

Cambridge International AS & A Level

Chuyên luyện thi IELTS/SAT → AP / IB / A-levels



Cambridge International AS & A Level Psychology

Giáo trình luyện thi chuyên sâu

Song ngữ Anh-Việt

8020 ENGLISH

5A/2 Trần Phú, P.4, Q.5, TP.HCM · luyenthi8020.com

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Lời mở đầu • Foreword

Cuốn sách này thuộc bộ giáo trình luyện thi chương trình quốc tế của **8020 English (8020 Education)** — trung tâm luyện thi trọng điểm **IELTS • SAT • AP • IB • A-level • IGCSE** và sẵn học bổng du học. Toàn bộ nội dung được biên soạn bởi đội ngũ **Giáo sư • Tiến sĩ • Thạc sĩ** tốt nghiệp các trường top đầu thế giới, bám sát khung chương trình chính thức, trình bày đầy đủ lý thuyết, ví dụ mẫu, hình minh họa và hệ thống bài tập có lời giải chi tiết.

This book is part of the 8020 English international exam-prep series: complete English theory with Vietnamese explanations, worked examples, illustrations and fully-solved practice, aligned to the official framework.

Thành tích 8020 English

9.0 IELTS cao nhất

1570 SAT cao nhất

5/5 AP — điểm tuyệt đối

90/100 IB Diploma

100% GV $\geq$ 8.0 IELTS / 1500 SAT

CMU Tiến sĩ ĐH #1 Hoa Kỳ về CS

Đội ngũ tiêu biểu: Thầy Châu Cát Tường (Academic Head, ThS Western Sydney, top 1% IELTS 8.5) · TS Nguyễn Anh Huy (Carnegie Mellon, cựu kỹ sư Amazon) · TS Nguyễn Phước Trường (Toán, ĐH Klagenfurt) · cùng đội ngũ giảng viên SAT 1500–1600, IELTS 8.0–8.5.

Kết quả học viên — điểm thi thật: IELTS 8.0–9.0 · SAT 1550 / 1570 / 1590 · AP 5/5 (Calculus BC, Microeconomics) · IB 90/100 (Economics) · Duolingo 110 · PTE 90 · TOEFL 120. **Bảng vàng SAT:** Khánh Đăng 1510 · Thảo Nguyên 1520 · Tâm Anh 1530.

“Cuối cùng đã đậu vào trường top như mong muốn.” — Phan Thị Thanh Hằng, IELTS Overall 8.5.

Cách dùng sách hiệu quả: mỗi Unit gồm (1) **Lý thuyết trọng tâm** tiếng Anh kèm **giải thích tiếng Việt**; (2) **Ví dụ mẫu** có lời giải; (3) **Hệ thống bài tập** kèm **lời giải chi tiết**. Hãy tự làm bài trước khi xem lời giải để đạt hiệu quả tối đa.

THÀNH TÍCH THỰC TẾ • 8020 ENGLISH

Điểm thi thật • Bảng & bảng điểm thật của giảng viên và học viên 8020 English — Điểm thật • Thầy thật • Kết quả thật

ĐỘI NGŨ

ĐỘI NGŨ GIÁO VIÊN TẬN TÂM

***Tối thiểu 8.0 IELTS Overall**



Gv. Nguyễn Nhật Nam
IELTS 8.5 Overall



Gv. Nguyễn Khanh
IELTS 8.0 Overall



Gv. Nguyễn Đan Vy
IELTS 8.0 Overall

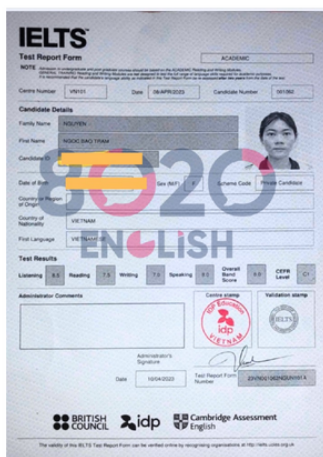


Giảng viên 8020 — IELTS 8.5 & 8.0 Overall (British Council • IDP • Cambridge)

KẾT QUẢ HỌC VIÊN

THÀNH TÍCH HỌC VIÊN

Bảng điểm thi thật – chất lượng được giám sát nghiêm ngặt. Một số học viên chỉ cần 1–2 khóa để đạt kết quả mong muốn.



Học viên 8020 — IELTS 8.0 Overall (bảng điểm thật)

ĐỘI NGŨ

ĐỘI NGŨ GIÁO VIÊN TẬN TÂM

*Tối thiểu 1500 SAT Overall

8020
ENGLISH

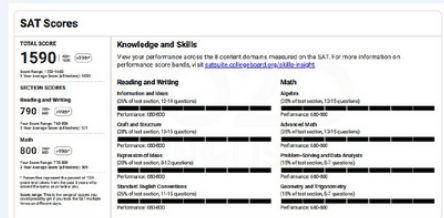
Thầy Quang Minh

Đại học Bách Khoa Hà Nội



SAT 1590

IELTS 8.0



THẾ MẠNH & KINH NGHIỆM

- Học sinh đạt 1450–1560 SAT
- Day nhanh band 1400–1550+
- Chiến thuật làm bài & quản lý thời gian

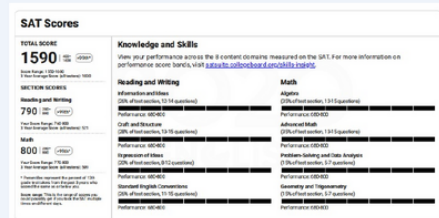
Cô Phương Vy

Đại học Ngoại thương



SAT 1590

IELTS 8.0



THẾ MẠNH & KINH NGHIỆM

- SAT Verbal Instructor (Springboard, QAS)
- Day lớp nhỏ & xây dựng tài liệu riêng
- Chuyên Reading & Writing: Logic – Grammar

Giảng viên 8020 – SAT 1590 (ĐH Bách Khoa Hà Nội & ĐH Ngoại thương)

KẾT QUẢ HỌC VIÊN

TUTOR 1-1 – ĐIỂM SỐ ẤN TƯỢNG

8020
ENGLISH

Your Scores

Name: Tam T Nguyen
Grade: 12
Test administration: SAT May 3, 2025
Record Locator: 410244771

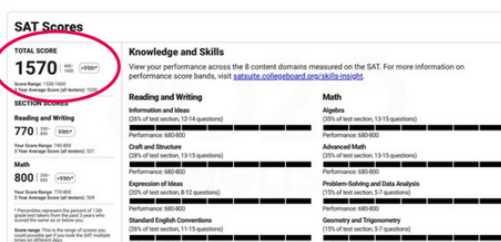


Build your future, your way, with free personalized career and college planning tools



Your Scores

Name: Linh Pham
Grade: 12
Test administration: SAT December 7, 2024
Record Locator: 409986376



Build your future, your way, with free personalized career and college planning tools



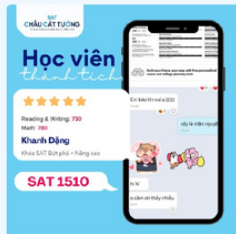
Học viên 8020 – SAT 1550 & 1570 (College Board)

KẾT QUẢ HỌC VIÊN

BẢNG VÀNG HỌC VIÊN

SAT
CHAU CÁT TƯỜNG
Tư vấn hướng nghiệp học & điểm số8020
ENGLISH

Bảng vàng học viên



Bé Khanh Đăng

SAT Bứt phá + Năng cao Cam kết 140++ => Kết quả 1510



Bé Phan Nguyễn Thảo Nguyễn

SAT Năng cao



Bé Lê Tâm Anh

SAT Bứt phá + Năng cao Cam kết 140++ => Bứt phá kết quả 1530

KHÁNH ĐĂNG – SAT 1510

“SAT Bứt phá + Năng cao cam kết 140++ → 1510”

THẢO NGUYỄN – SAT 1520

“SAT Năng cao → 1520”

TÂM ANH – SAT 1530

“SAT Bứt phá + Năng cao cam kết 140++ → 1530”

Bảng vàng SAT – Học viên đạt 1510 · 1520 · 1530

KẾT QUẢ HỌC VIÊN

ĐIỂM SỐ AP

8020
ENGLISH

AP Biology: 4 · AP Chemistry: 4



AP Calculus AB: 5



AP Calculus BC: 5



AP Chemistry: 5

Bảng điểm AP thật của học viên – nhiều môn đạt điểm 4 & 5

Điểm AP thật – Calculus AB/BC 5/5 · Biology & Chemistry 4–5 (College Board)

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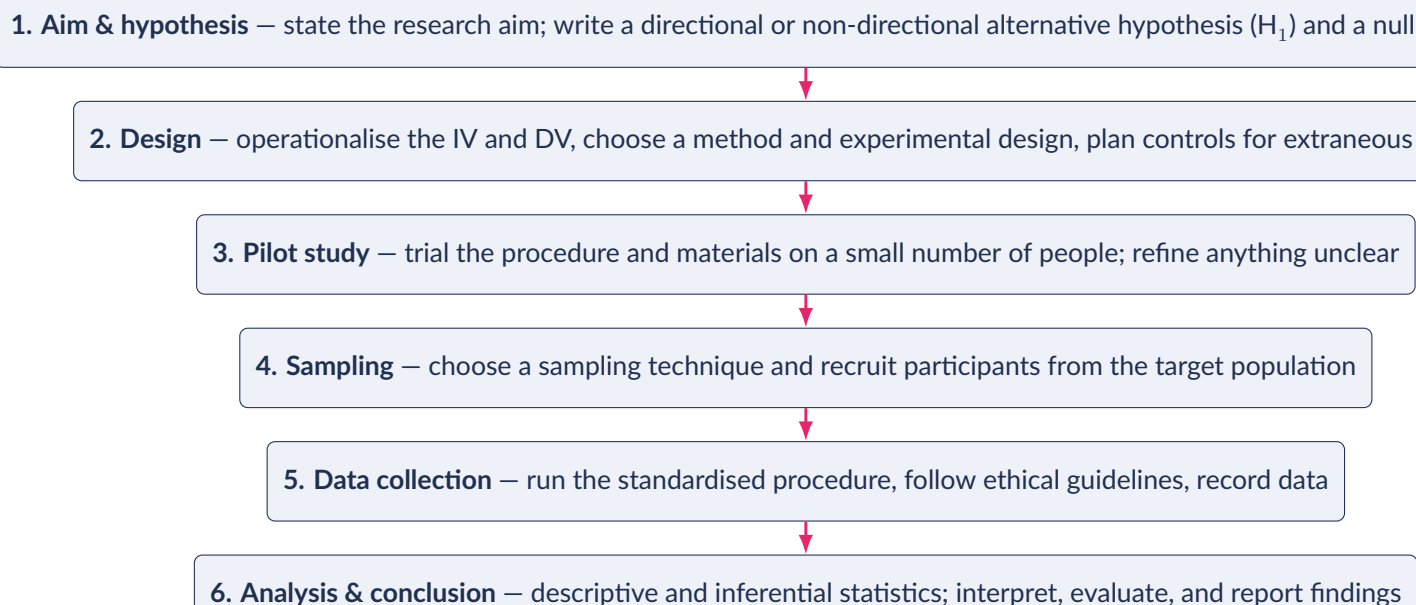
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Research Methods in Psychology

Mục tiêu Unit: Nắm vững toàn bộ phương pháp nghiên cứu tâm lý học theo khung Cambridge 9990: hình thành mục tiêu nghiên cứu và giả thuyết (có/không định hướng, giả thuyết không); thao tác hoá biến số; biến ngoại lai và biến gây nhiễu; hiệu ứng người tham gia, hiệu ứng người nghiên cứu, các thủ tục làm mù đơn/đôi và nghiên cứu thử nghiệm (pilot study); các thiết kế thực nghiệm và phi thực nghiệm (tự báo cáo, quan sát, tương quan, nghiên cứu trường hợp, phân tích nội dung); thang đo dữ liệu; chọn mẫu; độ tin cậy – độ giá trị; đạo đức nghiên cứu; thống kê mô tả (trung bình, trung vị, mốt, khoảng biến thiên, độ lệch chuẩn) và thống kê suy luận (ý nghĩa thống kê, sai lầm loại I/II, kiểm định Sign Test); đánh giá nghiên cứu qua bình duyệt, khả năng khái quát hoá và khả năng lặp lại.

1.1 The Research Process: An Overview

Psychological research does not happen in a single step – it follows a logical sequence from an initial research question through to a published, evaluated conclusion. Understanding this sequence early makes every later topic in this unit (variables, design, sampling, ethics, statistics) easier to place in context.



The six-step research design process. Each stage constrains the next: a poorly operationalised variable at step 2 cannot be rescued by clever statistics at step 6.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Quy trình nghiên cứu tâm lý học gồm sáu bước nối tiếp nhau: (1) xác định mục tiêu và viết giả thuyết; (2) thiết kế nghiên cứu – thao tác hoá biến số, chọn phương pháp; (3) chạy thử (pilot study) để phát hiện lỗi; (4) chọn mẫu; (5) thu thập dữ liệu theo quy trình chuẩn hoá và tuân

thủ đạo đức; (6) phân tích số liệu và rút ra kết luận. Nếu một bước ở đầu quy trình bị làm sai (ví dụ thao tác hoá biến số mơ hồ), thì dù thống kê ở bước cuối có chính xác đến đâu, kết luận vẫn không đáng tin cậy.

1.2 Aims and Hypotheses

1.2.1 From aim to testable hypothesis

An **aim** is a general statement of what a researcher intends to investigate (e.g., “to investigate the effect of sleep deprivation on reaction time”). A **hypothesis** is a precise, testable prediction derived from the aim, phrased so that it could in principle be shown to be false. Cambridge 9990 requires two formal hypotheses for every study:

Alternative and null hypotheses

- **Alternative hypothesis (H_1):** predicts that the IV *will* have an effect on the DV (in an experiment) or that two co-variables *will* be related (in a correlational study).
- **Null hypothesis (H_0):** predicts that the IV will have *no* effect on the DV (or that there is *no* relationship between co-variables); any difference or correlation observed in the data is attributed to chance alone.

Statistical testing is always a test of *the null hypothesis*: if the probability that the result occurred by chance is sufficiently low ($p \leq 0.05$), H_0 is rejected and H_1 is accepted.

1.2.2 Directional and non-directional hypotheses

The alternative hypothesis can be written in two forms:

- **Directional (one-tailed) hypothesis** — predicts the *direction* of the difference or relationship (e.g., “participants who revise using retrieval practice will recall *more* words than participants who revise by re-reading”). Used when previous research or theory gives a clear basis for predicting direction.
- **Non-directional (two-tailed) hypothesis** — predicts that there *will be a difference or relationship*, without specifying direction (e.g., “there will be a difference in the number of words recalled between the retrieval-practice group and the re-reading group”). Used when there is no strong prior basis for predicting a direction, or when previous findings conflict.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Giả thuyết có định hướng (one-tailed) dự đoán cụ thể chiều của sự khác biệt hoặc mối tương quan (ví dụ: nhóm A sẽ nhớ *nhiều hơn* nhóm B). **Giả thuyết không định hướng (two-tailed)** chỉ dự đoán có sự khác biệt/tương quan mà không nói rõ chiều nào. **Giả thuyết không (H_0)** luôn phát biểu rằng không có hiệu ứng/mối quan hệ nào cả — mọi khác biệt quan sát được chỉ là do may rủi (ngẫu nhiên). Việc kiểm định thống kê thực chất là kiểm định xem có đủ bằng chứng để bác bỏ H_0 hay không.

1.2.3 Operationalising variables

To be testable, the general concepts in an aim must be converted into **operationalised variables**: precise, measurable definitions of exactly how the independent variable (IV) will be manipulated (or the co-variable measured) and exactly how the dependent variable (DV) will be measured.

Ví dụ mẫu · Operationalising an experimental hypothesis (1)

Aim: to investigate the effect of caffeine on short-term memory.

IV (operationalised): caffeine dose — experimental group consumes a 200 mg caffeine tablet 30 minutes before testing; control group consumes an identical-looking placebo tablet.

DV (operationalised): short-term memory performance — number of words correctly recalled (out of 20) from a word list, after a 2-minute distractor task.

H₁ (directional): participants who consume 200 mg of caffeine will recall significantly more words from a 20-item list than participants who consume a placebo.

H₀: there will be no significant difference in the number of words recalled between the caffeine group and the placebo group; any difference found will be due to chance.

Ví dụ mẫu · Operationalising an experimental hypothesis (2)

Aim: to investigate whether background noise affects children's mathematics test performance.

IV (operationalised): noise level — high-noise condition (recorded office/traffic noise played at approximately 85 dB through speakers) vs low-noise condition (approximately 40 dB, near-silent).

DV (operationalised): mathematics performance — score out of 30 on a standardised 15-minute arithmetic test.

H₁ (non-directional): there will be a significant difference in mathematics test scores between children tested in the high-noise condition and children tested in the low-noise condition.

H₀: there will be no significant difference in mathematics scores between the two noise conditions; any difference found will be due to chance.

Ví dụ mẫu · Operationalising a correlational hypothesis

Aim: to investigate the relationship between hours of sleep and reaction time.

Co-variable 1 (operationalised): hours of sleep — self-reported number of hours slept the previous night, recorded in a sleep diary.

Co-variable 2 (operationalised): reaction time — mean reaction time (in milliseconds) across 10 trials of a simple computer-based reaction-time task.

H₁ (directional): there will be a significant negative correlation between hours of sleep and reaction time (more sleep is associated with faster, i.e. lower, reaction times).

H₀: there will be no significant correlation between hours of sleep and reaction time; any correlation found will be due to chance.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Thao tác hoá (operationalisation) nghĩa là biến một khái niệm chung chung ("trí nhớ", "tiếng ồn") thành một biến số cụ thể, đo lường được. Với thiết kế thực nghiệm, ta thao tác hoá cả IV (cách tạo ra các mức độ khác nhau) và DV (cách đo kết quả); với thiết kế tương quan, ta thao tác hoá cả hai biến đồng biến (co-variables) vì không có biến nào được chủ động thao túng. Một giả thuyết thao tác hoá tốt phải đủ cụ thể để một nhà nghiên cứu khác có thể lặp lại chính xác nghiên cứu đó.

1.3 Variables and Control

1.3.1 Independent and dependent variables

In a true experiment, the **independent variable (IV)** is the variable the researcher deliberately manipulates (or, in a natural/quasi-experiment, a pre-existing difference the researcher measures rather than manipulates); the **dependent variable (DV)** is the variable that is measured to see whether it was affected by the IV. Every other variable that could plausibly influence the DV must be identified and, where possible, controlled.

1.3.2 Extraneous variables versus confounding variables

Extraneous vs confounding variables

- An **extraneous variable (EV)** is any variable, other than the IV, that *could* affect the DV if left uncontrolled – for example, time of day, room temperature, or participants' tiredness in a memory experiment. An EV is a *potential* nuisance; if controlled (e.g., kept constant, or randomly distributed across conditions), it does not damage the study.
- A **confounding variable** is an extraneous variable that has *not* been adequately controlled and has varied *systematically* with the IV, so that it offers an alternative explanation for the results and undermines internal validity.

Ví dụ mẫu · Distinguishing extraneous from confounding

In the caffeine-and-memory study above, suppose every participant in the caffeine condition happened to be tested at 9 am (when people are typically most alert), while every participant in the placebo condition was tested at 5 pm (when people are typically more fatigued).

Analysis: “time of day” was always a potential **extraneous variable** in this design. Because it varied systematically with the IV (caffeine vs placebo) rather than being held constant or randomised across both conditions, it has become a **confounding variable**: any superior recall in the caffeine group could be explained equally well by testing time as by caffeine, and the study cannot distinguish between the two explanations.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Mọi biến ngoài IV có khả năng ảnh hưởng đến DV đều là **biến ngoại lai (extraneous variable)**. Biến ngoại lai chỉ trở thành **biến gây nhiễu (confounding variable)** khi nó *biến đổi cùng chiều một cách hệ thống* với IV – nghĩa là ta không thể tách bạch được liệu kết quả là do IV hay do biến đó gây ra. Nói cách khác: biến ngoại lai là “nguy cơ”, biến gây nhiễu là “nguy cơ đã xảy ra và làm hỏng khả năng kết luận nhân quả” của nghiên cứu.

1.3.3 Demand characteristics and investigator/experimenter effects

Demand characteristics are cues in the environment or procedure that allow a participant to guess the aim of a study, causing them to change their natural behaviour – either trying to help confirm the hypothesis (the “please-U” effect) or deliberately behaving atypically to sabotage it (the “screw-U” effect). **Investigator (or experimenter) effects** refer to any way in which the researcher's own expectations or behaviour – consciously or unconsciously – influence the outcome of the study, for example through subtle non-verbal cues, tone of voice, or bias when recording and interpreting ambiguous data.

1.3.4 Standardisation and blind procedures

Standardisation of procedure means giving every participant, in every condition, exactly the same instructions, environment, materials, and timing, so that the procedure itself does not become a confounding variable and so the study can be exactly replicated. Standardised instructions are typically

read from a fixed script.

Single-blind and double-blind procedures

- **Single-blind procedure:** the participant is not told which condition they are in, or the true aim of the study, so their behaviour cannot be influenced by demand characteristics.
- **Double-blind procedure:** *neither* the participant *nor* the researcher directly running the session knows which condition the participant is in (or the true hypothesis). This controls demand characteristics *and* investigator effects simultaneously, since the person collecting the data cannot unconsciously treat conditions differently.

Procedure	Does the participant know the condition/aim?	Does the researcher running the session know?	Main purpose
Single-blind	No	Yes	Reduces demand characteristics
Double-blind	No	No (a second researcher, blind to condition, runs/scores the session)	Reduces demand characteristics <i>and</i> investigator effects

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VN

Chuẩn hoá quy trình nghĩa là mọi người tham gia, ở mọi điều kiện, đều trải qua đúng cùng một hướng dẫn, cùng môi trường, cùng thời gian. **Làm mù đơn (single-blind):** người tham gia không biết mình ở nhóm nào/mục tiêu thật của nghiên cứu — giảm hiệu ứng đặc điểm yêu cầu (demand characteristics). **Làm mù đôi (double-blind):** cả người tham gia *lẫn* người trực tiếp thu thập dữ liệu đều không biết — giảm thêm cả hiệu ứng người nghiên cứu (investigator effects), vì người ghi nhận kết quả không thể vô tình đối xử khác nhau giữa các điều kiện.

1.3.5 Pilot studies

A **pilot study** is a small-scale trial run of the research procedure and materials, carried out on a handful of people who will *not* take part in the main study, before data collection begins in full. Its purpose is to identify and correct problems in advance: ambiguous questionnaire items, instructions that confuse participants, equipment that malfunctions, a task that is too easy/too hard (ceiling or floor effects), or a procedure that takes longer than planned. Running a pilot study saves time and resources and improves the validity of the final study.

(!) Lỗi thường gặp: Đừng nhầm **pilot study** với việc chạy lại toàn bộ nghiên cứu ở quy mô nhỏ để lấy dữ liệu chính thức. Pilot study chỉ nhằm mục đích *kiểm tra và tinh chỉnh quy trình* trước khi thu thập dữ liệu thật — dữ liệu từ pilot study **không** được đưa vào phân tích thống kê cuối cùng của nghiên cứu chính.

1.4 The Experimental Method

An experiment manipulates an independent variable (IV) to measure its effect on a dependent variable (DV), while controlling extraneous and confounding variables as far as possible. Only a true experiment, with random allocation of participants to conditions, allows a reasonably confident causal conclusion.

1.4.1 Types of experiment

Four types of experiment

- **Laboratory experiment:** conducted in a controlled setting; the IV is directly manipulated by the researcher. High control over extraneous variables and high replicability, but the artificial setting can reduce ecological validity.
- **Field experiment:** the IV is still directly manipulated by the researcher, but the study takes place in a participant's natural environment. Higher ecological validity than a lab experiment, but less control over extraneous variables, and participants are often unaware they are being studied (raising ethical questions about informed consent).
- **Natural experiment:** the IV occurs naturally (the researcher does not manipulate it, e.g. comparing children before and after a natural disaster, or comparing users versus non-users of an existing social-media platform); participants cannot be randomly allocated to conditions, so causation cannot be established as confidently as with a true experiment.
- **Quasi-experiment:** the IV is a pre-existing difference between people (e.g., age, gender, having/not having a diagnosed condition); as in a natural experiment, participants cannot be randomly allocated, since group membership already exists before the study begins.

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Thực nghiệm phòng thí nghiệm (lab): kiểm soát cao, dễ lặp lại, nhưng có thể thiếu tính giá trị sinh thái. **Thực nghiệm hiện trường (field):** IV vẫn do nhà nghiên cứu thao túng nhưng diễn ra trong môi trường tự nhiên — giá trị sinh thái cao hơn, kiểm soát thấp hơn. **Thực nghiệm tự nhiên (natural):** IV xảy ra một cách tự nhiên, không do nhà nghiên cứu tạo ra, và không thể phân ngẫu nhiên người tham gia vào nhóm. **Thực nghiệm giả (quasi):** IV là sự khác biệt đã tồn tại sẵn giữa những người tham gia (ví dụ giới tính, độ tuổi) — cũng không thể phân ngẫu nhiên. Cả hai loại sau đều hạn chế khả năng kết luận nhân quả so với thực nghiệm thật.

1.4.2 Experimental designs

Independent groups, repeated measures, matched pairs

- **Independent groups design:** different participants take part in each condition. No order effects; but participant variables (individual differences) between the groups may confound the results, and more participants are needed overall.
- **Repeated measures design:** the same participants take part in *all* conditions. Controls for participant variables (each participant is compared with themselves), but introduces **order effects** — practice effects (improvement from repetition) or fatigue/boredom effects (decline from repetition) — which are controlled by **counterbalancing**, e.g. using an ABBA design so that half the participants do condition A then B, and the other half do B then A, balancing out any systematic order effect across the whole sample.
- **Matched pairs design:** different participants take part in each condition, but participants are first matched into pairs on key variables likely to affect the DV (e.g., IQ, age, working-memory span), then one member of each pair is randomly allocated to each condition. Reduces (but cannot fully eliminate) participant variables without introducing order effects, at the cost of time spent matching and difficulty finding well-matched pairs.

Ví dụ mẫu · Identifying design features

A researcher wants to know whether studying with background music impairs recall of a word list, compared with studying in silence. Twenty participants complete the word-list task twice: once with music, once in silence, with the order in which each participant experiences the two conditions counterbalanced. Identify: (a) the IV; (b) the DV; (c) a suitable non-directional hypothesis; (d) the experimental design; (e) how order effects are being controlled.

(a) IV: presence or absence of background music during study (music vs silence).

(b) DV: number of words correctly recalled from the word list.

(c) H_1 (non-directional): there will be a significant difference in the number of words recalled between the music condition and the silence condition.

(d) Since the *same* 20 participants complete *both* conditions, this is a **repeated measures design**.

(e) Order effects (practice or fatigue) are controlled through **counterbalancing**: half the participants complete music-then-silence, the other half silence-then-music (an ABBA-style balancing of order across the sample), so that any average improvement or decline due to order affects both conditions equally.

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Ba thiết kế thực nghiệm: **nhóm độc lập** (mỗi người chỉ tham gia một điều kiện — không có hiệu ứng thứ tự nhưng khác biệt cá nhân giữa hai nhóm có thể gây nhiễu); **đo lặp lại** (cùng một người tham gia tất cả điều kiện — loại bỏ khác biệt cá nhân nhưng phát sinh hiệu ứng thứ tự, khắc phục bằng **cân bằng thứ tự** — **counterbalancing**, ví dụ thiết kế ABBA); **cặp ghép đôi** (những người khác nhau nhưng được ghép cặp theo biến số quan trọng trước khi phân ngẫu nhiên vào từng điều kiện — dung hoà giữa hai thiết kế trên nhưng tốn thời gian ghép cặp).

1.5 Levels of Measurement

The type of data a study produces determines which descriptive statistics and inferential tests can legitimately be used. Cambridge 9990 distinguishes three levels of measurement.

Level	Definition	Example	Suitable measure of central tendency
Nominal	Data placed into separate, named categories with no inherent order	Eye colour; yes/no responses; which of four therapies a patient received	Mode only
Ordinal	Data can be ranked in order, but the intervals between ranks are not equal or known	Likert-scale ratings (e.g., 1–5 agreement scale); rank order of finishers in a race	Median
Interval/Ratio	Data measured on a scale with genuinely equal intervals between units; ratio data additionally has a true zero point	Reaction time in milliseconds; number of words recalled; temperature in °C	Mean

Choosing the level of measurement is not a minor technicality: it directly determines which inferential test is appropriate. Nominal data (such as the sign of a difference) is exactly what the **Sign Test** (Section 1.14) analyses; ordinal, interval, and ratio data allow other tests (beyond the scope of AS Level) that use more of the information in the numbers, which is why researchers generally prefer to collect data at the highest level of measurement practical for their study.

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Thang đo danh nghĩa (nominal): chỉ phân loại, không có thứ tự (ví dụ màu mắt, có/không). **Thang đo thứ bậc (ordinal):** có thể xếp hạng nhưng khoảng cách giữa các hạng không đều nhau (ví dụ thang đánh giá Likert 1–5). **Thang đo khoảng/tỉ lệ (interval/ratio):** khoảng cách giữa các đơn vị đều nhau, dữ liệu tỉ lệ còn có điểm 0 thật sự (ví dụ thời gian phản ứng tính bằng mili-giây). Thang đo càng “cao” (interval/ratio) thì càng cho phép dùng nhiều loại kiểm định thống kê mạnh hơn.

1.6 Self-Report Techniques

Self-report techniques ask participants to report directly on their own thoughts, feelings, or behaviour.

1.6.1 Questionnaires

Questionnaires present a fixed set of written questions. **Closed questions** offer a fixed set of response options (e.g., yes/no, a rating scale), producing quantitative data that is easy to analyse statistically but may lack depth. **Open questions** allow participants to answer in their own words, producing qualitative data that is richer in detail but harder to analyse and compare across participants.

1.6.2 Interviews

Structured interviews use a fixed set of pre-determined questions, asked in the same order for every participant (like a questionnaire delivered verbally) – easy to repeat and compare, but inflexible. **Unstructured interviews** begin with a general topic and develop organically, like a guided conversation – allows rich, detailed data but is hard to replicate and analyse, and depends heavily on the interviewer’s skill. **Semi-structured interviews** combine a set of core fixed questions with the flexibility to ask follow-up questions, balancing comparability with depth.

(!) **Lỗi thường gặp:** Những nguy cơ thường gặp của phương pháp tự báo cáo: **thiên lệch mong muốn xã hội (social desirability bias)** – người tham gia trả lời theo hướng khiến bản thân trông tốt hơn thay vì trung thực; **câu hỏi dẫn dắt (leading questions)** – cách đặt câu hỏi gợi ý sẵn câu trả lời mong muốn; **hiệu ứng người phỏng vấn (interviewer effects)** – đặc điểm hoặc thái độ của người phỏng vấn ảnh hưởng đến câu trả lời; và **đặc điểm yêu cầu (demand characteristics)** – người tham gia đoán được mục đích nghiên cứu và thay đổi câu trả lời cho phù hợp.

1.7 Observational Methods

Observational methods involve systematically watching and recording behaviour, without manipulating any variable.

Dimensions of observation

- **Naturalistic vs controlled observation:** naturalistic observation takes place in the setting where the behaviour would normally occur (high ecological validity, low control); controlled observation takes place in a setting arranged by the researcher, e.g. a laboratory playroom (higher control, lower ecological validity).
- **Participant vs non-participant observation:** in participant observation the researcher becomes part of the group being studied (may gain deeper insight, but risks losing objectivity); in non-participant observation the researcher remains separate from those observed.
- **Overt vs covert observation:** overt observation is conducted with participants’ knowledge and consent; covert observation is conducted without participants’ knowledge, raising ethical concerns about informed consent and privacy, though it removes the risk of participants

altering their behaviour because they know they are watched.

Structured observation uses systematic tools to make recording more objective and reliable: a **behavioural checklist** operationally defines the specific categories of behaviour to be recorded (so that different observers code the same behaviour consistently); **time sampling** records whether a target behaviour is occurring at fixed time intervals (e.g., every 30 seconds); **event sampling** records every instance of a target behaviour whenever it occurs, which is more useful for infrequent behaviours that time sampling might miss entirely.

Inter-observer reliability is the degree of agreement between two or more independent observers coding the same behaviour using the same checklist; it is typically established, before the main study, by having both observers code a trial video and calculating the percentage agreement between their records.

Ví dụ mẫu · Calculating inter-observer reliability

Two observers independently use the same behavioural checklist to code 40 instances of playground behaviour from a video recording. They agree on the coding of 34 of the 40 instances. Calculate the percentage agreement.

$$\% \text{ agreement} = \frac{\text{number of agreements}}{\text{total number of observations}} \times 100 = \frac{34}{40} \times 100 = 85\%.$$

An agreement level of 85% or higher is generally taken as evidence of good inter-observer reliability; if agreement had been substantially lower, the behavioural checklist would need to be redefined (made more precise/operationalised) before data collection continues.

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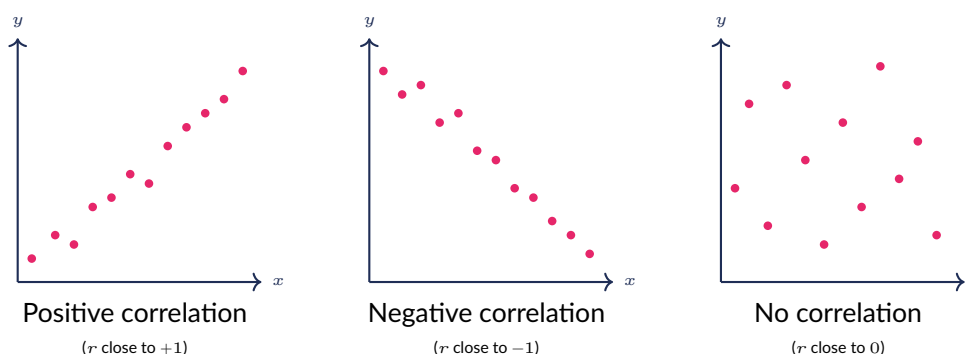
VN

Độ tin cậy giữa các quan sát viên (inter-observer reliability) đo mức độ đồng thuận giữa hai người quan sát cùng một hành vi bằng cùng một bảng kiểm (checklist). Tính bằng phần trăm số lần đồng ý chia cho tổng số lần quan sát. Nếu tỉ lệ đồng thuận thấp, nguyên nhân thường là bảng kiểm định nghĩa hành vi chưa đủ rõ ràng/cụ thể – cần thao tác hoá lại các danh mục hành vi trước khi tiếp tục thu thập dữ liệu chính thức.

1.8 Correlations and Case Studies

1.8.1 The correlational method

A **correlation** measures the strength and direction of the relationship between two co-variables, without either variable being manipulated. The **correlation coefficient** (r) ranges from -1 to $+1$: values close to $+1$ indicate a strong positive correlation (as one co-variable increases, so does the other); values close to -1 indicate a strong negative correlation (as one co-variable increases, the other decreases); values close to 0 indicate little or no linear relationship.



Scattergraphs illustrating a strong positive correlation, a strong negative correlation, and no meaningful correlation between two co-variables.

(!) Lỗi thường gặp: Correlation does not imply causation. A significant correlation between two co-variables shows only that they are related, not that one *causes* the other. Two further explanations must always be considered: (1) the relationship could run in the opposite direction (reverse causality); (2) a third, unmeasured variable could be causing changes in both co-variables simultaneously. For example, ice-cream sales and drowning incidents are positively correlated, but neither causes the other — both increase because of a third variable, hot weather.

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VN

Hệ số tương quan (r) chạy từ -1 đến $+1$: gần $+1$ là tương quan thuận mạnh, gần -1 là tương quan nghịch mạnh, gần 0 là gần như không có tương quan tuyến tính. **Tương quan không đồng nghĩa với quan hệ nhân quả** — vì phương pháp tương quan không thao túng biến nào cả, nên luôn tồn tại khả năng nhân quả ngược chiều hoặc một biến thứ ba gây ra cả hai hiện tượng cùng lúc (ví dụ kem bán chạy và số ca đuối nước đều tăng vào mùa hè nóng bức, nhưng không phải cái này gây ra cái kia).

1.8.2 Case studies

A **case study** is an in-depth, detailed investigation of a single individual, small group, or event, typically drawing on multiple sources of data (interviews, observation, psychometric tests, medical/school records) over an extended period. Case studies are **idiographic** — they aim to understand the unique, individual case in depth, rather than to establish general laws that apply to everyone (a **nomothetic** approach). They can generate rich, detailed data and are invaluable for studying rare phenomena that could never ethically or practically be created experimentally (e.g., unusual brain damage), but findings from a single case have low **generalisability** to the wider population, and case studies often rely on retrospective and self-report data that may be inaccurate.

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VN

Nghiên cứu trường hợp (case study) tìm hiểu chuyên sâu một cá nhân/nhóm nhỏ/sự kiện cụ thể — mang tính **idiographic** (tìm hiểu cái riêng biệt) chứ không phải **nomothetic** (tìm quy luật chung áp dụng cho tất cả). Ưu điểm: dữ liệu phong phú, cho phép nghiên cứu các hiện tượng hiếm gặp. Nhược điểm: khả năng khái quát hoá thấp (chỉ 1 trường hợp), dễ phụ thuộc vào dữ liệu hồi tưởng/tự báo cáo thiếu chính xác.

1.9 Content Analysis of Qualitative Data

Content analysis is a technique for systematically analysing qualitative material (interview transcripts, diaries, media content, open-ended questionnaire answers) by converting it into quantifiable data.

Steps in content analysis

1. Decide on a **coding unit** — the unit of analysis to be counted (e.g., a word, phrase, or theme).
2. Develop a **coding system** (a set of categories/themes), often by reading a sample of the data first to identify recurring ideas.
3. Work systematically through the *entire* data set, applying the coding categories consistently and tallying the frequency of each category.
4. Present the results quantitatively (e.g., a frequency table or bar chart of how often each

theme/category appeared) and, often, illustrate qualitatively with example quotations.

Thematic analysis is closely related but stays primarily qualitative: it identifies and describes recurring **themes** within the data without necessarily quantifying (counting) their frequency, producing a narrative account of the patterns found rather than a set of numbers.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Phân tích nội dung (content analysis) biến dữ liệu định tính (lời nói, văn bản) thành dữ liệu định lượng bằng cách: chọn đơn vị mã hoá, xây dựng hệ thống chủ đề/danh mục, áp dụng nhất quán lên toàn bộ dữ liệu, rồi đếm tần suất xuất hiện của từng chủ đề. **Phân tích chủ đề (thematic analysis)** tương tự nhưng dừng lại ở việc mô tả các chủ đề lặp lại mà không nhất thiết phải đếm số lần xuất hiện – kết quả mang tính tường thuật (định tính) nhiều hơn.

1.10 Sampling Techniques

A **sample** is the group of participants who actually take part in a study, drawn from a wider **target population**. How the sample is selected affects how representative it is, and therefore how confidently findings can be generalised.

Technique	Description	Key limitation
Random	Every member of the target population has an equal chance of being selected (e.g., names drawn from a hat, or a random-number generator applied to a numbered list)	Time-consuming to arrange for a large population; can still, by chance, produce an unrepresentative sample
Systematic	Participants are selected using a fixed, predetermined interval from a full list (e.g., every 10th name on a register)	Not every member has an independent chance of selection; the interval could accidentally coincide with a pattern in the list
Stratified	The population is divided into subgroups (strata) based on a characteristic (e.g., gender, age band); participants are then randomly selected from each stratum in proportion to its size in the population	Cannot represent every characteristic that might matter; still time-consuming to identify strata accurately
Opportunity	Whoever is conveniently available and willing at the time (e.g., students in a university library)	Highly susceptible to researcher/participant bias; often unrepresentative of the wider target population
Volunteer (self-selected)	Participants respond to an advertisement/appeal and volunteer themselves	Prone to a 'volunteer bias' – those who volunteer often differ systematically (e.g., more motivated, more curious) from the wider population

Ví dụ mẫu · Proportional stratified sampling

A target population of 200 students is made up of 120 girls and 80 boys. A researcher wants a stratified sample of 50 students, proportional to the population. How many girls and how many boys should be sampled?

Proportion of girls = $\frac{120}{200} = 0.60$, so girls needed = $0.60 \times 50 = 30$.

Proportion of boys = $\frac{80}{200} = 0.40$, so boys needed = $0.40 \times 50 = 20$.

Check: $30 + 20 = 50$, matching the target sample size, and $30 : 20$ preserves the same 3:2 ratio as $120 : 80$ in the population.

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Mẫu **ngẫu nhiên (random)**: mọi cá thể trong quần thể có cơ hội được chọn như nhau. Mẫu **hệ thống (systematic)**: chọn theo khoảng cách cố định từ danh sách. Mẫu **phân tầng (stratified)**: chia quần thể thành các nhóm nhỏ rồi chọn ngẫu nhiên theo đúng tỉ lệ của từng nhóm — đại diện tốt nhất trong các phương pháp không tốn kém, nhưng vẫn mất thời gian xác định các tầng. Mẫu **thuận tiện (opportunity)**: chọn ai sẵn có — nhanh nhưng dễ thiên lệch. Mẫu **tự nguyện (volunteer)**: người tham gia tự đăng ký — dễ gặp “thiên lệch người tình nguyện” (volunteer bias) vì người tự nguyện thường khác biệt hệ thống so với quần thể chung (ví dụ có động lực cao hơn, tò mò hơn).

1.11 Reliability and Validity

1.11.1 Reliability

Reliability refers to the consistency of a measure, procedure, or finding. **Test-retest reliability** is assessed by giving the same test to the same participants on two separate occasions and correlating the two sets of scores — a reliable measure should produce a strong positive correlation. **Inter-observer (inter-rater) reliability** (Section 6) is assessed by comparing the level of agreement between two independent observers or raters using the same coding system.

1.11.2 Validity

Validity refers to whether a measure or study truly measures what it claims to measure, or whether a finding truly reflects a real effect rather than an artefact of poor design.

- **Internal validity**: whether the observed effect on the DV was genuinely caused by the manipulation of the IV, rather than by confounding variables, demand characteristics, or investigator effects.
- **External validity**: whether findings can be generalised beyond the specific conditions of the study, including **ecological validity** (generalising to real-world settings/tasks) and **population validity** (generalising to people beyond the specific sample studied).

Reliability and validity are related but distinct: a measure can be highly *reliable* (consistent) without being *valid* (a bathroom scale that consistently reads 3 kg too heavy is perfectly reliable but not valid). Reliability is therefore necessary but not sufficient for validity.

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VN

Độ tin cậy (reliability) là tính *nhất quán* của một phép đo (đo lại vẫn ra kết quả tương tự — test-retest, hay hai người quan sát cùng ra kết quả giống nhau — inter-observer). **Độ giá trị (validity)** là việc phép đo có thực sự đo đúng cái nó tuyên bố đo hay không, gồm **giá trị nội tại (internal validity)** — hiệu ứng quan sát được có thực sự do IV gây ra hay không — và **giá trị bên ngoài (external validity)** — kết quả có khái quát hoá được ra bối cảnh thực tế (ecological validity) và ra quần thể rộng hơn (population validity) hay không. Một phép đo có thể rất nhất quán (tin cậy cao) nhưng vẫn đo sai thứ cần đo (giá trị thấp) — giống một cái cân luôn luôn báo

thừa 3 kg: rất ổn định (tin cậy) nhưng không chính xác (không có giá trị).

1.12 Ethical Issues in Psychological Research

Psychological research is governed by ethical guidelines (such as those of the British Psychological Society, BPS, and the American Psychological Association, APA) designed to protect participants' rights and wellbeing.

