorite restaurant even though one has recently eaten. Drives aroused in this way that is, by previously neutral cues are called secondary, or learned, drives. The natural reaction to an aversive stimulus is pain. Pain is a primary drive; it motivates a person to act, and any response that reduces pain will be reinforced. Neutral cues associated with pain may also produce a response related to pain called fear or anxiety. Fear motivates a person to act; a response that reduces fear will be reinforced. Fear is therefore a drive; it is a drive that is especially important for understanding neurotic behavior, according to Miller and Dollard. For example, a fear of a harmless cue such as an elevator an elevator phobia will motivate a person to avoid elevators, and such avoidance will be reinforced by reduction of fear. Cue Responses A response to one cue may also occur to cues that are physically similar to that cue; in other words, what one learns to do in one situation will occur in other, similar situations. This phenomenon is called stimulus generalization. Many responses are instrumental responses; that is, they act on and change some aspect of the environment. Other responses are known as cue-producing responses; the cues from these responses serve to bring about other responses. Words are especially important cue-producing responses; someone says a word and another person responds, or one thinks a word and this is a

cue for another word. Thinking can be considered as chains of cue-producing responses—that is, as a sequence of associated words; in this way Miller and Dollard sought to describe the higher mental processes such as thinking, reasoning, and planning. Social Role of Learning In their book *Social Learning and Imitation*, Miller and Dollard pointed out that to understand human behavior, one must know not only the process of learning but also the social conditions under which learning occurs. Human learning is social—that is, it occurs in a social context, which can range from the societal level to the interpersonal level. The process of imitation is one example of how what an individual learns to do depends on the social context. Imitation involves matching, or copying, the behavior of another person. If the matching behavior is rewarded, it will be reinforced, and the individual will therefore continue to imitate. In this way, Miller and Dollard used S-R theory to explain how individuals learn what to do from others and thereby learn how to conform to society. An Analysis in Terms of Learning, Thinking, and Culture, Dollard and Miller applied S-R theory to explain how neurosis is learned and how it can be treated using learning principles. They pointed out three central characteristics of neurosis that require explanation: The misery that neurotics experience is a result of conflict. Conflict exists when incompatible responses are elicited in an individual. An approach-approach conflict exists when a person has to choose between two desirable goals; once a choice is made, the conflict is easily resolved. An avoidance-avoidance conflict exists when an individual must choose between two undesirable goals. An approach-avoidance conflict exists when an individual is motivated both to approach and to avoid the same goal. The last two types of conflicts may be difficult to resolve and under certain conditions may result in a neurosis. Dollard and Miller tried to explain some aspects of psychoanalytic theory in S-R terms; like Sigmund Freud, the founder of psychoanalysis, they emphasized the role of four critical childhood training situations in producing conflicts that can result in neurosis. These are the feeding situation, cleanliness training, sex training, and anger-anxiety conflicts. Unfortunate training experiences during these stages of childhood may result in emotional problems. Childhood conflicts arising from such problems may be repressed and may therefore operate unconsciously. Dollard and Miller explained the psychoanalytic concept of repression in terms of S-R theory in the following manner. Thinking about an experience involves the use of cue-producing responses that is, the use of words in thinking. If no words are available to label an experience, then a person is unable to think about it—that is, the experience is unconscious. Some experiences are unconscious because they were never labeled; early childhood experiences before the development of speech and experiences for which the culture and language do not provide adequate labels are examples of experiences that are unconscious because they are unlabeled. Labeled painful experiences may also become unconscious if a person stops thinking about them. Consciously deciding to stop thinking about an unpleasant topic is called suppression. Repression is similar to suppression except that it is automatic—that is, it occurs without one consciously planning to stop thinking. For Dollard and Miller, therefore, repression is the automatic response of stopping thinking about very painful thoughts; it is reinforced by drive reduction and eventually becomes a very strong habit. The third characteristic of neuroses requiring explanation is symptoms. Phobias, compulsions, hysteria, and alcoholism are examples of symptoms. Symptoms arise when an individual is in a state of conflict-produced misery. This misery is a result of the intense fear, and of other intense drives for example, sexual drives, involved in conflict. Because the conflict is unconscious, the individual cannot learn that the fear is unrealistic. Some symptoms of neurosis are physiological; these are direct effects of the fear and other drives that produce the conflict. Other symptoms, such as avoidance in a phobia, are learned behaviors that reduce the fear or drives of the conflict. These symptoms are reinforced, therefore, by drive reduction. Therapy is viewed as a situation in which new learning can occur. Because neurotic conflict is unconscious, new learning is required to remove repression so that conflict can be resolved. One technique for doing this, taken directly from psychoanalysis, is free association; here, neurotic patients are instructed to say whatever comes to their consciousness. Because this can be a painful experience, patients may resist doing this, but, because the therapist rewards patients for free associating, they eventually continue. While free associating, patients become aware of emotions related to their unconscious conflicts and so develop a better understanding of themselves. Another technique borrowed from psychoanalysis involves a phenomenon known as transference. Patients experience and express feelings

about the therapist. The patient in this way learns how she or he really feels. The patient learns much about herself or himself that was previously unconscious and learns how to think more adaptively about everyday life. Extending the Behaviorist Approach The S-R theory used by Miller and Dollard had its intellectual roots in the thinking of the seventeenth century, when human beings were thought of as being complicated machines that were set in motion by external stimuli. At the beginning of the twentieth century, the stimulus-response model was adopted by John B. Watson, the founder of behaviorism. Watson used the S-R model to explain observable behavior, but he avoided applying it to mental processes because he believed that mental processes could not be studied scientifically. Miller and Dollard extended the behaviorism of Watson to the explanation of mental events through their concept of the cue-producing response and its role in the higher mental processes. This was an S-R explanation: Mental processes were seen as arising from associations between words that represent external objects; the words are cues producing responses. Miller and Dollard tried to explain mental events in their book *Personality and Psychotherapy*, in which they attempted to explain many psychoanalytic concepts in S-R terms. Because psychoanalysis is largely a theory of the mind, it would have been impossible for them not to have attempted to describe mental processes.

6: Theories of attachment - www.enganchecubano.com

The stimulus-response theory began as an attempt to account for the acquisition and retention of new forms of behaviour that appeared with experience. Habit is the key concept in the learning theory espoused by Dollard and Miller.

Satrio Kinasih The stimulus-Response theory of personality is the most elegant and most economical theory. Actually, there is no single stimulus-response S-R theory, but rather a cluster of theories all resembling each other more or less, but at the same time each possessing certain distinctive qualities. These systems began as attempts to account for the acquisition and retention of new forms of behaviour that appeared with experience. Thus, the learning process is given a predominant emphasis. Although innate factors are not ignored, the S-R theorist is primarily concerned with the process whereby the individual mediates between an array of responses and the tremendous variety of stimulation internal and external to which he or she is exposed. The details of the theory have been shaped not only by the formulations of Hull, but also by psychoanalytic theory and by the findings and generalizations of social anthropology. Most of the theory is concerned with specifying the conditions under which habits form and are dissolved. The relatively small number of concepts that are employed for this purpose have been used with great ingenuity by the authors to account for phenomena of central interest to the clinician. In many instances the authors have attempted to derive from psychoanalytic writing and clinical observation, substantive wisdom concerning behaviour that in turn they have incorporated within their S-R concepts. He received an A. B. from until he served as assistant to the president of University of Chicago. In he accepted a position as Assistant Professor of Anthropology at Yale University and in the following year became an assistant professor of sociology in the recently formed Institute of Human Relations. In he became a research associate in the institute and in a research associate and professor of psychology. He became professor emeritus in John Dollard died on October 8, Miller was born in Milwaukee, Wisconsin, on August 3, , and received his B. S. from the University of Washington in He received his M. D. in Psychology from Yale University in He became a research associate and associate professor in From to he directed a psychological research project for the Army Air Force. In he returned to Yale University, becoming the James Rowland Angell professor of psychology in He remained at Yale till when he became a professor of psychology and head of the laboratory of physiological psychology at Rockefeller University. In some respects Dollard and Miller provide striking contrasts; in other regards their background shows great similarity. They are different in that Miller has advanced important ideas and findings primarily within the domains of experimental psychology, and Dollard has made significant anthropological and sociological contributions. However both have been influenced heavily by their experiences at the Institute of Human Relations and consistent with their indebtedness to Hull and Freud. Structure of Personality Dollard and Miller have consistently shown more interest in the process of learning and personality development. However, the concept they employ to represent the stable and enduring characteristic of the person is Habit. A habit is a link or association between a stimulus and a response. Learned associations or habits may be formed not only between external stimuli and overt responses but also between internal ones as well. Although personality consists primarily of habits their particular structure will depend on the unique events to which the individual has been exposed. Further, this is only a temporary structure. They emphasized that an important class of habits for humans are elicited by verbal stimuli, whether they are produced by the persons themselves or by someone else, and that responses are also frequently verbal in nature. These secondary drives are also considered enduring portions of personality. Primary drives and innate SR connections also contribute to the structure of personality. Typically, they are not less important in human behaviour than secondary drives and other types of habits but also define what individuals have in common, as members of the same species. Dynamics of Personality The effect of drives on the human subject is complicated by the large number of derived or acquired drives that eventually make their appearance. In the process of growth the typical individual develops a large number of secondary drives that serve to instigate behaviour. In the typical modern society, secondary drive stimulation largely replaces the original function of primary drive stimulation. Acquired drives such as anxiety, shame, and the desire to please impel most of our actions. The importance of