Key ethical guidelines

- **Informed consent:** participants must be told enough about the study, in advance, to make a genuine, voluntary decision about whether to take part.
- **Deception:** withholding information or misleading participants about the true nature of the study should be avoided wherever possible; where some deception is unavoidable (e.g., to prevent demand characteristics from invalidating the results), it must be justified against the potential benefits of the research and fully addressed at debrief.
- **Right to withdraw:** participants must be free to leave the study at any point, and to withdraw their data afterwards, without penalty or pressure.
- **Protection from harm:** participants must not be exposed to risks (physical or psychological) greater than those encountered in ordinary daily life.
- **Confidentiality:** participants' data and identity must be protected, typically by using participant numbers instead of names.
- **Debriefing:** at the end of the study, participants must be told the true aim and nature of the study, given the opportunity to ask questions, and (where deception occurred) reassured and given the chance to withdraw their data.

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Các nguyên tắc đạo đức nghiên cứu chính (theo BPS/APA): **đồng thuận có hiểu biết** (informed consent) — được biết đủ thông tin trước khi đồng ý tham gia; **lừa dối** (deception) — nên tránh, nếu bắt buộc phải có thì cần cân nhắc lợi ích/rủi ro và giải thích đầy đủ khi kết thúc; **quyền rút lui** (right to withdraw) — được rời khỏi nghiên cứu bất cứ lúc nào mà không bị phạt; **bảo vệ khỏi tổn hại** (protection from harm); **bảo mật** (confidentiality); và **giải thích sau nghiên cứu** (debriefing) — được thông báo mục đích thật sự và có cơ hội rút lại dữ liệu của mình.

1.13 Descriptive Statistics

1.13.1 Measures of central tendency and dispersion

Descriptive statistics

- **Mean:** the arithmetic average — sum of all scores divided by the number of scores. Uses every score, but can be distorted by extreme (outlier) values.
- **Median:** the middle value when scores are arranged in order (average of the two middle values if there is an even number of scores). Not affected by extreme values.
- **Mode:** the most frequently occurring score. Simple, and the only appropriate measure for nominal data, but there may be no mode, or more than one (bimodal/multimodal).
- **Range:** the difference between the highest and lowest scores. Quick and easy, but based

on only two scores and highly affected by outliers.

- **Standard deviation (SD):** a measure of the average spread of scores around the mean, using every score in the data set – the most informative and widely used measure of dispersion.

1.13.2 Standard deviation: full worked calculation

For a sample of n scores with mean $\bar{x}$, the standard deviation is

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum(x - \bar{x})^2}{n - 1}}.$$

(Dividing by $n - 1$, rather than n , gives the standard *sample* standard deviation typically used to estimate the variability of the wider population from a sample.)

Ví dụ mẫu · Full descriptive statistics calculation

Ten participants each recall a number of words from a 15-item list: 8, 10, 12, 9, 11, 10, 7, 13, 10, 10. Calculate the mean, median, mode, range, and standard deviation.

Mean: sum = $8 + 10 + 12 + 9 + 11 + 10 + 7 + 13 + 10 + 10 = 100$; $\bar{x} = 100/10 = 10$.

Median: sorted data: 7, 8, 9, 10, 10, 10, 10, 11, 12, 13; with $n = 10$ (even), median = mean of 5th and 6th values = $(10 + 10)/2 = 10$.

Mode: 10 occurs four times, more than any other value $\Rightarrow$ mode = 10.

Range: $13 - 7 = 6$.

Standard deviation: deviations from $\bar{x} = 10$ are $-3, -2, -1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 2, 3$; squared deviations are 9, 4, 1, 0, 0, 0, 0, 1, 4, 9, summing to $\sum(x - \bar{x})^2 = 28$.

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{28}{10 - 1}} = \sqrt{\frac{28}{9}} = \sqrt{3.111} \approx 1.76.$$

An SD of about 1.76 words shows that, on average, individual scores lie roughly 1.76 words away from the mean of 10 – a fairly tight cluster, since the full range is only 6 words.

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Trung bình cộng (mean) dùng hết mọi giá trị nhưng dễ bị kéo lệch bởi giá trị ngoại lai. **Trung vị (median)** là giá trị chính giữa, không bị ảnh hưởng bởi ngoại lai. **Mốt (mode)** là giá trị xuất hiện nhiều nhất – là chỉ số duy nhất áp dụng được cho dữ liệu danh nghĩa. **Khoảng biến thiên (range)** = giá trị lớn nhất trừ giá trị nhỏ nhất – để tính nhưng chỉ dựa vào 2 giá trị. **Độ lệch chuẩn (SD)**, công thức $s = \sqrt{\sum(x - \bar{x})^2 / (n - 1)}$, đo mức phân tán trung bình của toàn bộ dữ liệu quanh trung bình cộng – SD càng nhỏ thì dữ liệu càng tập trung quanh giá trị trung bình.

1.13.3 Quantitative versus qualitative data

Data type	Strengths	Weaknesses
Quantitative (numerical)	Objective, easy to summarise and analyse statistically; allows precise comparison between conditions/groups and easy replication	Can lack depth and detail; may fail to capture the meaning or context behind a number, reducing validity
Qualitative (descriptive/verbal)	Rich, detailed, in-depth data; captures meaning and context; often higher ecological validity	Analysis (e.g., content/thematic analysis) is more subjective and time-consuming; harder to compare systematically across participants or replicate exactly

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Dữ liệu **định lượng** (số liệu): khách quan, dễ phân tích thống kê, dễ so sánh và lặp lại, nhưng có thể thiếu chiều sâu/ngữ cảnh. Dữ liệu **định tính** (mô tả/lời nói): giàu chi tiết, phản ánh đúng ý nghĩa và bối cảnh, giá trị sinh thái thường cao hơn, nhưng phân tích mang tính chủ quan hơn, tốn thời gian hơn, khó so sánh/lặp lại chính xác giữa các nghiên cứu.

1.14 Inferential Statistics: Significance and the Sign Test

1.14.1 Statistical significance

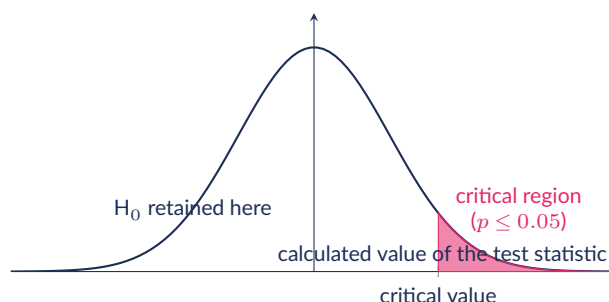
Descriptive statistics summarise a data set, but they cannot tell us whether a difference or correlation is a genuine effect or simply due to chance. **Inferential statistics** use a statistical test to calculate the **probability** (p) that the observed result could have occurred by chance alone, assuming the null hypothesis is true.

Psychology conventionally uses a significance level of $p \leq 0.05$: if the probability that the result occurred by chance is 5% or less, the result is declared **statistically significant**, the null hypothesis (H_0) is rejected, and the alternative hypothesis (H_1) is accepted. A stricter level, $p \leq 0.01$ (1%), is sometimes used where a higher degree of certainty is required (e.g., in medical research or when replicating a controversial finding).

1.14.2 Type I and Type II errors

Because significance testing is probabilistic, not certain, two kinds of error are possible:

- **Type I error (a 'false positive')**: rejecting the null hypothesis (accepting H_1) when H_0 is actually true — concluding there is an effect when there is not. More likely if too lenient a significance level is used (e.g., $p \leq 0.10$).
- **Type II error (a 'false negative')**: failing to reject the null hypothesis (retaining H_0) when H_0 is actually false — missing a real effect. More likely if too strict a significance level is used (e.g., $p \leq 0.01$) or if the sample size is too small.



A calculated test statistic falling in the shaded critical region (the most extreme 5% of outcomes expected under the null hypothesis) leads to rejection of H_0 and acceptance of H_1 .

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Ý nghĩa thống kê (statistical significance): xác suất (p) mà kết quả quan sát được chỉ do ngẫu nhiên gây ra. Ngưỡng quy ước trong tâm lý học là $p \leq 0.05$ (tức 5%): nếu xác suất do ngẫu nhiên $\leq 5\%$, ta bác bỏ H_0 và chấp nhận H_1 . **Sai lầm loại I:** bác bỏ H_0 dù H_0 đúng ("dương tính giả" – kết luận có hiệu ứng trong khi thực ra không có). **Sai lầm loại II:** giữ lại H_0 dù H_0 sai ("âm tính giả" – bỏ lỡ một hiệu ứng thật sự tồn tại).

1.14.3 The Sign Test

The **Sign Test** is the non-parametric statistical test required by the Cambridge 9990 syllabus. It is used with a **repeated measures or matched pairs design** where the data can be reduced to the **direction** of the difference between each pair of scores (i.e., nominal-level sign data: + or –).

Sign Test procedure

1. For each participant/pair, calculate the difference between the two scores (Condition A – Condition B).
2. Record the **sign** of each difference (+ or –). Any difference of exactly zero is a **tie** and is removed from the analysis, reducing N (the number of pairs) accordingly.
3. Count the number of times the **less frequent sign** occurs – this is the **calculated value**, often denoted S .
4. Compare the calculated value with the appropriate **critical value** from a Sign Test table, for the relevant N and significance level.
5. **Unlike most other statistical tests**, for the Sign Test the result is significant if the calculated value is **equal to or less than** the critical value.

N (pairs, after removing ties)	5	6	7	8	9
Critical value ($p \leq 0.05$, one-tailed)	0	0	0	1	1
N (pairs, after removing ties)	10	11	12	13	14/15
Critical value ($p \leq 0.05$, one-tailed)	1	2	2	3	3

Extract from a Sign Test critical values table, one-tailed test, $p \leq 0.05$.

Ví dụ mẫu · Full Sign Test calculation

A repeated measures study tests whether background noise impairs recall. Twelve participants each recall a 20-word list once in a quiet room and once in a noisy room (order counterbalanced). H_1 (directional): participants will recall more words in the quiet condition than in the noisy condition.

Participant	Quiet	Noisy	Sign (Quiet – Noisy)
1	15	10	+
2	12	13	–
3	18	14	+
4	14	14	tie (excluded)
5	16	11	+
6	13	9	+
7	11	9	+
8	17	13	+
9	15	15	tie (excluded)
10	14	10	+
11	12	8	+
12	16	12	+

Step 1–2: two ties (participants 4 and 9) are removed, so $N = 12 - 2 = 10$.

Step 3: signs remaining: 9 pluses, 1 minus. The less frequent sign is –, occurring once, so the calculated value $S = 1$.

Step 4: from the critical values table, for $N = 10$ at $p \leq 0.05$ (one-tailed, since H_1 is directional), the critical value is 1.

Step 5: the calculated value ($S = 1$) is equal to the critical value (1), and for the Sign Test significance requires the calculated value to be **equal to or less than** the critical value. **The result is significant at $p \leq 0.05$:** the null hypothesis is rejected, and the alternative hypothesis is accepted – participants recalled significantly more words in the quiet condition than in the noisy condition.

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Sign Test là kiểm định phi tham số bắt buộc trong chương trình Cambridge 9990, dùng cho thiết kế đo lặp lại/cặp ghép đôi khi dữ liệu được rút gọn về dấu của hiệu số giữa hai điều kiện. Các bước: (1) tính hiệu số từng cặp; (2) ghi dấu +/–, loại bỏ các cặp có hiệu số = 0 (hoà, tie), làm giảm N ; (3) đếm số lần xuất hiện của dấu ít gặp hơn – đây là giá trị tính toán S ; (4) so sánh S với giá trị tới hạn (critical value) tra bảng theo N và mức ý nghĩa; (5) **khác với đa số kiểm định khác**, Sign Test có ý nghĩa thống kê khi giá trị tính toán **nhỏ hơn hoặc bằng** giá trị tới hạn.

1.15 Evaluating Psychological Research

Peer review, generalisability, and replicability

- **Peer review:** before publication, research is scrutinised by other independent experts in the same field, who assess the validity of the methodology, the appropriateness of the statistical analysis, whether ethical guidelines were followed, and the originality/importance of the findings. Peer review acts as quality control, helping to filter out flawed research and informing decisions about publication and funding.
- **Generalisability:** the extent to which findings from the specific sample studied can be applied to the wider target population. This depends heavily on the sample being genuinely representative, which in turn depends on the sampling technique used and the sample size.
- **Replicability:** the extent to which a study, if repeated exactly (by the same or different researchers), would produce the same or similar findings. Replicability requires the original study to have used a fully standardised procedure that is reported in enough detail for

others to repeat it precisely; a finding that repeatedly fails to replicate is treated with far less confidence than one that has been replicated many times.

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Bình duyệt (peer review): các chuyên gia độc lập cùng lĩnh vực đánh giá nghiên cứu trước khi công bố — kiểm tra phương pháp, phân tích thống kê, đạo đức, và mức độ quan trọng/mới mẻ của phát hiện. **Khả năng khái quát hoá (generalisability):** kết quả từ mẫu nghiên cứu có áp dụng được cho quần thể rộng hơn không — phụ thuộc vào tính đại diện của mẫu. **Khả năng lặp lại (replicability):** nếu lặp lại đúng quy trình, có ra kết quả tương tự không — đòi hỏi quy trình gốc phải được chuẩn hoá và mô tả đủ chi tiết để người khác lặp lại chính xác.

1.16 Designing a Study End to End

The following worked example draws together every stage of the research process covered in this unit.

Ví dụ mẫu · Designing a complete study

Aim: to investigate the effect of background music on the time taken to complete a jigsaw puzzle.

H₁ (directional): participants who complete a jigsaw puzzle while listening to fast-tempo music will take significantly less time to complete the puzzle than participants who complete it in silence.

H₀: there will be no significant difference in completion time between the music condition and the silence condition; any difference found will be due to chance.

IV (operationalised): background music — Condition A: 120 BPM instrumental music played through headphones at a constant volume of 60 dB throughout; Condition B: no music (silence).

DV (operationalised): completion time in seconds, from starting the puzzle to placing the final piece of a standardised 100-piece jigsaw, timed with a stopwatch.

Design: independent groups, to avoid the practice effects that would occur if the same participants completed multiple puzzles in a repeated measures design.

Sampling: an opportunity sample of 40 university students recruited from the library, then **randomly allocated** to the two conditions (20 per condition) to spread participant variables evenly.

Controls: identical puzzle and standardised instructions for every participant; testing at a similar time of day, in the same room, with the same lighting and temperature; a **single-blind** procedure so participants are not told the true aim (reducing demand characteristics), and the researcher timing the puzzle is kept unaware of the specific hypothesis (reducing investigator effects).

Ethics: informed consent obtained at recruitment (participants are told they will complete a puzzle task, with the full aim disclosed at debrief to avoid invalidating the study through demand characteristics); right to withdraw at any point without penalty; data anonymised using participant numbers; full debriefing after data collection, including the opportunity to withdraw their data.

Analysis: descriptive statistics first (mean and SD of completion time for each condition); because the design uses independent groups and interval/ratio data (time in seconds), the logic of comparing a calculated statistic against a critical value at $p \leq 0.05$ (as in the Sign Test) still applies, even though the specific test used for this kind of data lies beyond the AS Level syllabus.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

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Ví dụ trên minh hoạ trọn vẹn quy trình sáu bước: từ mục tiêu và giả thuyết, thao tác hoá IV/DV, chọn thiết kế (nhóm độc lập để tránh hiệu ứng luyện tập), chọn mẫu và phân ngẫu nhiên, kiểm soát biến ngoại lai bằng chuẩn hoá và làm mù, tuân thủ đạo đức nghiên cứu, đến bước phân tích số liệu cuối cùng. Đây chính là cách một nhà tâm lý học thực thụ thiết kế một nghiên cứu hoàn chỉnh.

1.17 Problem Bank**Bài tập luyện tập**

A researcher investigates whether the number of hours of sleep affects performance on a memory test. Identify the IV and the DV, and state whether this is best described as an experiment or a correlational study.

Lời giải chi tiết

There is no manipulated independent variable here — the researcher measures both “hours of sleep” and “memory test performance” as they naturally occur, without allocating participants to conditions. This is a **correlational study**, so the two variables are correctly termed **co-variables** (hours of sleep and memory test score) rather than IV and DV.

Bài tập luyện tập

A researcher compares reaction times of people who have and have not consumed alcohol, using naturally occurring drinkers at a party (the researcher does not give anyone alcohol). This is an example of a:

- | | |
|---------------------------|------------------------|
| (A) Laboratory experiment | (C) Natural experiment |
| (B) Field experiment | (D) Case study |

Lời giải chi tiết

The IV (whether alcohol was consumed) occurs naturally and is not manipulated by the researcher, and participants cannot be randomly allocated to conditions. **(C)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

A study investigates whether a new revision technique improves exam scores compared with normal revision. (a) Write a suitable operationalised IV. (b) Write a suitable operationalised DV. (c) Write a directional (one-tailed) hypothesis.

Lời giải chi tiết

(a) IV: revision technique — experimental group uses the retrieval-practice technique (self-testing on flashcards for 30 minutes daily over two weeks) vs control group uses normal re-reading revision for the same amount of time. **(b)** DV: score (out of 50) on a standardised end-of-topic test taken by both groups under identical conditions. **(c)** H_1 (directional): participants who use the retrieval-practice technique will score significantly higher on the end-of-topic test than participants who use normal re-reading revision.

Bài tập luyện tập

In a repeated measures design, each participant experiences every condition of the IV. Which of the following is *not* a way of controlling order effects?

- (A) Counterbalancing using an ABBA design (C) Randomly allocating different participants to each condition
- (B) Randomising the order of conditions across participants (D) Splitting the sample so half do A then B, and half do B then A

Lời giải chi tiết

Randomly allocating *different* participants to each condition describes an **independent groups** design, not a way of controlling order effects within a repeated measures design (where the same participants complete every condition). (C).

Bài tập luyện tập

A memory experiment tests recall of a word list with and without background noise. All participants complete the noisy condition first, immediately after lunch, and the quiet condition second, later in the afternoon. Explain why “time since lunch” has become a confounding variable in this study, and suggest one way to control it.

Lời giải chi tiết

“Time since lunch” (and associated tiredness/blood-sugar changes) was always a potential **extraneous variable**. Because every participant experienced the noisy condition immediately after lunch and the quiet condition later, this variable now varies *systematically* with the IV (noise level), so it has become a **confounding variable**: any difference in recall could be explained by the passage of time/tiredness rather than by noise. This could be controlled by **counterbalancing** the order of conditions across participants (half do noisy-then-quiet, half do quiet-then-noisy), so that “time since lunch” is balanced equally across both conditions rather than tied to one of them.

Bài tập luyện tập

A researcher tells half of the participants in a study that the task is “a test of intelligence” and the other half that it is “just a fun puzzle,” even though both groups complete the identical task under identical conditions. Participants told it is an intelligence test perform worse. This is best explained by:

- (A) A confounding variable of task difficulty (C) Low inter-observer reliability
- (B) Demand characteristics arising from the labelling of the task (D) A Type II error

Lời giải chi tiết

The task itself was identical in both groups; only the framing/label differed. Participants’ behaviour changed because of cues about how they were expected to feel or perform (the “intelligence test” framing), which is a demand characteristic effect, not a genuine effect of task difficulty. (B).

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain the difference between a single-blind and a double-blind procedure, and state one advantage of using a double-blind procedure over a single-blind procedure.

Lời giải chi tiết

In a **single-blind** procedure, the participant does not know which condition they are in or the true aim of the study, but the researcher running the session does know. In a **double-blind** procedure, neither the participant *nor* the researcher directly running the session knows the condition or hypothesis. **Advantage of double-blind:** it additionally controls for **investigator effects** – because the person collecting the data does not know which condition a participant is in, they cannot unconsciously treat participants differently (e.g., through tone of voice or non-verbal cues) in a way that could bias the results, which a single-blind procedure alone cannot prevent.

Bài tập luyện tập

Why is a pilot study normally carried out before the main study begins?

- | | |
|---|---|
| (A) To collect the final data set that will be statistically analysed | (C) To trial the procedure and materials on a small number of people and identify problems in advance |
| (B) To recruit additional participants for the main study | (D) To calculate the standard deviation of the target population |

Lời giải chi tiết

A pilot study is a small-scale trial run used to identify and fix problems (ambiguous instructions, faulty equipment, timing issues) before the real data collection begins; its data is not included in the final analysis. (C).

Bài tập luyện tập

A researcher wants maximum control over extraneous variables when testing the effect of sleep deprivation on reaction time, and is not concerned about ecological validity. Which type of experiment should be chosen, and why?

Lời giải chi tiết

A **laboratory experiment** should be chosen. Because it takes place in a controlled setting where the researcher can standardise the environment, equipment, and procedure precisely, it maximises control over extraneous variables and is easy to replicate – at some cost to ecological validity, which the researcher has stated is not a priority here.

Bài tập luyện tập

Twenty participants complete a repeated measures task under two conditions, A and B. To control order effects using counterbalancing, how should the sample be split, and which sequence should each half complete?

Lời giải chi tiết

The sample should be split into two equal halves of 10 participants each. One half completes the conditions in the order **A then B**; the other half completes them in the order **B then A** (an ABBA-style balancing across the whole sample). This ensures that any systematic order effect (practice or fatigue) is experienced equally often in each position across the two conditions, so it cannot favour one condition over the other on average.

Bài tập luyện tập

Classify each of the following as nominal, ordinal, or interval/ratio data: (a) the number of correct answers (out of 20) on a test; (b) participants' ranking of five flavours from most to least preferred; (c) whether a participant is left-handed or right-handed.

Lời giải chi tiết

(a) Number of correct answers is measured on an equal-interval scale with a true zero ⇒ **interval/ratio**. (b) A ranking of preferences has order but the “distance” between ranks 1st and 2nd is not necessarily equal to the distance between 4th and 5th ⇒ **ordinal**. (c) Handedness is a simple named category with no order ⇒ **nominal**.

Bài tập luyện tập

A questionnaire item reads: “Most people agree that regular exercise improves mental health – do you agree?” Identify the methodological problem with this item and rewrite it to remove the problem.

Lời giải chi tiết

This is a **leading question**: the phrase “most people agree” pressures respondents towards a socially expected answer (“yes”), reducing the validity of their response. **Improved version**: “Do you agree or disagree that regular exercise improves mental health?” (with response options such as strongly agree/agree/neutral/disagree/strongly disagree) – this removes the suggestive framing while still measuring the same underlying attitude.

Bài tập luyện tập

A researcher records, every 30 seconds, whether a child is or is not engaged in cooperative play during a 20-minute observation session. This structured observation technique is called:

- | | |
|--------------------|-----------------------------|
| (A) Event sampling | (C) Participant observation |
| (B) Time sampling | (D) Content analysis |

Lời giải chi tiết

Recording whether a target behaviour is occurring at fixed time intervals (here, every 30 seconds) is the defining feature of **time sampling**. (B).

Bài tập luyện tập

Two observers use the same behavioural checklist to code 50 instances of a child's classroom behaviour from video. They agree on 41 of the 50 instances. Calculate the percentage inter-

observer agreement, and state whether this represents good reliability.

Lời giải chi tiết

$$\% \text{ agreement} = \frac{41}{50} \times 100 = 82\%.$$

An agreement level of 82% is reasonably close to, but slightly below, the commonly cited 85% threshold for good inter-observer reliability; the checklist's behavioural categories may benefit from being defined slightly more precisely before further data is collected.

Bài tập luyện tập

A study finds a correlation coefficient of $r = -0.82$ between number of hours spent on a smart-phone per day and hours of sleep per night. Which of the following is the most appropriate conclusion?

- (A) Smartphone use directly causes reduced sleep, since the correlation is strong
- (B) There is a strong negative relationship between the two co-variables, but causation cannot be concluded from a correlation alone
- (C) Because r is negative, the relationship must be weak
- (D) No meaningful relationship exists between the two variables

Lời giải chi tiết

$r = -0.82$ is close to -1 , indicating a strong negative relationship (more smartphone use is associated with less sleep), but a correlational design cannot rule out reverse causality (poor sleep could lead to more smartphone use) or a third variable (e.g., late-night stress) affecting both. (B).

Bài tập luyện tập

Rank the following correlation coefficients from weakest to strongest relationship (ignoring direction): $r = 0.15$, $r = -0.68$, $r = 0.05$, $r = -0.91$.

Lời giải chi tiết

Strength depends on how close $|r|$ is to 1, regardless of sign. Ordering from weakest to strongest: $r = 0.05$ (weakest) $< r = 0.15 < r = -0.68 < r = -0.91$ (strongest). Note that $r = -0.91$ is a *stronger* relationship than $r = 0.15$ even though it is negative — direction (sign) and strength (magnitude) are independent properties of a correlation coefficient.

Bài tập luyện tập

A case study is described as “idiographic.” Explain what this means and give one strength and one weakness of the case-study method as a result.

Lời giải chi tiết

Idiographic means the case study aims to understand a single individual or event in rich, unique detail, rather than to establish general laws that apply to everyone (a nomothetic approach). **Strength:** because it does not need a large representative sample, a case study can investigate

rare phenomena in depth that could never be studied experimentally (e.g., an individual with an extremely unusual pattern of brain damage). **Weakness:** because findings come from just one person or event, they have low **generalisability** — it cannot be assumed that conclusions apply to anyone beyond that specific case.

Bài tập luyện tập

A researcher analyses 60 open-ended questionnaire responses about attitudes to online learning by counting how many times each response mentions “flexibility,” “isolation,” or “technical difficulties.” This technique is called:

- (A) The Sign Test
- (B) Content analysis
- (C) A pilot study
- (D) A matched pairs design

Lời giải chi tiết

Systematically coding qualitative material into categories and counting the frequency of each category converts qualitative data into quantitative data — this is **content analysis**. (B).

Bài tập luyện tập

A population of 300 employees is made up of 180 from Department A and 120 from Department B. A researcher wants a stratified sample of 60 employees, proportional to department size. How many employees should be sampled from each department?

Lời giải chi tiết

Proportion from Department A = $\frac{180}{300} = 0.60$, so sample from A = $0.60 \times 60 = 36$. Proportion from Department B = $\frac{120}{300} = 0.40$, so sample from B = $0.40 \times 60 = 24$. Check: $36 + 24 = 60$, and $36 : 24$ simplifies to the same 3:2 ratio as $180 : 120$.

Bài tập luyện tập

A researcher advertises for participants on social media, offering entry into a prize draw. Give one strength and one weakness of this volunteer (self-selected) sampling technique.

Lời giải chi tiết

Strength: it is quick and practical, allowing a researcher to reach a large number of potential participants with minimal effort, and participants are willingly engaged (likely to cooperate fully with the procedure). **Weakness:** the sample is prone to **volunteer bias** — people who choose to respond to an advertisement (especially one offering an incentive) often differ systematically from the wider target population (e.g., more curious, more available, more motivated by rewards), reducing the sample’s representativeness and therefore its **generalisability**.

Bài tập luyện tập

A test is given to the same group of participants on two occasions one month apart, and their scores on the two occasions correlate at $r = 0.91$. This is evidence of good:

- (A) Ecological validity
(B) Test-retest reliability

- (C) Inter-observer reliability
(D) Internal validity

Lời giải chi tiết

Correlating scores from the same test given to the same participants on two separate occasions is precisely how **test-retest reliability** is assessed; a strong positive correlation ($r = 0.91$) indicates the test produces consistent scores over time. **(B)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

A bathroom scale consistently displays a weight 3 kg heavier than a person's true weight, every single time they step on it. Explain why this scale is reliable but not valid.

Lời giải chi tiết

The scale is **reliable** because it is consistent — it produces the same (incorrect) reading every time under the same conditions, showing good test-retest-style consistency. However, it is **not valid**, because it does not accurately measure what it claims to measure (true body weight); it systematically over-reports by 3 kg. This illustrates that reliability (consistency) is necessary but not sufficient for validity (accuracy) — a measure can be perfectly consistent while still being wrong.

Bài tập luyện tập

A researcher secretly observes shoppers' queuing behaviour in a supermarket without their knowledge or consent, planning to publish the footage. Evaluate the ethical issues raised by this covert observation, and suggest how the researcher could address them.

Lời giải chi tiết

This covert observation raises a clear **informed consent** problem: participants have not agreed to take part and do not know they are being studied. It also raises **confidentiality** concerns if identifiable footage were published. Against this must be weighed the benefit that covert observation of naturally occurring public behaviour (queuing) has very high ecological validity, since participants cannot alter their behaviour due to demand characteristics if they do not know they are watched, and queuing in a public space carries a lower expectation of privacy than, say, filming inside someone's home. To address the ethical issues, the researcher should: avoid recording or publishing any identifiable individual (e.g., blur faces, do not name the specific store), limit observation strictly to public behaviour with a low expectation of privacy, and, where practical, debrief a representative sample of those observed after the study and offer to withdraw their footage from use, alongside seeking approval from an ethics committee to weigh costs against benefits before proceeding.

Bài tập luyện tập

Eight participants complete a memory test after two different revision methods. Their scores are: 6, 9, 7, 9, 10, 8, 9, 12. Calculate the mean, median, mode, range, and standard deviation of this data set.

Lời giải chi tiết

Mean: $\text{sum} = 6 + 9 + 7 + 9 + 10 + 8 + 9 + 12 = 70$; $\bar{x} = 70/8 = 8.75$.

Median: sorted data: 6, 7, 8, 9, 9, 9, 10, 12; $n = 8$ (even), median = $(9 + 9)/2 = 9$.

Mode: 9 occurs three times, more than any other value $\Rightarrow$ mode = 9.

Range: $12 - 6 = 6$.

Standard deviation: deviations from $\bar{x} = 8.75$: $-2.75, -1.75, -0.75, 0.25, 0.25, 0.25, 1.25, 3.25$; squared: $7.5625, 3.0625, 0.5625, 0.0625, 0.0625, 0.0625, 1.5625, 10.5625$, summing to $\sum(x - \bar{x})^2 = 23.5$.

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{23.5}{8-1}} = \sqrt{\frac{23.5}{7}} = \sqrt{3.357} \approx 1.83.$$

Bài tập luyện tập

A repeated measures study tests whether a new revision technique (compared with normal revision) improves exam scores for nine participants. H_1 (directional): the new technique will produce higher scores than normal revision.

Participant	Normal revision	New technique	Sign (New – Normal)
1	10	14	+
2	12	12	tie (excluded)
3	9	13	+
4	14	11	–
5	11	15	+
6	13	16	+
7	8	12	+
8	15	18	+
9	10	13	+

Carry out a full Sign Test: state N , the calculated value, the critical value (using the table in Section 1.14), and your conclusion at $p \leq 0.05$.

Lời giải chi tiết

One tie (participant 2) is removed, so $N = 9 - 1 = 8$. Remaining signs: 7 pluses, 1 minus. The less frequent sign is –, occurring once, so the calculated value is $S = 1$. From the critical values table, for $N = 8$ at $p \leq 0.05$ (one-tailed, matching the directional hypothesis), the critical value is 1. Since the calculated value (1) is **equal to or less than** the critical value (1), the result is **significant** at $p \leq 0.05$: the null hypothesis is rejected, and the alternative hypothesis is accepted – the new revision technique produced significantly higher scores than normal revision.

Bài tập luyện tập

A study finds that, using the Sign Test with $N = 13$, the calculated value is $S = 4$. Using the critical values table in Section 1.14, state whether this result is significant at $p \leq 0.05$ (one-tailed), and explain your reasoning.

Lời giải chi tiết

From the table, the critical value for $N = 13$ at $p \leq 0.05$ (one-tailed) is 3. Because the Sign Test requires the calculated value to be **equal to or less than** the critical value for significance, and

here $S = 4$ is *greater than* the critical value of 3, the result is **not significant**. The null hypothesis must be **retained**: there is not enough evidence to conclude that the observed difference did not occur by chance.

Bài tập luyện tập

A researcher rejects the null hypothesis and concludes that a new therapy reduces anxiety, when in reality the therapy has no effect. Which type of error has been made?

- (A) Type I error
- (B) Type II error
- (C) A confounding variable
- (D) A demand characteristic

Lời giải chi tiết

Rejecting a null hypothesis that is actually true — concluding an effect exists when it does not — is a **Type I error** (a 'false positive'). (A).

Bài tập luyện tập

A study uses too small a sample and too strict a significance level ($p \leq 0.01$), and fails to detect a real effect of a drug that genuinely reduces blood pressure. Which type of error has most likely occurred, and why does a smaller sample increase the risk of this error?

Lời giải chi tiết

This is a **Type II error** — the null hypothesis (no effect) is retained even though it is actually false (the drug does genuinely have an effect). A smaller sample size increases the risk of a Type II error because it reduces the statistical power of the test to detect a real but possibly modest-sized effect against the natural variability between participants; combined with an unusually strict significance threshold ($p \leq 0.01$ rather than the conventional $p \leq 0.05$), a genuine effect is more likely to be dismissed as "not significant."

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain the purpose of peer review in psychological research, and describe one limitation of relying on peer review alone to guarantee that published research is trustworthy.

Lời giải chi tiết

Purpose: peer review has other independent experts in the same field scrutinise a study's methodology, statistical analysis, ethical compliance, and the importance/originality of its conclusions before publication, acting as a quality-control filter and informing decisions about publication and funding. **Limitation:** peer review cannot detect problems that are not visible from the written report alone — for example, outright fabrication of data, or subtle methodological flaws not disclosed in the write-up — and reviewers themselves may have biases (e.g., favouring findings that fit established theory, or being reluctant to endorse work that challenges their own research), meaning peer-reviewed publication is not an absolute guarantee that a study's conclusions are correct.

Bài tập luyện tập

Evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of laboratory experiments compared with field experiments, using an example to illustrate your answer.

Lời giải chi tiết

Laboratory experiments take place in a controlled setting, allowing the researcher to standardise the environment and precisely manipulate the IV while minimising extraneous variables; this maximises internal validity and makes the study easy to replicate exactly. However, the artificial setting (e.g., testing memory for word lists in a quiet university cubicle) can reduce **ecological validity** – participants may behave differently than they would in a real-world memory task, and participants' awareness of being tested can increase demand characteristics. **Field experiments** manipulate the IV in participants' natural environment (e.g., testing recall of a real conversation overheard in a shop), which increases ecological validity and can reduce demand characteristics if participants do not know a study is taking place; however, the researcher sacrifices control over extraneous variables (e.g., background noise, distraction levels vary unpredictably), making field experiments harder to replicate precisely and potentially introducing confounding variables that a lab setting would have prevented. In short, the choice reflects a trade-off between **control/internal validity** (favouring lab) and **ecological validity** (favouring field), and the best choice depends on which is more important for the specific research question.

Bài tập luyện tập

Evaluate the use of self-report techniques (questionnaires and interviews) compared with observational methods for studying honesty in children.

Lời giải chi tiết

Self-report techniques (e.g., asking children directly whether they would return a found item) are quick to administer to large samples and can access children's own stated reasoning and attitudes, which observation cannot directly reveal. However, self-report is highly vulnerable to **social desirability bias**: children may say what they believe is the "right" answer rather than what they would actually do, especially for a socially sensitive trait like honesty, which seriously threatens the study's validity. **Observational methods** (e.g., covertly recording whether children return a dropped, clearly-labelled item during play) measure **actual behaviour** rather than reported intentions, giving potentially higher validity for a behaviour prone to social desirability distortion, and (if covert) reduce demand characteristics since children do not know they are being watched. However, observation raises stronger **ethical concerns** around informed consent (especially with child participants, where covert observation is ethically more sensitive), requires well-defined, reliable behavioural categories (inter-observer reliability) to be objective, and cannot reveal the reasoning behind the behaviour observed. A combined design – observing actual behaviour and using self-report/interview to explore the reasoning behind it – often provides a more complete picture than either method alone.

Bài tập luyện tập

Discuss the relationship between reliability and validity in psychological measurement, and explain why a researcher should not treat a highly reliable measure as automatically valid.

Lời giải chi tiết

Reliability (consistency) and validity (accuracy/truthfulness of measurement) are related but conceptually distinct, and a measure needs both to be genuinely useful. **Test-retest reliability** shows that a measure gives consistent results across occasions, and **inter-observer reliability** shows that independent raters agree when using the same coding system — both are necessary conditions for a measure to be trusted, since an inconsistent measure cannot be tracking anything reliably in the first place. However, consistency alone does not guarantee that the measure is tracking the intended construct: a systematically biased measure (such as a bathroom scale that always reads 3 kg too heavy, or a questionnaire item that is consistently misinterpreted by respondents in the same way every time) can be extremely reliable while still lacking **validity**. This is why reliability is considered **necessary but not sufficient** for validity: researchers must separately establish validity (e.g., by checking a measure against another established, valid measure of the same construct, or by ensuring the operationalisation genuinely captures the concept intended) rather than assuming that consistent results are automatically meaningful or accurate ones.

The Biological Approach

Mục tiêu Unit: Các giả định của tiếp cận sinh học: gene, hoá sinh thần kinh (hormone, chất dẫn truyền thần kinh), hệ thần kinh, và tiến hoá; cấu trúc neuron và cơ chế xung thần kinh (điện thế nghỉ, điện thế hoạt động); dẫn truyền synapse; hệ nội tiết và trục HPA (phản ứng chiến-hay-chạy); các phương pháp nghiên cứu não bộ (EEG, fMRI, PET, tổn thương não); phương pháp di truyền học (song sinh, gia đình, con nuôi); giải thích tiến hoá về hành vi; ba nghiên cứu gốc: Dement & Kleitman (giấc ngủ và giấc mơ), Schachter & Singer (thuyết hai yếu tố về cảm xúc), Hassett và cộng sự (sở thích đồ chơi ở khỉ); và đánh giá tổng quát tiếp cận sinh học (giản lược luận, định mệnh luận, đạo đức nghiên cứu trên động vật, tính khoa học).

2.1 Assumptions of the biological approach

The **biological approach** explains thoughts, feelings, and behaviour by looking inside the body — at genes, brain structures, the nervous system, and biochemistry (hormones and neurotransmitters) — rather than at the environment, the unconscious mind, or learned associations. It rests on four core assumptions that recur throughout this unit and the three core studies.

Four assumptions of the biological approach

- **Genetic assumption:** behaviour and psychological characteristics can be inherited; twin, family, and adoption studies are used to estimate the relative contribution of genes (nature) versus environment (nurture).
- **Biochemical assumption:** behaviour is influenced by chemical messengers in the body — **hormones** (e.g., adrenaline, cortisol) travelling through the bloodstream, and **neurotransmitters** (e.g., dopamine, serotonin) transmitting signals between neurons.
- **Nervous system assumption:** behaviour, cognition, and emotion arise from activity in the brain and nervous system; specific structures and networks are linked (localised) to specific psychological functions.
- **Evolutionary assumption:** many behaviours exist today because they were **adaptive** for our ancestors — that is, they increased survival and/or reproductive success and were therefore naturally selected and passed on genetically.

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Tiếp cận sinh học giải thích hành vi và tâm lý con người dựa trên các yếu tố **bên trong cơ thể** thay vì môi trường bên ngoài. Bốn giả định cốt lõi: (1) **di truyền** — hành vi có thể được di truyền qua gene, nghiên cứu song sinh/gia đình/con nuôi giúp tách biệt vai trò của "nature" (bẩm sinh) và "nurture" (môi trường); (2) **hoá sinh** — hormone (trong máu) và chất dẫn truyền thần kinh (giữa các neuron) ảnh hưởng đến hành vi; (3) **hệ thần kinh** — não bộ và hệ thần kinh là nền tảng vật chất của mọi hành vi, cảm xúc, nhận thức, và các vùng não khác nhau đảm nhiệm các chức năng khác nhau (định khu chức năng); (4) **tiến hoá** — nhiều hành vi tồn tại đến ngày nay vì chúng có **giá trị thích nghi**, giúp tổ tiên loài người sống sót và sinh sản tốt hơn, nên được chọn lọc tự nhiên và di truyền lại.

This unit is built around three peer-reviewed **core studies** that each illustrate one or more of these assumptions using genuinely biological methods: electroencephalography (EEG) and eye-movement recording of sleeping participants (Dement & Kleitman, 1957); manipulation of a hormone, adrenaline, to test a cognitive-physiological theory of emotion (Schachter & Singer, 1962); and observation of toy preferences in non-human primates to test an evolutionary/hormonal explanation of gendered behaviour (Hassett, Siebert, & Wallen, 2008).

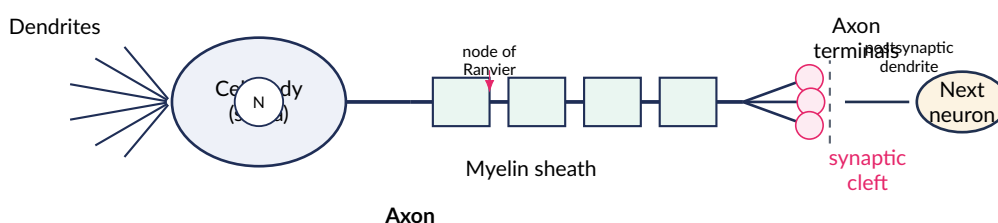
2.2 Neurons: structure and the nerve impulse

2.2.1 The structure of a neuron

The **neuron** (nerve cell) is the basic unit of the nervous system. Although neurons vary enormously in size and shape, they share a common structural plan.

Parts of a neuron

- **Dendrites:** short, branching extensions that receive chemical signals from neighbouring neurons and convert them into electrical signals travelling toward the cell body.
- **Cell body (soma):** contains the nucleus and the cellular machinery; integrates incoming signals from the dendrites.
- **Axon:** a single long fibre that carries the electrical impulse (action potential) away from the cell body toward the axon terminals.
- **Myelin sheath:** a fatty, insulating layer (produced by glial cells) wrapped around the axon in segments; it speeds up impulse conduction by forcing the impulse to jump between the small gaps in the sheath (nodes of Ranvier) rather than travelling continuously.
- **Axon terminals (terminal buttons):** the branched endings of the axon, each containing **synaptic vesicles** filled with neurotransmitter, ready for release into a synapse.



A neuron: dendrites receive input; the cell body (soma) integrates it; the myelinated axon (segments interrupted by nodes of Ranvier) conducts the impulse to the axon terminals; neurotransmitter is then released across the synaptic cleft onto the dendrite of the next neuron.

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Một neuron gồm: **đuôi gai (dendrites)** – nhánh ngắn nhận tín hiệu hoá học từ neuron khác; **thân tế bào (soma)** – chứa nhân, tích hợp tín hiệu; **sợi trục (axon)** – sợi dài dẫn truyền xung điện; **bao myelin** – lớp cách điện bằng mỡ bao quanh sợi trục theo từng đoạn, giúp xung thần kinh "nhảy cóc" qua các khe hở (eo Ranvier) nên dẫn truyền nhanh hơn nhiều; **cúc tận cùng (axon terminals)** – đầu mút phân nhánh của sợi trục, chứa các túi synapse (synaptic vesicles) sẵn sàng giải phóng chất dẫn truyền thần kinh vào khe synapse.

2.2.2 Resting potential and the action potential

When a neuron is not transmitting a signal, it maintains a **resting potential** of approximately -70 mV across its cell membrane – the inside of the neuron is negatively charged relative to the outside. This is maintained by the uneven distribution of ions (more sodium, Na^+ , outside; more potassium, K^+ ,

inside) and by protein pumps in the membrane that actively move ions against their concentration gradients.

Action potential – the sequence:

1. A stimulus (input from other neurons) causes sodium channels in the membrane to open, and Na^+ ions flood into the cell.
2. If the membrane potential rises past a **threshold** (around -55 mV), **depolarisation** occurs: the inside of the neuron rapidly becomes positively charged (peaking at roughly $+40 \text{ mV}$).
3. This depolarisation triggers the same process in the adjacent segment of membrane, so the electrical impulse propagates like a wave along the whole length of the axon (jumping node-to-node on myelinated axons, which speeds transmission).
4. Potassium channels then open and K^+ flows out, restoring (**repolarising**) the negative resting potential, ready for the next impulse.

A crucial feature of the action potential is the **all-or-none law**: if the depolarisation reaches the threshold, a full action potential fires at a fixed size and speed for that neuron; if the threshold is not reached, no impulse fires at all. Intensity of a stimulus is therefore encoded not by the size of a single impulse but by the **rate** (frequency) at which impulses fire.

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Điện thế nghỉ (resting potential) của neuron khoảng -70 mV – bên trong tế bào âm hơn bên ngoài, do sự phân bố không đều của ion Na^+ (nhiều bên ngoài) và K^+ (nhiều bên trong). Khi có kích thích đủ mạnh vượt **ngưỡng** ($\approx -55 \text{ mV}$), kênh Na^+ mở ra, Na^+ tràn vào làm bên trong tích điện dương – gọi là **khử cực (depolarisation)**, đạt đỉnh khoảng $+40 \text{ mV}$ – đây chính là **điện thế hoạt động (action potential)**, lan truyền dọc theo sợi trục. Sau đó kênh K^+ mở, K^+ thoát ra ngoài, đưa điện thế trở lại trạng thái nghỉ (**tái phân cực**). **Quy luật tất cả hoặc không (all-or-none law)**: nếu đạt ngưỡng thì xung thần kinh luôn có cùng độ lớn và tốc độ; nếu không đạt ngưỡng thì không có xung nào xảy ra – cường độ kích thích được mã hoá bằng **tần suất** xung, không phải độ lớn của từng xung.

2.3 Synaptic transmission

The **synapse** is the small gap (synaptic cleft) between the axon terminal of one neuron (the **presynaptic** neuron) and the dendrite or cell body of the next (the **postsynaptic** neuron). Communication across this gap is chemical, not electrical, and follows a precise sequence.

Synaptic transmission – step by step

1. The action potential travels down the axon and arrives at the axon (terminal) button.
2. This depolarisation opens **voltage-gated calcium channels**; Ca^{2+} ions flow into the terminal.
3. The influx of calcium causes **synaptic vesicles** containing neurotransmitter to move to, and fuse with, the presynaptic membrane, releasing neurotransmitter molecules into the **synaptic cleft** (exocytosis).
4. Neurotransmitter molecules diffuse across the cleft and bind to specific **receptor sites** on the postsynaptic membrane, shaped to fit that neurotransmitter like a lock and key.
5. Binding opens ion channels on the postsynaptic membrane, producing either an **excitatory postsynaptic potential (EPSP)** – making the postsynaptic neuron slightly more likely to fire – or an **inhibitory postsynaptic potential (IPSP)** – making it less likely to fire, depending on the neurotransmitter and receptor type.

6. The signal is terminated by **reuptake** (the presynaptic neuron reabsorbs unused neurotransmitter for recycling) and/or **enzymatic breakdown** (enzymes in the cleft chemically degrade the neurotransmitter), clearing the cleft so the synapse is ready for the next impulse.

A single postsynaptic neuron typically receives thousands of synaptic connections, some excitatory and some inhibitory; whether it reaches its own threshold and fires depends on **summation** – the combined, moment-to-moment balance of EPSPs and IPSPs arriving at once.

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Dẫn truyền qua synapse là quá trình **hoá học**: xung thần kinh đến cực tận cùng → mở **kênh calci có cổng điện thế** → Ca^{2+} đi vào → các **túi synapse** chứa chất dẫn truyền thần kinh di chuyển và hoà màng, giải phóng chất dẫn truyền vào **khe synapse** → chất dẫn truyền khuếch tán qua khe và gắn vào **thụ thể** đặc hiệu trên màng sau synapse (theo cơ chế "chìa khoá – ổ khoá") → tạo ra điện thế **hưng phấn sau synapse (EPSP)** (dễ kích hoạt hơn) hoặc **ức chế sau synapse (IPSP)** (khó kích hoạt hơn) → tín hiệu kết thúc nhờ **tái hấp thu (reuptake)** hoặc bị **enzyme phân giải**. Một neuron sau synapse nhận rất nhiều tín hiệu hưng phấn và ức chế cùng lúc – việc nó có "bắn" xung hay không phụ thuộc vào tổng hợp (**summation**) của tất cả tín hiệu đó.

(!) **Lỗi thường gặp**: Đừng nhầm lẫn: xung thần kinh *bên trong* một neuron (dọc theo sợi trục) là tín hiệu **điện**; nhưng khi truyền *giữa* hai neuron (qua synapse) lại là tín hiệu **hoá học** (chất dẫn truyền thần kinh). Đề thi thường hỏi riêng biệt hai giai đoạn này.

2.3.1 Neurotransmitters and hormones

Neurotransmitters act locally and quickly across a synapse; hormones are released into the bloodstream by endocrine glands and act more slowly but more widely across the whole body.

Chemical	Type	Main function
Dopamine	Neurotransmitter	Reward, motivation, and motor control; implicated in addiction and (in excess) linked to schizophrenia.
Serotonin	Neurotransmitter	Regulates mood, sleep, and appetite; low levels linked to depression.
Noradrenaline / adrenaline	Neurotransmitter & hormone	Increases arousal and alertness; as a hormone (epinephrine), triggers the fight-or-flight response (raised heart rate, blood pressure, glucose release).
GABA	Neurotransmitter	The brain's main inhibitory neurotransmitter; reduces neuronal excitability and calms activity.
Acetylcholine	Neurotransmitter	Enables muscle contraction at the neuromuscular junction; also involved in learning and memory.
Cortisol	Hormone	The primary stress hormone; released by the adrenal cortex during the HPA-axis stress response, raises blood glucose and suppresses non-essential functions (e.g., immune activity, digestion).
Oxytocin	Hormone	Promotes social bonding, trust, and attachment (e.g., released during childbirth and breastfeeding).

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

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Bảng trên tóm tắt các chất dẫn truyền thần kinh/hormone hay gặp trong đề thi: **dopamine** (khen thưởng, động lực), **serotonin** (điều hoà tâm trạng, giấc ngủ), **noradrenaline/adrenaline** (tăng tỉnh táo; là hormone kích hoạt phản ứng chiến-hay-chạy), **GABA** (chất ức chế chính của

não), **acetylcholine** (cơ cơ, học tập/trí nhớ), **cortisol** (hormone stress chính, tăng đường huyết), **oxytocin** (gắn kết xã hội, tin tưởng).

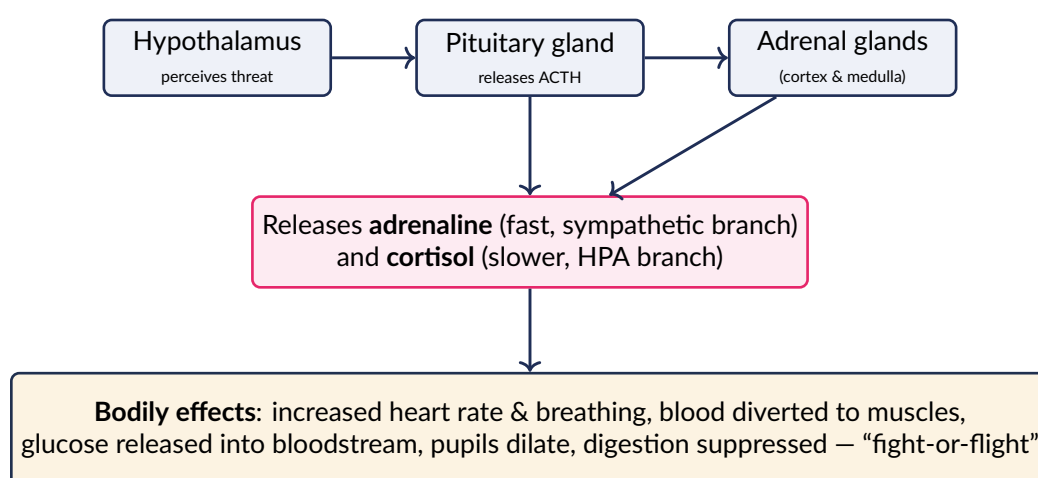
2.4 The endocrine system and the stress response

2.4.1 Hormones and glands

The **endocrine system** is a network of glands that release hormones directly into the bloodstream. Hormones travel throughout the body but only affect cells with matching receptors (**target cells**), producing slower but longer-lasting and more widespread effects than neural signalling.

2.4.2 The HPA axis and the fight-or-flight response

When the brain perceives a threat or stressor, the **hypothalamus** activates a hormonal cascade known as the **HPA axis** (hypothalamic–pituitary–adrenal axis), preparing the body for rapid action.



The HPA axis / fight-or-flight pathway: the hypothalamus signals the pituitary gland, which releases ACTH (adrenocorticotrophic hormone); the pituitary and sympathetic nervous system both act on the adrenal glands, which release adrenaline (rapidly) and cortisol (more slowly), producing the coordinated bodily changes of the stress response.

The nervous system also has two branches relevant to stress that work automatically, without conscious control – together called the **autonomic nervous system (ANS)**:

Sympathetic vs. parasympathetic nervous system

- **Sympathetic branch:** activated during stress/threat; triggers the fight-or-flight response – increases heart rate, breathing rate, and blood glucose; diverts blood away from digestion toward the muscles; dilates pupils.
- **Parasympathetic branch:** activated once the threat has passed; the “rest-and-digest” system – slows heart rate and breathing, redirects blood back to digestion, restores the body to a calm baseline.

These two branches work in a complementary, largely opposing way to keep the body’s internal state balanced (homeostasis).

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VN Trục HPA (hypothalamic–pituitary–adrenal axis): khi vùng dưới đồi (hypothalamus) nhận diện mối đe dọa, nó kích hoạt **tuyến yên** (pituitary) tiết ra ACTH, ACTH tác động lên **tuyến thượng thận** (adrenal glands) khiến tuyến này giải phóng **adrenaline** (nhanh, qua nhánh giao cảm) và **cortisol** (chậm hơn, qua trục HPA) – gây ra phản ứng **chiến-hay-chạy** (fight-or-flight): tim đập

nhanh hơn, thở gấp hơn, đường huyết tăng, máu dồn về cơ bắp, tiêu hoá bị ức chế. **Hệ thần kinh tự chủ (ANS)** có hai nhánh đối lập: **giao cảm (sympathetic)** kích hoạt phản ứng stress, và **đối giao cảm (parasympathetic)** – hệ “nghỉ ngơi và tiêu hoá” – đưa cơ thể trở lại trạng thái bình thường sau khi hết nguy hiểm.

2.5 Genetics: nature, nurture, and research methods

2.5.1 Genotype and phenotype

An individual's **genotype** is their complete genetic make-up (the specific set of genes inherited from their parents). Their **phenotype** is the observable characteristics – physical, behavioural, and psychological – that result from the interaction between genotype and environment. Because phenotype is always a product of *both* nature and environment, psychologists use specific research designs to try to disentangle the two.

2.5.2 Twin studies

Twin studies compare the similarity (**concordance rate**) between two types of twins:

MZ vs. DZ twins

- **Monozygotic (MZ) twins** develop from a single fertilised egg that splits in two, so they share (essentially) 100% of their genes – they are genetically identical.
- **Dizygotic (DZ) twins** develop from two separately fertilised eggs, so they share on average 50% of their genes – genetically, no more similar than ordinary siblings.

If a trait were purely genetic, MZ twins should be identical for it far more often than DZ twins. The **concordance rate** is the percentage of twin pairs in which, if one twin has the trait/disorder, the other twin also has it.

Logic of the comparison	MZ twins (100% shared genes)	DZ twins (≈50% shared genes)
Concordance for a trait that is strongly genetically influenced	Notably higher	Notably lower
Concordance for a trait that is mainly environmentally influenced	Similar to DZ twins (both twin types share family environment)	Similar to MZ twins

Across many psychological traits studied this way (for example, aspects of intelligence and some mental health conditions), MZ twins consistently show **notably higher concordance rates than DZ twins**, supporting a genetic contribution – but because MZ concordance is typically well below 100%, environmental factors clearly matter too. This pattern – MZ > DZ, but neither at 0% nor 100% – is the standard evidence twin studies provide for a combined nature-and-nurture explanation.

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Nghiên cứu song sinh (twin studies) so sánh tỷ lệ tương đồng (**concordance rate**) giữa song sinh cùng trứng (**MZ**) – giống nhau 100% về gene – và song sinh khác trứng (**DZ**) – giống nhau trung bình 50% về gene (như anh chị em ruột thường). Nếu một đặc điểm chịu ảnh hưởng di truyền mạnh, tỷ lệ tương đồng ở MZ sẽ **cao hơn rõ rệt** so với DZ. Tuy nhiên vì tỷ lệ tương đồng ở MZ hầu như không bao giờ đạt 100%, điều này cho thấy **môi trường vẫn đóng vai trò quan trọng** – hành vi luôn là kết quả tương tác giữa nature và nurture, không phải chỉ một trong hai.

2.5.3 Family studies and adoption studies

Family studies examine how a trait's prevalence changes with degree of genetic relatedness (e.g., comparing first-degree relatives, who share 50% of genes, to more distant relatives). If a trait is genetically influenced, closer relatives should show higher rates of similarity than more distant relatives. A key limitation is that closer relatives also typically *share more environment* (they are more likely to live together), so genetic and environmental influences remain difficult to separate fully.

Adoption studies address this limitation directly by studying children raised apart from their biological relatives. If adopted children resemble their *biological* parents more than their *adoptive* parents on a trait, this points to a genetic influence (since they share genes but not environment with the biological parents, and environment but not genes with the adoptive parents). If they resemble their adoptive parents more, this points to environmental influence.

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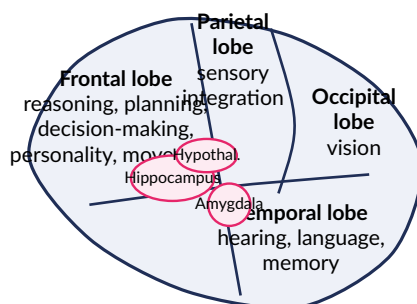
VN

Nghiên cứu gia đình (family studies) so sánh mức độ tương đồng theo mức độ quan hệ huyết thống (họ hàng gần chia sẻ nhiều gene hơn) – nhưng hạn chế là họ hàng gần cũng thường sống chung môi trường, nên khó tách bạch nguyên nhân. **Nghiên cứu con nuôi (adoption studies)** khắc phục hạn chế này: trẻ được nhận nuôi chia sẻ gene với cha mẹ ruột nhưng chia sẻ môi trường với cha mẹ nuôi – nếu trẻ giống cha mẹ ruột hơn thì ủng hộ vai trò di truyền; nếu giống cha mẹ nuôi hơn thì ủng hộ vai trò môi trường.

2.6 The brain: structure, localisation of function, and research methods

2.6.1 The cerebral lobes

The outer, wrinkled layer of the brain – the **cerebral cortex** – is divided into four lobes in each hemisphere, each associated with different (though overlapping and interconnected) functions.



The four cerebral lobes and their main functions, with the key limbic structures (hypothalamus, amygdala, hippocampus) shown schematically beneath the cortex.

Frontal lobe: reasoning, planning, decision-making, personality, voluntary movement (motor cortex). **Parietal lobe:** integrates sensory information (touch, spatial awareness). **Temporal lobe:** auditory processing, language comprehension, memory formation. **Occipital lobe:** visual processing.

2.6.2 Limbic structures

Beneath the cortex, the **limbic system** includes structures central to emotion, memory, and motivation:

- **Hypothalamus:** regulates the autonomic nervous system and endocrine system (e.g., initiates the HPA-axis stress response, Section 2.4); also regulates hunger, thirst, and body temperature.
- **Amygdala:** processes emotion, particularly fear and threat detection; central to the immediate emotional (and physiological, fight-or-flight) reaction to danger.

- **Hippocampus:** essential for forming new long-term memories, particularly episodic (event) memories.

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Vỏ não (cerebral cortex) chia thành 4 thùy: **thùy trán (frontal)** — suy luận, lập kế hoạch, ra quyết định, vận động; **thùy đỉnh (parietal)** — tích hợp cảm giác; **thùy thái dương (temporal)** — thính giác, ngôn ngữ, trí nhớ; **thùy chẩm (occipital)** — thị giác. Bên dưới vỏ não là **hệ viền (limbic system)**: **vùng dưới đồi (hypothalamus)** — điều hoà hệ thần kinh tự chủ và nội tiết; **hạch hạnh nhân (amygdala)** — xử lý cảm xúc, đặc biệt là sợ hãi; **hồi hải mã (hippocampus)** — hình thành trí nhớ dài hạn mới.

2.6.3 Methods for studying the brain

Because the living brain cannot easily be observed directly, biological psychologists rely on specialised scanning and investigative techniques, each with distinct strengths and limitations.

Method	What it measures	Strength	Limitation
EEG (electroencephalography)	Electrical activity of the brain via scalp electrodes, in real time	Excellent temporal resolution (millisecond-level); non-invasive; used to study sleep stages (Dement & Kleitman)	Poor spatial resolution — cannot pinpoint precisely which deep structures are active
fMRI (functional MRI)	Blood-oxygen-level changes, indicating which brain areas are more active	Good spatial resolution; non-invasive, no radiation	Poor temporal resolution (blood-flow response is slow); expensive; participant must stay very still
PET (positron emission tomography)	Metabolic/chemical activity via a radioactive tracer	Can show functional/chemical activity (e.g., neurotransmitter activity), not just structure	Invasive (radioactive tracer injected); expensive; lower temporal resolution than EEG
Post-mortem / lesion studies	Structural or functional damage linked, after death or injury, to prior behavioural deficits	Allows detailed examination of deep brain structures; historically important for establishing localisation	Cannot establish cause-and-effect precisely; damage is rarely confined to one area; retrospective, so behaviour before injury relies on inference or records

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Bốn phương pháp nghiên cứu não chính: **EEG** đo hoạt động điện của não qua điện cực trên da đầu — độ phân giải **thời gian** rất tốt (dùng để xác định các giai đoạn giấc ngủ như trong nghiên cứu Dement & Kleitman) nhưng độ phân giải **không gian** kém; **fMRI** đo lưu lượng máu/oxy — độ phân giải không gian tốt nhưng phản ứng chậm nên độ phân giải thời gian kém, chi phí cao; **PET** dùng chất đánh dấu phóng xạ để đo hoạt động chuyển hoá/hóa học — cho biết vùng não nào đang "hoạt động" về mặt hóa học nhưng có tính xâm lấn; **nghiên cứu tử thi/tổn thương não** cho phép quan sát chi tiết cấu trúc sâu nhưng không thể khẳng định chắc chắn quan hệ nhân quả vì tổn thương hiếm khi khu trú hoàn toàn ở một vùng.

2.7 Evolutionary explanations of behaviour

The evolutionary assumption of the biological approach holds that behaviours seen widely across a species today persisted because, over many generations, they gave individuals who displayed them a **survival and/or reproductive advantage** over individuals who did not — a process called **natural selection**. A behaviour with this kind of advantage is described as having **adaptive value**.

Natural selection and adaptive value

- Individuals vary (genetically) in their behaviour and physical traits.
- Some variants are better suited to the demands of the environment — they survive longer and/or reproduce more successfully.
- Because the underlying traits are (at least partly) heritable, they are passed to more offspring in the next generation.
- Over many generations, the population comes to show more of the adaptive trait.

This kind of reasoning is directly relevant to the Hassett et al. (2008) core study (Section 2.10): if male-typical and female-typical toy preferences appear even in monkeys never exposed to human socialisation about gender, an evolutionary explanation would argue these preferences reflect ancestral, adaptive behavioural predispositions (e.g., preparation for particular physical/social roles) rather than purely learned gender norms.

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Chọn lọc tự nhiên (natural selection): các cá thể có biến dị di truyền; những biến dị giúp cá thể sống sót/sinh sản tốt hơn (có **giá trị thích nghi** — adaptive value) sẽ được truyền lại nhiều hơn cho thế hệ sau; qua nhiều thế hệ, đặc điểm đó trở nên phổ biến trong quần thể. Đây là logic được dùng để giải thích tại sao khỉ rhesus (không bị "dạy" về giới tính như con người) vẫn thể hiện sở thích đồ chơi khác nhau giữa hai giới trong nghiên cứu Hassett và cộng sự — gợi ý những khác biệt này có nguồn gốc tiến hoá/sinh học chứ không chỉ do học tập xã hội.

2.8 Core study: sleep and dreaming --- Dement & Kleitman (1957)

Core study · Dement & Kleitman (1957): the relation of eye movements during sleep to dream activity

Aim: to investigate the relationship between eye movements during sleep and dreaming, and to test whether the duration of rapid eye movement (REM) periods correlates with participants' subjective estimates of how long they had been dreaming.

Procedure: nine adult participants slept in a laboratory. Electrodes attached near the eyes and scalp recorded eye movements (**EOG**, electro-oculogram) and brain-wave activity (**EEG**) throughout the night. Participants were woken by a bell at various points during both **REM sleep** (associated with rapid, jerky eye movements and low-amplitude, fast EEG activity) and **NREM sleep** (non-REM, with slower eye movements and different EEG patterns), and asked to report immediately, into a recorder near the bed, whether they had been dreaming and, if so, to describe the dream in as much detail as possible. In several trials participants were woken after a pre-set REM duration (e.g., 5 or 15 minutes) and asked to estimate, using only their sense of dream content, how long they had been dreaming, before this was compared with the objective EEG/EOG record. On some occasions the researchers also compared the specific pattern of eye movements just before waking with the direction of gaze the participant reported in the dream.

Findings:

- Participants recalled a dream far more often when woken during REM sleep than during

NREM sleep.

- When asked to estimate how long they had been dreaming, participants' estimates closely matched the objective duration of the REM period recorded on the EEG, suggesting a link between REM duration and perceived dream duration.
- The specific pattern of eye movements immediately before waking often matched the direction and content of activity described in the dream report (e.g., predominantly vertical eye movements accompanying a dream about looking up and down a cliff, or horizontal movements accompanying a dream about watching two people throw objects at each other).

Conclusion: dreaming is strongly associated with REM sleep and its associated physiological (EEG/EOG) pattern; the fact that recalled dream duration matches objective REM duration, and that eye-movement direction often matches dream content, supports the idea that REM sleep is the biological/behavioural marker of dreaming and that eye movements may reflect the sleeper actively "watching" the visual imagery of the dream.

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Dement & Kleitman (1957) theo dõi 9 người trưởng thành ngủ trong phòng thí nghiệm, ghi lại EEG (sóng não) và EOG (cử động mắt) suốt đêm, đánh thức người tham gia ở nhiều thời điểm khác nhau trong giấc ngủ REM và NREM để hỏi họ có đang mơ không. Kết quả: người tham gia nhớ được giấc mơ nhiều hơn hẳn khi bị đánh thức trong giai đoạn REM; thời gian họ ước lượng đã mơ bao lâu khớp với thời lượng REM đo được bằng EEG; và hướng cử động mắt trước khi thức dậy thường khớp với nội dung giấc mơ (ví dụ mắt di chuyển theo chiều dọc khi mơ thấy leo/nhìn vách núi). Kết luận: REM sleep gắn liền chặt chẽ với việc mơ, và có thể cử động mắt phản ánh việc người ngủ đang "quan sát" hình ảnh trong giấc mơ.

Evaluation. As a controlled **laboratory experiment** using objective physiological recording equipment (EEG, EOG) rather than relying solely on self-report, the study has high internal validity and is highly replicable – a major strength for establishing a genuine biological correlation between REM sleep and dreaming. A limitation is that sleeping in an unfamiliar laboratory, wired to electrodes and expecting to be woken by a bell, is quite different from a person's normal home sleep environment, which may reduce **ecological validity** and could itself alter sleep patterns. The sample was also small (nine participants) and not very diverse, limiting **generalisability**. Finally, dream reports still rely on participants' subjective, retrospective recall immediately after waking, which cannot be independently verified – so the correlation between REM and dreaming, while strong, does not by itself prove that REM sleep *causes* dreaming rather than merely accompanying it.

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Điểm mạnh: đây là **thí nghiệm trong phòng thí nghiệm** có kiểm soát cao, dùng thiết bị đo khách quan (EEG, EOG) thay vì chỉ dựa vào lời kể – độ tin cậy và khả năng lặp lại cao. Hạn chế: môi trường phòng thí nghiệm (đeo điện cực, bị đánh thức bằng chuông) khác xa giấc ngủ tự nhiên tại nhà nên **giá trị sinh thái (ecological validity)** thấp; mẫu nhỏ (9 người) nên khó **khái quát hoá**; và báo cáo giấc mơ vẫn dựa vào lời kể chủ quan ngay sau khi thức, không thể kiểm chứng độc lập – nên mối liên hệ REM–giấc mơ là tương quan mạnh chứ chưa chắc chắn là quan hệ nhân quả.

2.9 Core study: emotion --- Schachter & Singer (1962)

Core study · Schachter & Singer (1962): cognitive, social, and physiological determinants of emotional state

Aim: to test the **two-factor theory of emotion** — the idea that experiencing an emotion requires both (1) physiological **arousal** and (2) a **cognitive label** for that arousal, drawn from the surrounding situation; without a plausible cognitive explanation available, an aroused person will use situational cues to interpret and label their emotional state.

Procedure: male participants were told they were taking part in a study of the effects of a vitamin injection ("Suproxin") on vision. In reality they were injected with either **adrenaline** (which produces physiological arousal: increased heart rate, trembling, flushed feeling) or a **placebo** (saline, producing no physiological effect). Participants receiving adrenaline were further divided into three information conditions:

- **Informed:** told the accurate, true side effects of the injection (increased heart rate, tremor, etc.).
- **Misinformed:** given incorrect information about the side effects (e.g., told to expect numbness, itching, or a headache — not arousal symptoms).
- **Ignorant:** told nothing at all about side effects.

Each participant then waited in a room with a confederate (posing as another participant) who behaved in either a **euphoric** manner (playful, silly, throwing paper aeroplanes) or an **angry** manner (irritable, complaining about a questionnaire), and participants' behaviour and self-reported mood were observed and recorded.

Findings: participants in the **informed adrenaline** condition (who had an accurate explanation for their arousal) were least likely to adopt the confederate's emotional behaviour, since they could correctly attribute their arousal to the injection. Participants in the **ignorant** and **misinformed adrenaline** conditions (who were aroused but had no accurate explanation for it) were significantly more likely to match the confederate's mood — behaving euphorically with the euphoric confederate, or angrily with the angry confederate — because they looked to the situation to explain their unexplained arousal. Participants in the **placebo** condition (no physiological arousal) showed the weakest emotional reactions overall, since they had little or no arousal to interpret in the first place.

Conclusion: emotional experience results from the interaction of physiological arousal and cognitive interpretation of that arousal based on situational cues, supporting the two-factor theory: the same physiological state (adrenaline-induced arousal) can be labelled as entirely different emotions depending on the surrounding social context.

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Schachter & Singer (1962) kiểm chứng **thuyết hai yếu tố về cảm xúc**: cảm xúc = **kích hoạt sinh lý (arousal)** + **nhận nhận thức (cognitive label)** lấy từ bối cảnh xung quanh. Người tham gia được tiêm **adrenaline** (gây kích hoạt sinh lý) hoặc **giả dược**, và được cho biết thông tin **đúng, sai, hoặc không biết gì** về tác dụng phụ, sau đó ngồi cùng một người đóng giả (confederate) đang tỏ ra **vui vẻ hoặc tức giận**. Kết quả: nhóm được biết **thông tin đúng** ít bắt chước cảm xúc của confederate nhất (vì đã biết lý do kích hoạt là do thuốc); nhóm **không biết** hoặc **biết sai** dễ bắt chước cảm xúc của confederate nhất (vì cần tìm lời giải thích từ bối cảnh); nhóm **giả dược** phản ứng cảm xúc yếu nhất vì không có kích hoạt sinh lý để "gán nhãn". Kết luận: cùng một trạng thái sinh lý có thể được diễn giải thành các cảm xúc khác nhau tùy vào bối cảnh nhận thức.

Evaluation. This was a controlled **laboratory experiment** using a genuine biological manipulation (an injected hormone) as one independent variable, combined with manipulated situational

information — giving it strong internal validity and the ability to establish cause-and-effect between arousal/cognition and emotional behaviour. It also has significant **ethical** limitations: participants were deceived about the true purpose of the study and about what they were being injected with, and were not able to give fully informed consent; some may also have experienced psychological or physical discomfort from an unexpected adrenaline injection. The sample (male participants only) limits **generalisability** to other populations. The study also relies on a somewhat artificial laboratory setting and an unusual social situation (being injected then placed with a stranger), which may reduce **ecological validity** compared to how emotions are normally triggered and interpreted in everyday life.

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Điểm mạnh: đây là thí nghiệm có kiểm soát chặt, thao túng biến độc lập sinh học (tiêm hormone) một cách khách quan — cho phép rút ra quan hệ nhân quả rõ ràng. Hạn chế đạo đức lớn: người tham gia bị **lừa dối** về mục đích nghiên cứu và bị tiêm một chất không rõ tác dụng thật sự mà không được thông báo trước (vi phạm **đồng thuận có hiểu biết** — **informed consent**); mẫu chỉ gồm nam giới nên khó khái quát hoá; và bối cảnh phòng thí nghiệm khá nhân tạo, làm giảm giá trị sinh thái.

2.10 Core study: nature and gendered behaviour --- Hassett, Siebert, & Wallen (2008)

Core study · Hassett, Siebert, & Wallen (2008): sex differences in rhesus monkey toy preferences parallel the

Aim: to investigate whether sex differences in toy preference seen in human children (boys preferring wheeled/vehicle toys, girls showing more variable preferences including plush toys) also appear in rhesus monkeys, a species not exposed to human social learning about gender — testing whether such preferences have a biological/hormonal, rather than purely socially learned, basis.

Procedure: 34 rhesus monkeys (a mix of males and females) housed at a primate research centre were individually given access to a set of six toys: three “wheeled” toys (e.g., a wagon, a truck) and three plush toys (soft, textured toys such as stuffed animals), plus, in some trials, a ball classed as a relatively gender-neutral toy. The amount of time each monkey spent in contact with, or interacting with, each type of toy was recorded by observers across multiple sessions.

Findings:

- Male monkeys spent significantly more time interacting with the wheeled toys than female monkeys did.
- Female monkeys showed a more variable pattern, spending significantly more time interacting with the plush toys than males did, alongside some interest in the wheeled toys.
- Both males and females interacted with the gender-neutral toy (the ball) to a similar extent, showing that the sex difference was specific to the wheeled vs. plush toy categories rather than a general difference in activity or exploration.

Conclusion: because rhesus monkeys are not subject to human socialisation, parental encouragement, or gender-based marketing, the emergence of a similar male/female pattern of toy preference to that seen in human children suggests that sex differences in these preferences have at least a partial **biological/hormonal** origin (for example, differing preferences for the kind of movement or sensory properties each toy type offers), operating alongside, rather than being entirely replaced by, social learning in humans.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

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Hassett, Siebert & Wallen (2008) cho 34 con khỉ rhesus tiếp xúc với đồ chơi có bánh xe (wheeled toys), đồ chơi bông mềm (plush toys), và một quả bóng (đồ chơi trung tính về giới), rồi đo thời gian mỗi con tương tác với từng loại. Kết quả: khỉ đực dành nhiều thời gian hơn với đồ chơi có bánh xe; khỉ cái có sở thích đa dạng hơn, dành nhiều thời gian hơn với đồ chơi bông mềm; cả hai giới tương tác với quả bóng (trung tính) ở mức tương đương nhau. Vì khỉ không bị "dạy dỗ" về giới tính như trẻ em, sự khác biệt này gợi ý rằng sở thích đồ chơi theo giới có **nguồn gốc sinh học/hormone** một phần, tồn tại song song với ảnh hưởng học tập xã hội ở con người, chứ không phải hoàn toàn do xã hội "dạy" ra.

Evaluation. Using non-human primates removed the confound of human social learning (parental reinforcement, gendered marketing, peer influence) that makes it hard to isolate biological causes in child studies — a genuine methodological strength that let the researchers claim a clearer test of the biological/evolutionary hypothesis. The controlled, standardised toy-exposure procedure and use of a neutral-toy control condition also strengthen internal validity. However, generalising findings from rhesus monkeys to humans is problematic: monkeys and humans differ in brain structure, social organisation, and evolutionary history, so a pattern found in monkeys does not prove the same mechanism explains human children's toy preferences. There are also ethical considerations in using captive primates in research (housing, degree of choice/naturalistic behaviour available to the animals), which must be weighed using the **3Rs** framework.

(!) Lỗi thường gặp: Việc khái quát hoá kết quả nghiên cứu trên động vật (khỉ rhesus) sang con người cần hết sức thận trọng: khỉ và người khác nhau về cấu trúc não, tổ chức xã hội, và lịch sử tiến hoá. Việc khỉ đực thích đồ chơi có bánh xe hơn **không tự động chứng minh** rằng sở thích đồ chơi theo giới ở trẻ em con người hoàn toàn do sinh học quyết định — nó chỉ cho thấy **có thể** có một thành phần sinh học, bên cạnh (chứ không thay thế) vai trò của học tập xã hội.

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Điểm mạnh: dùng khỉ giúp loại bỏ yếu tố gây nhiễu là học tập xã hội của con người (cha mẹ, quảng cáo, bạn bè) — cho phép kiểm tra giả thuyết sinh học/tiến hoá rõ ràng hơn; có điều kiện trung tính (quả bóng) làm nhóm đối chứng. Hạn chế: **khái quát hoá từ động vật sang người** luôn có rủi ro vì khác biệt về não bộ, xã hội, và tiến hoá; và việc dùng động vật linh trưởng nuôi nhốt trong nghiên cứu đặt ra các vấn đề đạo đức cần cân nhắc theo nguyên tắc **3R**.

2.11 Evaluating the biological approach

2.11.1 Reductionism versus holism

The biological approach is often criticised as **reductionist**: it explains complex psychological phenomena (emotion, sleep, gendered behaviour) by reducing them to their simplest biological components — neurons, hormones, genes. This is a strength in that it allows precise, testable, scientific explanations and treatments (e.g., drug therapies targeting specific neurotransmitters). It is a limitation in that it may overlook the role of cognition, social context, and individual experience — a more **holistic** account (considering biological, psychological, and social factors together) may give a fuller picture of complex behaviour, as illustrated by Schachter & Singer's own finding that biology (arousal) alone was not sufficient to determine an emotion without a cognitive/social label.

2.11.2 Biological determinism versus free will

The approach tends to be **deterministic**: it implies behaviour is caused by biological factors (genes, brain structure, hormones) largely outside an individual's conscious control, which challenges the concept of **free will**. This has real-world implications, for example in debates about the extent to

which biological factors should mitigate responsibility for behaviour. A strength is that determinism supports the search for causal, scientific explanations and biologically based interventions; a limitation is that a purely deterministic view may understate the role of conscious choice and environmental/situational influence in shaping behaviour (again illustrated by Schachter & Singer, where cognitive interpretation, not arousal alone, determined the emotion experienced).

2.11.3 Use of animals in research

Several biologically-oriented studies (including Hassett et al.) use non-human animals, raising ethical questions addressed by the **3Rs** framework:

- **Replacement:** using alternatives to animals wherever possible (e.g., computer models, cell cultures).
- **Reduction:** using the minimum number of animals needed to obtain valid, reliable results.
- **Refinement:** minimising suffering and improving welfare for any animals that are used.

Animal research allows procedures (and levels of experimental control) that would be unethical in humans and can reveal biological mechanisms shared across species, but findings must always be evaluated for whether they can be validly **generalised** to humans, given differences in brain complexity, social behaviour, and evolutionary history.

2.11.4 Scientific credibility

A general strength of the biological approach is its use of objective, measurable, and often highly controlled methods (EEG, hormone assays, twin-study statistics, laboratory experiments), which increases replicability and allows psychology to be studied with the same rigor as the natural sciences. This is one reason the approach has been so influential in developing biologically based treatments (e.g., drug therapies) for psychological conditions.

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Đánh giá tổng quát tiếp cận sinh học: (1) **Giản lược luận (reductionism)** — quy hành vi phức tạp về các yếu tố sinh học đơn giản (neuron, hormone, gene); ưu điểm là khoa học, chính xác, dễ kiểm chứng, nhưng có thể bỏ sót vai trò nhận thức và xã hội (**holism** — cách tiếp cận toàn diện hơn). (2) **Định mệnh luận sinh học (biological determinism)** — cho rằng hành vi bị quyết định bởi yếu tố sinh học nằm ngoài tầm kiểm soát ý thức, đối lập với **ý chí tự do (free will)**; có ý nghĩa thực tiễn (ví dụ trong tranh luận về trách nhiệm pháp lý). (3) **Đạo đức nghiên cứu trên động vật** — áp dụng nguyên tắc 3R (Replacement — thay thế, Reduction — giảm số lượng, Refinement — cải thiện phúc lợi), và luôn cần cân nhắc khả năng **khái quát hoá** từ động vật sang người. (4) **Tính khoa học** — phương pháp khách quan, đo lường được (EEG, xét nghiệm hormone, thống kê song sinh) giúp tăng độ tin cậy và khả năng lặp lại của nghiên cứu.

Ôn tập nhanh: Bốn giả định — di truyền, hoá sinh, hệ thần kinh, tiến hoá. Neuron: đuôi gai → soma → sợi trục (myelin) → cúc tận cùng; điện thế nghỉ -70mV , ngưỡng $\approx -55\text{mV}$, đỉnh action potential $\approx +40\text{mV}$, quy luật tất cả-hoặc-không. Synapse: Ca^{2+} vào → túi synapse giải phóng chất dẫn truyền → gắn thụ thể → EPSP/IPSP → tái hấp thu/enzyme phân giải. Trục HPA: hypothalamus → pituitary → adrenal → adrenaline/cortisol; giao cảm (kích hoạt) vs. đối giao cảm (phục hồi). Song sinh: MZ (100% gene) so với DZ (50% gene) — tương đồng cao hơn ở MZ ủng hộ vai trò di truyền nhưng không loại trừ môi trường. Ba nghiên cứu gốc: Dement & Kleitman (REM-giấc mơ), Schachter & Singer (thuyết hai yếu tố cảm xúc), Hassett và cộng sự (sở thích đồ chơi ở khỉ rhesus). Đánh giá: giản lược luận/holism, định mệnh luận/ý chí tự do, đạo đức động vật (3R), tính khoa học.

2.12 Problem Bank

Bài tập luyện tập

Which research method did Dement and Kleitman (1957) use to investigate the relationship between eye movements and dreaming?

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|
| (A) A natural experiment | (C) A case study |
| (B) A laboratory experiment | (D) A correlational field study |

Lời giải chi tiết

(B). Participants slept in a controlled laboratory setting, were wired to EEG/EOG equipment, and the researchers controlled when participants were woken (during REM or NREM sleep) – the defining features of a laboratory experiment with high control over extraneous variables.

Bài tập luyện tập

In Schachter and Singer's (1962) study, which group of participants would be predicted to show the *strongest* tendency to match the mood of the confederate (euphoric or angry)?

- | | |
|-------------------------------|---|
| (A) Placebo group | (C) Ignorant/misinformed adrenaline group |
| (B) Informed adrenaline group | (D) None of the groups differed |

Lời giải chi tiết

(C). The ignorant and misinformed adrenaline groups experienced physiological arousal but had no accurate explanation for it, so – according to the two-factor theory – they were most likely to look to the situational cues (the confederate's behaviour) to cognitively label their arousal, producing the strongest tendency to mirror the confederate's mood.

Bài tập luyện tập

Evaluate the use of non-human animals in Hassett, Siebert, and Wallen's (2008) study of toy preference in rhesus monkeys. Refer to both a strength and a limitation.

Lời giải chi tiết

Strength: using rhesus monkeys removed the confound of human social learning (parental encouragement, gendered marketing, peer influence) that makes it difficult to isolate a purely biological cause of toy preference in child studies, allowing a clearer test of a biological/evolutionary explanation. **Limitation:** findings from monkeys cannot be generalised to humans with full confidence, since the two species differ in brain structure, social organisation, and evolutionary history – the observed pattern in monkeys does not prove the same biological mechanism fully explains human children's toy preferences, and using captive primates also raises ethical questions addressed by the 3Rs (replacement, reduction, refinement).

Bài tập luyện tập

Which brain structure is most closely associated with processing fear and detecting threat?

- (A) Hippocampus
(B) Hypothalamus

- (C) Amygdala
(D) Occipital lobe

Lời giải chi tiết

(C) **Amygdala.** The amygdala is part of the limbic system and is central to processing emotion, particularly fear and the rapid detection of threat, which then helps trigger the fight-or-flight response via the hypothalamus.

Bài tập luyện tập

Outline the sequence of events at a synapse from the arrival of an action potential at the presynaptic terminal to the termination of the signal.

Lời giải chi tiết

The action potential arrives at the axon terminal, causing voltage-gated calcium channels to open and Ca^{2+} to flow in. This triggers synaptic vesicles to fuse with the presynaptic membrane and release neurotransmitter into the synaptic cleft (exocytosis). The neurotransmitter diffuses across the cleft and binds to specific receptor sites on the postsynaptic membrane, producing either an excitatory postsynaptic potential (EPSP, increasing the likelihood the postsynaptic neuron fires) or an inhibitory postsynaptic potential (IPSP, decreasing that likelihood). The signal is then terminated by reuptake of neurotransmitter into the presynaptic neuron and/or enzymatic breakdown in the cleft.

Bài tập luyện tập

What is the approximate value of a neuron's resting potential, and what does the term describe?

- (A) +40mV; the peak of the action potential
(B) -70mV; the electrical charge difference across the membrane when not transmitting a signal
(C) -55mV; the firing threshold
(D) 0mV; a neutral electrical state

Lời giải chi tiết

(B). The resting potential (approximately -70mV) describes the state when the inside of the neuron is negatively charged relative to the outside, maintained by an uneven distribution of Na^+ and K^+ ions across the membrane, ready to be disrupted by an incoming stimulus.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain what is meant by the "all-or-none law" in relation to the action potential, and explain how the nervous system encodes the intensity of a stimulus given this law.

Lời giải chi tiết

The all-or-none law states that once depolarisation reaches the neuron's threshold (approximately -55mV), a full action potential fires at a fixed, maximal size and speed for that neuron; if the threshold is not reached, no impulse fires at all – there is no such thing as a "partial"

action potential. Because every action potential in a given neuron is identical in size, stimulus intensity cannot be encoded by how large a single impulse is. Instead, the nervous system encodes intensity by the **frequency (rate) of firing**: a stronger stimulus causes the neuron to fire action potentials more rapidly, while a weaker (but still threshold-reaching) stimulus produces a slower rate of firing.

Bài tập luyện tập

A researcher records concordance rates for a particular psychological trait in monozygotic (MZ) and dizygotic (DZ) twins. The MZ concordance rate is notably higher than the DZ concordance rate, but neither is close to 100%. Explain what this pattern suggests about the roles of nature and nurture in this trait.

Lời giải chi tiết

Because MZ twins share 100% of their genes while DZ twins share on average only 50%, a notably higher concordance rate in MZ twins than DZ twins suggests that genetic factors (nature) make a meaningful contribution to the trait – if the trait were purely environmental, MZ and DZ concordance rates should be similar, since both twin types typically share a similar degree of environment. However, because the MZ concordance rate is well below 100% (rather than being genetically identical twins showing the trait in every case), environmental factors (nurture) must also be making a substantial contribution. The pattern therefore supports a combined nature-and-nurture explanation, not a purely genetic one.