the primary drives in most instances is not clear from casual observation of socialized adult. It is only in the process of development or in periods of crisis that one can observe clearly the operation of primary drives. Most of the reinforcements in the ordinary life of human subjects are not primary rewards but originally neutral events that have acquired reward value by virtue of having consistently been experienced in conjunction with primary reinforcement. Secondary rewards, by themselves, serve to reinforce behaviour. Their capacity to reinforcement is not sustained indefinitely, unless they continue to occur on occasion in conjunction with primary reinforcement. How these changes take place leads us to the question of the development of personality. Development of Personality Dollard and Miller have elaborated the process of transformation of the simple infant into the complex adult. Innate equipment of the Infant At birth and shortly thereafter the infant is endowed with only a limited array of behavioural equipment. First, it possesses a small number of specific reflexes, which are for the most part, segmental response made to a highly specific stimulus or class of stimuli. Second, it possess a number of innate heirarchies of response, which are tendencies for certain responses to appear in particular stimulus situations before certain other responses. Third, the individual possess a set of Primary Drives that are internal stimuli of great strength and persistence and usually linked to know physiological processes. The Learning Process There are four important conceptual elements in the learning process. These are drive, cue, response, and reinforcement. A cue is a stimulus that guides the response of the organism by directing or determining the exact nature of the responses: Cues may vary in kind or in intensity. Thus there are visual cues and auditory cues. Any quality that makes the stimulus distinctive may serve as basis for the cue. Stimuli may operate as cues not only singly but also in combination. The response factor is an exceedingly important part in the learning process. Before a given response can be linked to a given cue, the response must occur first. Thus, a crucial stage in the organisms leaning is the production of the appropriate response. The first response to a stimulus, is referred to as the initial hierarchy of responses, and this occurs in the absence of any learning. Thus it is called the innate hierarchy of responses. With development, the hierarchy of response becomes intimately associated with language because particular responses become linked to words, and consequently speech may mediate or determine the particular hierarchy that will operate. The particular hierarchy displayed is also heavily influenced by the culture in which the individual has been socialized. Secondary drive and the Learning process Strong stimuli such as shock may elicit internal responses, which inturn produce still further internal stimuli. These internal stimuli act as cues to guide or control subsequent responses and serve as a drive that activities the organism and keeps the person active until reinforcement occurs or some other process, such as fatigue, intervenes. The overt responses that result in reinforcement are the cues that are learned. A previously neutral cue that has regularly ocured in conjunction with a drive-producing stimulus may gain the capacity to elicit some part of the internal responses initially elicited only by the drive. These learned internal responses then automatically set off drive stimuli. A secondary drive has been established an will motivate the organism to new learning that leads to reforcement, just as will primary drives. Thus, the intensity of the primary drive involved in the reinforcement leading to the drive producing internal response and the number and pattern of reinforced trails are important determinants of their intensity. The second class of responses, are called the cue-producing responses. The main function of the cue-producing responses is to mediate or lead the way to another response. Language is involved in most cue producing responses, although it may not be the spoken language. One of the most important cue-producing responses is the labeling or naming of events and experiences. The individual may immediately increase the generalization or transfer between two or more cue situations by identifying them as having the same label. Two different situations may be labeled as threatening and the individual may respond in the same manner in both situations. Words not only serve to inhibit or facilitate generalization, but they also serve the important function of arousing drives. Words may be used to reward or reinforce. The verbal intervention in the drive-cue-response-reinforcement sequence that makes human behaviour so complex and difficult to understand. The ability to use language and other response-produced cues is greatly influenced by the social context in which the individual develops. The social context Dollard and Miller consistently emphasize the fact that human behaviour can be understood only with a full appreciation of the cultural context within which behaviour occurs. It is important to know the

conditions of learning the conditions under which learning has taken place, for the full understanding of the human development. It is not possible to predict human behaviour, without knowing the conditions, or the structure of the social environment. The exact form of behaviour displayed by an individual will be tremendously influenced by the society of which he or she is a member. Critical stage of development Dollard and Miller assume that unconscious conflict, learned for the most part during infancy and childhood, serves as the basis for the most severe emotional problems in later life. Neurotic conflict is learned by the child primarily as a result of the conditions created by the parent. A crucial aspect of the childhood experience is the extreme helplessness of the child. It is unable to manipulate its environment and thus is vulnerable to the depredations of impelling drive stimuli and over whelming frustrations. In the ordinary process of development the person will devise mechanisms to avoid situations that are severely frustrating. In infancy, the child has no choice but to experience them. The infant has not learned yet to wait, to hope, to reason and plan. Rather, the child is urgently, hopelessly, planlessly impelled, living by moments in eternal pain and then suddenly itself bathed in endless bliss. Only when the child has learnt to speak and think, can the impact of the raw, drastic character of these circumstances be reduced. Summary The stimulus-response theory began as an attempt to account for the acquisition and retention of new forms of behaviour that appeared with experience. Habit is the key concept in the learning theory espoused by Dollard and Miller. A habit is a link between a stimulus and a response. The dynamics of personality revolves around primary drives, secondary drives, primary reinforcement and secondary rewards.

7: What is Neal E. Miller and John Dollard's S-R theory? | eNotes

Habit is the key concept in the theory by Dollard and Miller. A habit, we have seen, is a link or association between a stimulus (cue) and a response. Learned.

History[edit] The frustration-aggression hypothesis emerged in through the form of a monograph published by the Yale University Institute of Human Relations. H Mowrer, and Robert Sears. Marxism , psychoanalysis and behaviorism were used by the Yale group throughout their research. Their work, Frustration and Aggression , was soon having repercussions on the explanation of aggressive behavior theories. The book created controversy on the subject which led to more than 7 articles critiquing the new theory. The Psychological Review and the Reading in Social Psychology are two of the papers that published articles on the subject. Many social scientists disclaimed the rather strict definition of frustration reactions as well as how the frustration concept is defined in itself. From there, many pioneers in the social science world modified and brought their knowledge to the original theory. Examination and Reformulation, which addressed the inconsistency of empirical studies aiming to test the hypothesis, as well as its criticism. He proposed a modification to the hypothesis that would take into an account negative affect and individual attributions. The authors stated that despite an ample amount of empirical research that examines the link between frustration and aggressive behaviors, there is a decline in the number of studies that specifically refers to the frustration-aggression hypothesis. Breuer and Elson propose that there is utility in using the frustration-aggression hypothesis as a theoretical foundation for aggression literature and that this theory may have novel applications for other areas such as media psychology. The Yale group thus reformulated the hypothesis as following: Other impulses, such as fear of punishment, can outweigh or even attenuate aggression instigations until it disappears, which would explain situations where frustration does not lead to outright aggression. According to him, culture was implicitly involved in the hypothesis itself, as it was dealing with human behaviour, which is always formed and influenced by the environment, be it social or cultural. This would be the case for European culture and for Iatmul culture. However, it is harder to apply the hypothesis to the Balinese culture. Indeed, Balinese children are taught to take pleasure, satisfaction, in the steps that lead to their goals, without waiting for satisfaction climaxes by completion of such goals. Cohen considered social norms to be an important factor in whether or not aggression will be following frustration. Dill and Anderson conducted a study investigating whether hostile aggression differs in justified vs. The experimental procedure comprised an instruction phase and a folding phase. During the instruction phase, a participant paired with a confederate was shown how to fold a bird only one time. The folding phase was timed and each subject was required to make the bird alone as quickly and as accurately as possible. In all conditions, the experimenter started presenting the instructions in a deliberately fast manner. In the non-frustration control condition, the experimenter apologized and slowed down. In the unjustified frustration condition, the experimenter revealed his desire to leave as quickly as possible due to personal reasons. In the justified frustration condition, the experimenter revealed a need to clear the room as fast as possible due to the supervisor demand. The subjects were then given questionnaires on their levels of aggression as well as questionnaires about the competence of the research staff. They were told that these questionnaires would determine whether the research staff would receive financial aid, or verbal reprimands and a reduction in financial awards. Dill and Anderson found that participants in the unjustified frustration condition rated the research staff as less able and less likable, knowing this would affect their financial situation as graduate students. The justified frustration group rated the staff as less likable and less competent than the control group, but higher on both rating scales than the unjustified condition participants. The authors concluded that unjustified frustration leads to greater level of aggression, compared to justified frustration, which, in turn, results in higher levels of aggression compared to the non-frustration situations. Which is to say, extremely angry subject will show aggression even if the aggression cue is absent. In his first part of experiment, he found that for both of the types of frustration legitimate and illegitimate , compared to the control group which finished the task successfully, the internal reaction measured by heart rate and rating of three step bipolar

scales shows great level. Nevertheless, there is no significant difference of internal reaction between legitimate and illegitimate groups. For the 2nd part of the experiment, when previous 2 groups experiencing legitimate and illegitimate frustration, encounter an innocent partner in order to perform an unrelated task, the group with previous illegitimate frustration shows greater external reaction which is openly punitive actions towards the innocent partner than the group experiencing previous legitimate frustration does. This is based on the account that one of our neural systems is responsible for executing the basic responses to threat. The system is made up of and follows from the amygdala to the hypothalamus and finally to the periaqueductal gray matter PAG [25] In greater detail, research suggests that when one is threatened or frustrated by some stimuli, parts of our frontal cortex, that is our orbital, medial and ventrolateral frontal cortex, is activated which works in tandem with our threat response system, the amygdala-hypothalamus-PAG. It is in this basic threat response system where the decision on which response should take hold based on the information received from the frontal cortex regions. As mentioned, there are varying degrees and responses that could take hold within an animal in the presence of a frustrating event. This has not shown to interfere with the basic circuitry at the neuronal level and simply implies that certain stimuli generate more action potentials than others, and thus stronger responses than others respectively. In the face of this, animals portray a response hierarchy at the onset of a frustrating event. For example, when low levels of danger are perceived, the threat response system induces freezing in the animal; closer subjects of threat generate the act of fleeing from their surroundings and finally, where the source of the threat is so close that escape is no longer an option, the threat circuitry system will induce reactive aggression in the animal. Furthermore, some research has shown that "individuals with elevated susceptibility for frustration [showed] greater activity within these regions [amygdala-hypothalamus-PAG] in response to frustrating events relative to those with less susceptibility". Empirical studies[edit] One study by Williams [29] examined the impact of violent content and frustration with game-play and assessed how these factors are related to aggressive personality i. His study collected data from male college undergraduates. The study consisted of two phases. The first phase lasted 45 minutes and was in a large group setting. During this phase participants were asked to complete a series of questionnaires that assessed their video game playing habits and aggression. The second phase was a one-on-one session with each participant. During this phase participants played video games and were assigned to one of four conditions: Afterwards, participants completed a questionnaire similar to phase one. Participants who were exposed to violent content and presented frustration with game-play reported the highest scores in trait hostility. Another study by Shackman and Pollak [30] tested the impact of physical maltreatment of children on their reactive aggression. The authors tested the relationships between individual differences in social information processing, history of physical maltreatment, and child negative affect and their aggressive behaviors. The study collected data from 50 boys through the Madison, Wisconsin Public Schools. Within this sample, 17 children had a history of physical maltreatment. Families attended two separate sessions in the laboratory. The first session involved the children completing an emotional oddball task while having their neural responses recorded via event-related potentials ERPs. After this task, parents and children participated in a semistructured dyadic interaction, which involved the researchers assessment of child-directed parental hostility during a 10 minute interaction. Families then returned to the laboratory between 2 to 20 days for the second session of the experiment. The second session asked children to participate in a provocation task, which was designed to evoke a reactive aggression response. The authors reported that physically maltreated children displayed greater negative affect and aggressive behavior compared to children that were not physically maltreated. Ultimately, these findings suggest that physical maltreatment of children leads to child dysregulation of their negative affect and aggression. Criticism[edit] The publication of Frustration and Aggression gave rise to criticism from several scientists, including animal behaviorists , psychologists, and psychiatrists. While one of the categories was frustration, the other two were classified as possession disputes and resentment of a stranger intrusion. He advocated that if frustration is defined as a reaction to a blocking of a drive or an interruption of some internal response sequence, those various reasons for aggression actually fall under the frustration umbrella. In one of the earlier studies, following the publication of Dollard et al. In this study, participants from a sample of college students were presented with the verbal description of two types of situations, arbitrary and