Bài tập luyện tập

Distinguish between a family study and an adoption study as methods for investigating the genetic basis of behaviour, and explain one advantage of adoption studies over family studies.

Lời giải chi tiết

A **family study** compares the prevalence of a trait among relatives with differing degrees of genetic relatedness (e.g., parents, siblings, cousins), predicting that closer relatives (who share more genes) should show greater similarity if the trait is genetically influenced. An **adoption study** instead compares adopted children with both their biological parents (with whom they share genes but not environment) and their adoptive parents (with whom they share environment but not genes). The advantage of adoption studies is that they separate genetic relatedness from shared environment far more cleanly than family studies, since children raised by non-biological parents typically do not share a home environment with their biological relatives – family studies cannot achieve this separation because close genetic relatives usually also share an environment, confounding the two influences.

Bài tập luyện tập

Which of the following best describes the role of the hypothalamus in the stress response?

- | | |
|---|--|
| (A) It directly releases adrenaline into the bloodstream | (C) It is the brain structure responsible for long-term memory formation |
| (B) It initiates the HPA axis by signalling the pituitary gland | (D) It is a lobe of the cerebral cortex responsible for vision |

Lời giải chi tiết

(B). The hypothalamus does not itself release adrenaline into the blood; rather, it initiates the HPA axis by signalling the pituitary gland (which releases ACTH), which in turn signals the adrenal glands to release cortisol, while the sympathetic nervous system separately triggers the adrenal medulla to release adrenaline. Long-term memory formation is primarily associated with the hippocampus (A is describing a different structure), and vision is processed in the occipital lobe (D is describing a different structure), so both distractors describe unrelated structures/functions.

Bài tập luyện tập

Distinguish between the sympathetic and parasympathetic branches of the autonomic nervous system, giving one bodily effect of each.

Lời giải chi tiết

The **sympathetic** branch is activated in response to a perceived threat and produces the fight-or-flight response: for example, it increases heart rate (to pump more oxygenated blood to the muscles). The **parasympathetic** branch is activated once a threat has passed and produces a “rest-and-digest” response that returns the body to baseline: for example, it slows heart rate back down and redirects blood flow back toward digestion. The two branches work in a complementary, largely opposing way to maintain the body’s overall physiological balance.

Bài tập luyện tập

A student claims: “Hormones and neurotransmitters do the same job in the same way, so there is no real difference between them.” Evaluate this claim.

Lời giải chi tiết

The claim is inaccurate. Both hormones and neurotransmitters are chemical messengers, but they differ in key ways. **Neurotransmitters** are released from a presynaptic neuron directly across a tiny synaptic cleft to bind to receptors on a specific postsynaptic neuron; their effects are fast (milliseconds) and highly localised to that one synaptic connection. **Hormones** are released by endocrine glands directly into the bloodstream and travel throughout the entire body, but only affect **target cells** that carry matching receptors; their effects are slower to appear but tend to be longer-lasting and more widespread (e.g., cortisol affecting the immune system, metabolism, and brain simultaneously). Some chemicals, such as adrenaline/noradrenaline, can act as both a neurotransmitter and a hormone depending on where they are released, but this does not mean the two categories work identically.

Bài tập luyện tập

Which brain-scanning method has the best temporal resolution but relatively poor spatial resolution, and why does this trade-off matter for studying sleep?

Lời giải chi tiết

EEG has excellent temporal resolution (able to detect changes in electrical activity at the millisecond level) but relatively poor spatial resolution (it cannot precisely localise which deep brain structures are producing that activity, since electrodes are placed on the scalp). This

trade-off matters for studying sleep because sleep stages (e.g., REM versus NREM) are defined by rapid, characteristic changes in brainwave pattern occurring within seconds — exactly the kind of fast-changing data EEG is well suited to detect, as used by Dement and Kleitman (1957) to identify REM sleep and correlate it with dream reports; a method with poor temporal resolution (e.g., PET) would not capture these rapid transitions.

Bài tập luyện tập

A student wants to identify which specific brain area is responsible for a particular cognitive function by studying patients who have suffered damage to that area and comparing their resulting behavioural deficits. Which brain-research method are they using, and what is one limitation of this method?

Lời giải chi tiết

This is a **post-mortem / lesion study**. One limitation is that brain damage from injury or disease is rarely confined neatly to a single structure or area, so it is difficult to establish with confidence that the observed behavioural deficit is caused specifically by damage to the area of interest, rather than by damage to surrounding or connected areas — limiting the ability to draw precise cause-and-effect conclusions about localisation of function.

Bài tập luyện tập

Which of the following is an example of an evolutionary explanation of behaviour, as opposed to a purely biochemical one?

- | | |
|---|---|
| (A) Serotonin deficiency is linked to symptoms of depression | likely to survive and reproduce |
| (B) A fear response to snakes is widespread across human populations because ancestors who avoided snakes were more | (C) Adrenaline increases heart rate during a stressful event |
| | (D) Dopamine release is associated with rewarding experiences |

Lời giải chi tiết

(B). This option explains a behaviour (fear of snakes) in terms of its **adaptive value** across generations via natural selection — ancestors with the trait survived/reproduced more successfully, so the trait became widespread — which is the defining feature of an evolutionary explanation. The other three options describe biochemical mechanisms (a neurotransmitter or hormone's immediate effect) rather than explaining *why* a behaviour evolved across generations.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain, using the logic of natural selection, why the Hassett, Siebert, and Wallen (2008) findings on toy preference in rhesus monkeys might be interpreted as evidence for an evolutionary explanation of sex differences in play behaviour.

Lời giải chi tiết

Natural selection proposes that behaviours conferring a survival or reproductive advantage become more common in a population over generations because individuals with adaptive traits reproduce more successfully and pass on the underlying genes. If male and female rhesus

sus monkeys — who are not exposed to human social learning about gender — reliably show different preferences for wheeled versus plush toys, this pattern cannot be explained by human socialisation. An evolutionary explanation would argue that ancestral male and female primates faced different survival/reproductive demands (e.g., related to differing preparation for physical or social roles), so a preference for particular kinds of movement or sensory stimulation (favouring, for example, wheeled/moving objects) may have had differing adaptive value for each sex, and become a heritable predisposition expressed even without social teaching. This does not rule out social learning contributing to human children's toy preferences as well, but the monkey data support at least a partial biological/evolutionary contribution.

Bài tập luyện tập

State the number of genes shared, on average, by dizygotic (DZ) twins.

- | | |
|---------|----------|
| (A) 25% | (C) 75% |
| (B) 50% | (D) 100% |

Lời giải chi tiết

(B) 50%. DZ twins develop from two separately fertilised eggs, so genetically they are no more similar than ordinary siblings, sharing on average half their genes. (MZ twins, by contrast, develop from a single fertilised egg that splits and share effectively 100% of their genes.)

Bài tập luyện tập

Outline one strength and one limitation of using EEG to study sleep, as in Dement and Kleitman's (1957) research.

Lời giải chi tiết

Strength: EEG has excellent temporal resolution, allowing researchers to detect the rapid, characteristic changes in brainwave pattern that distinguish REM from NREM sleep in real time, and is non-invasive, making repeated overnight recording practical. **Limitation:** EEG has poor spatial resolution — it cannot indicate precisely which deeper brain structures are generating the recorded electrical activity, since electrodes are placed on the scalp and pick up summed activity from large areas of underlying cortex.

Bài tập luyện tập

A newspaper article states: "Scientists have found the gene for intelligence." Using your knowledge of twin studies, explain why this claim is an oversimplification.

Lời giải chi tiết

Twin studies on traits such as intelligence typically find that MZ twins show notably higher concordance than DZ twins, which does support a genetic contribution — but MZ concordance for such traits is never close to 100%, meaning genetics cannot fully account for the trait on its own; environmental factors clearly also contribute substantially. In addition, complex psychological traits such as intelligence are almost certainly influenced by many genes acting together (polygenic) rather than a single "gene for" the trait, and gene expression itself can be influenced by environmental factors. The claim of a single gene "for" intelligence

therefore misrepresents both the twin-study evidence (which shows a combined nature-and-nurture picture) and the broader genetic complexity of such traits.

Bài tập luyện tập

Identify the independent variable(s) manipulated by Schachter and Singer (1962) in their study of emotion.

Lời giải chi tiết

Schachter and Singer manipulated two independent variables: (1) the **injection type/information** given to participants — adrenaline (informed, misinformed, or ignorant of the true side effects) versus a placebo; and (2) the **confederate's behaviour** in the waiting room — euphoric versus angry. The dependent variables were participants' observed behaviour (whether they mimicked the confederate's mood) and their self-reported emotional state.

Bài tập luyện tập

Which of the following is the correct order of the fight-or-flight/HPA-axis pathway?

- (A) Pituitary → hypothalamus → adrenal glands → hormone release (C) Adrenal glands → pituitary → hypothalamus → hormone release
(B) Hypothalamus → pituitary → adrenal glands → hormone release (D) Hypothalamus → adrenal glands → pituitary → hormone release

Lời giải chi tiết

(B). The hypothalamus detects the threat and signals the pituitary gland (which releases ACTH); the pituitary gland then signals the adrenal glands, which release cortisol (and, via the sympathetic nervous system acting more directly and rapidly, adrenaline), producing the physiological changes of the stress response.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain why the biological approach can be described as reductionist, using an example from one of the three core studies in this unit.

Lời giải chi tiết

The biological approach is reductionist because it explains complex psychological phenomena by breaking them down into their simplest biological components (genes, hormones, neurotransmitters, or brain structures) rather than considering cognitive, social, or emotional factors together. For example, an entirely biological account of Schachter and Singer's (1962) participants' emotional experience might attempt to explain their behaviour purely in terms of adrenaline-induced physiological arousal. However, the study itself showed this would be an oversimplification: participants who were equally physiologically aroused by adrenaline behaved in very different emotional ways depending on the cognitive label/situational information available to them (informed vs. ignorant/misinformed), showing that a purely biological/reductionist account misses the essential role of cognitive interpretation — a more holistic explanation, incorporating cognition and social context alongside biology, is needed to fully explain the emotional behaviour observed.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain why the biological approach is considered deterministic, and outline one strength and one limitation of this deterministic position.

Lời giải chi tiết

The biological approach is deterministic because it implies that behaviour is caused by internal biological factors – genes, hormone levels, brain structure and activity – that are largely outside an individual's conscious control, leaving little room for free will. **Strength:** a deterministic stance supports the search for identifiable, testable biological causes of behaviour, which has led to effective biologically based treatments (e.g., drugs targeting specific neurotransmitter systems for conditions linked to neurotransmitter imbalance). **Limitation:** a purely deterministic view may understate the role of conscious choice, cognition, and environmental/situational context in shaping behaviour – for example, Schachter and Singer's participants did not respond to their arousal in a fixed, determined way; their emotional response depended on how they cognitively interpreted the situation, showing behaviour was not fully determined by physiology alone.

Bài tập luyện tập

Outline the 3Rs framework used to evaluate the ethics of animal research, and apply it to the use of rhesus monkeys in Hassett, Siebert, and Wallen (2008).

Lời giải chi tiết

The **3Rs** are: **Replacement** (using non-animal alternatives wherever possible, e.g., computer models or cell cultures); **Reduction** (using the minimum number of animals needed to obtain valid, reliable results); and **Refinement** (minimising suffering and improving welfare for any animals used, e.g., through housing conditions and humane handling). Applied to Hassett et al.: a non-invasive, naturalistic observation of toy-interaction behaviour (rather than an invasive procedure) reflects **refinement**; using a defined, moderate sample of 34 monkeys rather than a much larger number reflects an attempt at **reduction**; **replacement** was arguably not possible here, since the research question specifically required observing behaviour in a living primate species to test the hypothesis, and no computer model or cell-based alternative could substitute for behavioural observation.

Bài tập luyện tập

A friend argues: "Dement and Kleitman proved that REM sleep causes dreaming." Explain why this conclusion goes beyond what the study's design can support.

Lời giải chi tiết

Although Dement and Kleitman found a strong **association** between REM sleep and dream recall (dreams were reported far more often after waking from REM than NREM sleep), and that REM duration matched estimated dream duration, the study's design does not allow a firm causal claim. Dream reports still depend on participants' subjective, retrospective recollection immediately after waking, which cannot be independently verified against what was "actually" experienced during sleep; it is also possible that REM sleep and dreaming are both produced by some third underlying brain process, occurring together without one directly causing the other. A correlation between REM sleep and dream recall, however strong and consistent, is

therefore evidence of a close association, not proof of causation.

Bài tập luyện tập

Which of the following correctly describes an EPSP (excitatory postsynaptic potential)?

- | | |
|--|--|
| (A) It decreases the likelihood that the postsynaptic neuron will fire an action potential | (C) It is the electrical signal that travels down the axon of the presynaptic neuron |
| (B) It increases the likelihood that the postsynaptic neuron will fire an action potential | (D) It refers only to the release of neurotransmitter from synaptic vesicles |

Lời giải chi tiết

(B). An EPSP is a change in the postsynaptic membrane's potential, caused by neurotransmitter binding to receptors, that makes the postsynaptic neuron slightly more likely to reach its firing threshold and generate its own action potential. (An IPSP has the opposite effect, making firing less likely.)

Bài tập luyện tập

A student writes: "Adrenaline is a neurotransmitter, not a hormone." Evaluate this statement.

Lời giải chi tiết

This statement is incomplete rather than simply wrong. Adrenaline (epinephrine) can act as *both* a neurotransmitter and a hormone depending on where it is released. When released from certain neurons within the nervous system, it functions locally as a neurotransmitter. When released by the adrenal medulla directly into the bloodstream as part of the sympathetic/HPA-axis stress response, it functions as a hormone, travelling throughout the body to produce widespread effects (increased heart rate, blood glucose, and breathing rate) as part of the fight-or-flight response. It is therefore inaccurate to classify adrenaline as only one or the other.

Bài tập luyện tập

Using material from this unit, evaluate the biological approach to psychology. Refer to at least one core study and to issues of reductionism, determinism, and the use of animals in research.

Lời giải chi tiết

A full answer should include: (1) a brief outline of the biological approach's key assumptions (genetics, biochemistry, the nervous system, evolution); (2) reference to at least one core study as supporting evidence – for example, Schachter and Singer (1962) showed that manipulating a biological variable (adrenaline) produced measurable differences in emotional behaviour, supporting the assumption that biochemistry influences behaviour, while also showing (via the informed/ignorant/misinformed conditions) that biology alone was insufficient without cognitive interpretation; (3) discussion of **reductionism** – the approach explains complex behaviour via simple biological components, which aids scientific precision and treatment development but may miss cognitive/social factors (the two-factor theory itself is a partial correction, incorporating cognition); (4) discussion of **determinism** – biological factors are portrayed as largely

outside conscious control, which supports causal explanation but understates the role of free will and interpretation, again illustrated by Schachter and Singer's finding that identical arousal produced different emotions depending on cognitive appraisal; (5) discussion of the **use of animals** — Hassett et al. (2008) used rhesus monkeys to remove the confound of human social learning, strengthening the case for a biological/evolutionary contribution to sex differences in toy preference, but this raises generalisability concerns (given differences between monkey and human brains/social structures) and ethical considerations addressed by the 3Rs. A well-rounded evaluation should conclude that the biological approach provides valuable, testable, scientific explanations, but is most convincing when it acknowledges — rather than ignores — the contribution of cognitive and environmental factors alongside biology.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain the difference between concordance rates in twin studies and prevalence rates used in family studies, and explain why twin studies are generally considered a stronger method for estimating genetic influence.

Lời giải chi tiết

A **concordance rate** (used in twin studies) is the percentage of twin pairs in which, if one twin shows a trait, the co-twin also shows it — directly comparing MZ pairs (100% shared genes) against DZ pairs ($\approx 50\%$ shared genes). A **prevalence rate** (used in family studies) simply describes how common a trait is among relatives of a given degree of relatedness, without a matched genetically-identical comparison group. Twin studies are generally considered stronger because the MZ/DZ comparison holds environment roughly constant (both twin types are typically raised in a similarly shared family environment) while varying only genetic relatedness (100% versus 50%), isolating the genetic contribution more precisely than simply comparing prevalence across relatives of different, less tightly controlled degrees of relatedness and environment-sharing.

Bài tập luyện tập

Identify the dependent variable(s) in Dement and Kleitman's (1957) study.

Lời giải chi tiết

The main dependent variables were: (1) whether or not a participant reported dreaming when woken (compared between REM and NREM awakenings); (2) participants' estimates of how long they had been dreaming (compared against the objective, EEG-recorded duration of the REM period); and (3) the content of the dream report, specifically the direction of described eye movement/gaze within the dream (compared against the objective EOG-recorded pattern of eye movements immediately before waking).

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain one way in which findings from Hassett, Siebert, and Wallen (2008) could be used to support, and one way they could be used to challenge, a purely social-learning explanation of gendered toy preference in human children.

Lời giải chi tiết

Support for challenging social learning alone: because rhesus monkeys are not exposed to human socialisation, parental encouragement, or gendered marketing, yet still showed a similar sex-typed pattern of toy preference to human children (males favouring wheeled toys, females showing more variable/plush-toy interest), this suggests social learning cannot be the *only* explanation for the human pattern – some biological/evolutionary predisposition may also contribute. **Limitation on generalising this challenge:** monkeys and humans differ substantially in brain complexity, social structure, and capacity for cultural learning, so the monkey findings cannot definitively prove that human children's toy preferences are similarly biologically driven; social learning could still play a much larger (even dominant) role in humans than in monkeys, meaning the two explanations (biological predisposition and social learning) most likely operate together rather than one fully replacing the other.

The Cognitive Approach

Mục tiêu Unit: Các giả định của tiếp cận nhận thức (cognitive approach); quá trình xử lý thông tin và phép ẩn dụ "tâm trí như máy tính"; mô hình trí nhớ đa kho (multi-store model) và mô hình trí nhớ làm việc (working memory model); lý thuyết mức độ xử lý (levels of processing); lý thuyết schema và trí nhớ tái tạo (Bartlett); hiệu ứng thông tin sai lệch trong lời khai nhân chứng (misinformation effect); nhận diện khuôn mặt; lý thuyết "mindblindness" và thuyết về tâm trí (theory of mind); ba nghiên cứu cốt lõi: Andrade (vẽ nguệch ngoạc và trí nhớ), Baron-Cohen và cộng sự (Bài kiểm tra Ánh mắt), Pozzulo & Lindsay (nhận diện nhân chứng trẻ em); đánh giá tổng quát tiếp cận nhận thức.

3.1 Assumptions of the Cognitive Approach

3.1.1 Internal mental processes and the computer analogy

The cognitive approach assumes that behaviour can be explained by studying **internal mental processes** — the unobservable operations of the mind that occur between receiving a stimulus and producing a response. These processes include **attention** (selecting some information for further processing while filtering out the rest), **perception** (organising and interpreting sensory information), **memory** (encoding, storing, and retrieving information), **language**, **thinking**, **reasoning**, and **decision-making**. Because none of these processes can be observed directly, cognitive psychologists must **infer** how they work from measurable behaviour — for example, inferring how memory is organised from patterns of errors and reaction times in a recall task.

A central assumption of the approach is the **computer analogy**: the mind can usefully be compared to a computer, processing information through a sequence of stages —

input → processing → output.

Information from the environment (input) is encoded, manipulated, and transformed by internal processes (processing, analogous to a computer's central processor), and this produces a behavioural response (output). This analogy encourages researchers to build precise, testable models of the stages and mechanisms of cognition (such as the multi-store model of memory, Section 3.2), rather than treating the mind as an unanalysable "black box".

Core assumptions of the cognitive approach

- Behaviour results from **internal mental processes** that mediate between stimulus and response.
- These processes can be studied **scientifically**, usually through controlled laboratory experiments, even though they cannot be observed directly — they must be **inferred** from behaviour.
- The mind can be modelled using the **computer analogy**: information flows through an input → processing → output sequence, often broken down into discrete stages or stores.
- Prior knowledge, stored as **schemas**, actively shapes how new information is perceived, interpreted, and remembered.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Tiếp cận nhận thức cho rằng hành vi của con người được giải thích thông qua các **quá trình xử lý thông tin bên trong tâm trí** (chú ý, tri giác, trí nhớ, ngôn ngữ, tư duy) — những quá trình này không thể quan sát trực tiếp mà phải được **suy luận (inferred)** từ hành vi quan sát được (ví dụ: suy ra cách trí nhớ hoạt động từ các lỗi ghi nhớ hoặc thời gian phản ứng trong một bài kiểm tra). Tiếp cận này thường dùng **phép ẩn dụ máy tính**: tâm trí xử lý thông tin theo trình tự đầu vào (input) → xử lý (processing) → đầu ra (output), tương tự cách một máy tính hoạt động — điều này giúp các nhà nghiên cứu xây dựng những mô hình cụ thể, có thể kiểm chứng bằng thực nghiệm.

3.1.2 Schemas: mental frameworks for organising knowledge

A **schema** is an organised packet of knowledge, built up from past experience, that represents a person, object, situation, or event. Schemas allow the mind to process new information efficiently: instead of analysing every incoming detail from scratch, we fit it into an existing framework, filling in likely gaps and generating expectations about what should happen next. This makes schemas extremely useful for fast, economical processing of a complex world — but the same economy can introduce **bias**: information that fits an existing schema is processed and remembered more easily than information that contradicts it, and gaps in memory may be unconsciously "filled in" with schema-consistent details that were never actually presented. This dual nature of schemas — helpful organisation versus potential distortion — will reappear later in this unit (Section 3.6) when reconstructive memory and eyewitness testimony are discussed.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Schema là một "gói kiến thức" đã được tổ chức sẵn trong trí nhớ, hình thành từ kinh nghiệm trong quá khứ, giúp não bộ xử lý thông tin mới nhanh và hiệu quả hơn bằng cách khớp thông tin mới vào một khuôn mẫu có sẵn thay vì phân tích lại từ đầu. Tuy nhiên, chính sự "tiết kiệm" này cũng gây ra **thiên lệch (bias)**: thông tin phù hợp với schema dễ được ghi nhớ hơn, còn những khoảng trống trong trí nhớ có thể bị "lấp đầy" bằng chi tiết phù hợp với schema dù chi tiết đó chưa từng xảy ra thật.

3.2 The Multi-Store Model of Memory (Atkinson & Shiffrin, 1968)

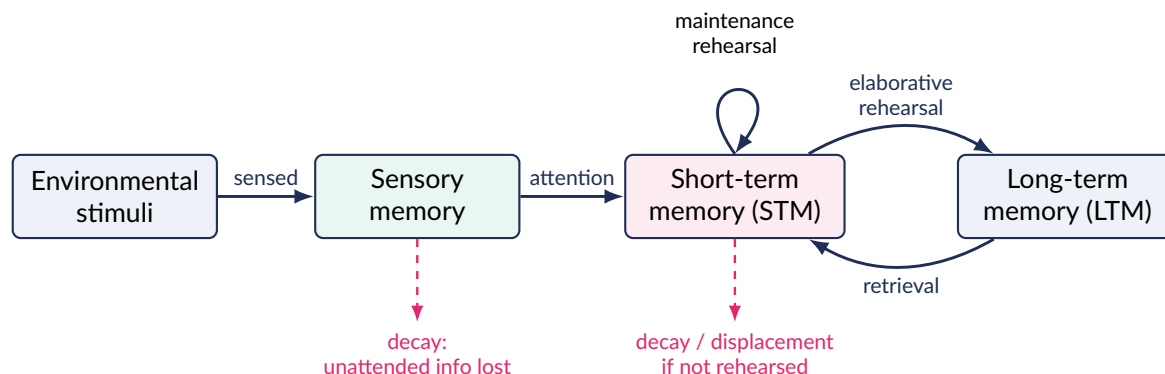
3.2.1 Three separate stores

Atkinson and Shiffrin (1968) proposed that human memory is made up of three separate, structurally distinct stores, differing in **capacity** (how much information each store can hold), **duration** (how long information persists in each store), and **encoding** (the format in which information is represented).

The three stores

- **Sensory memory**: registers information arriving from each sense (e.g., the iconic store for vision, the echoic store for hearing). Capacity is very large, but duration is extremely brief — well under one second — and information decays rapidly unless it is attended to.
- **Short-term memory (STM)**: holds a small amount of information currently being consciously processed. Capacity is limited to roughly 7 ± 2 items (Miller, 1956); duration without rehearsal is short, typically around 18–30 seconds; encoding is mainly **acoustic** (by sound).
- **Long-term memory (LTM)**: the permanent store of knowledge and experience. Capacity is effectively unlimited and duration can last a lifetime; encoding is mainly **semantic** (by meaning).

Information moves between the stores in a fixed, linear sequence. Environmental stimuli enter sensory memory; if **attention** is paid to some of that information, it passes into STM. Information in STM that undergoes **rehearsal** is transferred into LTM, where it can later be **retrieved** back into STM when needed. Information that is not attended to (in sensory memory) or not rehearsed (in STM) is assumed to decay and be permanently lost.



The multi-store model (Atkinson & Shiffrin, 1968): information flows from sensory memory into STM via attention, and from STM into LTM via elaborative rehearsal; maintenance rehearsal keeps information active in STM; information that is unattended or unrehearsed is lost from the system.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Mô hình trí nhớ đa kho của Atkinson & Shiffrin (1968) chia trí nhớ thành 3 **kho riêng biệt**: **trí nhớ giác quan** (sensory memory – dung lượng lớn nhưng thời gian lưu trữ dưới 1 giây), **trí nhớ ngắn hạn** (STM – dung lượng giới hạn khoảng 7 ± 2 đơn vị, thời gian lưu trữ khoảng 18–30 giây nếu không được nhắc lại, mã hoá chủ yếu theo *âm thanh*), và **trí nhớ dài hạn** (LTM – dung lượng gần như không giới hạn, có thể lưu trữ suốt đời, mã hoá chủ yếu theo *ý nghĩa*). Thông tin di chuyển theo trình tự cố định: giác quan → (nhờ **chú ý**) → STM → (nhờ **nhắc lại**) → LTM.

3.2.2 Maintenance rehearsal versus elaborative rehearsal

The model distinguishes two kinds of rehearsal. **Maintenance rehearsal** is simple repetition of information (e.g., silently repeating a phone number) – it keeps information active in STM but, according to the model, only weakly promotes transfer to LTM. **Elaborative rehearsal** involves linking new information to existing knowledge, thinking about its meaning, or organising it meaningfully – this is what the model claims actually drives long-term storage. In general, the model predicts that the more (and the more elaborately) information is rehearsed, the more likely it is to be permanently stored in LTM.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Nhắc lại duy trì (maintenance rehearsal) chỉ là lặp lại thông tin nguyên văn (ví dụ lẩm nhẩm một số điện thoại) – giữ thông tin trong STM nhưng ít giúp chuyển vào LTM. **Nhắc lại tinh luyện (elaborative rehearsal)** là liên hệ thông tin mới với kiến thức đã có, suy nghĩ về ý nghĩa của nó – đây mới là yếu tố mô hình đa kho cho là thực sự quyết định việc thông tin có được lưu trữ lâu dài hay không.

(!) Lỗi thường gặp: Đừng cho rằng "nhắc lại càng nhiều lần thì trí nhớ dài hạn càng tốt" một cách tuyệt đối. Số lần nhắc lại (như trong nhắc lại duy trì) không quan trọng bằng *cách* thông tin được xử lý – đây chính là điểm mà **lý thuyết mức độ xử lý** (Craik & Lockhart, Section 3.5) phê phán mô hình đa kho: một từ được xử lý *sâu* (theo ý nghĩa) dù chỉ một lần có thể được nhớ tốt hơn một từ được nhắc lại duy trì rất nhiều lần.

3.3 The Working Memory Model (Baddeley & Hitch, 1974)

3.3.1 Why replace a unitary short-term store?

The multi-store model treats STM as a single, unitary store — but a range of evidence suggests this is too simple. In particular, **dual-task studies** show that people can perform two tasks at the same time reasonably well if the tasks draw on *different* types of processing (e.g., following a spoken conversation while walking along a familiar route), but performance drops sharply when two tasks compete for the *same* type of processing (e.g., trying to read a text while simultaneously listening to and understanding someone speaking). If STM were a single undifferentiated store, both combinations should be equally difficult, since both would be competing for the same limited resource. Baddeley and Hitch (1974) proposed the **working memory model (WMM)** to explain this pattern: STM is not one store, but an active workspace made up of several specialised components that can, within limits, operate simultaneously.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

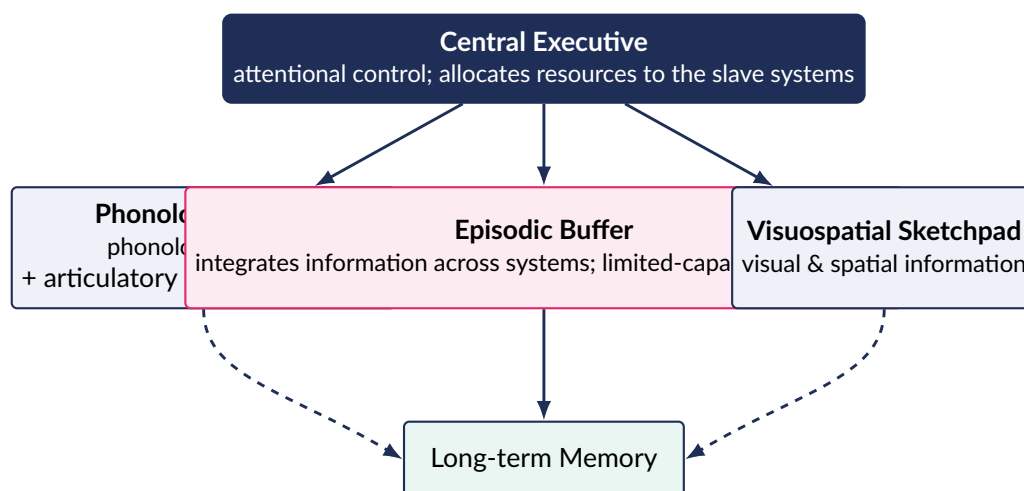
VN

Mô hình đa kho coi STM là **một kho duy nhất**, nhưng các nghiên cứu về **làm hai việc cùng lúc (dual-task)** cho thấy điều này quá đơn giản: con người có thể làm tốt hai việc cùng lúc nếu chúng dùng *loại xử lý khác nhau* (ví dụ vừa đi bộ vừa nói chuyện), nhưng sẽ gặp khó khăn nếu hai việc cùng cạnh tranh *loại xử lý giống nhau* (ví dụ vừa đọc vừa nghe hiểu lời nói). Nếu STM chỉ là một kho duy nhất thì cả hai trường hợp phải khó như nhau — điều này không đúng trên thực tế, nên Baddeley & Hitch (1974) đề xuất mô hình **trí nhớ làm việc (working memory model)** với nhiều thành phần chuyên biệt.

3.3.2 Components of the working memory model

The four components

- **Central executive:** a modality-free, attentional-control system with very limited capacity. It does not store information itself; instead it directs attention, allocates processing resources to the two slave systems below, resolves conflicts between them, and supervises tasks such as problem-solving and decision-making.
- **Phonological loop:** handles verbal and acoustic information, and has two sub-components: the **phonological store** (a brief "inner ear" that holds speech-based information) and the **articulatory (rehearsal) process** (an "inner voice" that refreshes information in the phonological store through subvocal repetition, and converts written material into a spoken code).
- **Visuospatial sketchpad:** temporarily stores and manipulates visual and spatial information (e.g., mentally picturing a route, or the shape and layout of an object) — sometimes described as an "inner eye."
- **Episodic buffer:** added to the model later (Baddeley, 2000) to address components missing from the original three-part version. It is a limited-capacity store that integrates information from the phonological loop, the visuospatial sketchpad, and long-term memory into unified, chronologically ordered episodes, and provides a two-way link between working memory and LTM.



The working memory model (Baddeley & Hitch, 1974; episodic buffer added by Baddeley, 2000). The central executive allocates attention to two modality-specific "slave" systems (phonological loop, visuospatial sketchpad); the episodic buffer integrates information from both slave systems and from LTM into unified episodes.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Mô hình trí nhớ làm việc gồm 4 thành phần: **Trung tâm điều hành (central executive)** – kiểm soát chú ý, phân bổ nguồn lực, không tự lưu trữ thông tin; **Vòng lặp âm vị (phonological loop)** – xử lý thông tin bằng lời nói/âm thanh, gồm kho âm vị (phonological store, "tai trong") và quá trình nhắc lại phát âm (articulatory process, "giọng nói trong đầu"); **Bảng phác họa thị giác-không gian (visuospatial sketchpad)** – xử lý hình ảnh và không gian ("mắt trong đầu"); **Bộ đệm tình tiết (episodic buffer)** – được bổ sung sau (Baddeley, 2000) để tích hợp thông tin từ hai hệ thống trên và từ LTM thành các "tình tiết" thống nhất, đồng thời là cầu nối hai chiều giữa trí nhớ làm việc và LTM.

3.3.3 Evaluating the working memory model

The WMM is well supported by **dual-task studies**: performance drops much more when two concurrent tasks draw on the *same* component (e.g., two visual tasks, or two verbal tasks) than when they draw on *different* components (e.g., one visual and one verbal task) – exactly the pattern the single-store multi-store model cannot easily explain. The model is also supported by **clinical/neuropsychological evidence**: some brain-damaged patients show highly selective impairments, such as a disrupted phonological loop alongside an intact visuospatial sketchpad (or vice versa), suggesting these really are separable systems with at least partly distinct neural bases – a form of biological grounding that the original multi-store model largely lacked.

At the same time, the model has limitations. The **central executive** is the least well understood component: it is often criticised as vaguely specified – closer to a convenient label for "whatever does the coordinating" than a precisely defined mechanism, and some researchers argue it may itself need to be broken down into further sub-processes. The model also says relatively little about how information becomes **permanently** stored in LTM, focusing mainly on temporary, short-term manipulation of information.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Mô hình trí nhớ làm việc được ủng hộ mạnh bởi các nghiên cứu **dual-task** (hai việc cùng loại xử lý gây cản trở nhau nhiều hơn hai việc khác loại) và bằng chứng **lâm sàng** (một số bệnh nhân tổn thương não chỉ mất riêng vòng lặp âm vị hoặc riêng bảng phác họa thị giác, cho thấy đây là các hệ thống tách biệt). Tuy nhiên, **trung tâm điều hành** bị phê bình là mô tả còn mơ hồ, chưa rõ cơ chế hoạt động cụ thể; mô hình cũng chưa giải thích rõ quá trình lưu trữ **vĩnh viễn**

vào LTM diễn ra như thế nào.

3.4 Multi-Store Model versus Working Memory Model

Both models describe how information is temporarily held and processed, but they differ sharply in what they explain well and what they leave unexplained.

	Multi-store model (Atkinson & Shiffrin, 1968)	Working memory model (Baddeley & Hitch, 1974)
View of STM	A single, unitary short-term store	STM is not unitary – split into specialised components (phonological loop, visuospatial sketchpad) coordinated by a central executive
Explains well	The broad flow sensory → short-term → long-term memory; the general role of rehearsal in building LTM	Why two different-modality tasks can be done together fairly easily, but two same-modality tasks interfere strongly; selective cognitive deficits after localised brain damage
Struggles to explain	Dual-task evidence that STM is not a single, undifferentiated store; why some information reaches LTM with very little rehearsal	Precisely how the central executive itself works internally; has comparatively little to say about permanent storage in LTM
Key supporting evidence	The serial position effect; case-study evidence of dissociations between short-term and long-term memory function	Dual-task studies (concurrent verbal vs. spatial tasks); brain-damaged patients with selective impairment of one component but not another

The two models are best seen as complementary rather than strictly rival: the multi-store model captures the large-scale architecture of memory (a temporary store feeding into a permanent one), while the working memory model provides a more detailed, more accurate account of what actually happens *inside* short-term/working memory.

3.5 Levels of Processing Theory (Craik & Lockhart, 1972)

3.5.1 Shallow versus deep processing

Craik and Lockhart (1972) proposed an alternative account of why some information is remembered well and other information is quickly forgotten – one that does not rely on the idea of separate stores at all. Their **levels of processing (LOP)** theory argues that retention depends on *how deeply* information is processed at the time of encoding, not on which “store” it passes through or how many times it is mechanically repeated.

Levels of processing

- **Structural (shallow) processing:** analysing only the physical appearance of a stimulus (e.g., judging whether a word is printed in upper- or lower-case letters).
- **Phonemic processing:** analysing the sound of a stimulus (e.g., judging whether a word rhymes with another word) – deeper than structural processing but still relatively shallow.
- **Semantic (deep) processing:** analysing the meaning of a stimulus and relating it to existing knowledge (e.g., judging whether a word would fit meaningfully into a given sentence).

The central claim: **deeper (semantic) processing produces a stronger, more durable, more elaborately interconnected memory trace than shallow (structural or phonemic) processing,**

and therefore leads to better long-term retention — regardless of how many times the item was superficially repeated.

Level	What is analysed	Typical example task	Retention
Structural (shallow)	Physical/visual appearance of the stimulus	"Is the word printed in CAP-ITAL letters?"	Weakest, most fragile
Phonemic (shallow-intermediate)	The sound of the word	"Does the word rhyme with <i>chair</i> ?"	Somewhat better, still limited
Semantic (deep)	Meaning of the word and its links to existing knowledge	"Would the word fit in the sentence: 'She placed the ____ on the table'?"	Strongest, most durable

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Lý thuyết **mức độ xử lý** của Craik & Lockhart (1972) cho rằng việc thông tin có được ghi nhớ tốt hay không phụ thuộc vào **độ sâu** của quá trình xử lý tại thời điểm mã hoá, chứ không phụ thuộc vào việc nó đi qua "kho" nào. Có 3 mức xử lý: **cấu trúc (structural)** — chỉ xử lý hình dạng bên ngoài (nhông nhất); **âm vị (phonemic)** — xử lý âm thanh của từ (trung bình); **ngữ nghĩa (semantic)** — xử lý ý nghĩa và liên hệ với kiến thức đã có (sâu nhất). Xử lý càng **sâu** thì trí nhớ càng **bền vững** và dễ nhớ lại hơn.

3.5.2 Contrast with the multi-store model's rehearsal account

This theory directly challenges the multi-store model's explanation of what drives long-term storage. The multi-store model claims that *amount* of rehearsal (repetition) is what matters; levels of processing claims that *depth/type* of processing matters far more than sheer repetition. This is why simply repeating a phone number over and over (maintenance rehearsal — shallow, structural/phonemic processing) can still be forgotten within seconds once attention shifts, whereas thinking briefly but meaningfully about what a single new fact *means* (semantic/elaborative processing) can produce a memory that lasts for years.

A key criticism of levels of processing theory is that "depth" is difficult to define and measure independently of the very memory performance it is meant to explain — there is a risk of **circularity** (we tend to say that whichever processing produced better recall must have been "deeper"). Even so, the theory remains highly influential because it correctly predicts, and has been repeatedly confirmed by, the finding that semantic encoding tasks reliably produce better subsequent recall than structural or phonemic encoding tasks, even when the total study time is held constant.

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Lý thuyết mức độ xử lý mâu thuẫn với cách mô hình đa kho giải thích trí nhớ dài hạn: mô hình đa kho nhấn mạnh **số lần** nhắc lại, còn lý thuyết này nhấn mạnh **độ sâu/kiểu** xử lý. Một lời phê bình quan trọng là khái niệm "độ sâu" khó định nghĩa độc lập với chính kết quả ghi nhớ (nguy cơ **lập luận vòng tròn** — để nhớ tốt thì bị gọi là "xử lý sâu"). Dù vậy, lý thuyết này vẫn rất có ảnh hưởng vì luôn được kiểm chứng: xử lý ngữ nghĩa luôn cho kết quả ghi nhớ tốt hơn xử lý cấu trúc/âm vị, dù thời gian học là như nhau.

(!) Lỗi thường gặp: Đừng nhầm lẫn: mô hình đa kho *không hoàn toàn sai*, chỉ là *không đầy đủ*. Nó vẫn mô tả đúng dòng chảy chung của thông tin (giác quan → STM → LTM); nhưng nó *quá đơn giản hoá* vai trò của nhắc lại — coi nhắc lại chỉ là "lặp lại" thay vì công nhận rằng *cách* xử lý thông tin (nhông hay sâu) mới là yếu tố quyết định chính.

3.6 Schema Theory and Reconstructive Memory

3.6.1 Schemas guide perception, storage, and retrieval

As introduced in Section 3.1, a schema is an organised mental framework built from prior experience. Schemas influence memory at every stage: at **encoding**, they determine which details are noticed and considered important enough to store; at **storage**, unfamiliar information may be gradually altered to better fit existing schemas; and at **retrieval**, gaps in an incomplete memory trace may be unconsciously filled in with schema-consistent – but not necessarily accurate – details. Because of this last point, memory is better described as **reconstructive** rather than reproductive: remembering is an active process of rebuilding a plausible account of the past using both the original trace and general schematic knowledge, rather than replaying an exact recording.

3.6.2 Bartlett and "War of the Ghosts"

The classic demonstration of reconstructive memory comes from Sir Frederic Bartlett, who asked British participants – unfamiliar with Native American oral storytelling conventions – to read an unfamiliar folk tale, "The War of the Ghosts," and then recall it repeatedly, sometimes over a long series of retellings. Bartlett found that with each successive recall, the story was progressively distorted: it became shorter and more conventional in structure, unfamiliar names, images, and supernatural elements were changed or dropped, and details were reshaped to better match the participants' own cultural expectations and prior knowledge – that is, to fit their existing schemas. Bartlett concluded that remembering is not like replaying a recording, but an active process of reconstruction guided by schematic knowledge, and that this reconstruction is a normal, everyday feature of memory rather than a rare error.

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Bartlett cho các sinh viên Anh (không quen thuộc với văn hoá kể chuyện của người bản địa Bắc Mỹ) đọc một câu chuyện dân gian lạ lẫm ("War of the Ghosts") rồi kể lại nhiều lần. Qua mỗi lần kể lại, câu chuyện dần bị **bóp méo**: ngắn lại, các chi tiết siêu nhiên hoặc xa lạ bị thay đổi/lược bỏ, và được điều chỉnh cho phù hợp hơn với **schema văn hoá** của chính người kể. Từ đó Bartlett kết luận trí nhớ mang tính **tái tạo (reconstructive)** chứ không phải là một bản "ghi âm" chính xác của quá khứ – đây là hiện tượng bình thường, xảy ra hằng ngày, không phải lỗi hiếm gặp.

(!) **Lỗi thường gặp**: Schema theory mô tả rằng trí nhớ bị bóp méo theo hướng nào, nhưng thường khó dự đoán chính xác một chi tiết cụ thể sẽ bị thay đổi ra sao trước khi sự việc xảy ra – đây là một hạn chế mang tính mô tả (descriptive) hơn là dự đoán (predictive) của lý thuyết. Ứng dụng quan trọng nhất của ý tưởng này là trong lời khai nhân chứng (Section 3.7): nếu nhân chứng có sẵn một schema (ví dụ định kiến về "kẻ tình nghi trông như thế nào"), schema đó có thể vô thức bóp méo những gì họ "nhớ" đã chứng kiến.

3.7 Eyewitness Testimony and the Misinformation Effect

3.7.1 Leading questions and reconstructed memories

Research on eyewitness testimony extends reconstructive memory theory to a highly applied, real-world question: how accurate are people's memories of witnessed events, and how easily can those memories be distorted? Classic research in this tradition (associated with Elizabeth Loftus and colleagues, including Loftus & Palmer) shows that the precise **wording of a question** asked after an event can systematically bias what a witness reports. In the best-known demonstration, participants watched a filmed car accident and were then asked to estimate the speed of the vehicles using a question containing one of several different verbs describing the collision (for example, asking how fast the cars were going when they "hit" each other versus when they "smashed" into each other). Estimated speed reliably varied with the strength of the verb used: stronger verbs such as

"smashed" produced higher average speed estimates than milder verbs such as "hit," even though all participants had watched the identical film footage. In a further demonstration of the same effect, participants who were asked the "smashed" version of the question were later more likely to falsely report having seen broken glass in the film — a detail that had not actually been present — showing that a leading question does not just change how a witness *describes* an event, but can actually alter the content of their subsequent memory for it.

Applying the misinformation effect: implications for eyewitness interviewing

Because leading and suggestive questions can distort memory after the fact, real-world police interviewing procedures are designed to minimise this risk: interviewers are trained to ask **open, non-leading questions** (e.g., "What, if anything, did you see near the car?" rather than "Did you see the broken glass near the car?"), to avoid supplying details the witness has not already mentioned, and to interview witnesses as soon as possible after an event, before memory can be contaminated by media coverage, conversations with other witnesses, or further suggestive questioning.

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Nghiên cứu về lời khai nhân chứng (gắn liền với Elizabeth Loftus) cho thấy **cách đặt câu hỏi** sau sự kiện có thể làm sai lệch trí nhớ của nhân chứng. Ví dụ kinh điển: người xem một đoạn phim tai nạn xe hơi, sau đó được hỏi ước lượng tốc độ với các động từ khác nhau mô tả va chạm (ví dụ "đâm sầm vào" so với "chạm vào") — động từ càng mạnh thì ước lượng tốc độ càng cao, dù mọi người xem cùng một đoạn phim. Thậm chí, những người được hỏi bằng động từ mạnh còn có xu hướng "nhớ nhầm" rằng họ đã thấy kính vỡ dù thực tế không có — cho thấy câu hỏi dẫn dắt (leading question) không chỉ ảnh hưởng đến cách mô tả mà còn có thể **thay đổi chính nội dung trí nhớ**.

This body of research connects directly to the third core study of this unit. Pozzulo and Lindsay's (1998) work on child eyewitness identification (Section 3.10) raises exactly the same underlying applied concern — that eyewitness memory, especially in vulnerable witnesses such as children, can be unreliable in specific, predictable ways — and asks what this means for how police should conduct identification procedures such as line-ups.

3.8 Face Recognition: Configural and Featural Processing

Recognising faces is a highly specialised cognitive skill, and research distinguishes two types of processing that may contribute to it. **Featural processing** involves analysing individual facial features in isolation — the shape of the eyes, the size of the nose, the shape of the mouth — much as one might analyse the parts of any other object. **Configural processing** involves analysing the spatial relationships *between* features — the distance between the eyes, the position of the mouth relative to the nose — and integrating the face into a single, holistic representation rather than a list of separate parts.

Evidence suggests that upright, familiar face recognition relies heavily on configural processing: when a face is turned upside down (the well-documented **face inversion effect**), recognition becomes much harder than would be expected from the same amount of disruption to an inverted non-face object. This is generally explained by the idea that inversion disrupts configural processing (the holistic pattern of spatial relationships) far more than it disrupts featural processing (individual features remain identifiable even upside down), suggesting that faces are normally processed in a more holistic, configural way than most other visual objects.

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Xử lý theo đặc điểm (featural): phân tích từng bộ phận khuôn mặt riêng lẻ (mắt, mũi, miệng).

Xử lý theo cấu hình (configural): phân tích mối quan hệ không gian giữa các bộ phận (khoảng cách giữa hai mắt, vị trí miệng so với mũi), xử lý khuôn mặt như một tổng thể. Việc nhận diện khuôn mặt bị suy giảm mạnh khi khuôn mặt bị **lộn ngược (hiệu ứng đảo ngược khuôn mặt – face inversion effect)**, vì lộn ngược làm gián đoạn xử lý cấu hình nhiều hơn xử lý đặc điểm – cho thấy con người thường nhận diện khuôn mặt theo cách tổng thể hơn so với các vật thể khác.

3.9 Theory of Mind and the Autism Spectrum

3.9.1 Mindblindness and false-belief tasks

Theory of mind is the ability to attribute mental states – beliefs, desires, intentions, knowledge – to oneself and to other people, and to understand that other people's mental states may differ from one's own. Simon Baron-Cohen proposed that autism spectrum conditions involve a specific deficit in this ability, which he termed "**mindblindness**": individuals with autism spectrum conditions may struggle to represent and reason about what other people know, believe, or intend, even while other cognitive abilities remain intact.

The classic developmental measure of theory of mind is the **false-belief task**, best known in the form of the **Sally-Anne task** (Baron-Cohen, Leslie & Frith, 1985). In this task, a child watches a short scenario acted out with two dolls, Sally and Anne: Sally places a marble in a basket and then leaves the scene; while she is away, Anne moves the marble to a different location (a box); Sally then returns, and the child is asked, "Where will Sally look for her marble?" A child with a developed theory of mind understands that Sally did not see the marble being moved, and so will answer that Sally will look in the **basket** – her original, now *false*, belief about the marble's location. Children (and some individuals with autism spectrum conditions) who lack this understanding instead answer based on where the marble actually is (the box) – that is, based on their own knowledge of reality rather than on Sally's (different, false) belief.

Because the Sally-Anne task is designed for young children and has a simple "pass/fail" structure, it is not well suited to detecting subtler theory-of-mind difficulties in more able, verbal adults. This motivated the development of more sensitive adult measures of theory of mind – most importantly the **Reading the Mind in the Eyes Test**, a refined measure examined in detail in the Baron-Cohen et al. (2001) core study below (Section 3.9).

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Thuyết về tâm trí (theory of mind) là khả năng quy gán trạng thái tâm lý (niềm tin, mong muốn, ý định) cho người khác và hiểu rằng người khác có thể có niềm tin khác với mình. Baron-Cohen đề xuất rằng rối loạn phổ tự kỷ liên quan đến sự thiếu hụt cụ thể này, gọi là "**mù tâm trí**" (**mindblindness**). Bài kiểm tra kinh điển là **nhiệm vụ Sally-Anne**: Sally cất viên bi vào giỏ rồi rời đi; Anne di chuyển viên bi sang hộp; khi Sally quay lại, trẻ được hỏi Sally sẽ tìm viên bi ở đâu. Trẻ có thuyết về tâm trí phát triển sẽ trả lời "giỏ" (theo niềm tin *sai* của Sally); trẻ (hoặc một số người tự kỷ) thiếu khả năng này sẽ trả lời "hộp" (theo hiểu biết *thực tế* của chính mình). Vì nhiệm vụ này quá đơn giản đối với người lớn, Baron-Cohen đã phát triển **Bài kiểm tra Ánh mắt (Eyes Test)** – một thước đo tinh vi hơn dành cho người lớn.

3.10 Core Study: Doodling and Memory – Andrade (2009)

Core study · Andrade (2009): "What does doodling do?"

Aim: to investigate whether doodling – drawing shapes or patterns without any specific purpose – impairs or actually helps concentration and memory performance during a tedious task.

Procedure: participants were told they would hear a mock telephone message about a party, listing the names of people who might or might not be able to attend; the "monitoring task" was to write down only the names of people who were coming to the party, while ignoring irrelevant filler details. Participants were randomly allocated to a **doodling condition** (shading in printed shapes on a response sheet while listening) or a **control condition** (no doodling, simply listening and monitoring as instructed). After the tape ended, participants were given a **surprise memory test**, asking them to recall both the names of the party-goers they had monitored for and other incidental information (such as place names) that had been mentioned but not part of the monitoring task.

Findings: doodlers recalled approximately 29% more information on the surprise memory test than non-doodlers. Doodling did not impair performance on the primary monitoring task itself – doodlers missed no more target names than non-doodlers, showing that doodling did not distract them from the main task they had been asked to do.

Conclusion: doodling helps sustain attention during a boring task by using up just enough spare processing capacity to prevent the mind from wandering off into unrelated, more absorbing daydreams – daydreaming that would otherwise consume far more attentional resources and impair both monitoring and incidental memory. Doodling therefore is not a distraction from concentration but can actually support it.

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Andrade (2009) cho người tham gia nghe một tin nhắn thoại giả về danh sách khách mời đến dự tiệc, yêu cầu ghi lại tên những người sẽ đến; một nhóm được yêu cầu tô các hình vẽ sẵn (doodle) trong lúc nghe, nhóm còn lại thì không. Sau đó có một bài kiểm tra trí nhớ bất ngờ. Kết quả: nhóm vẽ nguệch ngoạc nhớ được nhiều hơn khoảng 29% so với nhóm không vẽ, đồng thời không hề làm giảm hiệu suất ở nhiệm vụ chính (theo dõi tên khách mời). Kết luận: vẽ nguệch ngoạc giúp duy trì sự chú ý bằng cách "chiếm dụng" vừa đủ nguồn lực xử lý để ngăn tâm trí lang thang sang những suy nghĩ khác gây xao nhãng nhiều hơn.

3.10.1 Evaluating Andrade (2009)

This study has good **ecological validity** in one important sense: the monitoring task (listening to a mundane, information-dense phone message) closely resembles many genuinely boring real-life listening situations, such as attending a dull meeting, a lecture, or a long briefing call, so the findings plausibly generalise to those settings. The controlled laboratory procedure also allows a clear **cause-and-effect** conclusion about doodling's effect on memory, since extraneous variables (identical tape, identical monitoring instructions) were held constant across conditions. The study has clear **applied value**: it suggests a simple, low-cost strategy (doodling) that people can use to stay focused and remember more during unavoidably tedious tasks.

Limitations include a relatively small sample size (around 40 participants), which limits statistical power and generalisability; participants were recruited from a specific volunteer pool, which may not represent the wider population; and the cover story (a seemingly irrelevant "party planning" phone message) means the findings may be specific to this type of task and may not generalise to all forms of doodling (a more elaborate, effortful doodle might be more distracting rather than helpful) or to all types of boring task.

3.11 Core Study: Theory of Mind – Baron-Cohen et al. (2001)

Core study · Baron-Cohen et al. (2001): the "Reading the Mind in the Eyes" Test

Aim: to test whether adults with Asperger Syndrome or high-functioning autism (AS/HFA) show a specific deficit in theory of mind (mindblindness), using a task sensitive enough to detect subtle difficulties in verbally able adults, and to check whether any such deficit could simply be explained by lower general intelligence.

Procedure: the revised **Reading the Mind in the Eyes Test** was used, consisting of 36 photographs showing only the eye region of a face. For each photograph, participants chose which of four mental-state words (e.g., *jealous*, *arrogant*, *terrified*, *relaxed*) best described what the person in the photograph was thinking or feeling. Three groups took part: adults with AS/HFA; an age- and IQ-matched typical (non-clinical) comparison group; and a further general-population comparison group. All participants also completed the **Autism-Spectrum Quotient (AQ)**, a self-report questionnaire measuring autistic traits, and a standardised IQ test.

Findings: the AS/HFA group scored significantly **lower** on the Eyes Test than both comparison groups, and scored significantly **higher** on the AQ questionnaire. There was **no significant difference in IQ** between the AS/HFA group and the IQ-matched comparison group. Eyes Test performance did **not correlate strongly with IQ** within the groups, indicating that the Eyes Test was measuring something distinct from general intelligence.

Conclusion: adults with AS/HFA show a specific, measurable deficit in theory of mind – the ability to infer others' mental states from subtle cues such as the eye region – that is independent of general intelligence. This supports Baron-Cohen's broader "mindblindness" theory of autism spectrum conditions, and demonstrates that the Eyes Test is a valid, sensitive refinement of earlier, simpler measures of theory of mind (such as the Sally-Anne task, Section 3.8) suitable for verbally able adults.

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Baron-Cohen và cộng sự (2001) dùng **Bài kiểm tra Ánh mắt** gồm 36 bức ảnh chỉ chụp vùng mắt, mỗi ảnh có 4 từ mô tả trạng thái tâm lý để chọn. Ba nhóm tham gia: người lớn mắc hội chứng Asperger/tự kỷ chức năng cao (AS/HFA), nhóm đối chứng cùng độ tuổi & IQ, và nhóm đối chứng dân số chung; tất cả đều làm thêm bài kiểm tra **AQ** (đặc điểm tự kỷ) và bài kiểm tra **IQ**. Kết quả: nhóm AS/HFA đạt điểm **thấp hơn** đáng kể ở Bài kiểm tra Ánh mắt và điểm **cao hơn** ở AQ; **không có khác biệt IQ** đáng kể so với nhóm đối chứng cùng IQ; điểm Bài kiểm tra Ánh mắt **không tương quan mạnh với IQ**. Kết luận: người AS/HFA có thiếu hụt **cụ thể** về thuyết về tâm trí, độc lập với trí thông minh chung – ủng hộ lý thuyết "mindblindness".

3.11.1 Evaluating Baron-Cohen et al. (2001)

A major strength of this study is its use of an **IQ-matched control group**, which isolates the theory-of-mind deficit from general intelligence – an important methodological improvement over simply comparing AS/HFA participants to an unmatched typical sample, since it rules out the possibility that any group difference was really just a difference in overall cognitive ability. The Eyes Test is a standardised, quantifiable psychometric instrument, allowing objective, replicable scoring and comparison across studies, and the design usefully combines a performance-based task (the Eyes Test) with a separate self-report measure (the AQ) and a separate cognitive measure (IQ).

Limitations include reliance on the **AQ**, a self-report questionnaire that may be affected by social desirability or limited self-insight, particularly in a population where understanding one's own and others' mental states can itself be affected. The Eyes Test uses static, cropped photographs of eyes, which lacks the dynamic, multi-cue, real-world context (facial expression, tone of voice, body language, situational information) normally available when reading another person's mental state –

raising questions about the **ecological validity** of the task. The test also requires participants to understand and select between fairly sophisticated **vocabulary** describing mental states, which means performance could partly reflect verbal/vocabulary ability rather than theory of mind alone, although the IQ-matching procedure helps to reduce (though perhaps not entirely eliminate) this concern.

3.12 Core Study: Eyewitness Identification in Children – Pozzulo & Lindsay (1998)

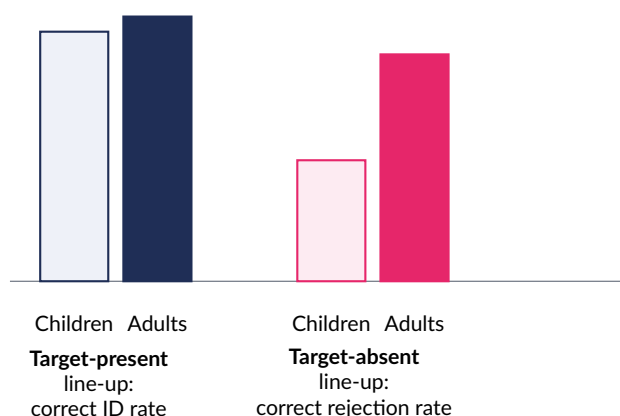
Core study · Pozzulo & Lindsay (1998): children's eyewitness identification accuracy

Aim: to establish, by combining results across many existing studies, how accurate child eyewitnesses are at identifying a perpetrator from a line-up, compared with adult eyewitnesses, and specifically whether children's accuracy differs depending on line-up type.

Procedure: Pozzulo and Lindsay conducted a **meta-analysis**, statistically pooling results from a large number of previously published (and some unpublished) studies of eyewitness line-up identification. Studies compared children (across a range of ages, roughly 5 to 13 years old) with adult participants under two types of line-up procedure: a **target-present line-up**, in which the previously-seen "culprit" is actually included among the line-up members, and a **target-absent line-up**, in which the culprit is not present and every member is an innocent foil. The key measures were the **correct identification rate** (correctly picking out the culprit, in target-present line-ups) and the **correct rejection rate** (correctly stating that the culprit is not present, in target-absent line-ups).

Findings: on **target-present** line-ups, children's correct identification rates were broadly comparable to adults' – children were roughly as able as adults to pick out the true culprit when he or she was actually in the line-up. On **target-absent** line-ups, however, children performed considerably worse than adults: children were much more likely to incorrectly select an innocent foil (a **false positive**) rather than correctly stating that the culprit was not present.

Conclusion: children's central weakness as eyewitnesses is not an inability to recognise a face they have seen before, but a much higher rate of false identification when the true culprit is absent from a line-up altogether – children appear more reluctant than adults to say "none of these people," and more likely to assume they must choose someone. This has direct implications for police procedure: identification evidence from young witnesses should be treated with particular caution when there is any possibility the true suspect is not actually in the line-up presented.



Illustrative summary of the qualitative pattern reported by Pozzulo & Lindsay (1998): on target-present line-ups, children's correct identification rate is broadly comparable to adults'; on target-absent line-ups, children's correct rejection rate is markedly lower than adults' (children more often falsely identify an innocent foil). Bar heights are illustrative only and do not represent exact reported values.

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Pozzulo & Lindsay (1998) thực hiện một **phân tích tổng hợp (meta-analysis)**, gộp kết quả từ nhiều nghiên cứu đã có để so sánh trẻ em ($\approx 5-13$ tuổi) với người lớn trong hai loại dàn nhận diện (line-up): **có mặt mục tiêu (target-present)** – thủ phạm thật sự có trong dàn nhận diện, và **vắng mặt mục tiêu (target-absent)** – thủ phạm không có mặt, chỉ toàn người vô tội. Kết quả: ở dàn *có mặt mục tiêu*, trẻ em nhận diện đúng gần bằng người lớn; nhưng ở dàn *vắng mặt mục tiêu*, trẻ em có tỉ lệ **nhận nhầm người vô tội** cao hơn nhiều so với người lớn. Kết luận: điểm yếu chính của trẻ em không phải là không nhận ra được thủ phạm, mà là **quá dễ chọn nhầm một ai đó** khi thủ phạm thật sự không có mặt – điều này có ý nghĩa quan trọng đối với quy trình nhận diện của cảnh sát khi nhân chứng là trẻ em.

3.12.1 Evaluating Pozzulo & Lindsay (1998)

The **meta-analytic** method is a major strength: by combining data across many individual studies, the overall sample size is far larger than any single study could achieve, increasing statistical power and producing a pattern of results that is more robust and more likely to generalise than a one-off experiment. The findings have clear **applied value**: they directly informed recommendations for police practice, such as ensuring officers make clear to child witnesses that the culprit might not be present in a line-up at all, and considering procedures (such as sequential rather than simultaneous line-up presentation) that may reduce children's tendency toward false-positive identifications.

Limitations include the inherent **heterogeneity** of a meta-analysis: the underlying studies varied in methodology, exact age ranges, line-up construction, and procedures, which can make it harder to draw a single precise conclusion, and any weaknesses in the original studies (such as small samples or unrepresentative populations) are inherited by the pooled analysis. There are also broader **ecological validity** concerns shared by most eyewitness research: for ethical reasons, child participants in the underlying studies typically viewed a brief, non-distressing staged event (e.g., a short video or a scripted interaction) rather than a genuinely stressful, high-arousal real crime, so the findings may not fully capture how a real child eyewitness would perform after actually witnessing frightening, real-world criminal activity.

3.13 Evaluating the Cognitive Approach

Having covered the models, theories, and core studies of this unit, it is useful to step back and evaluate the cognitive approach as a whole.

Strengths and limitations of the cognitive approach

- **Reliance on inference:** because internal mental processes cannot be observed directly, all cognitive theories rest on inferences drawn from observable behaviour (reaction times, recall accuracy, error patterns). This is a genuine limitation – different theories can sometimes be constructed to fit the same behavioural data – but the approach addresses this by building precise, falsifiable models (e.g., the multi-store model, the working memory model) that generate specific, testable predictions.
- **Scientific rigour versus artificiality:** the approach favours well-controlled laboratory experiments (e.g., Andrade's monitoring task, Baron-Cohen et al.'s standardised Eyes Test), which allow clear cause-and-effect conclusions and are easily replicated. The trade-off is that such tightly controlled tasks (word lists, mock phone messages, cropped eye photographs) can feel artificial compared with everyday cognition, raising questions about **ecological validity** and generalisability to real-world settings.
- **Real-world application:** the approach has produced highly practical applications, including improved police interviewing techniques and line-up procedures based on eyewitness

testimony research (Sections 3.7, 3.10), and cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT), which treats psychological difficulties partly by identifying and modifying maladaptive schemas and distorted thinking patterns.

- **Relatively limited biological grounding:** compared with the biological approach, which explains behaviour directly in terms of brain structures, neurotransmitters, and genetics, the cognitive approach traditionally describes mental processes at a more abstract, "software" level (as sequences of stages or stores) without always specifying the underlying "hardware." This gap has narrowed as cognitive neuroscience increasingly uses brain-imaging evidence (such as studies of patients with selective memory impairments) to test cognitive models, but the approach's core theories remain defined primarily in terms of information-processing stages rather than biological mechanisms.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

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Đánh giá tổng quát tiếp cận nhận thức: (1) vì các quá trình tâm trí không thể quan sát trực tiếp, mọi lý thuyết đều phải **suy luận** từ hành vi — nhưng được khắc phục phần nào bằng các mô hình cụ thể, có thể kiểm chứng; (2) thí nghiệm trong phòng lab rất chặt chẽ về mặt khoa học nhưng có thể **thiếu tính sinh thái (ecological validity)** so với đời thực; (3) có nhiều **ứng dụng thực tiễn** quan trọng (cải thiện quy trình thẩm vấn/nhận diện nhân chứng của cảnh sát, liệu pháp nhận thức-hành vi CBT); (4) so với tiếp cận sinh học, tiếp cận nhận thức có **nền tảng sinh học yếu hơn** — mô tả tâm trí ở mức độ "phần mềm" (các giai đoạn xử lý thông tin) hơn là mức độ "phần cứng" (cấu trúc não bộ cụ thể), dù khoảng cách này đang thu hẹp dần nhờ khoa học thần kinh nhận thức.

3.14 Problem Bank

Bài tập luyện tập

According to the multi-store model, information in sensory memory that is not attended to will:

- | | |
|---|---|
| (A) Transfer automatically to short-term memory | (C) Transfer automatically to long-term memory |
| (B) Decay and be lost from the memory system | (D) Be permanently stored but become impossible to retrieve |

Lời giải chi tiết

The multi-store model states that only attended information passes from sensory memory into STM; unattended information decays and is lost from the system entirely. **(B)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain, using the multi-store model, why information held only in sensory memory is lost so quickly unless it receives attention.

Lời giải chi tiết

Sensory memory has a very large capacity but an extremely brief duration (well under one second). According to the multi-store model, information only moves out of sensory mem-

ory and into short-term memory if it is selected by **attention**; without attention, the trace in sensory memory simply decays. Because so much sensory information arrives constantly and only a small fraction can be attended to at once, the overwhelming majority of it is lost within a fraction of a second, before it can be processed any further.

Bài tập luyện tập

In Andrade's (2009) study, doodlers recalled significantly more information on the surprise memory test than non-doodlers. Explain this finding.

Lời giải chi tiết

Doodlers recalled approximately 29% more information than non-doodlers. Andrade explained this in terms of attention: the boring monitoring task left spare processing capacity that, in the control group, was consumed by task-irrelevant daydreaming — a form of mental activity that draws heavily on attentional resources and disrupts concentration. Doodling used up just enough of this spare capacity to prevent elaborate daydreaming, without using so much capacity that it disrupted the primary monitoring task itself. As a result, doodlers stayed better focused overall, which supported better encoding of both the monitored names and the incidental details tested in the surprise memory test.

Bài tập luyện tập

Based on Pozzulo and Lindsay's (1998) findings, suggest one practical change the police could make when using line-up identification with child witnesses, and explain why it would help.

Lời giải chi tiết

Since children's central weakness is a high rate of **false positive** identifications on target-absent line-ups (choosing an innocent foil rather than saying the culprit is not present), the police should explicitly instruct child witnesses, before viewing the line-up, that the actual culprit **might not be present at all** and that saying "none of these people" is an acceptable and expected response. This directly targets the specific weakness the research identified — children's apparent reluctance to reject a line-up altogether — and should reduce the number of innocent people wrongly identified without necessarily reducing children's (already comparable-to-adult) accuracy on target-present line-ups.

Bài tập luyện tập

In Baron-Cohen et al.'s (2001) study, Eyes Test performance did not correlate strongly with IQ, and there was no significant IQ difference between the AS/HFA group and the matched control group. Explain why these two findings were important for the study's conclusion.

Lời giải chi tiết

These findings were important because they rule out an obvious alternative explanation for the AS/HFA group's poor performance on the Eyes Test — namely, that they simply had lower general intelligence. Because the AS/HFA group and the IQ-matched comparison group did not differ significantly in IQ, any difference between them on the Eyes Test cannot be attributed to a general intelligence gap. Because Eyes Test scores did not correlate strongly with IQ within groups, the test appears to be measuring something distinct from general cognitive

ability. Together, these findings support the conclusion that the AS/HFA group's lower Eyes Test scores reflect a **specific** deficit in theory of mind (mindblindness), rather than a general cognitive impairment.

Bài tập luyện tập

According to Miller (1956), the average capacity of short-term memory is approximately:

- | | |
|---------------------|----------------------|
| (A) 2 ± 1 items | (C) 7 ± 2 items |
| (B) 4 ± 1 items | (D) 12 ± 3 items |

Lời giải chi tiết

Miller's (1956) classic estimate of STM capacity is 7 ± 2 items (i.e., roughly 5 to 9 items), often called the "magic number seven." (C).

Bài tập luyện tập

Without rehearsal, information in short-term memory typically lasts for approximately:

- | | |
|--------------------------|--|
| (A) Less than one second | (C) 5 minutes |
| (B) 18–30 seconds | (D) Indefinitely, until it is deliberately forgotten |

Lời giải chi tiết

STM duration without rehearsal is typically around 18–30 seconds, considerably longer than sensory memory (under one second) but far shorter than LTM (potentially a lifetime). (B).

Bài tập luyện tập

(a) Distinguish between maintenance rehearsal and elaborative rehearsal. (b) A student preparing for an exam simply re-reads their notes over and over without thinking about what the material means. Using the multi-store model and levels of processing theory together, explain why this strategy is likely to be relatively ineffective, and suggest a better strategy.

Lời giải chi tiết

(a) **Maintenance rehearsal** is the simple repetition of information in its original form (e.g., repeating a phrase without analysing it), which mainly keeps information active in STM. **Elaborative rehearsal** involves linking new information to existing knowledge and thinking about its meaning, which the multi-store model claims is what actually drives transfer into LTM.

(b) Simply re-reading notes repeatedly is a form of **maintenance rehearsal** – it is shallow, largely structural/phonemic processing of the words rather than their meaning. Levels of processing theory predicts that this shallow processing will produce a weak, easily-forgotten memory trace, regardless of how many times it is repeated. A better strategy would involve **semantic (deep) processing** – for example, explaining the material in one's own words, linking it to real examples, or testing oneself with questions that require understanding rather than recognition – since deeper processing reliably produces stronger, more durable long-term retention.

Bài tập luyện tập

In the working memory model, which component is primarily responsible for temporarily storing and manipulating visual and spatial information?

- | | |
|-----------------------|----------------------------|
| (A) Central executive | (C) Visuospatial sketchpad |
| (B) Phonological loop | (D) Episodic buffer |

Lời giải chi tiết

The **visuospatial sketchpad** is the component specialised for visual and spatial information (e.g., mentally picturing a shape, layout, or route), sometimes described as an "inner eye." (C).

Bài tập luyện tập

The phonological loop is made up of two sub-components. Name and briefly describe both.

Lời giải chi tiết

The phonological loop consists of: (1) the **phonological store**, a brief acoustic "inner ear" that holds speech-based information for a short time; and (2) the **articulatory (rehearsal) process**, an "inner voice" that refreshes information held in the phonological store through subvocal repetition, and also converts written material into a spoken code so it can enter the phonological store.

Bài tập luyện tập

Describe the role of the central executive in the working memory model, and explain one criticism that has been made of this component.

Lời giải chi tiết

The **central executive** is a modality-free, attentional-control system of very limited capacity. It does not store information itself; instead, it directs attention, allocates processing resources between the phonological loop and the visuospatial sketchpad, resolves competition between the two slave systems, and supervises higher-level tasks such as problem-solving and decision-making. A common criticism is that the central executive is **vaguely specified**: rather than a precisely defined mechanism, it can function as a convenient label for "whatever coordinates the other components," and some researchers argue it likely needs to be broken down further into more clearly defined sub-processes.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain why Baddeley added the episodic buffer to the working memory model in 2000, several years after the model's original 1974 version.

Lời giải chi tiết

The original three-component model (central executive, phonological loop, visuospatial sketchpad) could not fully explain how information from the two separate "slave" systems is combined into a single, coherent, chronologically ordered experience, nor how working memory interacts with long-term memory to support this integration. The **episodic buffer**

was added to fill this gap: it is a limited-capacity store that integrates information from the phonological loop, the visuospatial sketchpad, and LTM into unified episodes, and provides a two-way link between temporary working memory and permanent long-term storage.

Bài tập luyện tập

Using evidence from dual-task studies, evaluate the claim that the working memory model provides a better account of short-term memory than the multi-store model.

Lời giải chi tiết

The multi-store model treats STM as a single, unitary store, which predicts that any two tasks performed at the same time should interfere with each other roughly equally, since both would be competing for the same one limited resource. Dual-task studies contradict this: people can perform two tasks together fairly well when the tasks draw on **different** components (e.g., a verbal task and a visual/spatial task performed simultaneously), but performance drops sharply when two tasks draw on the **same** component (e.g., two verbal tasks, or two visual tasks, performed together). This pattern is exactly what the working memory model predicts, since it proposes separate, at least partly independent components (phonological loop, visuospatial sketchpad) that can each be occupied by only one task at a time, while a different-modality task can proceed largely unimpeded using a different component. This evidence therefore supports the working memory model as a more accurate account of the internal structure of short-term/working memory than the multi-store model's single unitary store — though the working memory model still leaves the central executive itself relatively poorly specified, and says less than the multi-store model about the transition into truly permanent, long-term storage.

Bài tập luyện tập

According to levels of processing theory (Craik & Lockhart, 1972), which of the following types of processing produces the strongest, most durable memory trace?

- | | |
|---|---|
| (A) Structural processing (physical appearance) | (C) Semantic processing (meaning) |
| (B) Phonemic processing (sound) | (D) All three levels produce equally durable memories |

Lời giải chi tiết

Semantic (deep) processing — analysing meaning and relating new information to existing knowledge — produces the strongest, most durable memory trace, according to levels of processing theory. (C).

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain why levels of processing theory predicts that semantic processing produces better long-term retention than structural processing, even if both types of processing take the same amount of time.

Lời giải chi tiết

Levels of processing theory claims that what matters for retention is not how long or how many times information is processed, but **how deeply** it is processed. Structural processing only analyses the superficial physical appearance of a stimulus, creating a shallow, isolated memory trace with few connections to existing knowledge. Semantic processing analyses the stimulus's meaning and actively relates it to a person's existing knowledge base, creating a richer, more elaborately interconnected memory trace with many more potential retrieval routes. Because this deeper, more interconnected trace is easier to access later (there are more paths leading back to it), semantically processed information is remembered better than structurally processed information, even when total processing time is held constant.

Bài tập luyện tập

Three groups of participants are given the same list of words to study. Group A judges whether each word is printed in capital letters. Group B judges whether each word rhymes with a given cue word. Group C judges whether each word would fit meaningfully into a sentence. Predict, in order from best to worst, how the three groups will perform on a surprise recall test, and justify your answer.

Lời giải chi tiết

Based on levels of processing theory, recall should be best for **Group C** (semantic/meaning-based processing – the deepest level), followed by **Group B** (phonemic/sound-based processing – an intermediate level), with **Group A** performing worst (structural/visual processing – the shallowest level). This is because deeper processing creates a richer, more meaningfully interconnected memory trace, which is easier to retrieve later, regardless of the fact that all three groups spent the same amount of time studying the same words.

Bài tập luyện tập

What is a schema, and how can schemas both help and hinder memory?

Lời giải chi tiết

A **schema** is an organised packet of knowledge, built from past experience, representing a person, object, situation, or event. Schemas **help** memory by allowing new information to be processed quickly and efficiently – new input is fitted into an existing framework rather than analysed entirely from scratch, and expected gaps can be filled in automatically. Schemas can also **hinder** (distort) memory: information that fits an existing schema is more easily noticed, stored, and remembered than information that contradicts it, and genuine gaps in an incomplete memory trace may be unconsciously "filled in" with schema-consistent details that were never actually experienced – producing a plausible but partly inaccurate reconstruction of the past.

Bài tập luyện tập

Describe Bartlett's "War of the Ghosts" research and explain what it demonstrated about the nature of human memory.

Lời giải chi tiết

Bartlett asked British participants, who were unfamiliar with Native American oral storytelling conventions, to read an unfamiliar folk tale ("The War of the Ghosts") and then recall it repeatedly over a series of retellings. With each successive recall, the story became progressively shorter and more conventional, and unfamiliar names, images, and supernatural elements were altered or dropped and reshaped to better match participants' own cultural expectations – that is, to fit their existing schemas. This demonstrated that human memory is **reconstructive** rather than reproductive: remembering is an active process of rebuilding a plausible account of the past, guided by schematic knowledge, rather than replaying an exact, unaltered recording of what actually happened – and that such reconstruction is a normal, everyday feature of memory rather than a rare error.

Bài tập luyện tập

Evaluate schema theory as an explanation of memory, making specific reference to its relevance for eyewitness testimony.

Lời giải chi tiết

Schema theory is well supported by evidence such as Bartlett's studies, which consistently show that recall of unfamiliar material is progressively distorted to fit existing cultural knowledge – a pattern that is very difficult for a simple "storage and replay" account of memory to explain. The theory also has clear applied value for eyewitness testimony: it explains why an eyewitness's account of a crime might be unconsciously shaped by pre-existing schemas (for example, stereotyped expectations about what a "typical criminal" looks like), potentially leading to inaccurate identification of an innocent person whose appearance happens to fit the witness's schema. A limitation of the theory is that it is largely **descriptive rather than predictive**: it can explain, after the fact, why a particular memory was distorted in a particular direction, but it is much harder to predict in advance exactly which details of a specific memory will be altered, and how. This makes schema theory difficult to test with the same precision as more tightly specified models such as the multi-store or working memory models.

Bài tập luyện tập

Two groups of participants watch the same film of a car crash. Group X is later asked, "How fast were the cars going when they *smashed* into each other?" Group Y is asked, "How fast were the cars going when they *hit* each other?" Predict the likely difference in average speed estimates between the two groups, and explain the psychological process responsible.

Lời giải chi tiết

Group X (asked about the cars that "smashed" into each other) is likely to give a **higher** average speed estimate than Group Y (asked about the cars that "hit" each other), even though both groups watched the identical film footage. This reflects the **misinformation effect**: the wording of a leading question – specifically, the strength of the verb used to describe the collision – can bias a witness's memory-based judgement of the event, because the connotation of the stronger verb ("smashed" implying a more violent, higher-speed collision) is incorporated into the witness's reconstruction of what they remember seeing, systematically shifting their estimate upward.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain, with reference to the misinformation effect, why a witness who was asked a leading question implying that broken glass was present at an accident scene might later sincerely report having seen broken glass, even if none was actually present.

Lời giải chi tiết

The misinformation effect shows that memory is **reconstructive**: information encountered *after* an event (such as a leading question that presupposes a detail, e.g., implying there was broken glass) can be incorporated into a witness's memory of the original event itself, not just into how they describe it. Because remembering involves actively rebuilding a plausible account of the past rather than replaying an exact recording, the suggested detail (broken glass) can become blended with the witness's genuine memory trace, producing a sincere but inaccurate later report — the witness is not lying, but genuinely (mis)remembers a detail that was never actually present.

Bài tập luyện tập

Distinguish between featural processing and configural processing in face recognition.

Lời giải chi tiết

Featural processing involves analysing individual facial features in isolation (e.g., the shape of the eyes, size of the nose, shape of the mouth), much as one might analyse the separate parts of any object. **Configural processing** involves analysing the spatial relationships *between* features (e.g., the distance between the eyes, the position of the mouth relative to the nose) and integrating the face into a single, holistic representation, rather than treating it as a list of separate parts.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain what the face inversion effect suggests about how upright faces are normally processed.

Lời giải chi tiết

The **face inversion effect** refers to the finding that recognition of an upside-down face is much more impaired than would be expected from the same degree of disruption applied to an inverted non-face object. This is generally explained by the idea that turning a face upside down disrupts **configural processing** (the holistic pattern of spatial relationships between features) far more than it disrupts **featural processing** (individual features, such as an eye or the mouth, remain fairly identifiable even when inverted). Because inversion causes such a disproportionate drop in recognition specifically for faces, this suggests that upright, familiar faces are normally processed in a more holistic, configural way than most other categories of visual object.

Bài tập luyện tập

What ability does the Sally-Anne task primarily measure?

- | | |
|--|--------------------------------|
| (A) Working memory capacity | (C) Levels of processing depth |
| (B) Theory of mind (understanding of false belief) | (D) Configural face processing |

Lời giải chi tiết

The Sally-Anne task is a classic **false-belief task** that measures **theory of mind** – specifically, whether a child understands that another person (Sally) can hold a belief that is false and different from the child's own knowledge of reality. **(B)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

Describe the procedure and typical findings of the Sally-Anne task, and explain how it relates to the Baron-Cohen et al. (2001) Eyes Test study.

Lời giải chi tiết

In the Sally-Anne task, a child watches a scenario acted out with two dolls: Sally places a marble in a basket and leaves the scene; while she is away, Anne moves the marble to a box; Sally then returns, and the child is asked where Sally will look for her marble. A child with a developed theory of mind answers "the basket" – Sally's original, now false, belief – whereas a child (or some individuals with autism spectrum conditions) lacking this understanding answers "the box," based on their own knowledge of where the marble actually is rather than on Sally's different, false belief.

This relates directly to Baron-Cohen et al. (2001): because the Sally-Anne task is a simple pass/fail measure designed for young children, it is not sensitive enough to detect subtler theory-of-mind difficulties in verbally able adults. The **Reading the Mind in the Eyes Test** was developed as a more refined, graded adult measure of the same underlying ability (inferring others' mental states), and Baron-Cohen et al. (2001) used it to show that adults with Asperger Syndrome/high-functioning autism still show a measurable theory-of-mind deficit, even when they would likely pass a simple childhood false-belief task like Sally-Anne.

Bài tập luyện tập

For each of the three core studies below, state one methodological strength and one limitation: (a) Andrade (2009); (b) Baron-Cohen et al. (2001); (c) Pozzulo & Lindsay (1998).

Lời giải chi tiết

(a) Andrade (2009): *Strength* – the controlled laboratory procedure (identical tape and instructions across conditions) allows a clear cause-and-effect conclusion about doodling's effect on memory. *Limitation* – the relatively small sample (around 40 participants) and the specific monitoring-task cover story limit how confidently the findings can be generalised to all types of boring task or all forms of doodling.

(b) Baron-Cohen et al. (2001): *Strength* – the use of an IQ-matched control group isolates the theory-of-mind deficit from general intelligence, strengthening the conclusion. *Limitation* – the Eyes Test uses static, cropped photographs, which lack the dynamic, multi-cue context of real social interaction, raising ecological validity concerns.

(c) Pozzulo & Lindsay (1998): *Strength* – the meta-analytic approach combines many studies into a very large overall sample, increasing statistical power and the generalisability of the

pattern found. *Limitation* – the underlying studies varied in methodology and line-up construction (heterogeneity), and for ethical reasons none of the original studies could expose child participants to a genuinely stressful real crime, limiting ecological validity.

Bài tập luyện tập

A ten-year-old child witnesses a theft and is later asked to identify the thief from a police line-up. Using research covered in this unit, advise the investigating officer on how the line-up should be constructed and conducted, and explain the reasoning behind each piece of advice.

Lời giải chi tiết

Based on Pozzulo and Lindsay's (1998) findings, the officer should be aware that this child witness is likely to be roughly as accurate as an adult *if* the true thief is actually included in the line-up (target-present), but at much greater risk of incorrectly identifying an innocent person if the true thief is *not* in the line-up (target-absent) – children show a much higher false-positive rate than adults in this situation. The officer should therefore: (1) explicitly tell the child, before viewing the line-up, that the person they saw **might not be present at all**, and that saying so is an acceptable answer; (2) avoid any leading or suggestive language when introducing the line-up or asking the child to respond, since (as shown by research on the misinformation effect) leading questions can distort a witness's memory; and (3) conduct the identification as soon as possible after the incident and before the child discusses the event with others, to reduce the risk of the child's memory being contaminated by post-event information.

Bài tập luyện tập

Which of the following best describes why cognitive psychologists must rely on inference when studying mental processes such as memory and attention?

- | | |
|---|--|
| (A) Mental processes are too complex to be studied scientifically at all | (C) Mental processes only exist in laboratory settings |
| (B) Mental processes cannot be directly observed, so they must be deduced from observable behaviour | (D) Mental processes are identical to brain structures and can be measured directly with a scanner |

Lời giải chi tiết

Internal mental processes (attention, memory, perception, and so on) cannot be observed directly; cognitive psychologists therefore infer how they work by studying observable, measurable behaviour (such as reaction times, recall accuracy, and error patterns) and building testable models consistent with that behaviour. **(B)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

Evaluate the cognitive approach to psychology, referring to (a) the trade-off between scientific control and ecological validity, and (b) the extent to which the approach is grounded in biology.

Lời giải chi tiết

(a) The cognitive approach favours well-controlled laboratory experiments (e.g., word-list recall tasks, Andrade's monitoring task, Baron-Cohen et al.'s standardised Eyes Test), which hold

extraneous variables constant and allow clear, replicable cause-and-effect conclusions about specific mental processes. The trade-off is that such tightly controlled, often artificial tasks may not fully capture how cognition operates in complex, emotionally engaging, real-world situations (for example, a genuinely frightening witnessed crime, rather than a filmed car accident or a scripted party phone-message), which can limit the **ecological validity** and real-world generalisability of the findings.

(b) Compared with the biological approach, which explains behaviour directly in terms of brain structures, neurotransmitters, and genetics, the cognitive approach traditionally describes mental processes at a more abstract "software" level – as sequences of information-processing stages or stores – without necessarily specifying the underlying neural "hardware." This is a genuine limitation relative to the biological approach's more direct physical grounding, although the gap has narrowed considerably as cognitive neuroscience increasingly draws on brain-imaging evidence and studies of patients with selective cognitive impairments to test and refine cognitive models such as the multi-store and working memory models.

The Learning Approach

Mục tiêu Unit: Ba lý thuyết học tập cốt lõi của tâm lý học hành vi — điều kiện hoá cổ điển (classical conditioning), điều kiện hoá thao tác (operant conditioning), và lý thuyết học tập xã hội/học qua quan sát (social learning theory) — cùng cơ chế trung gian nhận thức của Bandura (chú ý, ghi nhớ, tái tạo, động lực); các lịch trình củng cố và mô hình đáp ứng tích lũy; ứng dụng trị liệu (giải mã cảm hệ thống, liệu pháp ngập lụt, liệu pháp ác cảm, kinh tế token); các vấn đề đánh giá cách tiếp cận học tập (thuyết định mệnh môi trường, bản chất-nuôi dưỡng, giản lược luận, đạo đức nghiên cứu); và ba nghiên cứu gốc: Bandura, Ross & Ross (búp bê Bobo), Saavedra & Silverman (ca lâm sàng ám ảnh sợ nút áo), Fagen, Acharya & Kaufman (huấn luyện voi bằng điều kiện hoá thao tác).

4.1 Assumptions of the Learning Approach

The learning approach is built on the idea that human and animal behaviour is not fixed at birth but is acquired through experience. Rather than looking inside the organism for instincts, unconscious drives, or biological programming, the learning approach looks **outside**, at the environment, for the causes of behaviour.