non-arbitrary. One of the arbitrary situation examples was being intentionally passed by the bus driver, while waiting at the correct bus stops. A non-arbitrary situation was described in one of the examples as being passed by the bus, while it was specifically marked as heading for a garage. The study results suggested that arbitrariness of the situation is an important factor in eliciting aggressive behavior in frustrating situations, with arbitrary situations inducing more aggression. However, the study also supported his hypothesis that two more factors need to be accounted for in the frustration-aggression hypothesis. Those factors are social norms and the relationship with the frustrating agent. In his study, 60 volunteer participants were rating 14 statements on the levels of predicted aggressiveness. Cohen found that people tend to respond less aggressively if the frustrating agent is an authority figure, rather than a friend and that people respond to frustration with less aggression if the socially accepted norms require to do so. Berkowitz addressed this criticism in his article and proposed that frustration, and ultimately aggression, is induced when individuals think they have been deliberately and wrongly kept from their goal. Yet, other studies support contradictory claims. Certain subjects in some studies have shown to not respond aggressively to frustration given their personal, moral and educational backgrounds. Mahatma Gandhi exemplified this technique that essentially denounces the principles of the frustration-aggression theory in that he restrained himself from feeling these innate desires. According to Dixon and Johnson, two people can respond differently to the same frustration stimuli. For instance, some could respond aggressively while driving on the highway after being cut off by another car, whereas others with a different temperament could not react to it. However, according to Gross and Osterman, people may lose their sense of uniqueness in mass societal contexts because it tends to deindividuate them. When individuals are in a crowd, they are more likely to become desensitised of their own actions and less likely to take responsibility. This phenomenon is known as deindividuation.

8: Miller's And Dollard's Social Learning Theory | Researchomatic

MILLER'S AND DOLLARD'S SOCIAL LEARNING THEORY Miller's And Dollard's Social Learning Theory Miller's And Dollard's Social Learning Theory Social learning theory is considered to be one of the most influential theories in the fields of education and psychology.

Miller berbeda dalam mengambil suatu gagasan namun dengan pendekatan psikoanalisis antropologi dan sosial keduanya melakukan sebuah gagasan teori yang nantinya sangat berpengaruh di bidang psikologi yang dikenal dengan stimulus- response theory yang berkaitan dengan teori belajar. Dari teori yang diketemukan oleh Dollard dan Miller bahwa mereka beranggapan bahwa kebiasaan merupakan salah satu elemen dalam struktur kepribadian, kemudian bagaimana Dollard dan Miller menjelaskan dinamika kepribadian, perkembangan kepribadian serta tingkah laku abnormal. Ia dibesarkan di Michigan, dan mendiami satu kelas selama bertahun-tahun. Hull mempunyai masalah kesehatan di mata. Orang tuanya miskin, dan Hull pernah menderita polio. Pendidikan yang ditempuhnya beberapa kali terputus karena sakit dan masalah keuangan. Tetapi setelah lulus, dia memenuhi syarat sebagai guru dan menghabiskan banyak waktunya untuk mengajar di sekolah negeri yang kecil di Sickle, Michigan. Setelah memperoleh bachelor dan gelar master di Universitas Michigan, ia beralih ke psikologi, dan menerima Ph. Selama waktu itu, Hull mempelajari efek dari merokok tembakau pada kinerja, yang kemudian dibahasnya pada beberapa literatur yang disertai dengan pengujian, selanjutnya mulai penelitian tentang saran dan hipnose. Pada , Clark Hull melanjutkan penelitiannya di Yale University dan mulai serius terhadap perkembangan teori perilakunya. Sampai akhir karirnya, Hull dan mahasiswa didominasi behavioristik psikologi. Hull adalah seorang tokoh teori belajar behavioristik. Hull tertarik dengan teori belajar yang membuat dia menghasilkan beberapa buku yang berhubungan dengan teori belajar, antara lain *Mathematico Deductive Theory of Role Learning* yang ditulis bersama-sama dengan Hovland, Perkins, dan Fitch. Hull juga menulis *Principles of Behavior and Essentials of Behavior*. Buku terakhir yang ditulisnya adalah *A Behavior System*. Selain menulis buku Hull juga menulis sejumlah artikel bagi majalah-majalah profesional. Konsep dan Teori Belajar Clark L. Hull mendasarkan teori belajarnya pada tingkah laku yang diselidiki dengan hubungan perkuatan S- R. Metode yang digunakan merupakan metode matematika, deduktif, dan dapat dites atau diuji. Teori dari Hull sebenarnya tidak jauh beda dengan teori belajar lainnya. Beberapa persamaan teori belajar Hull dengan teori belajar sebelumnya adalah sebagai berikut: Hull juga mengembangkan beberapa definisi, antara lain: Kebutuhan Need Kebutuhan merupakan keadaan organisme yang menyimpang dari kondisi biologis optimum pada umumnya yang digunakan untuk melangsungkan hidupnya. Jika kebutuhan tersebut timbul maka organisme akan bertindak untuk memenuhi kebutuhannya, hal tersebut dinamakan mereduksi kebutuhan dan teori belajarnya disebut teori reduksi kebutuhan atau need reduction theory. Dorongan Drive Kondisi kekosongan ganda organisme sehingga mendorong untuk melakukan sesuatu. Istilah lain dari dorongan adalah motif. Adakalanya seseorang merasa ingin melakukan sesuatu namun orang tersebut tidak memiliki dorongan untuk melakukannya. Perkuatan Reinforcement Sesuatu yang dapat memperkuat hubungan S- R, dan respon terhadap stimulus tersebut dapat mengurangi ketegangan kebutuhan. Perkuatan biasanya berupa hadiah. Kebutuhan yang timbul akan menyebabkan terbentuknya suatu perilaku yang akan mereduksi kebutuhan secara berangsur-angsur yang dapat dipelajari responnya. Stimulus yang dapat menimbulkan respon adalah stimulus yang mengenai saraf sensoris atau reseptor kemudian menimbulkan impuls yang masuk afferent, yaitu saraf gerak dan dapat mengaktifkan otot- otot maskuler. S dengan huruf besar merupakan stimulus dan obyeknya. Impuls merupakan perangsang atau stimulus yang sudah ada dan bekerja dalam saraf. Dalam teori kali ini yang akan kita pakai S dengan huruf besar. Hull membedakan tendensi untuk timbulnya R dan r. R untuk respon yang nampak, faktual, dan r adalah predisposisi respon yang masih dalam aktivitas saraf. Hull membedakan antara learning dengan performance. Tindakan dipengaruhi oleh banyak hal, tetapi belajar hanya dipengaruhi oleh faktor jumlah waktu, respon khusus terjadi karena kontinu dengan perkuatan. Menurut Hull tingkah laku bersumber pada kebutuhan yang merupakan tuntutan hidup. Postulat yang Diajukan Oleh Hull Hull mengajukan enam belas postulat dalam cakupan enam hal yakni sebagai berikut: Tanda-tanda luar yang