Core assumptions

- Nearly all behaviour, whether adaptive or maladaptive, is **learned from the environment** rather than innate; the mind at birth is treated as close to a blank slate (*tabula rasa*).
- Learning occurs through three principal mechanisms: **classical conditioning** (learning by association), **operant conditioning** (learning through the consequences of behaviour), and **social learning theory** (learning by observing and imitating others).
- Because the laws of learning are assumed to be general biological laws that apply across species, findings from research on non-human animals (e.g., Pavlov's dogs, Skinner's rats and pigeons) are assumed to **generalise to humans**.
- Psychology should be an objective science: early behaviourists focused only on observable stimuli and responses, treating the mind as a "black box" whose internal workings could not be directly measured.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

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Cách tiếp cận học tập (learning approach) cho rằng hầu hết hành vi của con người — kể cả hành vi bất thường — là **học được từ môi trường**, không phải bẩm sinh. Có ba cơ chế học tập chính: **điều kiện hoá cổ điển** (học qua liên kết), **điều kiện hoá thao tác** (học qua hậu quả của hành vi), và **lý thuyết học tập xã hội** (học qua quan sát và bắt chước người khác). Vì các nhà nghiên cứu tin rằng quy luật học tập mang tính phổ quát giữa các loài, kết quả nghiên cứu trên động vật (chó của Pavlov, chuột/bồ câu của Skinner) được coi là có thể **khái quát hoá** sang con người.

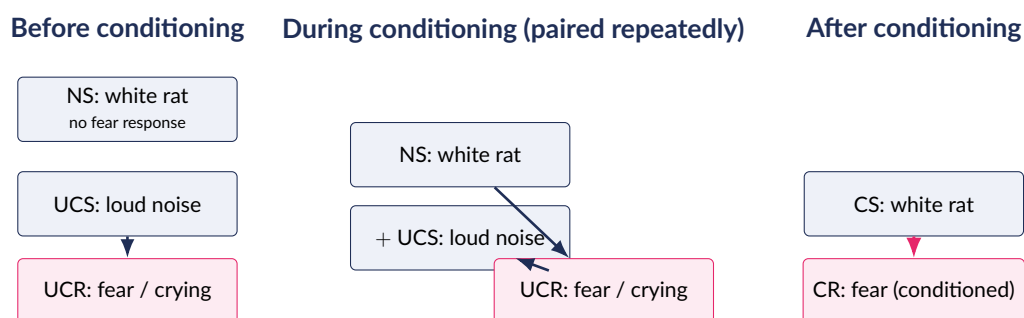
4.2 Classical Conditioning: Learning through Association

4.2.1 The basic process: Pavlov's dogs

Ivan Pavlov, studying salivation in dogs, noticed that dogs began salivating not only when food was placed in their mouths but also at stimuli that merely predicted food (e.g., the sight of the assistant who normally brought it). This accidental observation led to the systematic study of **classical conditioning**: learning through the repeated pairing of two stimuli, so that a previously neutral stimulus comes to produce a response that was originally produced only by another stimulus.

Key terms in classical conditioning

- **Unconditioned stimulus (UCS):** a stimulus that automatically, reflexively produces a response without any learning (e.g., food in the mouth).
- **Unconditioned response (UCR):** the automatic, unlearned response to the UCS (e.g., salivation to food).
- **Neutral stimulus (NS):** a stimulus that, before conditioning, produces no relevant response (e.g., a bell, before being paired with food).
- **Conditioned stimulus (CS):** the previously neutral stimulus which, after repeated pairing with the UCS, now triggers the response by itself (e.g., the bell, once conditioned).
- **Conditioned response (CR):** the learned response to the CS, similar to (though sometimes weaker than) the original UCR (e.g., salivation to the bell alone).



Classical conditioning across the three stages, illustrated with Watson & Rayner's (1920) Little Albert study. Before conditioning, the white rat (NS) produces no fear; the loud noise (UCS) alone produces fear (UCR). During conditioning, the rat and noise are paired repeatedly. After conditioning, the rat alone (now the CS) triggers the conditioned fear response (CR).

Little Albert: Watson & Rayner (1920)

Watson and Rayner conditioned an 11-month-old infant known as "Little Albert" to fear a tame white rat, which he had initially shown no fear of and had even reached for. Each time Albert reached to touch the rat (NS), the researchers struck a steel bar behind him with a hammer, producing a loud, startling noise (UCS) that reflexively triggered crying and fear (UCR). After several such pairings, the white rat alone (now a CS) was enough to produce crying and avoidance (CR) — a conditioned fear response with no noise present. Albert's fear then **generalised** to other furry white objects: a rabbit, a dog, a sealskin coat, cotton wool, and a Santa Claus mask with a white beard.

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Điều kiện hoá cổ điển là học qua sự liên kết lặp lại giữa hai kích thích: **UCS** (kích thích không điều kiện) tự động gây ra **UCR** (phản ứng không điều kiện) mà không cần học; một **NS** (kích thích trung tính) ban đầu không gây phản ứng gì, nhưng nếu được ghép cặp lặp lại với UCS, nó

sẽ trở thành **CS** (kích thích có điều kiện), có khả năng tự nó gây ra **CR** (phản ứng có điều kiện) – thường tương tự UCR ban đầu. Thí nghiệm **Little Albert** của Watson & Rayner (1920) minh họa rõ điều này: chuột trắng (NS) ban đầu vô hại, nhưng sau khi ghép nhiều lần với tiếng động lớn (UCS) gây sợ hãi (UCR), chuột trắng một mình (CS) đã đủ gây ra phản ứng sợ hãi (CR) – và nỗi sợ này còn **lan truyền** (generalise) sang các vật lông trắng khác (thỏ, chó, áo lông, mặt nạ ông già Noel).

4.2.2 Stimulus generalisation and stimulus discrimination

Generalisation vs. discrimination

Stimulus generalisation occurs when stimuli similar to the original CS also trigger the CR, without further training – the more similar the new stimulus is to the CS, the stronger the response it evokes. Little Albert's fear spreading from the white rat to a rabbit, a dog, and a fur coat is a classic example.

Stimulus discrimination is the opposite process: the organism learns to respond *only* to the original CS (or a narrow range of very similar stimuli) and not to other, dissimilar stimuli. Discrimination is trained by only ever reinforcing/pairing the UCS with one specific stimulus, while similar stimuli are repeatedly presented *without* the UCS, so that the CR gradually stops occurring to them. For example, Pavlov's dogs could be trained to salivate to a 1000 Hz tone but not to a 900 Hz tone if only the 1000 Hz tone was ever paired with food.

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Khái quát hoá kích thích (stimulus generalisation): các kích thích tương tự CS ban đầu cũng gây ra CR, dù chưa từng được huấn luyện riêng – càng giống CS gốc, phản ứng càng mạnh. **Phân biệt kích thích (stimulus discrimination)** là quá trình ngược lại: sinh vật học cách chỉ phản ứng với đúng CS ban đầu, không phản ứng với các kích thích tương tự nhưng khác biệt – đạt được bằng cách chỉ ghép UCS với đúng một kích thích, còn các kích thích tương tự khác thì không bao giờ đi kèm UCS.

4.2.3 Higher-order (second-order) conditioning

Higher-order conditioning

Once a neutral stimulus has become a reliable CS through conditioning (this first pairing is called **first-order conditioning**), that CS can itself be used like a UCS to condition a brand-new neutral stimulus. If a bell (CS₁, already conditioned to produce salivation) is now repeatedly paired with a new neutral stimulus such as a flashing light, the light alone can eventually come to produce salivation too – even though the light was *never* directly paired with food. This is **second-order (higher-order) conditioning**: the conditioned response is extended one step further along a chain of associations, without any further presentation of the original UCS. Higher-order conditioning is typically weaker and extinguishes faster than first-order conditioning, and it becomes progressively harder to establish at the third order and beyond.

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Điều kiện hoá bậc cao (higher-order/second-order conditioning): sau khi một CS đã được thiết lập vững chắc (điều kiện hoá bậc một), CS đó có thể đóng vai trò như một UCS để điều kiện hoá thêm một kích thích trung tính mới – kích thích mới này không bao giờ được ghép trực tiếp với UCS gốc, mà chỉ ghép với CS đã học được. Ví dụ: chuông (CS đã học) được ghép với ánh đèn nhấp nháy (kích thích mới), cuối cùng ánh đèn một mình cũng gây tiết nước bọt

dù chưa từng đi kèm thức ăn thật. Phản ứng ở bậc cao thường yếu hơn và dễ bị dập tắt hơn so với điều kiện hoá bậc một.

4.2.4 Extinction and spontaneous recovery

Extinction and spontaneous recovery

Extinction occurs when the CS is repeatedly presented *without* the UCS: the association weakens and the CR gradually fades until it is no longer produced. Extinction does not, however, erase the original learning completely. **Spontaneous recovery** is the reappearance of a (usually weaker) CR after a rest period following extinction, when the CS is presented again — showing that the underlying CS–UCS association was suppressed rather than deleted. If extinction trials are then resumed, the CR will typically disappear again more quickly than the first time.

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Dập tắt (extinction) xảy ra khi CS được trình bày lặp lại mà không có UCS đi kèm, khiến CR yếu dần rồi biến mất. Tuy nhiên dập tắt không xoá hoàn toàn liên kết đã học. **Phục hồi tự phát (spontaneous recovery)** là hiện tượng CR (thường yếu hơn) xuất hiện trở lại sau một khoảng thời gian nghỉ, khi CS được trình bày lại — chứng tỏ liên kết ban đầu chỉ bị *ức chế* chứ không bị xoá bỏ.

4.2.5 Timing and contiguity: what makes conditioning strongest

Timing of pairing

The timing (temporal contiguity) between the NS and the UCS strongly affects how quickly and how strongly conditioning occurs.

- **Forward (delayed) pairing** — the NS begins slightly before the UCS and overlaps with it — produces the fastest and most reliable conditioning, because the NS reliably *predicts* the arrival of the UCS.
- **Simultaneous pairing** — NS and UCS presented at exactly the same instant — produces weaker conditioning, since the NS carries no predictive information (it does not precede the UCS).
- **Backward pairing** — the UCS is presented *before* the NS — produces the weakest and least reliable conditioning (often none at all), since the NS follows an event that has already occurred and is not a useful predictive cue.

Conditioning is also more reliable when the interval between NS and UCS is short and consistent from trial to trial.

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Thời điểm ghép cặp giữa NS và UCS ảnh hưởng lớn đến tốc độ và độ bền của quá trình học. **Ghép thuận (forward pairing)** — NS xuất hiện trước và chồng lấp với UCS — cho kết quả điều kiện hoá nhanh và bền nhất vì NS đóng vai trò *dự báo* UCS sắp đến. **Ghép đồng thời** yếu hơn vì NS không mang tính dự báo. **Ghép ngược (backward pairing)** — UCS xuất hiện trước NS — cho kết quả yếu nhất vì NS xuất hiện sau một sự kiện đã xảy ra rồi, không có giá trị dự báo.

4.2.6 Applications: aversion therapy and taste aversion

Applying classical conditioning

Aversion therapy deliberately uses classical conditioning to treat unwanted behaviours (e.g., alcohol dependence) by pairing the behaviour or its associated stimulus (e.g., the taste/smell of alcohol) with an unpleasant UCS (e.g., a nausea-inducing drug such as disulfiram), so the previously desirable stimulus becomes a CS that triggers an aversive CR (nausea), reducing the urge to engage in the behaviour.

Conditioned taste aversion is a naturally occurring, highly resilient form of classical conditioning in which a single pairing of a novel taste (NS) with subsequent illness (UCS, e.g., food poisoning) is often sufficient to produce a strong, long-lasting aversion (CR) to that taste (CS) – even when the delay between eating and becoming ill is several hours, which violates the usual rule that conditioning requires close temporal contiguity. This suggests some associations (taste–illness) are learned unusually easily, likely because they had strong survival value for avoiding poisonous foods.

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Liệu pháp ác cảm (aversion therapy) áp dụng điều kiện hoá cổ điển để điều trị hành vi không mong muốn (ví dụ nghiện rượu): ghép hành vi đó với một UCS khó chịu (thuốc gây buồn nôn) để tạo ra phản ứng ác cảm có điều kiện. **Ác cảm vị giác có điều kiện (taste aversion)** là một dạng đặc biệt: chỉ cần *một lần* nếm một vị lạ (NS) rồi sau đó bị ốm (UCS, dù cách nhau vài giờ) cũng đủ tạo ra ác cảm bền vững với vị đó – điều này “phá luật” thông thường về tính liên hệ thời gian, có lẽ vì khả năng học nhanh mối liên hệ vị–bệnh có giá trị sống còn (tránh ăn phải thức ăn độc).

(!) Lỗi thường gặp: Đừng nhầm **UCS** với **CS**. UCS luôn là kích thích *tự nhiên*, không cần học để gây ra phản ứng (ví dụ: thức ăn, tiếng động lớn, thuốc gây buồn nôn); CS luôn là kích thích *đã từng trung tính* nhưng trở thành có khả năng gây phản ứng *sau khi* được ghép cặp với UCS. Một câu hỏi thường gặp: “Chuông là gì trước và sau khi huấn luyện?” – trước khi huấn luyện, chuông là NS (không gây phản ứng); sau khi huấn luyện, chuông là CS (gây phản ứng có điều kiện). Chuông **không bao giờ** là UCS.

4.3 Operant Conditioning: Learning through Consequences

4.3.1 Reinforcement and punishment

B.F. Skinner argued that behaviour is shaped by its **consequences**: behaviours followed by desirable outcomes become more likely to be repeated, while behaviours followed by undesirable outcomes become less likely. Skinner studied this using the “Skinner box,” in which a rat or pigeon could press a lever or peck a key to produce a consequence (food, or the cessation of a mild electric shock).

Reinforcement and punishment

- **Positive reinforcement:** a desirable stimulus is *added* following a behaviour, increasing the likelihood the behaviour is repeated (e.g., a rat receives a food pellet for pressing a lever).
- **Negative reinforcement:** an unpleasant/aversive stimulus is *removed* following a behaviour, increasing the likelihood the behaviour is repeated (e.g., a rat presses a lever to switch off an electric shock).
- **Positive punishment:** an unpleasant stimulus is *added* following a behaviour, decreasing the likelihood the behaviour is repeated (e.g., a mild shock delivered for an unwanted response).

- **Negative punishment:** a desirable stimulus is *removed* following a behaviour, decreasing the likelihood the behaviour is repeated (e.g., losing a privilege for misbehaving).

Note that both types of reinforcement always *increase* the future frequency of a behaviour; both types of punishment always *decrease* it. "Positive" and "negative" here refer only to whether a stimulus is *added* or *removed*, not to whether the consequence feels good or bad.

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Củng cố dương (positive reinforcement): *thêm* vào một kích thích dễ chịu sau hành vi, làm hành vi đó có xu hướng lặp lại nhiều hơn. **Củng cố âm (negative reinforcement):** *loại bỏ* một kích thích khó chịu sau hành vi, cũng làm hành vi đó lặp lại nhiều hơn. **Phạt dương (positive punishment):** *thêm* kích thích khó chịu để làm giảm hành vi. **Phạt âm (negative punishment):** *loại bỏ* kích thích dễ chịu để làm giảm hành vi. Lưu ý: "dương/âm" (positive/negative) chỉ có nghĩa là *thêm vào* hay *lấy đi*, không liên quan đến việc hậu quả đó "tốt" hay "xấu".

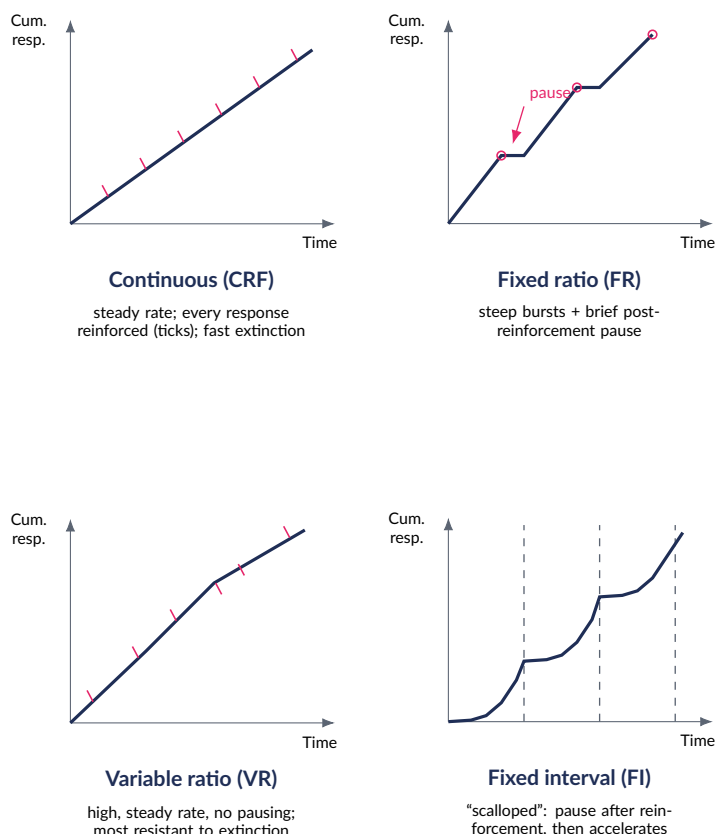
(!) **Lỗi thường gặp:** Lỗi phổ biến nhất trong chương này: nhầm **negative reinforcement** với **punishment**. Negative reinforcement luôn *làm tăng* hành vi (vì nó là một dạng củng cố – reinforcement), còn punishment (dù dương hay âm) luôn *làm giảm* hành vi. Ví dụ kinh điển: thắt dây an toàn để tắt tiếng chuông cảnh báo khó chịu trong xe là **negative reinforcement** (hành vi thắt dây được củng cố vì nó loại bỏ tiếng chuông) – **không phải** là phạt.

4.3.2 Schedules of reinforcement

When a behaviour is reinforced only intermittently rather than every single time it occurs, the pattern (**schedule**) of reinforcement strongly affects both the *rate* at which the behaviour is performed and how *resistant to extinction* it is once reinforcement stops.

Schedules of reinforcement

- **Continuous reinforcement (CRF):** every single occurrence of the behaviour is reinforced. Learning is fast, but the behaviour extinguishes very quickly once reinforcement stops (the organism immediately notices its absence).
- **Fixed ratio (FR):** reinforcement is delivered after a fixed, predictable *number* of responses (e.g., every 5th lever press). Produces a high response rate with a brief **post-reinforcement pause** right after each reinforcer, since the organism "knows" a new count is just beginning.
- **Variable ratio (VR):** reinforcement is delivered after an unpredictable, averaging number of responses (e.g., on average every 5th press, but sometimes the 2nd, sometimes the 9th). Produces a high, steady response rate with **no pausing**, because the next response could always be the reinforced one. VR schedules are the **most resistant to extinction** of all schedules (the basis of the addictive appeal of slot machines).
- **Fixed interval (FI):** reinforcement is available for the *first* response after a fixed amount of *time* has elapsed (e.g., the first press after 60 seconds). Produces a distinctive **scalloped** pattern: very few responses right after reinforcement, then a rapidly accelerating rate as the end of the interval approaches.
- **Variable interval (VI):** reinforcement is available for the first response after an unpredictable, averaging amount of time. Produces a moderate, steady response rate without the scalloping seen in FI, and greater resistance to extinction than FI.



Idealised cumulative response-rate curves for four reinforcement schedules. Steeper slope = higher response rate; ticks/circles mark reinforcement delivery. Continuous reinforcement gives a steady moderate rate but extinguishes fastest; fixed ratio shows a post-reinforcement pause; variable ratio shows the highest, steadiest rate with no pausing and the greatest resistance to extinction; fixed interval shows the classic "scalloped" pattern of low responding just after reinforcement, accelerating as the next scheduled reinforcement approaches (dashed lines).

Overall response rate (highest to lowest): $VR \approx FR > VI > FI$. **Resistance to extinction (highest to lowest):** $VR > VI > FR > FI > CRF$. **Variable schedules are always more resistant to extinction than their fixed counterparts**, because the organism cannot predict exactly when reinforcement will stop being unpredictable – the absence of reinforcement after extinction begins simply looks like a longer-than-usual unrewarded stretch, which has occurred before during learning.

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Bốn lịch trình củng cố chính: **tỉ lệ cố định (FR)** – củng cố sau một số lần phản ứng cố định, gây bùng nổ phản ứng rồi *ngủ ngắn* sau mỗi lần củng cố; **tỉ lệ biến đổi (VR)** – số lần phản ứng cần thiết thay đổi ngẫu nhiên quanh một giá trị trung bình, gây tỉ lệ phản ứng cao và ổn định, **không ngủ**, và **bền vững nhất trước dập tắt** (cơ chế gây nghiện của máy đánh bạc); **khoảng cố định (FI)** – củng cố cho phản ứng đầu tiên sau một *khoảng thời gian* cố định, tạo ra dạng đồ thị "hình vỏ sò" (scallop) – phản ứng rất ít ngay sau củng cố rồi tăng tốc dần; **khoảng biến đổi (VI)** – tương tự FI nhưng thời gian thay đổi ngẫu nhiên, cho tỉ lệ phản ứng ổn định hơn, không có hình vỏ sò. Lịch trình **liên tục (CRF)** học nhanh nhất nhưng cũng **dập tắt nhanh nhất**.

4.3.3 Primary and secondary reinforcers; token economies

Primary vs. secondary (conditioned) reinforcers

A **primary reinforcer** satisfies a basic biological need directly and reinforces behaviour without any prior learning (e.g., food, water, warmth, sexual pleasure). A **secondary (conditioned) reinforcer** has no inherent reinforcing value of its own, but acquires reinforcing power by being repeatedly *paired* with a primary reinforcer (a classical conditioning process). Money is the clearest everyday example: a banknote has no biological value in itself, but because it has consistently been exchangeable for food, shelter, and other primary reinforcers, it becomes a powerful reinforcer in its own right. Praise, grades, gold stars, and **tokens** (chips, points, stickers) are further common secondary reinforcers.

A **token economy** is a systematic application of secondary reinforcement: desirable behaviours are immediately reinforced with tokens (which have no value by themselves), and the tokens can later be exchanged for a range of backup primary or other desirable reinforcers (e.g., snacks, privileges, small toys). Token economies are widely used in classrooms, psychiatric wards, and prisons because they allow immediate reinforcement of behaviour (bridging any delay before a "real" reward is available) while letting a single token system reinforce many different behaviours at once.

Worked example: a classroom token economy

A teacher wants to increase on-task behaviour in a class of 8-year-olds. She gives each child a token (a sticker on a chart) every time they are seen working quietly for a 10-minute block. At the end of the week, tokens are exchanged for a choice of rewards (extra playtime, a small prize, choosing a class activity). Identify the primary and secondary reinforcers, and explain why the stickers work as reinforcers at all.

The **secondary (conditioned) reinforcer** is the sticker/token itself — it has no value in itself to an 8-year-old. The **primary/backup reinforcers** are the extra playtime, prize, or activity choice, which are directly desirable. The stickers become reinforcing only because they are reliably exchangeable (paired, over time) with these backup reinforcers — a form of classical conditioning operating alongside the operant reinforcement of on-task behaviour. This is precisely the structure of a **token economy**.

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Củng cố sơ cấp (primary reinforcer) thoả mãn nhu cầu sinh học trực tiếp (thức ăn, nước uống) mà không cần học. **Củng cố thứ cấp (secondary/conditioned reinforcer)** — như tiền, lời khen, điểm số, token — tự nó không có giá trị, nhưng có được sức mạnh củng cố nhờ được *ghép cặp lặp lại* với củng cố sơ cấp (một quá trình điều kiện hoá cổ điển). **Kinh tế token (token economy)** áp dụng nguyên lý này một cách hệ thống: hành vi mong muốn được thưởng token ngay lập tức, sau đó token được đổi lấy phần thưởng "thật" — thưởng dùng trong lớp học, bệnh viện tâm thần, và nhà tù.

4.4 Social Learning Theory: Learning through Observation

Albert Bandura argued that classical and operant conditioning alone cannot fully explain how humans acquire complex social behaviours (such as aggression or language), because much learning happens simply by **watching others** — without the observer personally experiencing any reinforcement or punishment at all.

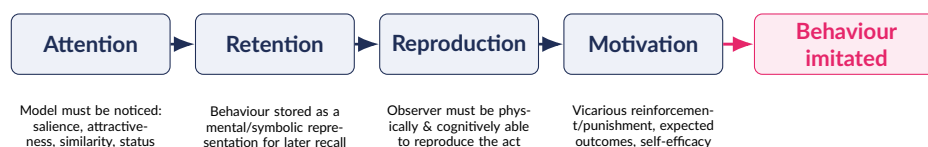
4.4.1 Bandura's four mediational processes

The four mediational processes

Social learning theory proposes that observational learning is governed by four cognitive ("mediational") processes that stand between observing a model and actually imitating the behaviour:

- **Attention:** the observer must notice and attend to the model's behaviour. Attention is increased when the model is attractive, similar to the observer, high in status, or when the behaviour itself is distinctive/salient.
- **Retention:** the observed behaviour must be encoded and stored as a mental/symbolic representation (a memory), so it can be recalled later, even long after the original observation.
- **(Motor) Reproduction:** the observer must possess the physical ability and the component skills needed to actually reproduce the behaviour — merely remembering it is not enough if the observer is not physically or developmentally capable of performing it.
- **Motivation:** the observer must have a reason to actually perform the behaviour. Motivation is strongly influenced by **vicarious reinforcement** (seeing the model rewarded for the behaviour, which makes imitation more likely) and **vicarious punishment** (seeing the model punished, which makes imitation less likely), as well as by the observer's expectations of the outcome and their **self-efficacy** — their belief in their own ability to successfully perform the behaviour.

All four processes must be satisfied for imitation to occur; a behaviour can be attended to and perfectly retained yet never performed if reproduction is not possible or motivation is absent.



Bandura's four mediational processes in observational learning. All four must be satisfied, in sequence, before a modelled behaviour is actually imitated by the observer.

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Bandura cho rằng học qua quan sát cần trải qua 4 quá trình trung gian: **Chú ý (Attention)** — phải để ý đến hành vi của mô hình (để xảy ra hơn nếu mô hình hấp dẫn, giống mình, có địa vị cao); **Ghi nhớ (Retention)** — mã hoá và lưu trữ hành vi đó dưới dạng biểu tượng tinh thần để nhớ lại sau này; **Tái tạo (Reproduction)** — phải có khả năng thể chất/kỹ năng để thực sự thực hiện lại hành vi; **Động lực (Motivation)** — phải có lý do để thực hiện, chịu ảnh hưởng mạnh bởi **củng cố gián tiếp (vicarious reinforcement)** khi thấy mô hình được thưởng, **phạt gián tiếp (vicarious punishment)** khi thấy mô hình bị phạt, và **niềm tin vào năng lực bản thân (self-efficacy)**. Thiếu bất kỳ quá trình nào trong 4 bước này, hành vi sẽ không được bắt chước.

4.4.2 Reciprocal determinism

Reciprocal determinism

Bandura also proposed **reciprocal determinism**: the idea that behaviour, personal/cognitive factors (beliefs, expectations, self-efficacy), and the environment all continuously and mutually influence one another, rather than the environment simply acting one-way on a passive individual. For example, a child's aggressive behaviour (behaviour) may be shaped by having

watched an aggressive model (environment), but the child's own belief that aggression "works" for them (cognitive factor) then makes them more likely to seek out or create situations where aggression is modelled or rewarded (environment) — a continuous two-way loop rather than a simple one-way stimulus–response chain.

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Thuyết quyết định luận qua lại (reciprocal determinism): hành vi, các yếu tố cá nhân/nhận thức (niềm tin, kỳ vọng, self-efficacy), và môi trường **liên tục ảnh hưởng qua lại lẫn nhau** — không phải môi trường chỉ tác động một chiều lên một cá nhân thụ động. Ví dụ: hành vi hung hăng của trẻ (behaviour) có thể do quan sát một mô hình hung hăng (environment), nhưng niềm tin của trẻ rằng hung hăng "có hiệu quả" (cognitive factor) lại khiến trẻ chủ động tìm kiếm hoặc tạo ra những tình huống mà hung hăng tiếp tục được mô phỏng hoặc được thưởng (environment) — một vòng lặp hai chiều, không phải chuỗi kích thích–phản ứng một chiều đơn giản.

4.5 Comparing the Three Learning Explanations

Feature		Classical conditioning	Operant conditioning	Social learning theory
What is learned		An association between two stimuli (NS becomes CS, predicting the UCS)	An association between a behaviour and its consequence (reinforcement/punishment)	A behaviour, by observing and (potentially) imitating a model
How learning occurs		Repeated pairing (contiguity) of NS and UCS	Consequences following the learner's own behaviour (direct reinforcement/punishment)	Mediational cognitive processes: attention, retention, reproduction, motivation (vicarious reinforcement/punishment)
Key theorist		Ivan Pavlov	B.F. Skinner	Albert Bandura
Example		Little Albert's fear of a white rat (Watson & Rayner, 1920)	A rat pressing a lever for food; a token economy	A child imitating aggression modelled by an adult (Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1961)

The three learning explanations compared. Note that social learning theory is not purely behaviourist: it explicitly includes internal cognitive (mediational) processes, whereas classical and operant conditioning were originally proposed as purely stimulus–response accounts with no reference to cognition.

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Ba lý thuyết học tập khác nhau về *cái gì* được học và *cách nào* nó được học: điều kiện hoá cổ điển học **liên kết giữa hai kích thích**; điều kiện hoá thao tác học **liên kết giữa hành vi và hậu quả**; lý thuyết học tập xã hội học **hành vi thông qua quan sát người khác**, có sử dụng các quá trình nhận thức trung gian. Đây là điểm khác biệt quan trọng: SLT không phải là thuyết hành vi thuần túy (radical behaviourism) vì nó thừa nhận vai trò của nhận thức (attention, retention...), trong khi điều kiện hoá cổ điển và thao tác nguyên thủy chỉ tập trung vào kích thích–phản ứng quan sát được, không đề cập đến quá trình bên trong.

4.6 Applications to Therapy

Because the learning approach assumes maladaptive behaviour (e.g., phobias, addictions) is *learned*, it follows logically that such behaviour can also be *unlearned* or replaced through the deliberate application of learning principles. This is one of the approach's clearest practical strengths.

Systematic desensitisation

Systematic desensitisation treats phobias using classical conditioning principles. The client first learns deep muscle relaxation techniques. The therapist and client then construct a **graduated hierarchy** of feared situations, ranked from least to most frightening (e.g., for a spider phobia: looking at a photo of a spider → watching a video of a spider → being in the same room as a caged spider → holding a spider). Working up the hierarchy one step at a time, the client practises relaxation while confronting each step, moving to the next step only once they can remain relaxed at the current one. The underlying rationale is **reciprocal inhibition**: it is physiologically impossible to be simultaneously relaxed and fearful, so pairing the feared stimulus (CS) with a relaxation response (rather than the original fear/UCR) gradually replaces the old fear association with a new, calmer one — essentially **counter-conditioning**.

Flooding

Flooding also targets phobias but takes the opposite route from systematic desensitisation: instead of a gradual hierarchy, the client is exposed immediately and continuously to the most feared stimulus (or a vivid imagined version of it) until the fear response naturally subsides. Because a fear/anxiety response cannot be sustained indefinitely at its peak level, prolonged exposure without escape eventually leads to **extinction** of the conditioned fear response, as the client learns (through repeated exposure with no aversive consequence) that the stimulus is not actually dangerous. Flooding can achieve results faster than systematic desensitisation but is highly distressing and requires full informed consent, since the client must remain in the feared situation rather than escape it.

Therapy	Mechanism	Example application
Systematic desensitisation	Graduated hierarchy of feared stimuli paired with relaxation; reciprocal inhibition gradually replaces fear with calm	Specific phobias (e.g., button phobia, animal phobias)
Flooding	Immediate, continuous exposure to the most-feared stimulus until the fear response extinguishes	Specific phobias requiring rapid treatment
Aversion therapy	Classical conditioning pairs the unwanted behaviour/stimulus with an unpleasant UCS, creating an aversive CR	Alcohol/substance dependence
Token economy	Operant conditioning: tokens (secondary reinforcers) delivered immediately for desired behaviour, exchanged later for backup reinforcers	Classroom management; institutional/psychiatric settings

Four therapeutic applications of learning principles, with their underlying mechanism and a typical application.

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Giải mã cảm hệ thống (systematic desensitisation): học thư giãn, xây dựng **thang bậc sợ hãi** từ nhẹ đến nặng, rồi tiếp xúc dần từng bậc trong khi thư giãn — dựa trên nguyên lý **ức chế tương hỗ (reciprocal inhibition)**: không thể vừa thư giãn vừa sợ hãi cùng lúc, nên dần dần thay thế phản ứng sợ bằng phản ứng thư giãn. **Liệu pháp ngập lụt (flooding)** thì cho tiếp xúc ngay lập tức với kích thích sợ nhất cho đến khi phản ứng sợ tự dập tắt — nhanh hơn nhưng gây căng thẳng nhiều hơn, cần sự đồng thuận đầy đủ của thân chủ. Cả hai đều dựa trên điều kiện hoá cổ điển; trong khi đó **liệu pháp ác cảm** và **kinh tế token** lần lượt dựa trên điều kiện hoá cổ điển và thao tác để thay đổi hành vi cụ thể.

Saavedra and Silverman's (2002) treatment of a boy's button phobia (Section 4.9) combined a graduated exposure hierarchy — the core mechanism of systematic desensitisation — with additional cognitive-behavioural strategies, illustrating how these classical-conditioning-based techniques are applied in real clinical practice, often alongside cognitive elements rather than in a "pure" behaviourist form.

4.7 Learning from Non-Human Animals

Why study non-human animals?

Much foundational research in the learning approach was conducted on non-human animals — Pavlov's dogs, Skinner's rats and pigeons, and (in an applied context) Fagen, Acharya & Kaufman's elephants. Researchers use animals for several reasons: (1) the learning approach assumes learning follows **general, biologically universal principles** that should apply across species, so demonstrating a principle in a simpler animal nervous system is taken as evidence for a general law; (2) animal studies allow far greater **experimental control** (over diet, housing, prior history, precise timing of stimuli) than would be ethical or practical with human participants; (3) some manipulations (deprivation, aversive stimuli, invasive physiological measures) that would be unethical in humans can be conducted, within strict ethical guidelines, on animals.

However, generalising animal findings to humans has clear limits: humans have far more complex cognition, language, and social context that can override or modify simple conditioning principles (as social learning theory itself demonstrates by adding mediational cognitive processes); non-human species differ in nervous system complexity, biological preparedness (some associations are learned more or less readily by different species), and life history, so a principle demonstrated in a rat or pigeon may not scale up in a straightforward way to complex human social behaviour.

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Nhiều nghiên cứu nền tảng của cách tiếp cận học tập được thực hiện trên động vật (chó Pavlov, chuột/bồ câu Skinner, voi trong Fagen et al.) vì: (1) niềm tin rằng quy luật học tập mang tính **phổ quát giữa các loài**; (2) động vật cho phép **kiểm soát thực nghiệm** chặt chẽ hơn nhiều so với con người; (3) một số thao tác (tước đoạt, kích thích ác cảm) không thể thực hiện có đạo đức trên người. Tuy nhiên, việc khái quát hoá từ động vật sang người có giới hạn rõ ràng: con người có nhận thức, ngôn ngữ, và bối cảnh xã hội phức tạp hơn nhiều, có thể "ghi đè" lên các nguyên lý điều kiện hoá đơn giản — chính lý thuyết học tập xã hội minh chứng điều này bằng cách thêm vào các quá trình nhận thức trung gian.

4.8 Core Study: Social Learning Theory --- Bandura, Ross & Ross (1961)

Bandura, Ross & Ross (1961): Transmission of Aggression through Imitation of Aggressive Models

Aim: to investigate whether children who observe an adult model behaving aggressively towards a Bobo doll will imitate that aggression when given the opportunity, even without receiving any direct reinforcement themselves, and whether the sex of the model and the sex of the child affect imitation.

Procedure: 72 children (36 boys, 36 girls, average age around 4 years) from the Stanford University Nursery School took part in a controlled laboratory experiment. Children were first pre-rated by their teacher and an experimenter for existing levels of aggressiveness, then matched into groups so that each condition had an equivalent average level of pre-existing aggression, controlling for individual differences. Children were randomly assigned to one of

three conditions: an **aggressive model** condition, a **non-aggressive model** condition, or a **control** (no model) condition; within the model conditions, children observed either a **same-sex** or an **opposite-sex** adult model. In the aggressive condition, the model performed distinctive physical acts of aggression towards a five-foot inflatable Bobo doll (striking it with a mallet, throwing it in the air, kicking it, sitting on it) accompanied by distinctive verbal aggression (e.g., “Sock him,” “Hit him down,” “Pow”). In the non-aggressive condition, the model played quietly with other toys, ignoring the Bobo doll. Afterwards, each child was mildly frustrated (taken to a room with attractive toys, then told those toys were reserved for other children) to encourage the display of any aggression they had learned. Children were then individually observed for 20 minutes, alone, in a room containing the Bobo doll and a mixture of aggressive and non-aggressive toys, while trained observers behind a one-way mirror recorded their behaviour using a standardised checklist (imitative physical aggression, imitative verbal aggression, non-imitative aggression, and aggressive gun play).

Findings: children who observed the aggressive model showed significantly **more imitative aggression** (both physical and verbal) than children in the non-aggressive or control conditions, closely reproducing the model’s specific actions and phrases. They also showed more general (non-imitative) aggression. Boys showed more **physical** aggression overall than girls, and imitation was greater when the model was the **same sex** as the child (boys imitated the male aggressive model more than the female one, and vice versa for girls, though the effect was less pronounced for girls). Children in the non-aggressive model condition showed the least aggression of all, even less than the no-model control group.

Conclusion: children can learn a novel behaviour, including aggression, purely by observing and imitating a model, without ever being directly reinforced or punished for the behaviour themselves – strong support for social learning theory over a purely operant account of how aggression is acquired. Same-sex modelling effects also suggest that identification with the model (a mediational, motivational factor) influences whether observed behaviour is imitated.

Evaluation: Bandura, Ross & Ross (1961)

Strengths: the study was a tightly controlled laboratory experiment: standardising the model’s exact actions and words, pre-matching children on baseline aggression, and using a structured observational checklist all increase the reliability and internal validity of the findings, and the procedure has since been replicated with similar results (e.g., using a filmed model, and using a live model dressed as a cartoon character), supporting the reliability of the basic finding. **Limitations:** the artificial laboratory setting and the Bobo doll itself (an object arguably “designed” to be hit) raise concerns about **ecological validity** – children may not behave the same way towards a real person as towards an inflatable toy, and demand characteristics may have led children to believe aggression was expected of them. There are also serious **ethical concerns**: children were deliberately exposed to an aggressive model and mildly frustrated in order to provoke aggression, with no clear protection from psychological harm or debrief by modern standards, and the study arguably taught children a new aggressive behaviour they had not previously displayed. Finally, the sample was drawn entirely from one university-affiliated nursery school, limiting generalisability across cultures and socioeconomic backgrounds.

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Bandura, Ross & Ross (1961): 72 trẻ được quan sát một mô hình người lớn hoặc hung hăng (đánh, đá, ngồi lên búp bê Bobo, kèm lời lẽ hung hăng) hoặc không hung hăng, sau đó bị gây thất vọng nhẹ rồi được quan sát qua gương một chiều. Trẻ ở nhóm mô hình hung hăng bắt chước **những hành vi hung hăng hơn hẳn** (cả bắt chước lẫn tự phát), bé trai hung hăng thể chất

nhiều hơn bé gái, và trẻ bắt chước mô hình **cùng giới** nhiều hơn. Kết luận: hung hăng có thể học được chỉ qua **quan sát và bắt chước**, không cần củng cố trực tiếp — ủng hộ mạnh mẽ lý thuyết học tập xã hội. **Đánh giá:** nghiên cứu được kiểm soát chặt (điểm mạnh: độ tin cậy cao, đã được lặp lại) nhưng thiếu **giá trị sinh thái** (búp bê không phải người thật) và có **vấn đề đạo đức nghiêm trọng** (chủ động dạy trẻ hành vi hung hăng, không bảo vệ tâm lý trẻ theo chuẩn hiện đại), cùng mẫu nghiên cứu giới hạn ở một trường mẫu giáo.

4.9 Core Study: Learned Phobia and its Treatment --- Saavedra & Silverman (2002)

Saavedra & Silverman (2002): A Case Study of Button Phobia (Koumaris)

Aim: to present a detailed case study of a child's severe, specific phobia of buttons, illustrating both how such a phobia may be acquired through learning and how it can be successfully treated using behavioural and cognitive-behavioural techniques.

Procedure: the case concerned a 9-year-old boy referred to a child anxiety disorders clinic with an intense, debilitating fear of buttons, which caused him to avoid clothing with buttons, avoid touching buttons or people wearing them, and experience significant distress and disgust at the mere sight of buttons. Assessment used a **structured clinical interview** (with both the boy and his parents) to establish the history, severity, and impact of the phobia, alongside self-report fear ratings and behavioural observation of his avoidance. Treatment combined **graduated exposure** — a hierarchy of increasingly button-related situations/objects, worked through gradually (the core technique of systematic desensitisation) — with additional **cognitive-behavioural strategies**, such as challenging his anxious thoughts about buttons and building coping self-statements, delivered over a series of clinical sessions.

Findings: the boy's fear and avoidance of buttons reduced substantially over the course of treatment, and he was able to tolerate increasing amounts of direct contact with buttons that had previously been impossible. These improvements were **maintained at follow-up**, indicating the treatment effect was durable rather than temporary.

Conclusion: the case supports the view that specific phobias, even highly unusual ones, can be acquired through learning processes and can be effectively treated using behavioural techniques based on the learning approach (graduated exposure/systematic desensitisation), particularly when combined with cognitive strategies.

Evaluation: Saavedra & Silverman (2002)

Strengths: the case-study method allowed rich, detailed, idiographic data to be gathered from multiple sources (clinical interview, self-report, behavioural observation), giving a fuller picture of how the phobia developed and responded to treatment than a brief experiment could provide; the study also has direct **practical/applied value**, demonstrating a genuinely effective treatment for an unusual phobia. **Limitations:** as a single case study of one child, the findings cannot be safely **generalised** to all phobias or all children — button phobia (and this child's particular history) may not be representative. There was no control group, so it is difficult to rule out that the improvement was partly due to the simple passage of time, other unmeasured factors, or the general supportive attention of therapy sessions rather than the specific techniques used. Retrospective information about how the phobia first developed may also be subject to memory or reporting bias from the boy and his parents.

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Saavedra & Silverman (2002): nghiên cứu ca một bé trai 9 tuổi bị ám ảnh sợ **nút áo** nghiêm

trọng, được đánh giá qua phỏng vấn lâm sàng có cấu trúc rồi điều trị bằng **tiếp xúc dần theo thang bậc** (giải mẫn cảm hệ thống) kết hợp **chiến lược nhận thức-hành vi**. Sợ hãi và né tránh giảm đáng kể và duy trì ở lần tái khám. Kết luận: ám ảnh sợ có thể học được và điều trị hiệu quả bằng kỹ thuật hành vi. **Đánh giá:** điểm mạnh là dữ liệu chi tiết từ nhiều nguồn và giá trị ứng dụng thực tế rõ ràng; điểm yếu là chỉ một ca đơn lẻ nên **khó khái quát hoá**, không có nhóm đối chứng nên khó loại trừ các yếu tố khác (thời gian, sự quan tâm trị liệu nói chung) góp phần vào cải thiện.

4.10 Core Study: Operant Conditioning Applied to Animals --- Fagen, Acharya & Kaufman (2006)

Fagen, Acharya & Kaufman (2006): Positive Reinforcement Training of Working Elephants in Nepal

Aim: to investigate whether positive-reinforcement operant conditioning techniques could be used to train working elephants in Nepal to cooperate voluntarily with a “trunk-wash” procedure – collecting a trunk-wash sample for tuberculosis (TB) testing – as a humane alternative to traditional restraint-based handling methods.

Procedure: working elephants (used for patrol, tourism, and logging in Nepal) were trained using **shaping**: trainers reinforced successive approximations of the target behaviour (standing calmly, allowing a trainer to approach the trunk, allowing fluid to be introduced into and withdrawn from the trunk), gradually building up the full trunk-wash sequence. A **secondary reinforcer/bridging signal** (a whistle) was sounded at the exact moment the elephant performed the correct approximation, immediately followed by a **primary reinforcer** (a food reward, such as a preferred treat), so the whistle came to mark precisely which behaviour was being rewarded even though the food itself could not always be delivered instantly. Elephants' behaviour and apparent stress indicators were observed and compared with those typically seen under traditional handling methods (which often rely on the mahout's physical dominance or restraint).

Findings: elephants successfully learned to cooperate with the full trunk-wash procedure through positive-reinforcement training, voluntarily presenting their trunks and remaining calm throughout. Elephants trained this way showed **reduced signs of stress** and cooperated more calmly than would be expected under traditional, more forceful handling methods.

Conclusion: operant conditioning principles (shaping, positive reinforcement, and a bridging secondary reinforcer) can be applied effectively – and more humanely than traditional methods – to train large, working non-human animals to cooperate with health-related husbandry procedures, supporting the generalisability of operant conditioning principles across species, including to animals very different in size, cognition, and social structure from the rats and pigeons Skinner originally studied.

Evaluation: Fagen, Acharya & Kaufman (2006)

Strengths: this is a naturalistic, real-world application of operant conditioning with high **ecological validity** (elephants were trained and observed in their actual working environment rather than an artificial laboratory), and it demonstrates genuine **practical value** – improving both animal welfare (reduced stress, no forceful restraint) and public health (enabling TB surveillance in working elephants, relevant to human as well as animal health, since TB can potentially transmit between elephants and their human handlers). It also supports the generalisability of operant principles established originally in small laboratory animals to a very different, large-bodied species. **Limitations:** the naturalistic field setting sacrifices some of the

tight experimental control possible in a laboratory (e.g., no rigid control group of elephants trained by traditional methods under otherwise identical conditions), so other factors (individual mahout skill and relationship with the elephant, individual elephant temperament) may have contributed to the results alongside the reinforcement training itself. Behavioural indicators of “stress” or “calmness” are also somewhat subjective and not always straightforward to measure objectively, which may reduce the reliability of comparisons with traditional handling.

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Fagen, Acharya & Kaufman (2006): voi làm việc ở Nepal được huấn luyện bằng **định hình (shaping)** và **củng cố dương** để hợp tác với quy trình “rửa vòi” lấy mẫu xét nghiệm lao (TB) – dùng **tín hiệu bắc cầu** (tiếng còi) kết hợp phần thưởng thức ăn. Voi học thành công quy trình, hợp tác bình tĩnh hơn và ít căng thẳng hơn so với phương pháp kiểm chế truyền thống. Kết luận: nguyên lý điều kiện hoá thao tác có thể áp dụng hiệu quả và nhân đạo cho động vật lớn, ủng hộ tính khái quát hoá giữa các loài. **Đánh giá:** điểm mạnh là giá trị sinh thái cao và ứng dụng thực tiễn rõ ràng (phúc lợi động vật + y tế công cộng); điểm yếu là thiếu nhóm đối chứng chặt chẽ và khó đo lường “căng thẳng” một cách khách quan.

4.11 Evaluating the Learning Approach

General evaluation issues

- **Environmental determinism vs. free will:** the learning approach is strongly **deterministic** – it argues behaviour is entirely shaped by prior conditioning history (reinforcement, punishment, association, observed models) rather than by conscious free choice. This is a strength for scientific prediction and control of behaviour (e.g., designing effective therapies), but it has been criticised for underplaying the role of personal agency and conscious decision-making, and for potentially excusing behaviour as merely the product of one’s learning history.
- **Nature vs. nurture:** the approach sits firmly on the **nurture** side of the debate, treating behaviour as acquired through experience rather than inherited biologically. This usefully highlights how much behaviour genuinely can be changed by altering the environment (a strength for intervention/therapy), but arguably **underestimates** the role of biological/genetic factors that other approaches (e.g., the biological approach) emphasise, and struggles to fully explain why some associations (such as taste aversions, or fear of evolutionarily relevant stimuli like snakes) are learned far more readily than others – a phenomenon called **biological preparedness**.
- **Reductionism:** classical and operant conditioning explain complex behaviour by reducing it to simple stimulus–response associations, ignoring internal mental processes almost entirely. This is a strength in that it produces testable, precise, falsifiable predictions, but it is also a significant limitation: it struggles to explain behaviours that clearly involve thought, planning, and meaning (e.g., why exactly the *same* observed model is imitated by one child but not another). Social learning theory is a partial response to this criticism, reintroducing cognitive mediational processes – but this itself puts SLT in some tension with the **cognitive approach**, which places thought processes (memory, perception, reasoning) at the very centre of explanation rather than treating them as a bridge between stimulus and behaviour.
- **Practical applications:** a clear strength of the learning approach is its record of successful, evidence-based **real-world application** – systematic desensitisation, flooding, aver-

sion therapy, and token economies have all demonstrably reduced problem behaviours and treated phobias (as in Saavedra & Silverman, 2002), and operant training methods have improved both human education/behaviour management and animal welfare (as in Fagen, Acharya & Kaufman, 2006).

- **Ethical issues:** some of the approach's most famous studies raise serious ethical concerns. Watson and Rayner's Little Albert study deliberately conditioned genuine, lasting fear in an infant who could not consent and was, by most accounts, never systematically deconditioned afterwards – a study that would not be granted ethical approval today. Bandura, Ross and Ross's study similarly exposed children to an aggressive model and deliberately provoked frustration. These studies illustrate a recurring tension in the learning approach between the scientific value of demonstrating conditioning processes clearly and the ethical obligation to protect participants (especially children) from psychological harm.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Đánh giá cách tiếp cận học tập: (1) **Quyết định luận môi trường** – hành vi hoàn toàn do lịch sử học tập quyết định, không do ý chí tự do; hữu ích cho việc dự đoán/kiểm soát hành vi nhưng bị chỉ trích là xem nhẹ vai trò của lựa chọn cá nhân. (2) **Bản chất-nuôi dưỡng** – nghiêng hẳn về phía *nuôi dưỡng*, nhấn mạnh khả năng thay đổi hành vi qua môi trường, nhưng có thể xem nhẹ yếu tố sinh học/di truyền và khó giải thích hiện tượng **chuẩn bị sinh học (biological preparedness)** (một số liên kết học nhanh hơn hẳn liên kết khác). (3) **Giản lược luận (reductionism)** – quy hành vi phức tạp về liên kết kích thích-phản ứng đơn giản, dễ kiểm chứng nhưng bỏ qua quá trình nhận thức bên trong; lý thuyết học tập xã hội phần nào khắc phục bằng cách thêm các quá trình trung gian nhận thức, nhưng vẫn khác cách tiếp cận nhận thức (vốn đặt tư duy làm trung tâm giải thích). (4) **Ứng dụng thực tiễn** là điểm mạnh rõ ràng: giải mẫn cảm, liệu pháp ngập lụt, liệu pháp ác cảm, kinh tế token đều có hiệu quả thực chứng. (5) **Vấn đề đạo đức** – các nghiên cứu kinh điển như Little Albert hay Bandura et al. đều đặt ra câu hỏi đạo đức nghiêm trọng về bảo vệ người tham gia, đặc biệt là trẻ em.

Ôn tập nhanh: Ba cơ chế học tập – **cổ điển** (NS→CS qua ghép cặp với UCS; khái quát hoá/phân biệt, điều kiện hoá bậc cao, dập tắt/phục hồi tự phát), **thao tác** (củng cố/phạt dương-âm; lịch trình CRF/FR/VR/FI/VI, VR bền nhất trước dập tắt), **học tập xã hội** (attention-retention-reproduction-motivation; củng cố/phạt gián tiếp; reciprocal determinism). Ứng dụng trị liệu: giải mẫn cảm hệ thống & flooding (cổ điển, thang bậc/ngập lụt), liệu pháp ác cảm (cổ điển), kinh tế token (thao tác). Ba nghiên cứu cốt lõi: Bandura, Ross & Ross (1961) – búp bê Bobo, hung hăng qua bắt chước; Saavedra & Silverman (2002) – ca ám ảnh sợ nút áo, điều trị bằng tiếp xúc dần; Fagen, Acharya & Kaufman (2006) – huấn luyện voi bằng củng cố dương cho quy trình xét nghiệm lao.

4.12 Problem Bank

Bài tập luyện tập

In Pavlov's classic experiment, before any conditioning takes place, the sound of a bell is best described as a:

- | | |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| (A) Conditioned stimulus (CS) | (C) Neutral stimulus (NS) |
| (B) Unconditioned stimulus (UCS) | (D) Conditioned response (CR) |

Lời giải chi tiết

Before conditioning, the bell produces no relevant reflexive response, so it is a neutral stimulus (NS). It only becomes a CS *after* repeated pairing with the UCS (food). (C).

Bài tập luyện tập

A dog has been trained through continuous reinforcement to sit on command for a treat. If treats are then withheld every time the dog sits, the dog's sitting behaviour will most likely extinguish:

- (A) More slowly than if it had been trained on a variable ratio schedule
(B) At about the same rate regardless of schedule
(C) Faster than if it had been trained on a variable ratio schedule
(D) Only if punishment is also introduced

Lời giải chi tiết

Continuous reinforcement (CRF) produces the fastest extinction of all schedules, because the organism immediately notices the absence of the now-expected reinforcer. Variable ratio (VR) schedules are the most resistant to extinction. So CRF-trained behaviour extinguishes **faster** than VR-trained behaviour. (C).

Bài tập luyện tập

A gambler plays a slot machine that pays out after an unpredictable, average number of pulls. (a) Name this schedule of reinforcement. (b) Explain, in terms of the schedule, why gamblers often find it very difficult to stop playing even after a long losing streak.

Lời giải chi tiết

(a) This is a **variable ratio (VR)** schedule – reinforcement (a payout) follows an unpredictable, averaging number of responses (pulls). (b) VR schedules produce the highest resistance to extinction of any schedule, because the gambler cannot distinguish a genuinely non-rewarding losing streak from an ordinary unrewarded stretch that has occurred many times before during normal (rewarded) play – the next pull could always, unpredictably, be the winning one. This unpredictability is exactly what makes VR schedules so resistant to extinction, and is why slot machines are deliberately designed around this schedule.

Bài tập luyện tập

In Watson and Rayner's Little Albert study, striking a steel bar with a hammer to produce a loud noise served as the:

- (A) Conditioned stimulus
(B) Neutral stimulus
(C) Unconditioned stimulus
(D) Conditioned response

Lời giải chi tiết

The loud noise automatically and reflexively produced fear without any prior learning, making it the unconditioned stimulus (UCS). (C).

Bài tập luyện tập

After Little Albert was conditioned to fear the white rat, his fear spread to a rabbit, a dog, and a fur coat, even though these had never been directly paired with the loud noise. Identify and define this process, and explain why it happened.

Lời giải chi tiết

This is **stimulus generalisation**: a learned response (CR) transfers to stimuli that are similar to the original CS, without any further conditioning. It happened because the rabbit, dog, and fur coat shared physical features with the white rat (soft, white/light-coloured fur) that Albert's conditioned fear response had become associated with — the more physically similar a new stimulus is to the original CS, the more strongly it evokes the CR.

Bài tập luyện tập

A child who was conditioned to fear a specific brown dog does *not* show fear towards a black cat. This is best described as an example of:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|
| (A) Stimulus generalisation | (C) Spontaneous recovery |
| (B) Stimulus discrimination | (D) Higher-order conditioning |

Lời giải chi tiết

The child responds with fear only to the specific conditioned stimulus (or stimuli sufficiently similar to it) and not to a dissimilar stimulus (a cat) — this selective responding is stimulus discrimination. **(B)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

A bell (CS₁) has already been conditioned to produce salivation in a dog. A researcher now repeatedly pairs a flashing light with the bell (without any food present), and eventually the light alone produces salivation. (a) Name this phenomenon. (b) Explain one way it differs from ordinary (first-order) conditioning.

Lời giải chi tiết

(a) This is **higher-order (second-order) conditioning** — a new neutral stimulus (the light) is conditioned by being paired with an already-established CS (the bell) rather than with the original UCS (food). (b) Higher-order conditioning is typically **weaker and extinguishes faster** than first-order conditioning, and it becomes progressively more difficult to establish further associations (e.g., third-order conditioning) built on top of it.

Bài tập luyện tập

A rat's lever-pressing behaviour was extinguished by withholding food. Several days later, without any further training, the rat is placed back in the box and immediately presses the lever again, though less vigorously than before extinction. This phenomenon is called:

- | | |
|-------------------------------|----------------------------|
| (A) Stimulus discrimination | (C) Spontaneous recovery |
| (B) Higher-order conditioning | (D) Negative reinforcement |

Lời giải chi tiết

The reappearance of a (weaker) extinguished response after a rest period, without further conditioning trials, is spontaneous recovery – it shows the original association was suppressed rather than erased. **(C)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain why forward (delayed) pairing of a neutral stimulus and an unconditioned stimulus typically produces stronger conditioning than backward pairing (where the UCS is presented before the NS).

Lời giải chi tiết

In forward pairing, the NS reliably **precedes** and therefore predicts the arrival of the UCS, so the organism can learn a genuinely useful predictive association. In backward pairing, the NS follows an event (the UCS) that has already occurred, so it carries no predictive value about anything still to come – there is little for the organism to usefully learn, which is why backward pairing produces the weakest (often negligible) conditioning of the timing arrangements.

Bài tập luyện tập

A person eats a novel food and becomes violently ill six hours later from an unrelated stomach virus. Despite the long delay, they develop a lasting aversion to that food's taste. This is an example of:

- (A) Backward conditioning, which is usually the strongest form of conditioning requires close temporal contiguity
(B) Conditioned taste aversion, an exception to the usual rule that conditioning re- (C) Stimulus discrimination
(D) Negative punishment

Lời giải chi tiết

Conditioned taste aversion can form after a single pairing even with delays of several hours between the taste (NS) and illness (UCS) – an exception to the normal requirement of close timing between stimuli, likely because rapidly learning taste–illness associations had high survival value. **(B)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

A therapist treating alcohol dependence prescribes a drug that causes nausea whenever alcohol is consumed, with the aim of making the taste and smell of alcohol itself trigger nausea. (a) Name this therapy. (b) Identify the UCS, the NS/CS, and the intended CR.

Lời giải chi tiết

(a) This is **aversion therapy**. (b) The **UCS** is the nausea-inducing drug (it automatically produces nausea). The **NS/CS** is the taste/smell of alcohol (previously neutral or pleasant, now repeatedly paired with the drug). The intended **CR** is nausea triggered by the taste/smell of alcohol alone, without the drug – reducing the desire to drink.

Bài tập luyện tập

A student receives extra credit (a desirable outcome is added) every time they submit homework on time, and homework submission increases. This is an example of:

- | | |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| (A) Negative reinforcement | (C) Positive reinforcement |
| (B) Positive punishment | (D) Negative punishment |

Lời giải chi tiết

A desirable stimulus (extra credit) is *added* following the behaviour, and the behaviour (submitting on time) increases — this is positive reinforcement. **(C)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

A driver fastens their seatbelt specifically to stop the car's irritating warning chime. Explain, using the correct terminology, why this is negative reinforcement and not punishment.

Lời giải chi tiết

Reinforcement (of either type) always **increases** the future frequency of a behaviour, while punishment always decreases it. Here, the behaviour (fastening the seatbelt) becomes *more* likely because it removes ("negative") an unpleasant stimulus (the chime) — this fits the definition of **negative reinforcement** exactly. It is not punishment, because punishment requires that a behaviour become *less* likely; nothing here is being suppressed.

Bài tập luyện tập

A teenager loses their phone privileges for a week after missing curfew, and the teenager subsequently starts coming home on time more often. This consequence is best classified as:

- | | |
|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| (A) Positive reinforcement | (C) Negative reinforcement |
| (B) Negative punishment | (D) Positive punishment |

Lời giải chi tiết

A desirable stimulus (phone privileges) is *removed* following the unwanted behaviour (missing curfew), and that behaviour decreases in future frequency — this is negative punishment. **(B)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

A factory worker is paid a bonus for every 20 units they assemble (a fixed count each time). (a) Name this schedule of reinforcement. (b) Describe and explain the characteristic pattern of responding it produces, including what happens immediately after each bonus is paid.

Lời giải chi tiết

(a) This is a **fixed ratio (FR)** schedule — reinforcement follows a fixed, predictable number of responses (20 units). (b) FR schedules produce a high overall response rate with a distinctive **post-reinforcement pause**: immediately after receiving the bonus, the worker briefly slows down or stops, because they know a brand-new count of 20 is just beginning and no further reinforcement is imminent; the response rate then rises steeply again as the next bonus

approaches.

Bài tập luyện tập

A pigeon is reinforced with food for the first peck it makes after every 60 seconds have elapsed, regardless of how many times it pecks during that minute. Which schedule is this, and what characteristic graph shape would its cumulative response record show?

- (A) Fixed ratio; a steady climbing line with no pauses
(B) Fixed interval; a scalloped pattern of low responding just after reinforcement, accelerating before the next reinforcement
(C) Variable ratio; a smooth, very steep line
(D) Continuous reinforcement; a straight diagonal line

Lời giải chi tiết

Reinforcement is tied to the passage of a fixed amount of *time* (60 seconds), not to a count of responses, so this is a fixed interval (FI) schedule. FI schedules produce the classic “scallop” cumulative-response pattern: very little responding right after reinforcement (since the pigeon “knows” the next reward is far off), accelerating rapidly as the 60-second mark approaches again. (B).

Bài tập luyện tập

Rank the following schedules from *most* to *least* resistant to extinction: continuous reinforcement (CRF), fixed ratio (FR), variable ratio (VR).

Lời giải chi tiết

VR > FR > CRF. Variable ratio schedules are the most resistant to extinction because reinforcement is unpredictable, so a losing/unrewarded streak cannot easily be distinguished from normal variation. Fixed ratio is more resistant than continuous reinforcement (some tolerance for unrewarded responses is already built into the schedule), but less resistant than variable ratio. Continuous reinforcement extinguishes fastest, since every missing reinforcer is immediately noticeable.

Bài tập luyện tập

Money has no biological value in itself, yet it strongly reinforces behaviour (e.g., working for a wage). Explain, using the correct terminology, how money acquires its reinforcing power.

Lời giải chi tiết

Money is a **secondary (conditioned) reinforcer**. It has no inherent reinforcing value, but because it has been consistently and repeatedly **paired** with primary reinforcers (it can be exchanged for food, housing, and other biologically necessary goods), it acquires reinforcing power of its own through a classical-conditioning-like association process, even though it originally reinforces behaviour within an operant conditioning framework (e.g., working harder for higher pay).

Bài tập luyện tập

A psychiatric ward introduces a system in which patients earn plastic chips for completing daily self-care tasks (making their bed, attending group therapy), which can later be exchanged for snacks, magazines, or extra free time. (a) Name this system. (b) Identify the secondary reinforcer and the primary/backup reinforcers. (c) Explain one practical advantage of using chips rather than delivering the backup reinforcers directly and immediately.

Lời giải chi tiết

(a) This is a **token economy**. (b) The **secondary (conditioned) reinforcer** is the plastic chip/token itself. The **primary/backup reinforcers** are the snacks, magazines, and extra free time. (c) Tokens can be delivered **immediately** at the exact moment a desired behaviour occurs, even when the backup reinforcer (e.g., free time later in the day) cannot practically be delivered right away – bridging the delay and strengthening the immediate association between the specific behaviour and reinforcement, which is far more effective than a reward delayed by hours.

Bài tập luyện tập

According to Bandura's social learning theory, place the following mediational processes in their correct order: Motivation, Retention, Attention, Reproduction.

Lời giải chi tiết

Attention → Retention → Reproduction → Motivation. The observer must first notice the model's behaviour (Attention), then store a mental representation of it (Retention), then be physically/cognitively capable of performing it (Reproduction), and finally have a reason to actually perform it (Motivation).

Bài tập luyện tập

A child watches an older sibling get praised and given a cookie for sharing a toy. The next day, the child shares their own toy with a friend for the first time. Which mediational process is most directly illustrated by the sibling being *rewarded*, and what is this specific phenomenon called?

- | | |
|--|---|
| (A) Retention; the child memorised the sharing behaviour | child's motivation to imitate |
| (B) Motivation, via vicarious reinforcement; seeing the model rewarded increases the | (C) Reproduction; the child was physically capable of sharing |
| | (D) Attention; the child noticed the toy |

Lời giải chi tiết

Seeing the model (sibling) receive a reward for the behaviour is **vicarious reinforcement** – it increases the observer's **motivation** to perform the same behaviour, even though the observer was never directly reinforced themselves. (B).

Bài tập luyện tập

A child watches a peer get scolded severely for hitting another child. The child subsequently becomes less likely to hit others, despite never having been scolded themselves. Explain this

outcome using social learning theory terminology.

Lời giải chi tiết

This is an example of **vicarious punishment**: observing a model being punished for a behaviour reduces the observer's own motivation to imitate that behaviour, even without the observer personally experiencing the punishment. It illustrates the **Motivation** mediational process – the child attended to and retained the behaviour and its consequence, and was capable of reproducing hitting, but chose not to because the observed consequence (scolding) lowered their motivation to imitate it.

Bài tập luyện tập

A teenager has watched countless online videos of a skateboarding trick and can describe every step of it in detail, but cannot yet physically perform the trick because they lack the necessary balance and strength. Which of Bandura's mediational processes is the limiting factor here?

(A) Attention

(C) Reproduction

(B) Retention

(D) Motivation

Lời giải chi tiết

The teenager has clearly attended to and retained the behaviour (they can describe it in detail), and appears motivated to try it, but lacks the physical capability to actually perform it – this is a failure of **Reproduction**. (C).

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain Bandura's concept of reciprocal determinism, using an original example (not one already given in this chapter) involving a student's attitude towards mathematics.

Lời giải chi tiết

Reciprocal determinism holds that behaviour, personal/cognitive factors, and the environment continuously influence one another rather than the environment simply acting one-way on the individual. For example: a student who does well on an early mathematics test (behaviour, shaped partly by the classroom environment/teaching) develops the belief that they are “good at maths” (a cognitive/personal factor, related to self-efficacy). This belief then makes the student more likely to volunteer for extra maths activities and put in more effort (behaviour), which in turn changes their environment (e.g., a teacher who now offers them more advanced material) – each of the three elements (environment, cognition, behaviour) continuing to shape the others over time, rather than following a single one-way causal chain.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain why social learning theory is sometimes described as a “bridge” between the behaviourist and cognitive approaches.

Lời giải chi tiết

Like classical and operant conditioning, social learning theory retains the behaviourist emphasis on **learning from the environment** (specifically, from observing others) rather than treating behaviour as purely innate. However, unlike the strict stimulus–response accounts of classical and operant conditioning, SLT explicitly incorporates **internal cognitive (mediational) processes** – attention, retention, reproduction, and motivation – that occur inside the observer’s mind between witnessing a behaviour and (potentially) reproducing it. Because it combines an environmental/behavioural learning mechanism with internal cognitive processing, it is often described as bridging the gap between purely behaviourist and purely cognitive explanations.

Bài tập luyện tập

In Bandura, Ross and Ross’s (1961) study, why were children pre-rated for existing levels of aggressiveness and then matched into the three conditions, rather than simply assigned at random without this step?

Lời giải chi tiết

Pre-rating and matching ensured that each condition (aggressive model, non-aggressive model, control) started with an **equivalent average level of pre-existing aggression**. Without this step, any differences in aggression observed afterwards could potentially be explained by pre-existing individual differences between the children in each group (e.g., if the aggressive-model group happened to contain more naturally aggressive children by chance) rather than by the experimental manipulation itself. Matching therefore increases the internal validity of the experiment, making it more confident to attribute the later differences in aggression specifically to the model each child observed.

Bài tập luyện tập

Outline one strength and one ethical limitation of Bandura, Ross and Ross’s (1961) Bobo doll study.

Lời giải chi tiết

Strength: the study used a well-controlled laboratory procedure with a standardised model, matched groups, and a structured observational checklist, giving it good reliability – the basic finding has since been replicated using different models (e.g., filmed models). **Ethical limitation:** children were deliberately exposed to an aggressive adult model and mildly frustrated in order to provoke aggressive behaviour, with no clear evidence of protection from psychological harm or a full debrief by today’s standards; the study arguably taught some children a new aggressive behaviour that they had not previously displayed, raising concerns about lasting effects on the children involved.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain why the Bobo doll study is sometimes criticised for having low ecological validity, and suggest what this means for how far its findings can be applied to real-world aggression.

Lời giải chi tiết

Ecological validity concerns whether a study's findings generalise beyond the artificial conditions of the study itself. The Bobo doll is an inflatable toy specifically designed to bounce back upright after being struck, which may implicitly invite hitting in a way a real person would not, and the entire scenario (an unfamiliar adult playing with toys in a lab, then a controlled "frustration" episode) is far removed from everyday settings where children might witness real aggression. This means the aggression imitated towards the Bobo doll may not accurately predict how (or whether) children would imitate aggression directed at an actual person, and the study's findings may be strongest as evidence *that* observational learning of aggression is possible, rather than as a precise measure of *how much* real-world aggression children learn this way.

Bài tập luyện tập

In Saavedra and Silverman's (2002) case study, identify the specific classical-conditioning-based technique used to treat the boy's button phobia, and briefly describe how it worked.

Lời giải chi tiết

The core technique was a **graduated exposure hierarchy**, the central mechanism of **systematic desensitisation**: the boy was exposed gradually to increasingly button-related situations, moving up the hierarchy step by step (combined here with additional cognitive-behavioural strategies), rather than being confronted with the most feared stimulus immediately. This gradual approach allowed each new level of exposure to be tolerated (rather than triggering overwhelming fear) before moving to the next, progressively weakening the learned fear association.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain one strength and one limitation of using a case study, rather than a controlled experiment, to investigate button phobia in Saavedra and Silverman (2002).

Lời giải chi tiết

Strength: a case study allowed detailed, in-depth (idiographic) data to be collected from multiple sources — clinical interview, self-report, and behavioural observation — giving richer insight into exactly how the phobia developed and responded to treatment than a brief group experiment could provide. **Limitation:** because the study examined only one child, the findings cannot be confidently **generalised** to other children or other specific phobias, and without a control group it is difficult to rule out that some improvement occurred simply due to the passage of time or the general supportive attention of therapy, rather than the specific technique used.

Bài tập luyện tập

A clinical psychologist is treating an 8-year-old with a severe, specific phobia of dogs that developed after being frightened by a large dog barking at them. Using principles from Saavedra and Silverman (2002) and systematic desensitisation, outline a step-by-step treatment plan, including at least four stages of the exposure hierarchy.

Lời giải chi tiết

Following the same logic as Saavedra and Silverman's treatment: (1) conduct a clinical interview with the child and parents to establish the specific fear, its severity, and any avoidance behaviours; (2) teach the child basic relaxation techniques to use at each stage; (3) construct a graduated hierarchy from least to most feared, for example: (a) looking at photographs of calm dogs, (b) watching a video of a calm, friendly dog, (c) standing in the same room as a small, calm dog on a lead at a distance, (d) approaching and briefly petting the dog with an adult present; (4) work through the hierarchy one step at a time, practising relaxation at each stage and only progressing once the child remains calm; (5) incorporate cognitive-behavioural strategies (e.g., challenging catastrophic thoughts such as "all dogs will hurt me," building coping self-statements); (6) review progress with follow-up sessions to check the improvement is maintained over time, as in the original case study.

Bài tập luyện tập

Identify which of Fagen, Acharya and Kaufman's (2006) training elements functioned as (a) the primary reinforcer and (b) the secondary reinforcer/bridging stimulus, and explain the purpose of the bridging stimulus.

Lời giải chi tiết

(a) The **primary reinforcer** was the food reward given to the elephants. (b) The **secondary reinforcer/bridging stimulus** was the whistle. The whistle's purpose was to mark the *exact* moment the elephant performed the correct approximation of the target behaviour, even when the food reward itself could not be delivered instantly — by consistently pairing the whistle sound with food, the whistle itself became a reliable (secondary) reinforcer, allowing precise, immediate feedback during shaping.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain why Fagen, Acharya and Kaufman's (2006) elephant training is best described as an example of *shaping*, rather than simply reinforcing one single target behaviour directly.

Lời giải chi tiết

Shaping involves reinforcing **successive approximations** of a complex target behaviour, building it up gradually in stages, rather than waiting for the full behaviour to occur spontaneously before ever reinforcing anything. The full trunk-wash procedure is a complex sequence (standing calmly, allowing approach, allowing fluid introduction and withdrawal) that an elephant would be extremely unlikely to perform correctly the first time; instead, trainers reinforced each smaller component behaviour as the elephant approximated it, gradually chaining these approximations together into the complete, cooperative trunk-wash sequence.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain how Fagen, Acharya and Kaufman's (2006) study demonstrates that operant conditioning principles established in laboratory studies with small animals (e.g., Skinner's rats and pigeons) can generalise to a very different species, and state one limitation of drawing this conclusion.

Lời giải chi tiết

The study shows that the same core operant principles used in Skinner's rats and pigeons – shaping, positive reinforcement, and a secondary/bridging reinforcer – successfully produced learned, voluntary cooperative behaviour in elephants, a species enormously different in size, brain structure, social organisation, and natural behaviour from laboratory rodents or birds, supporting the claim that operant conditioning reflects a genuinely general law of learning across species. **Limitation:** the field setting lacked a rigorous control group trained by traditional methods under otherwise identical conditions, so factors such as individual mahout skill or elephant temperament may have partly influenced the outcome, and the conclusion that this specific case generalises to *all* large or complex animals (or reliably to every training context) should be drawn cautiously.

Bài tập luyện tập

A psychology student argues: "The Little Albert study proves that all human phobias are caused by classical conditioning." Evaluate this claim, referring to biological preparedness and/or the case of button phobia in Saavedra and Silverman (2002).

Lời giải chi tiết

This claim overstates what the evidence shows. Little Albert demonstrates that a fear response *can* be created through classical conditioning in at least one case, but it does not prove this is the *only* way phobias are acquired, nor that *all* phobias develop this way – indeed, not every fear-inducing pairing produces a lasting phobia, and some stimuli (e.g., snakes, spiders) appear to be feared far more readily than others (**biological preparedness**), suggesting evolutionary predispositions interact with learning rather than conditioning alone explaining everything. Saavedra and Silverman's (2002) button phobia case shows conditioning-based treatment (graduated exposure) can be effective regardless of the phobia's exact origin, but a single successful treatment case does not by itself establish the original *cause* of every phobia. A more accurate claim would be that classical conditioning is *one* well-supported mechanism by which phobias can be acquired and treated, not the sole explanation for all phobias.

Bài tập luyện tập

Outline two general criticisms of the learning approach as a whole, and for each, briefly state one counter-argument (strength) that could be used to defend the approach.

Lời giải chi tiết

Criticism 1 – environmental determinism: the approach implies behaviour is entirely caused by prior conditioning history, leaving little room for free will or personal choice. **Counter-argument:** this deterministic stance allows precise, testable predictions about behaviour and underlies genuinely effective, evidence-based therapies (e.g., systematic desensitisation), which would be far harder to develop from a purely free-will-based account. **Criticism 2 – reductionism:** classical and operant conditioning reduce complex behaviour to simple stimulus-response associations, largely ignoring internal thought processes. **Counter-argument:** this reductionist simplicity is precisely what makes the approach's principles rigorously testable and falsifiable in controlled experiments, and social learning theory already addresses much of this criticism by incorporating cognitive mediational processes without abandoning the environmental-learning framework.

Bài tập luyện tập

Suggest one reason why the learning approach's emphasis on nurture (over nature) is considered both a strength and a limitation, referring to conditioned taste aversion or biological preparedness in your answer.

Lời giải chi tiết

It is a **strength** because it highlights that much behaviour genuinely can be changed by altering learning experiences, which is the basis of effective behavioural therapies and interventions – a hopeful, practical implication that a purely biological/genetic account would not offer as directly. It is a **limitation** because a pure nurture account struggles to explain why some associations are learned far more easily than others: **conditioned taste aversion** can form after a single pairing even with a delay of several hours, and animals (including humans) appear **biologically prepared** to fear certain evolutionarily relevant stimuli (e.g., snakes) far more readily than neutral objects – patterns that depend on innate, species-typical predispositions rather than on learning history alone.

The Social Approach

Mục tiêu Unit: Ảnh hưởng của người khác (thật, tưởng tượng, hoặc ngụ ý) và bối cảnh xã hội/văn hoá lên hành vi cá nhân; các loại tuân thủ nhóm (compliance, identification, internalisation) và thí nghiệm kinh điển của Asch; hai loại ảnh hưởng xã hội (normative và informational); các giải thích về sự phục tùng mệnh lệnh (agentic state theory, các biến số tình huống mà Milgram thao túng); mô hình nhận thức năm bước về hành vi giúp đỡ người lạ của Latané & Darley cùng hiện tượng khuếch tán trách nhiệm (diffusion of responsibility) và ngộ nhận tập thể (pluralistic ignorance); lý thuyết bản sắc xã hội của Tajfel; ảnh hưởng của văn hoá cá nhân chủ nghĩa/tập thể chủ nghĩa; ba nghiên cứu cốt lõi: Milgram (1963) về sự phục tùng, Piliavin, Rodin & Piliavin (1969) về hành vi giúp đỡ trên tàu điện ngầm, và Yamamoto, Humle & Tanaka (2009) về hợp tác ở tinh tinh; các vấn đề đánh giá chung của cách tiếp cận xã hội (giá trị sinh thái, đạo đức nghiên cứu, giản lược luận, ứng dụng thực tế).

5.1 Assumptions of the Social Approach

The **social approach** in psychology assumes that human behaviour is shaped substantially by the **actual, imagined, or implied presence of other people**. A person does not need another human being physically standing next to them to be socially influenced — merely imagining how others might judge an action (imagined presence), or acting in line with a role or written rule set by a wider institution (implied presence), is often enough to change behaviour. This approach studies phenomena such as **conformity** (adjusting behaviour/opinions to match a group), **obedience** (complying with the instructions of an authority figure), the adoption of **social roles**, and the effect of the wider **social and cultural context** on the individual.

A second core assumption is that some social behaviours — particularly **cooperation, helping, and altruism** — are not unique to humans and can be studied comparatively across species to uncover their evolutionary basis. If closely related species (such as chimpanzees) show organised, targeted cooperative behaviour, this supports the idea that human prosocial behaviour has deep evolutionary roots rather than being purely a product of human culture or language.

Core assumptions of the social approach

- Behaviour is influenced by the actual, imagined, or implied presence of others.
- Individuals conform to group norms and obey legitimate authority figures, often even against their private judgement.
- Social roles and the wider social/cultural context shape how people behave.
- Prosocial behaviours such as cooperation and helping can be studied across species to understand their evolutionary origins.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Cách tiếp cận xã hội cho rằng hành vi con người bị ảnh hưởng mạnh mẽ bởi sự hiện diện **thật, tưởng tượng, hoặc ngụ ý** của người khác — không nhất thiết phải có ai đó đứng ngay bên cạnh. Cách tiếp cận này nghiên cứu các hiện tượng như **tuân thủ nhóm (conformity)**, **phục tùng (obedience)**, việc đảm nhận **vai trò xã hội (social roles)**, và ảnh hưởng của **bối cảnh văn**

hoá – xã hội rộng hơn. Ngoài ra, cách tiếp cận này còn giả định rằng một số hành vi xã hội như **hợp tác** và **vị tha** có thể được nghiên cứu ở nhiều loài khác nhau (không chỉ con người) để tìm hiểu nguồn gốc tiến hoá của chúng.

5.2 Conformity: Types and the Asch Paradigm

5.2.1 Three types of conformity

Conformity is a change in behaviour or opinion as a result of real or perceived group pressure. Psychologists distinguish three types of conformity that differ in depth and permanence.

Compliance, identification, and internalisation

- **Compliance:** the shallowest form – a person publicly agrees with the group but privately continues to disagree. The change in behaviour lasts only while the group is present/monitoring, and reverts once the group's influence is removed.
- **Identification:** a person conforms because they value belonging to a particular group or wish to be associated with it (e.g., adopting the norms of a new job, team, or social circle) – the change is genuine while the person identifies with the group, but is not necessarily a deeply held personal belief and may not survive leaving the group.
- **Internalisation:** the deepest and most permanent type – the person genuinely accepts the group's belief or behaviour both publicly *and* privately, and the change persists even in the group's absence, because it has become part of the individual's own value system.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Có ba loại tuân thủ nhóm, từ nông đến sâu: **Compliance (tuân thủ bề mặt)** – đồng ý công khai nhưng trong lòng vẫn không đồng ý, thay đổi chỉ tồn tại khi có nhóm giám sát. **Identification (đồng nhất hoá)** – tuân theo vì muốn được là một phần của nhóm (ví dụ nhân viên mới bắt chước đồng nghiệp), thay đổi có thật nhưng gắn liền với việc còn thuộc về nhóm đó. **Internalisation (nội tâm hoá)** – chấp nhận thật sự cả công khai lẫn riêng tư, thay đổi trở thành một phần giá trị cá nhân và tồn tại lâu dài, kể cả khi không còn nhóm giám sát.

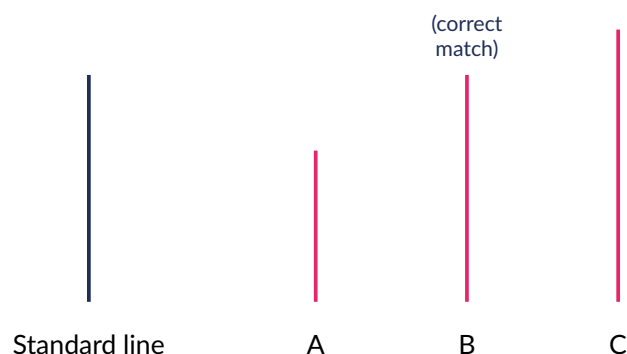
Type	Public behaviour	be-	Private belief	Permanence	Typical example
Compliance	Changes		Unchanged	Temporary (needs surveillance)	Agreeing aloud with a group's wrong answer, then privately disagreeing
Identification	Changes		Partially changes	Lasts while group membership lasts	Adopting a new team's dress code and habits
Internalisation	Changes		Changes	Permanent (independent of the group)	Genuinely adopting a cause after joining an activist group

5.2.2 The Asch (1951) line-judgement paradigm

Solomon Asch designed a controlled laboratory paradigm to measure conformity to an obviously incorrect majority. A genuinely naive participant was seated in a group with several confederates (who appeared to be fellow participants but were secretly working for the experimenter). The group was shown a **standard line** and three **comparison lines** (A, B, and C) of clearly different lengths, and each member of the group announced aloud which comparison line matched the length of the

standard line. The task was designed to be unambiguous — when tested alone, participants almost never made an error.

On certain **critical trials**, all of the confederates unanimously gave the same obviously wrong answer before the genuine participant responded. Asch found that, averaged across all critical trials, participants conformed to the incorrect majority on a substantial minority of trials, and a majority of participants conformed to the wrong answer at least once across the full set of critical trials; a minority of participants never conformed at all. Post-experiment interviews revealed that most conforming participants privately knew the correct answer but went along with the group to avoid standing out or appearing different (rather than being genuinely misled about the length of the lines).



A typical Asch (1951) trial: participants judged which of comparison lines A, B, or C matched the length of the standard line (here, line B is the objectively correct answer). Confederates unanimously announcing an obviously wrong comparison line created pressure on the one genuine participant to conform.

Asch also ran variations of the basic procedure. When just **one** confederate broke from the unanimous majority and gave the correct answer (or even a different wrong answer), conformity dropped sharply — the presence of a single dissenter appeared to free the genuine participant from the pressure of a unanimous majority, even though the majority was still much larger than the dissenting minority. This showed that it is the **unanimity** of the majority, more than its absolute size, that drives conformity.

Ví dụ mẫu · Asch (1951): aim, procedure, findings, conclusion

Aim: to investigate the extent to which individuals would conform to an obviously incorrect unanimous majority on an unambiguous perceptual judgement task.

Procedure: naive participants were placed in groups with confederate "participants" and asked to judge, aloud and in turn, which of three comparison lines matched a standard line. Confederates unanimously gave an incorrect answer on selected critical trials, with the genuine participant answering near the end of the group so as to hear the majority's (wrong) answer first.

Findings: a substantial proportion of responses on critical trials conformed to the incorrect majority; most participants conformed at least once, though a minority never conformed; conformity fell sharply when the unanimity of the majority was broken by a single dissenting confederate.

Conclusion: people will conform to an obviously incorrect group judgement even on a simple, unambiguous perceptual task, largely to avoid the discomfort of disagreeing with a unanimous group (normative pressure) rather than because they were genuinely misled about the correct answer.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Thí nghiệm Asch cho những người tham gia thật ngồi cùng nhóm với các "diễn viên" (confed-

erates) do nhà nghiên cứu bố trí. Cả nhóm phải chọn xem đường thẳng nào (A, B, hay C) có độ dài bằng với đường chuẩn – một nhiệm vụ rất dễ và rõ ràng. Ở một số lượt “quan trọng” (critical trials), toàn bộ diễn viên đồng loạt chọn đáp án sai trước khi người tham gia thật trả lời. Kết quả: nhiều người tham gia đã tuân theo đáp án sai của nhóm dù bản thân biết rõ đáp án đúng – chủ yếu vì **không muốn nổi bật hoặc bị nhóm phản đối**. Khi chỉ cần một diễn viên “phá vỡ sự đồng thuận” và đưa ra câu trả lời khác với đa số, mức độ tuân thủ giảm mạnh – cho thấy chính **sự đồng thuận tuyệt đối (unanimity)** của nhóm, chứ không chỉ số lượng người, mới là yếu tố tạo áp lực tuân thủ.

5.2.3 Normative and informational social influence

Two distinct psychological processes explain why people conform.

Normative vs informational social influence

- **Normative social influence (NSI):** conforming out of a desire for social approval and to avoid rejection, ridicule, or looking different from the group – even when the person privately knows the group is wrong. This is the dominant explanation for conformity in Asch’s line-judgement task, where the task itself was unambiguous.
- **Informational social influence (ISI):** conforming out of a genuine desire to be correct, particularly in **ambiguous** or uncertain situations where the right answer is not obvious. Here, other people’s behaviour is used as a source of information about reality, not merely as a source of social approval.