mendorong atau membimbing tingkah laku dan representasi neuralnya atau saraf. Impuls saraf afferent dan bekas lanjutannya. Jika suatu perangsang mengenai reseptor, maka timbullah impuls saraf afferent dengan cepat mencapai puncak intensitasnya dan kemudian berkurang secara berangsur-angsur. Sesaat saraf afferent berisi impuls dan diteruskan kepada saraf sentral dalam beberapa detik dan seterusnya timbul respon. Simbol s adalah impuls atau stimulus trace dalam saraf sensoris, dan simbol r adalah impuls respon yang masih dalam saraf afferent. Impuls dalam suatu saraf afferent dapat diteruskan ke satu atau lebih saraf afferent lainnya. R timbul tidak hanya karena satu stimulus, tetapi lebih dari satu S yang lalu terjadi kombinasi berbagai stimulus. Rumusnya akan berubah menjadi $S-r-R$. Respon terhadap kebutuhan, hadiah dan kekuatan kebiasaan. Respon-respon bawaan terhadap kebutuhan tingkah laku yang tidak dipelajari. Sejak lahir organisme mempunyai hierarki respon penentu kebutuhannya yang timbul karena ada rangsangan-rangsangan dorongan. Respon terhadap kebutuhan tertentu bukan merupakan respon pilihan secara random, tetapi respon yang memang ditentukan oleh kebutuhannya, misalnya mata kena debu maka mata berkedip dan keluar air mata. Hadiah dan kekuatan kebiasaan; kontiguitas dan Reduksi Dorongan sebagai kondisi-kondisi untuk belajar. Kekuatan kebiasaan akan bertambah jika kegiatan-kegiatan reseptor dan efektor terjadi dalam persamaan waktu yang menyebabkan hubungan kontiguitif dengan hadiah pertama dan hadiah kedua. Simbol kekuatan kebiasaan adalah sHs . Stimulus pengganti ekuivalen Postulat 5: Generalisasi penyamarataan Kekuatan kebiasaan yang efektif timbul karena stimulus lain daripada stimulus pertama yang menjadi persyaratan bergantung kepada penindakan stimulus kedua dari yang pertama dalam kesatuan yang terus menerus dari ambang perbedaan, dengan kata lain yang ingin dibentuk merupakan hasil rata-rata persyaratan stimulus berikutnya. Dorongan-dorongan sebagai akitivator respon. Hubungan dengan tiap-tiap dorongan adalah stimulus dorongan karakteristik yang intensitasnya meningkat dengan kekuatan dorongan. Potensi reaksi yang ditimbulkan oleh dorongan. Kekuatan kebiasaan disintesis dalam potensi reaksi dengan dorongan-dorongan primer yang timbul pada saat tertentu. Faktor-faktor yang melawan respon-respon Postulat 8: Timbulnya suatu reaksi menyebabkan pengekanan reaksi yang lain. Suatu kejemuhan untuk mengulangi respon. Pengekanan reaksi adalah penghamburan waktu yang spontan. Pengekanan yang dikondisikan diisyaratkan. Stimuli yang dihubungkan dengan penghentian respon menjadi pengekanan yang dikondisikan. Potensial pengekanan dihubungkan dengan potensial reaksi yang bergoyang terus menerus pada waktu itu. Potensi reaksi efektif yang momentum harus melampaui reaksi ambang perangsang sebelum stimulus membangkitkan reaksi. Kemungkinan reaksi diatas ambang perangsang. Kemungkinan respon adalah fungsi normal dari potensi reaksi efektif melampaui reaksi ambang perangsang. Latensi keadaan diam atau berhenti. Makin potensi reaksi efektif melampaui reaksi ambang perangsang makin pendek latensi respon, artinya respon makin cepat timbul. Makin besar potensi reaksi efektif, makin besar respon yang timbul tanpa perkuatan, sebelum berhenti atau ekstingsi. Amplitudo respon besarnya respon. Besarnya dorongan dilantari atau disebabkan oleh peningkatan kekuatan potensi efektif reaksi dalam sistem saraf otonom. Jika potensi-potensi reaksi kepada dua atau lebih respon-respon yang bertentangan terjadi dalam organisme pada waktu yang sama, maka hanya reaksi yang mempunyai potensi reaksi yang lebih besar akan terjadi responnya. Hull mengajukan postulat- postulat tersebut dengan maksud ingin mempelajari terbentuknya tingkah laku secara sistematis dan matematis. Dari enam belas postulat yang menjadi inti adalah postulat nomor empat, yakni mengenai hadiah dan kekuatan kebiasaan. Peningkatan dari hadiah yang berturut- turut memuncak terbentuknya kombinasi kekuatan kebiasaan yang bergantung kepada peningkatan hadiah. Jika ditarik esensi teori belajar pada analisis Hull adalah operasi dasar hadiah, pengaruh ulangan, dan gradiasi hadiah. Hull mengemukakan ada tiga fungsi yang berbeda mengenai dorongan, yaitu: Hull berasumsi bahwa dorongan akan melipatgandakan kekuatan kebiasaan. Hypotetico Deductive Theory Teori belajar ini dikembangkan Hull dengan menggunakan metode deduktif. Hull percaya bahwa pengembangan ilmu psikologi harus didasarkan pada teori dan tidak semata-mata berdasarkan fenomena individual atau secara induktif. Teori ini terdiri dari beberapa postulat yang menjelaskan pemikirannya tentang aktivitas otak, reinforcement, habit, reaksi potensial, dan lain sebagainya Lundin, , pp. Sumbangan utama Hull adalah pada ketajaman teorinya yang detil, ditunjang dengan hasil-hasil eksperimen yang cermat dan ekstensif. Akibatnya ide Hull banyak dirujuk oleh para ahli behavioristik lainnya dan dikembangkan. Namun walaupun demikian Hull juga mendapatkan

banyak kritikan yang diberikan padanya, diantaranya sebagai berikut: Teorinya dianggap terlalu kompleks dan sulit dimengerti. Dalam setiap penelitiannya Hull selalu mengembangkan sistem yang rumit dan sangat bergantung kepada matematika elaborasi. Idenya tentang proses internal dianggap abstrak dan sulit dibuktikan melalui eksperimen empiris. Partikularistic, usaha untuk menggeneralisasi hasil eksperimen secara berlebihan. Mathematico Deductive Hull Teori belajar ini merupakan satu perlakuan sistematis dari belajar berdasarkan teori pengkondisian klasik dan dinyatakan dalam bentuk postulat- postulat deduktif dan akibat- akibatnya yang bersifat wajar. Hukum asasi dari perolehan kemahiran beranggapan bahwa kekuatan kebiasaan itu dibangun secara beransur- ansur dalam bentuk tambahan atau kenaikan- kenaikan kebiasaan, lewat penguatan yang berdekatan dari unit- unit S- R atau stimulus- respon. Kekuatan kebiasaan itu bisa dibuat peka kedalam bentuk daya guna atau prestasi oleh dorongan- dorongan drives. Apabila tidak terdapat unsur dorongan, prestasi akan menurun sampai angka nol. Bila tidak ada kekuatan kebiasaan, prestasi juga akan menurun sampai titik nol karena dorongan dan kekuatan kebiasaan itu saling berhubungnan dalam satu fungsi yang multiplikatif fungsi perkalian. Oleh karena semua teori- teori yang berdasarkan prinsip-prinsip pengkondisian ternyata benar, maka Hull menggunakan teori pemusnahan dan penghambatan, agar bisa menerangkan dan menghitung masalah penyusutan reaksi.

9: Dollard & Miller " Personality Psychology

The Stimulus Response Theory in 30 seconds, Enjoy:) By Johnson Xian.

Psychology Glossary Dollard and Miller: Neurosis was not seen as ego being overwhelmed by internal conflicts, but as a failure to make adaptive behaviors which could be studied as a learning failure, and as such, could be remedied with new learning. Biographies John Dollard was born in Wisconsin in He earned a Ph. Social class determines a gamut of specific learning experiences. Neal Miller was born in Wisconsin in and his father was an educational psychologist. Miller earned a Ph. When Miller joined the Institute of Human Relations at Yale, he began collaborating with Dollard, exploring ways to understand psychoanalytic theory using behaviorist techniques. He particularly encouraged psychologists to collaborate with neuroscientists to better understand physiological mechanisms involved in motivation, learning, etc. Ultimately his work helped develop biofeedback, which is used today in numerous holistic health regimens for healing. He showed the autonomic nervous system functions like heart rate, gastric vascular responses, and blood pressure could be influenced by operant learning. In the past only classical conditioning was thought to be useful in managing biological functions. The citation especially noted his work in using animal models to understand social learning, pathology, health and other topics of interest to psychologists. Drives are primary natural responses to physical need or discomfort or secondary learned values for things associated with satisfaction or distress. Different needs develop in different circumstances, which is why culture is important to understand. Noticing Something Cues are discriminative stimuli that are noticed at the time of behavior. They include sights, smells that may act as cues to a behavior. Even internal thoughts can act as cues. Cues can be entire behavior repertoires that indicate a response is necessary or expected. Social cues are more ambiguous, which is why getting the right response from a partner can be tricky. Doing something Responses are simply behaviors. Any behavior subject to change through learning is a response. They can be overt voluntary physical behavior or covert hidden behavior such as thinking. We choose our responses based on all the responses possible or useful in any situation- we develop a response hierarchy. The hierarchy ranges from the most likely response dominant response to less likely responses that occur when the dominant response is blocked somehow. Punishment of a dominant response will produce alternative responses, according to what the child thinks will most gratify him and least likely result in more punishment. So responses change their position in the hierarchy. Rewards can be innate or learned. The Learning Process A learning dilemma occurs in a situation in which the existing responses are not rewarded. If your dominant response always gets rewarded, there is no need for any learning. Which is why the joke about the definition of insanity strikes a chord: Insanity is doing the same thing over and over with the expectation that you will get something different. If you are doing it over and over- it already must be rewarding to you. When the new response gets a favorable reward, the new response will more likely occur again. There are ways to encourage a new response: Undesirable responses can be eliminated by punishment, producing a change in the response hierarchy. This new behavior will occur more often if it is rewarded. Extinction occurs when a response is not rewarded. Extinction only works if the behavior truly gets no rewarding response. Well-learned responses from the past are very resistant to extinction, and in children, they have more energy to pursue a desirable behavior than parents, teachers have to ignore it. Fear is a particularly resistant behavior pattern. It may diminish during extinction, but rarely ever is eliminated completely. Powerful phobias develop in this way, as well as rituals to reduce the anxiety of obsessive thoughts. Avoidance is very rewarding. Spontaneous recovery occurs when an extinguished response recurs. Stimulus generalization is the transfer of a response pattern from one environment to another which offers similar cues. This is the reason we learn so effortlessly- our learning transfers easily when we recognize a past behavior could be useful in a new environment. It may also be why we unconsciously look for a partner that mirrors some aspect of a parent- Freud would be proud! Discrimination is the opposite of generalization- it means we recognize only certain cues are important to trigger a response. This was the learning experience of the neurotic dogs- they learned specific consequences that could be associated with the circle or oval- but when the stimuli began changing, their powers of discrimination were overwhelmed and

they sank into neurosis. Gradient of reward states that the more closely the response is followed by reward, the more it is strengthened. Gradient of punishment states that the more immediately punishment follows misbehavior, the more effective it is in reducing the tendency to misbehave. These 2 gradients are the reason some parents are effective as authority figures, and others are not. Some parents are instantly responsive, as well as dependably consistent. Language also contributes to effective responses. It means the parental response becomes more immediate when the child can think about it, and when it is consistently applied. Parents will be more effective rewarders when they describe many aspects of what a child did well, not just generically praise the finished product. Anticipatory responses are responses that precede reward and occur earlier and earlier. Anticipation can produce very speedy responses in recurring environments. They described 3 processes of imitation: Same behavior is the production of the same behavior as a model- in the same circumstances, under the same cues as for the model. Copying occurs when the learner tries to produce the same behavior as the model, and understands there is a discrepancy between what the model is doing, and what the learner is doing. The behavior is being done for a past reward, not the same trigger as for the model. Matched dependent behavior is like copying, with a behavior learned from a model, but the response is cued by the model, not the situational cues the model has learned, and there is a different reward. Feeding occurs upon birth and satisfies the hunger drive, so is inherently rewarding. These children go within and become very non-responsive, as you see in infants growing up in overcrowded orphanages, or with nonresponsive parents. Character traits of apathy or anxiety develop. Cleanliness training, as Freud described the anal stage, has to do with toilet training. This is very complex behavior for a 2-year-old. If there is too much criticism or too high an expectation for training, the child may learn avoidance of the parent to avoid punishment hiding to do it in the pants. This produces anxiety around any sexual impulses. When frustrated, children first act out with aggression- public displays of anger. When they are punished, they learn to be anxious about anger. This produces self-control around their angry impulses. If parents shut down anger too completely, however, they can render their children helpless in the face of reasonable provocation which should be stopped. Anger can be effectively motivating in the right circumstances. Guilt occurs whenever anger is felt. This really leaves a child without appropriate responses in many situations. Children need to have anger described to them and to learn how to use this powerful emotion responsibly. Conflict according to Freud was what produced aspects of personality. They related conflict to situational cues, not internal fights between the id and superego. Gradient of approach- these gradients reflect the strength of the tendency to make a response, according to distance from the goal. When there are 2 responses, with different gradients toward a goal, people can be paralyzed by choice. The gradient of approach is when the tendency to approach a goal is stronger the nearer the subject is to the goal. Getting more and more excited, the closer the wedding gets. Gradient of avoidance is when the tendency to avoid a feared stimulus is stronger the nearer the subject gets to it. Canceling a job interview the day of the interview, because you fear being rejected. The gradient of avoidance is steeper than that of approach. And an increase in drive raises the height of the entire gradient. Four Types of Conflict Distance can refer to physical distance from a goal, or time distance from an event. Activities can seem easier at a distance than as you approach them in time or space. Approach-avoidance conflict is when the same goal produces feelings of approach and avoidance. The gradient to approach is less steep than the one to avoid, so in the distance, approach is more likely to be felt, but as one gets closer to the conflicted event, avoidance may become predominate. Anxiety is worst, most disabling at the cross point of the 2 gradients. Engaged people who were happy with impending marriage until the day or week before the wedding, experience strong internal conflict. Similarly, people feel the most intense anxiety when contemplating divorce the closer they get to filing the papers and telling the spouse of their plans. Avoidance-avoidance conflict offers 2 goals and both are undesirable. She never got over her guilt for making a choice. In general, goals that are equally difficult to embrace produce immobilization, procrastination if possible, or escape.

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