Type	Underlying motive	Typical example
Normative social influence (NSI)	Desire for social approval; fear of rejection or standing out	Conforming to a unanimous but obviously wrong group answer in Asch’s line task, despite privately knowing the correct answer
Informational social influence (ISI)	Desire to be correct, especially under ambiguity or uncertainty	Looking to other bystanders’ reactions to judge whether an unclear event is really an emergency (linked to pluralistic ignorance, Section 5.4)

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Ảnh hưởng xã hội chuẩn mực (Normative social influence – NSI): tuân theo vì muốn được nhóm chấp nhận, sợ bị từ chối hay trở nên khác biệt – dù bản thân biết nhóm sai (đây là cơ chế chính trong thí nghiệm Asch, vì nhiệm vụ đo độ dài đường thẳng vốn không hề mơ hồ).
Ảnh hưởng xã hội thông tin (Informational social influence – ISI): tuân theo vì thật sự muốn có câu trả lời đúng, đặc biệt trong tình huống **mơ hồ**, không chắc chắn – khi đó hành vi của người khác được dùng như một nguồn thông tin đáng tin cậy về thực tế, chứ không chỉ để “làm hài lòng” nhóm.

(!) Lỗi thường gặp: Đừng nhầm lẫn NSI và ISI khi trả lời câu hỏi ứng dụng. Câu hỏi mẫu chốt cần tự hỏi: “Nhiệm vụ/ tình huống này có **rõ ràng** hay **mơ hồ**?” Nếu nhiệm vụ rõ ràng (như đo độ dài đường thẳng ở Asch) mà người ta vẫn tuân theo đáp án sai của nhóm ⇒ đó là **NSI** (muốn được chấp nhận). Nếu tình huống thật sự không rõ ràng (ví dụ đám khói mơ hồ có phải là hoả hoạn không) và người ta nhìn người khác để quyết định phải làm gì ⇒ đó là **ISI** (muốn biết sự thật).

Ví dụ mẫu · Distinguishing NSI and ISI in a jury-room scenario

A juror privately believes the defendant is not guilty, based on the evidence presented. During deliberation, eleven other jurors all vote "guilty." (a) If the juror changes her vote to "guilty" purely because she does not want to be the lone holdout facing social pressure from the rest of the jury, which process is operating? (b) If, instead, she genuinely reconsiders the evidence because the other eleven jurors each raise a point she had not previously considered, and she updates her belief because she now doubts her own reading of the evidence, which process is operating?

(a) This is **normative social influence (NSI)**: her private belief about the evidence has not necessarily changed, but she conforms publicly to avoid the discomfort of being the sole dissenting voice. (b) This is **informational social influence (ISI)**: the evidence itself is genuinely open to interpretation (ambiguous), and she treats the other jurors' independent reasoning as new, credible information, leading her to revise her private belief as well as her public vote. This example shows that the same surface behaviour (changing one's vote) can be produced by two quite different underlying processes, distinguishable by whether the situation was ambiguous and whether the private belief also changed.

5.3 Explanations of Obedience

5.3.1 Agentic state theory

Milgram proposed that obedience to a legitimate authority figure can be explained by a shift in the way a person perceives their own responsibility for their actions.

Agentic state theory

- **Autonomous state**: a person sees themselves as responsible for their own actions and behaves according to their own conscience and personal values.
- **Agentic state**: a person comes to see themselves as an **agent** carrying out the wishes of another person (typically a perceived legitimate authority figure), rather than as an autonomous individual. In this state, the person feels little personal responsibility for the outcome of their actions, because they attribute responsibility to the authority figure who gave the instruction.
- **Agentic shift**: the transition from the autonomous state to the agentic state. This shift is most likely to occur when the other person is perceived as a **legitimate authority** – someone occupying a recognised position within a trusted social hierarchy or institution (e.g., a scientist, a police officer, a military commander).
- **Binding factors**: features of a situation that keep a person locked in the agentic state once the shift has occurred, such as the awkwardness of withdrawing partway through, politeness norms, and the gradual, step-by-step nature of the demands (each new demand is only slightly more extreme than the last one already complied with).

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Lý thuyết trạng thái tác nhân (agentic state theory) của Milgram giải thích sự phục tùng bằng sự chuyển đổi trạng thái tâm lý: từ **trạng thái tự chủ (autonomous state)** – nơi con người tự chịu trách nhiệm cho hành động của mình theo lương tâm cá nhân – sang **trạng thái tác nhân (agentic state)** – nơi con người tự xem mình chỉ là "công cụ" thực hiện ý muốn của người khác (thường là một nhân vật quyền lực chính đáng – **legitimate authority**), và vì vậy cảm thấy bản thân ít phải chịu trách nhiệm về hậu quả hành động đó. Sự chuyển đổi này gọi là **agentic shift**.

Một khi đã ở trong trạng thái tác nhân, các **yếu tố ràng buộc (binding factors)** — như sự khó xử khi muốn rút lui, phép lịch sự, hoặc việc yêu cầu tăng dần từng chút một — khiến người đó khó thoát ra khỏi trạng thái này.

5.3.2 Situational variables affecting obedience

Milgram carried out a large series of variations on his original procedure (Section 5.3.3), systematically changing one situational feature at a time to see how it affected the obedience rate.

Variable varied	Manipulation	Effect on obedience
Proximity of victim	The learner was placed in the same room as the teacher, or the teacher was required to physically force the learner's hand onto a shock plate	Decreased
Proximity of authority	The experimenter left the room and gave instructions by telephone rather than in person	Decreased
Legitimacy / prestige of location	The study was relocated from prestigious Yale University to a run-down commercial office building	Decreased
Presence of disobedient peers	The teacher was joined by two confederate co-teachers who refused to continue partway through	Decreased sharply

Increasing the physical or psychological **proximity of the victim** makes the consequences of obedience harder to ignore or deny, and appears to disrupt the agentic state by forcing the participant to confront personal responsibility directly. Reducing the **proximity or perceived legitimacy of the authority figure** (by phone instructions, or a less prestigious institutional setting) weakens the authority's perceived legitimacy and so reduces the likelihood of an agentic shift. Seeing **disobedient peers** model resistance provides a participant with visible proof that disobedience is possible and socially acceptable, sharply undermining obedience — this finding parallels the effect of a single dissenter in Asch's conformity paradigm.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Milgram thực hiện nhiều biến thể của thí nghiệm gốc để xem yếu tố tình huống nào ảnh hưởng đến mức độ phục tùng. Khi **nạn nhân ở gần hơn** (cùng phòng, hoặc phải trực tiếp ấn tay nạn nhân lên tấm sốc điện) — mức phục tùng **giảm**, vì hậu quả hành động trở nên khó phủ nhận, khó duy trì trạng thái tác nhân. Khi **người có thẩm quyền ở xa hơn** (ra lệnh qua điện thoại) hoặc **địa điểm kém uy tín hơn** (chuyển từ Đại học Yale sang một văn phòng bình thường) — mức phục tùng cũng **giảm**, vì tính chính đáng (legitimacy) của thẩm quyền bị suy yếu. Khi có **đồng nghiệp không phục tùng làm mẫu** — mức phục tùng **giảm mạnh**, vì người tham gia thấy rõ việc từ chối là khả thi và được chấp nhận.

5.3.3 Core study: obedience to authority — Milgram (1963)

Ví dụ mẫu · Milgram (1963): full study details

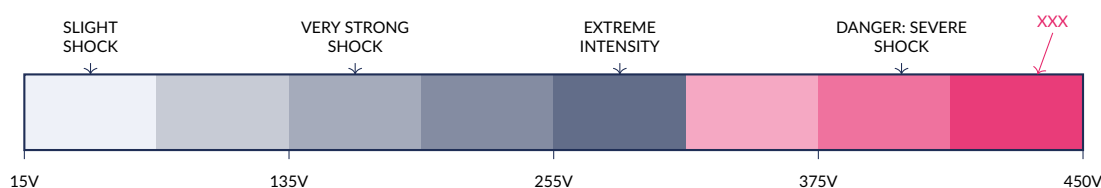
Aim: to investigate the extent to which ordinary people would obey the instructions of a legitimate authority figure, even when this involved apparently causing serious harm to an innocent person.

Procedure: 40 male volunteers (aged 20–50, from a range of occupations) were recruited via a newspaper advertisement and paid a small fee to take part in what they were told was a

study of memory and learning at Yale University. A rigged drawing of lots always assigned the genuine participant the role of "teacher" and a confederate ("Mr Wallace") the role of "learner." The learner was strapped into a chair in an adjoining room and the teacher was instructed to administer an electric shock each time the learner made an error on a word-pair recall task, using a shock generator with 30 switches labelled from 15V ("Slight Shock") up to 450V, with verbal category labels culminating in "Danger: Severe Shock" and, at the final two switches, simply "XXX." Shock level increased by 15V after every error. The learner's responses were pre-recorded, including grunts of pain, a demand to stop, and audible banging on the wall around 300V, followed by ominous silence at higher voltages. The experimenter, wearing a grey lab coat, remained in the room with the teacher and delivered standardised verbal prods if the teacher hesitated or asked to stop (e.g., "Please continue," "The experiment requires that you continue," "It is absolutely essential that you continue," "You have no other choice, you must go on").

Findings: 65% of participants (26 of 40) continued to administer shocks all the way to the maximum 450V; all participants continued to at least 300V. Many participants showed visible signs of extreme tension and distress – sweating, trembling, stuttering, nervous laughter – yet the majority nonetheless continued when prompted by the experimenter.

Conclusion: ordinary people will obey the instructions of a legitimate authority figure to the point of apparently causing serious harm to another person, when certain situational features are present (a gradual, incremental commitment; a legitimate authority figure physically present; and diffused personal responsibility onto that authority figure).



Milgram's (1963) shock generator: 30 switches from 15V ("Slight Shock") to 450V, labelled in eight verbal categories culminating in "Danger: Severe Shock" and, at the final two switches, simply "XXX".

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Milgram tuyển 40 nam giới tình nguyện tham gia một nghiên cứu được giới thiệu là về "trí nhớ và học tập" tại Đại học Yale. Người tham gia thật luôn bị sắp xếp (một cách gian lận) vào vai "giáo viên", còn một diễn viên đóng vai "học sinh". Mỗi khi học sinh trả lời sai, giáo viên phải bấm nút sốc điện với cường độ tăng dần từ 15V đến 450V, có nhãn bằng lời từ "Sốc nhẹ" đến "Nguy hiểm: Sốc nặng" và cuối cùng chỉ ghi "XXX". Nhà thực nghiệm mặc áo choàng xám, luôn ở trong phòng và đưa ra các câu nhắc chuẩn hoá mỗi khi người tham gia do dự. Kết quả: **65%** người tham gia sốc điện đến mức tối đa 450V, và **100%** đã sốc đến ít nhất 300V – dù nhiều người biểu hiện căng thẳng rõ rệt (đổ mồ hôi, run rẩy, cười lo lắng). Kết luận: con người bình thường sẵn sàng phục tùng một thẩm quyền chính đáng đến mức gây hại nghiêm trọng cho người khác, khi có đủ các yếu tố tình huống thích hợp.

Evaluating Milgram (1963)

- **Strength – control and replicability:** the highly standardised procedure (fixed script, fixed verbal prods, fixed voltage increments) allowed the study to be repeated with different samples and in different countries, generally finding broadly similar patterns of high obedience – supporting the reliability of the phenomenon.

- **Weakness — ecological validity:** the artificial laboratory setting and the unusual, unfamiliar task of administering electric shocks to a stranger may not generalise well to obedience in everyday life (e.g., obeying a workplace manager or military order).
- **Weakness — ethics:** participants were deceived about the true purpose of the study and the reality of the shocks; their right to withdraw was compromised by the experimenter's insistent verbal prods; and many participants experienced considerable psychological distress during the procedure (protection from harm). Milgram did fully debrief participants afterwards, and in a later survey the large majority reported being glad to have taken part and did not regret their involvement — but this does not remove the ethical concerns raised at the time of testing.
- **Sample bias:** the sample consisted entirely of male volunteers who self-selected to respond to a newspaper advertisement, limiting generalisability to women and to non-volunteers.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

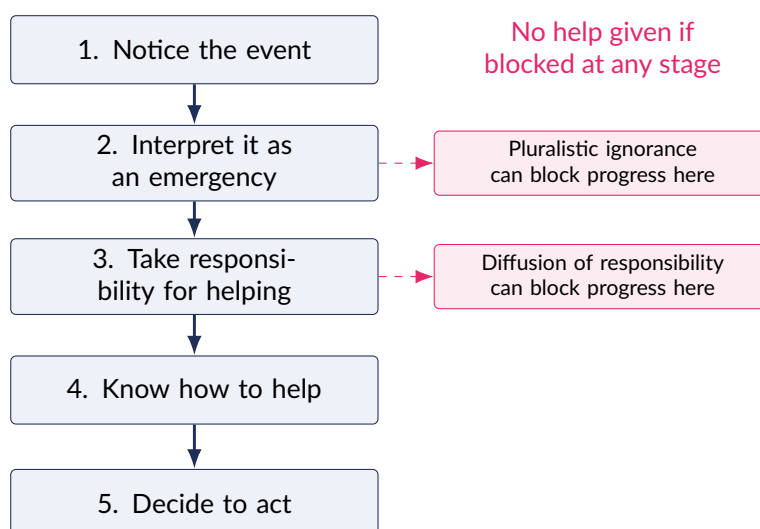
VN

Ưu điểm: quy trình được chuẩn hoá chặt chẽ (kịch bản, câu nhắc, mức tăng điện áp cố định) giúp nghiên cứu có thể lặp lại được ở nhiều mẫu và nhiều quốc gia khác nhau, cho kết quả tương đối nhất quán. **Hạn chế về giá trị sinh thái:** bối cảnh phòng thí nghiệm và nhiệm vụ "sốc điện người lạ" khá xa lạ với đời sống thực, khó khái quát sang tình huống phức tạp hàng ngày. **Vấn đề đạo đức:** người tham gia bị lừa dối về mục đích thật, quyền rút lui bị hạn chế bởi các câu nhắc liên tục của nhà thực nghiệm, và nhiều người trải qua căng thẳng tâm lý đáng kể trong lúc làm thí nghiệm — dù sau đó Milgram đã giải thích đầy đủ (debrief) và đa số người tham gia sau này nói họ không hối hận. **Thiên lệch mẫu:** chỉ toàn nam giới tự nguyện đăng ký qua báo, khó khái quát cho nữ giới hay người không tự nguyện tham gia.

5.4 Explanations of Bystander Behaviour

5.4.1 Latané and Darley's cognitive model of bystander intervention

Latané and Darley (1970) proposed that whether a bystander helps in an emergency depends on a sequence of cognitive decisions, and that failing to help can result from a block at *any* one of five necessary stages.



Latané and Darley's (1970) cognitive model of bystander intervention: a bystander must pass through all five stages for help to occur. Pluralistic ignorance can block progress at Stage 2 (interpreting the event); diffusion of responsibility can block progress at Stage 3 (taking responsibility).

The five stages and their barriers

- **Stage 1 – Notice the event:** a bystander who is distracted, hurried, or simply not paying attention may fail to notice the event at all, and so cannot help.
- **Stage 2 – Interpret it as an emergency:** an ambiguous situation (is that person collapsed, or just resting?) may be misread as a non-emergency. **Pluralistic ignorance** occurs here: each bystander looks to the reactions of other bystanders for cues about how to interpret the situation (informational social influence); if everyone appears calm because everyone else is also outwardly calm, each individual concludes – incorrectly – that the situation must not be an emergency, even though privately they may all feel uncertain or concerned.
- **Stage 3 – Take responsibility for helping:** the bystander must decide that it is *their* job to act. **Diffusion of responsibility** occurs here: as the number of other bystanders present increases, each individual bystander feels less personal responsibility to act, believing that someone else will (or already has) intervened – so the more bystanders present, the less likely any single one is to help.
- **Stage 4 – Know how to help:** even a bystander who wants to help may lack the relevant knowledge or skill (e.g., not knowing first aid) and so fail to act, or delay while searching for someone more capable.
- **Stage 5 – Decide to act:** finally, the bystander must overcome any remaining costs of acting – such as fear of embarrassment, fear of legal consequences, or fear that their intervention is unnecessary or will be judged as incompetent – before actually implementing their decision to help.

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Mô hình của Latané & Darley (1970) cho rằng một người chỉ giúp đỡ khi vượt qua đủ 5 bước: (1) **nhận ra** sự việc đang xảy ra, (2) **diễn giải** đó là một tình huống khẩn cấp, (3) **nhận trách nhiệm** phải hành động, (4) **biết cách** giúp đỡ, và (5) **quyết định hành động**. Chỉ cần bị "chặn" ở bất kỳ bước nào, người đó sẽ không giúp đỡ. Hai rào cản quan trọng nhất: **Ngộ nhận tập thể (pluralistic ignorance)** chặn ở bước 2 – mỗi người nhìn phản ứng (vẻ bình thản) của người khác để đoán tình huống, và vì ai cũng tỏ ra bình thản nên ai cũng kết luận sai rằng "chắc không có gì nghiêm trọng". **Khuếch tán trách nhiệm (diffusion of responsibility)** chặn ở bước 3 – càng nhiều người có mặt, mỗi cá nhân càng cảm thấy ít trách nhiệm phải hành động vì nghĩ "chắc người khác sẽ giúp".

(!) Lỗi thường gặp: Học sinh thường nhầm lẫn hai khái niệm này. **Ngộ nhận tập thể (pluralistic ignorance)** xảy ra ở bước *diễn giải* – vấn đề là "tôi không chắc đây có phải là tình huống khẩn cấp hay không, nên tôi nhìn người khác để biết". **Khuếch tán trách nhiệm (diffusion of responsibility)** xảy ra ở bước *nhận trách nhiệm* – vấn đề không còn là "có khẩn cấp hay không" (đã biết là có) mà là "ai sẽ là người hành động". Hai khái niệm xảy ra ở hai giai đoạn khác nhau của mô hình.

5.4.2 Core study: bystander helping – Piliavin, Rodin & Piliavin (1969)

Ví dụ mẫu · Piliavin, Rodin & Piliavin (1969): full study details

Aim: to investigate, in a real-life field setting, which factors affect whether and how quickly bystanders help a person in apparent need, and to test whether a cost-reward analysis explains helping better than diffusion of responsibility alone.

Procedure: a field experiment was staged on the New York City subway, on a section of line where the train ran non-stop for about 7.5 minutes between stations (so bystanders could not simply leave the scene). A confederate "victim" collapsed in the aisle of the subway car approximately 70 seconds after departure and remained on the floor until helped. The victim's presentation was manipulated to appear either **ill** (carrying a black cane) or **drunk** (smelling of alcohol and carrying a liquor bottle in a bag); the victim's race was also varied. In some trials, a confederate "model helper" was programmed to assist after a set delay if no genuine bystander had already done so. Observers recorded whether bystanders helped, how quickly, and how many bystanders were present.

Findings: the "ill" (cane) victim received spontaneous help from genuine bystanders considerably more often and more quickly than the "drunk" victim. Bystanders were somewhat more likely to help a victim of the same race as themselves, an effect that was more evident in the drunk condition. Critically, the likelihood and speed of helping did **not** decrease as the number of bystanders present increased – contrary to the classic diffusion-of-responsibility pattern found in earlier laboratory studies of bystander behaviour.

Conclusion: in this naturalistic, inescapable emergency, bystanders appeared to weigh the **costs and rewards** of helping versus not helping (a cost-reward/arousal model) rather than simply diffusing responsibility among those present; the absence of a group-size effect suggests that diffusion of responsibility, while important in some settings, does not fully account for real-world bystander helping.

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Piliavin và cộng sự bố trí một thí nghiệm hiện trường (field experiment) trên tàu điện ngầm New York: một diễn viên giả vờ ngã quỵ giữa lối đi trên toa tàu, xuất hiện dưới dạng "người bệnh" (cầm gậy đen) hoặc "người say rượu" (có mùi rượu, cầm chai rượu). Kết quả: nạn nhân "bệnh" được giúp đỡ nhiều hơn và nhanh hơn nạn nhân "say rượu"; người cùng chủng tộc với nạn nhân có xu hướng giúp đỡ nhiều hơn một chút. Đặc biệt, số lượng người có mặt trên toa tàu **không** làm giảm khả năng hay tốc độ giúp đỡ – trái ngược với hiện tượng khuếch tán trách nhiệm thường thấy trong các thí nghiệm phòng lab trước đó. Kết luận: trong một tình huống khẩn cấp thật, không thể thoát ra (tàu đang chạy), người ta có xu hướng cân nhắc **chi phí – lợi ích (cost-reward)** của việc giúp hay không giúp, hơn là chỉ đơn giản "đùn đẩy trách nhiệm" cho người khác.

Evaluating Piliavin, Rodin & Piliavin (1969)

- **Strength – ecological validity:** the study took place in a genuine subway setting with unaware bystanders responding to a realistic-seeming emergency, giving the findings strong ecological validity for real-world helping behaviour.
- **Strength – large sample:** data were collected across many trials involving large numbers of naturally occurring bystanders, increasing confidence that the findings generalise within this setting.
- **Weakness – ethics:** bystanders could not give informed consent, were deceived about the reality of the emergency, and could not be individually debriefed – raising concerns about the right to be informed and potential psychological distress caused by witnessing an apparent collapse.
- **Weakness – reduced experimental control:** as a field experiment, extraneous variables (time of day, crowding, prior passenger mood) could not be controlled as tightly as in a

laboratory study, although the manipulated variables (victim type, race) were still systematically varied, supporting some causal interpretation.

- **Limited generalisability of the "no diffusion" finding:** the enclosed, escape-proof subway car (bystanders were trapped with the victim for the duration of the journey) may have kept the psychological cost of not helping high regardless of group size — this specific setting may not generalise to open settings where bystanders can easily disperse or avoid involvement.

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Ưu điểm: bối cảnh tàu điện ngầm thật, người xung quanh không biết mình đang tham gia thí nghiệm, giúp giá trị sinh thái rất cao. **Hạn chế:** không thể xin sự đồng ý của người tham gia (informed consent), không thể giải thích lại (debrief) từng người sau đó, và việc chứng kiến một người "ngã quỵ" có thể gây khó chịu tâm lý thật sự cho người xung quanh. Là thí nghiệm hiện trường nên khó kiểm soát chặt các biến gây nhiễu như giờ giấc, độ đông đúc toa tàu. Ngoài ra, việc "không có hiệu ứng khuếch tán trách nhiệm" có thể chỉ đúng trong bối cảnh đặc biệt này (toa tàu kín, không thể rời đi), nên khó khái quát hoá sang mọi tình huống khẩn cấp khác.

5.5 Cooperation, Social Identity, and Prosocial Behaviour

5.5.1 Social identity theory (Tajfel)

Tajfel's **social identity theory** explains how belonging to social groups shapes both self-concept and behaviour towards others, including cooperation and helping.

Social identity theory: categorisation, identification, comparison

- **Social categorisation:** people automatically sort themselves and others into an **in-group** (groups they belong to) and various **out-groups** (groups they do not belong to), often on the basis of quite minimal or arbitrary criteria.
- **Social identification:** people adopt the identity of the group(s) they have categorised themselves into, and part of their self-esteem becomes tied to their membership of that group.
- **Social comparison:** to maintain or boost self-esteem, people compare their in-group favourably against relevant out-groups, which tends to produce **in-group favouritism** (favouring and helping in-group members preferentially) and sometimes **out-group derogation** (viewing out-group members less favourably).

Social identity processes are relevant to the cooperative and helping behaviours studied in this unit: humans (and, arguably, other social species) tend to cooperate and share resources more readily with familiar in-group members than with strangers or out-group members, which links directly to the partnered, familiar-pair design used in the Yamamoto et al. chimpanzee study below.

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Lý thuyết bản sắc xã hội (social identity theory) của Tajfel giải thích cách con người phân loại bản thân và người khác thành **nhóm trong (in-group)** và **nhóm ngoài (out-group)**, rồi **đồng nhất hoá** bản thân với nhóm mình thuộc về (lòng tự trọng gắn liền với việc là thành viên nhóm đó), và cuối cùng **so sánh xã hội** — thường thiên vị nhóm trong của mình để cảm thấy tốt đẹp hơn (**in-group favouritism**). Quá trình này giải thích vì sao con người (và có thể cả một số loài linh trưởng) thường hợp tác và giúp đỡ những cá thể quen thuộc trong nhóm nhiều hơn là người lạ/nhóm ngoài — liên hệ trực tiếp đến việc nghiên cứu Yamamoto và cộng sự dùng các cặp tinh tinh đã quen biết nhau.

5.5.2 Core study: prosocial behaviour in chimpanzees – Yamamoto, Humle & Tanaka (2009)

Ví dụ mẫu · Yamamoto, Humle & Tanaka (2009): full study details

Aim: to investigate whether chimpanzees engage in targeted, voluntary helping behaviour that is sensitive to a partner's specific needs, as a window onto the evolutionary origins of human cooperation.

Procedure: captive chimpanzee pairs at a primate research institute were separated by a mesh partition with a small hole. One chimpanzee (the "collector") was given a task that required a specific tool to obtain a food/juice reward, but the correct tool was out of the collector's reach; instead, it was available only to the partner chimpanzee (the "donor"), who could pass a tool through the hole. Trials manipulated (a) whether the collector explicitly **requested** help (through reaching/begging gestures toward the mesh) or made no such request, and (b) which tool – the functionally correct one, or an irrelevant one – was available to be passed.

Findings: donor chimpanzees helped far more often, and selected the functionally correct tool far more accurately, when the collector explicitly requested help than when no request was made; donors very rarely handed over a tool spontaneously in the complete absence of a request, but when they did act on a request they reliably tended to select the tool that matched the collector's specific task.

Conclusion: chimpanzees are capable of targeted helping that takes into account what a partner specifically needs, but this helping is prompted and facilitated by an explicit request rather than occurring automatically or indiscriminately – suggesting that this form of voluntary, need-sensitive cooperation may represent an evolutionary precursor to more elaborate human co-operative behaviour.

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Yamamoto và cộng sự tách các cặp tinh tinh nuôi nhốt bằng một tấm lưới có lỗ nhỏ. Một con ("người thu thập") cần một dụng cụ cụ thể để lấy được phần thưởng, nhưng dụng cụ đó chỉ con còn lại ("người cho") mới lấy được và có thể đưa qua lỗ lưới. Kết quả: con "cho" giúp đỡ nhiều hơn hẳn – và chọn đúng dụng cụ phù hợp với nhiệm vụ nhiều hơn hẳn – khi con "thu thập" chủ động **yêu cầu giúp đỡ** (bằng cử chỉ với tay/vẫy gọi) so với khi không có yêu cầu nào. Điều này cho thấy hành vi giúp đỡ ở tinh tinh có **tính chọn lọc, có chủ đích** (biết chọn đúng công cụ cần thiết) chứ không phải là phản xạ tự động – và được xem là một dấu vết tiến hoá của khả năng hợp tác phức tạp hơn ở loài người.

Evaluating Yamamoto, Humle & Tanaka (2009)

- **Strength – experimental control:** the manipulation of request vs. no-request, and correct vs. incorrect tool availability, allows fairly strong causal conclusions about what triggers and shapes helping behaviour.
- **Strength – comparative/evolutionary value:** the study contributes directly to understanding the evolutionary continuity of cooperative behaviour between humans and other great apes.
- **Weakness – low ecological validity:** the artificial captive setting (mesh partition, contrived tool tasks) is very different from the social and physical environment chimpanzees experience in the wild, so findings may not generalise to wild chimpanzee cooperation.
- **Weakness – small, captive sample:** a small number of captive chimpanzee pairs, likely already familiar with each other and with testing procedures, limits generalisability to wild populations or unfamiliar pairs.

- **Weakness — risk of anthropomorphism:** describing chimpanzee behaviour with human terms such as "voluntary" or "helping" risks over-interpreting behaviour that might, at least partly, reflect simpler learned associations rather than a rich prosocial motivation comparable to that of humans.

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Ưu điểm: thiết kế thực nghiệm có kiểm soát chặt (có/không có yêu cầu, dụng cụ đúng/sai) cho phép kết luận khá chắc chắn về nguyên nhân của hành vi giúp đỡ; đóng góp quan trọng cho hiểu biết về nguồn gốc tiến hoá của hợp tác. **Hạn chế:** bối cảnh nuôi nhốt nhân tạo (tầm lưới, nhiệm vụ dùng công cụ) rất khác với môi trường sống tự nhiên của tinh tinh nên khó khái quát cho tinh tinh hoang dã; mẫu nhỏ, các cặp tinh tinh đã quen thuộc với nhau và với quy trình thí nghiệm; và có nguy cơ **nhân cách hoá (anthropomorphism)** — gán ý nghĩa tâm lý kiểu con người ("tự nguyện", "giúp đỡ") cho hành vi có thể chỉ phản ánh những liên kết học được đơn giản hơn.

5.6 Culture and Social Behaviour

Culture provides the wider social context within which conformity and obedience occur, and can moderate — though it does not eliminate — these phenomena.

Individualist cultures (e.g., many Western European and North American societies) tend to emphasise the autonomous, independent self, personal achievement, and individual rights. **Collectivist cultures** (e.g., many societies across Asia, Africa, and Latin America) tend to emphasise the interdependent self, group harmony, and obligations to family and community. Cross-cultural replications of Asch-style conformity procedures have generally found somewhat higher average conformity in more collectivist cultural samples than in more individualist ones; cross-cultural replications of obedience-style procedures have found broadly similar patterns of obedience to legitimate authority across a range of cultures and historical periods. Culture appears to act as a **moderating** variable, adjusting the *degree* of conformity or obedience observed, rather than determining whether these processes occur at all — conformity and obedience to legitimate authority have been documented in every culture studied.

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Văn hoá cá nhân chủ nghĩa (individualist) — như nhiều xã hội Âu-Mỹ — đề cao cái tôi độc lập, thành tích cá nhân. **Văn hoá tập thể chủ nghĩa (collectivist)** — như nhiều xã hội Á, Phi, Mỹ Latinh — đề cao sự hài hoà nhóm, trách nhiệm với gia đình/cộng đồng. Các nghiên cứu lặp lại thí nghiệm kiểu Asch ở nhiều nền văn hoá cho thấy mức độ tuân thủ nhóm nhìn chung *cao hơn một chút* ở các mẫu tập thể chủ nghĩa so với cá nhân chủ nghĩa; còn các nghiên cứu lặp lại kiểu Milgram cho thấy mô hình phục tùng thẩm quyền chính đáng khá tương đồng ở nhiều nền văn hoá khác nhau. Điều quan trọng cần nhớ: văn hoá chỉ **điều chỉnh mức độ** chứ không "xoá bỏ" hiện tượng tuân thủ/phục tùng — cả hai đều được ghi nhận ở mọi nền văn hoá được nghiên cứu, nên cần tránh khái quát hoá cực đoan hay rập khuôn về bất kỳ nền văn hoá cụ thể nào.

5.7 Evaluation of the Social Approach

General evaluation issues

- **Ecological validity:** social approach studies vary enormously in ecological validity depending on method. Milgram's laboratory study, though tightly controlled, used an artificial task (an ostensible shock generator) in an unfamiliar setting; Piliavin, Rodin & Piliavin's field experiment, in contrast, captured naturalistic behaviour among unaware bystanders in a real subway car, giving it much higher ecological validity for everyday bystander behaviour, at the cost of reduced experimental control.
- **Ethical issues:** social-influence research on conformity and obedience routinely involves **deception** (about the true purpose of the study, and often the use of confederates), **limits on the right to withdraw** (e.g., Milgram's verbal prods), and risks to **protection from participants' psychological wellbeing** (visible distress in Milgram's study; the shock of witnessing an apparent medical emergency in Piliavin et al.'s study). Debriefing can partially address these concerns after the fact, but cannot undo distress experienced during the study itself.
- **Reductionism versus holism:** explanations such as agentic state theory can be criticised as **reductionist** when used to explain complex real-world events (such as historical atrocities) purely in terms of situational pressures, since this risks ignoring individual differences — some participants in Milgram's studies refused to continue, showing that situational pressure alone does not fully determine behaviour. A more **holistic** account would combine situational explanations with dispositional (personality, moral values) factors.
- **Application to real life:** understanding obedience to destructive authority has been used to help explain historical atrocities and to inform training that encourages ethical resistance to unlawful orders; understanding the bystander effect and its barriers (diffusion of responsibility, pluralistic ignorance) has informed real-world bystander-intervention training programmes (e.g., first-aid and CPR training, campus and workplace bystander-intervention schemes) designed to help people move past each of the five stages in Latané and Darley's model.

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Giá trị sinh thái: các nghiên cứu xã hội học khác nhau rất nhiều về giá trị sinh thái tùy vào phương pháp — Milgram (thí nghiệm phòng lab, tình huống nhân tạo) có giá trị sinh thái thấp hơn so với Piliavin và cộng sự (thí nghiệm hiện trường thật trên tàu điện ngầm). **Đạo đức:** nghiên cứu về tuân thủ/phục tùng thường liên quan đến lừa dối, hạn chế quyền rút lui, và nguy cơ gây tổn hại tâm lý — dù có giải thích lại (debrief) sau đó cũng không xoá được sự khó chịu đã trải qua trong lúc thí nghiệm. **Giản lược luận (reductionism) so với toàn thể luận (holism):** lý thuyết trạng thái tác nhân có thể bị xem là quá giản lược khi giải thích các thảm họa lịch sử chỉ bằng yếu tố tình huống, bỏ qua sự khác biệt cá nhân (một số người trong thí nghiệm Milgram đã từ chối tiếp tục). **Ứng dụng thực tế:** hiểu về sự phục tùng giúp giải thích các thảm họa lịch sử và xây dựng chương trình huấn luyện phản kháng đạo đức; hiểu về hiệu ứng người ngoài cuộc giúp thiết kế các chương trình huấn luyện can thiệp (ví dụ sơ cấp cứu, chương trình can thiệp tại nơi làm việc/trường học) nhằm vào từng bước trong mô hình Latané & Darley.

5.7.1 Summary comparison of the three core studies

Study	Method	Sample	Key finding
Milgram (1963)	Laboratory experiment (Yale University)	40 male volunteers, aged 20–50	65% obeyed to 450V; all obeyed to at least 300V
Piliavin, Rodin & Piliavin (1969)	Field experiment (New York City subway)	Large numbers of naturally occurring bystanders	Ill (cane) victim helped more/faster than drunk victim; no clear diffusion-of-responsibility effect
Yamamoto, Humle & Tanaka (2009)	Controlled laboratory experiment (captive chimpanzees)	Captive chimpanzee pairs	Donors helped more, and chose the correct tool more accurately, when explicitly requested

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Ba nghiên cứu cốt lõi minh họa ba phương pháp rất khác nhau trong cách tiếp cận xã hội: **Milgram** – thí nghiệm phòng lab có kiểm soát cao nhưng giá trị sinh thái thấp hơn; **Piliavin và cộng sự** – thí nghiệm hiện trường có giá trị sinh thái rất cao nhưng khó kiểm soát biến nhiễu; **Yamamoto và cộng sự** – thí nghiệm có kiểm soát trên động vật linh trưởng nuôi nhốt, cung cấp góc nhìn tiến hoá so sánh giữa loài. Khi so sánh ba nghiên cứu trong bài thi, cần nêu rõ sự đánh đổi giữa **kiểm soát (control)** và **giá trị sinh thái (ecological validity)**.

5.8 Problem Bank

Bài tập luyện tập

In Milgram's (1963) original study, what percentage of participants continued to administer shocks all the way to the maximum 450V?

- (A) 35% (C) 65%
(B) 50% (D) 100%

Lời giải chi tiết

65% of participants (26 of the 40) continued to the maximum 450V shock level. Notably, **all** 40 participants continued to at least 300V. **(C)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

Outline **two** ethical issues raised by Milgram's (1963) study of obedience, and explain how each issue applied specifically to this study.

Lời giải chi tiết

Deception: participants were told the study concerned "memory and learning," were not informed that the learner was a confederate, and believed the shocks were real; this deception was necessary to obtain valid behaviour but meant participants could not give fully informed consent. **Protection from harm:** many participants displayed visible signs of extreme psychological distress (sweating, trembling, nervous laughter) during the procedure, and the compromised right to withdraw (via the experimenter's insistent verbal prods, e.g. "You have no other choice, you must go on") made it difficult for distressed participants to stop, raising concerns about their psychological wellbeing during testing – despite full debriefing afterwards.

Bài tập luyện tập

Piliavin, Rodin & Piliavin (1969) found that the likelihood of a bystander helping did *not* decrease as the number of bystanders present increased. Explain how this finding challenges a simple diffusion-of-responsibility account of bystander behaviour.

Lời giải chi tiết

A pure diffusion-of-responsibility account predicts that as the number of bystanders increases, each individual bystander should feel progressively less personal responsibility to help (since responsibility is "shared" among more people), so helping should become less likely or slower in larger groups. Piliavin, Rodin & Piliavin found no such decrease on the New York subway: victims were helped about as quickly and as often regardless of how many bystanders were present. This suggests that, at least in this highly visible, inescapable, real-world emergency, factors such as the arousal caused by witnessing distress and a cost-reward analysis of helping versus not helping better explain bystander behaviour than diffusion of responsibility alone — the bystander effect found in earlier laboratory studies does not always generalise to naturalistic emergency settings.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain why the helping behaviour observed by Yamamoto, Humle & Tanaka (2009) in chimpanzees is best described as *targeted* rather than *automatic*.

Lời giải chi tiết

Donor chimpanzees did not hand over tools indiscriminately or reflexively whenever a partner was in difficulty — spontaneous, unrequested helping was rare. Instead, helping occurred mainly when the collector explicitly requested assistance, and when donors did act, they reliably selected the specific tool that matched the collector's actual task rather than any tool available. This sensitivity to (a) whether help was requested and (b) exactly what kind of help was needed shows that the behaviour was guided by an assessment of the partner's specific goal, rather than being a fixed, automatic response triggered simply by the presence of a partner in need.

Bài tập luyện tập

A student publicly agrees with her study group's incorrect answer to a quiz question, while privately still believing her own answer was correct. Once she leaves the group, she reverts to her original answer. Which type of conformity does this best illustrate?

- | | |
|---------------------|------------------------------------|
| (A) Internalisation | (C) Compliance |
| (B) Identification | (D) Informational social influence |

Lời giải chi tiết

This is **compliance**: she agrees publicly but not privately, and the change does not persist once the group's influence is removed. (C).

Bài tập luyện tập

A new employee starts dressing and speaking like the senior staff at her new company because she wants to feel like "one of the team," even though some of these habits do not reflect her personal style. Which type of conformity does this best illustrate, and why is it different from compliance?

Lời giải chi tiết

This illustrates **identification**: she is genuinely adopting the group's behaviour (not merely faking agreement while privately disagreeing), because she values being associated with the group. It differs from compliance because the behaviour change is real, not just a public performance — but it differs from internalisation because the change is tied to her membership of that specific group/role rather than being a fully independent personal value; if she left the company, these habits might not persist as strongly as a genuinely internalised belief would.

Bài tập luyện tập

In Asch's (1951) line-judgement paradigm, what was the purpose of testing participants individually (with no confederates present) before running the group trials?

- (A) To train participants to recognise confederates
- (B) To establish that the line-judgement task was unambiguous when there was no group pressure
- (C) To measure participants' eyesight
- (D) To increase the sample size

Lời giải chi tiết

Testing participants alone showed that errors on the line-judgement task were extremely rare without any group pressure, confirming the task was objectively unambiguous. This is essential for interpreting the group condition: any increase in errors when a unanimous incorrect confederate majority was present can then be attributed to conformity (social pressure) rather than the task simply being difficult or confusing. (B).

Bài tập luyện tập

In one of Asch's variations, a single confederate broke from the unanimous majority and gave a different answer from the rest of the group (even though it was still not the correct answer). Explain the effect this had on conformity, and what this reveals about the cause of conformity in the original procedure.

Lời giải chi tiết

Conformity dropped sharply once the majority was no longer unanimous, even though the dissenting confederate was still outnumbered and still did not give the correct answer. This shows that it is the **unanimity** of the majority — not simply its size — that generates the strongest pressure to conform. A single dissenter appears to give the genuine participant "social permission" to deviate from the majority, reducing normative pressure (fear of being the sole dissenter) even though informational pressure regarding the correct answer is essentially unchanged.

Bài tập luyện tập

A driver privately believes a proposed speed limit is too low, but votes for it at a town meeting because everyone else in the room seems to support it and she does not want to be seen as the odd one out. Which type of social influence is she displaying?

- (A) Informational social influence (C) Internalisation
(B) Normative social influence (D) Diffusion of responsibility

Lời giải chi tiết

She privately disagrees but goes along with the group to avoid standing out or facing disapproval – this is **normative social influence (NSI)**, since the motive is social approval rather than a genuine belief that the group is right. (B).

Bài tập luyện tập

A hiker is unsure whether an unfamiliar plant is dangerous, so she watches how a more experienced hiker in her group reacts to it before deciding whether to touch it. Explain, using an appropriate concept, why this is a different process from the previous question about the driver at the town meeting.

Lời giải chi tiết

The hiker's behaviour illustrates **informational social influence (ISI)**: the situation is genuinely ambiguous (she does not know whether the plant is dangerous), so she uses another person's behaviour as a source of information about reality, aiming to be *correct*. This differs from the driver's **normative social influence**, where the situation (the merits of the speed limit) was not ambiguous to her personally – she privately already held a view – and her motive was social approval rather than a search for correct information.

Bài tập luyện tập

According to Milgram's agentic state theory, what is the key psychological change that occurs during the "agentic shift"?

- (A) The person becomes more anxious as autonomous to seeing themselves as
(B) The person stops perceiving the authority figure as legitimate an agent carrying out another's wishes
(C) The person shifts from seeing themselves (D) The person begins to identify with the
victim

Lời giải chi tiết

The agentic shift is the change from the **autonomous state** (personally responsible for one's own actions) to the **agentic state** (seeing oneself merely as an instrument carrying out a legitimate authority figure's wishes, with reduced personal responsibility). (C).

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain, using the concept of **binding factors**, why a participant in Milgram's study might continue delivering shocks even after wanting to stop.

Lời giải chi tiết

Binding factors are situational features that keep a person locked into the agentic state once the agentic shift has occurred. In Milgram's procedure, these included: the gradual, incremental nature of the task (each new shock level was only slightly higher than the level already delivered, making it hard to identify a clear point at which to refuse); social awkwardness/politeness norms around interrupting or contradicting the experimenter; and the experimenter's repeated verbal prods reasserting the legitimacy of continuing. Together these made it psychologically difficult to break away from the agentic state even when the participant showed visible distress and a desire to stop.

Bài tập luyện tập

In one of Milgram's variations, the experimenter gave instructions by telephone from another room instead of being physically present with the teacher. What effect did this have on obedience, and why?

Lời giải chi tiết

Obedience decreased when the experimenter gave instructions by telephone rather than being physically present. The physical proximity of a legitimate authority figure appears to reinforce their perceived authority and make it psychologically harder to disobey face-to-face; removing this physical presence weakened the authority's perceived legitimacy and immediacy, making it easier for participants to disobey (some participants even pretended to continue while actually not doing so).

Bài tập luyện tập

Complete the table by stating the effect (increase / decrease) on obedience for each situational variable Milgram manipulated: (a) moving the study from Yale University to a run-down office building; (b) placing the learner in the same room as the teacher; (c) adding two confederate co-teachers who refused to continue.

Lời giải chi tiết

(a) **Decrease** – the less prestigious, less institutionally legitimate setting reduced the perceived legitimacy of the authority figure. (b) **Decrease** – increased proximity to the victim made the consequences of obedience harder to psychologically distance from, disrupting the agentic state. (c) **Decrease** (sharply) – the presence of disobedient peers modelled resistance and demonstrated that disobedience was possible and socially acceptable, similar to the effect of a dissenting confederate in Asch's paradigm.

Bài tập luyện tập

According to Latané and Darley's (1970) model of bystander intervention, which is the correct order of the five stages a bystander must pass through before helping occurs?

- | | |
|---|---|
| (A) Interpret, notice, take responsibility, decide to act, know how | (C) Take responsibility, notice, interpret, decide to act, know how |
| (B) Notice, interpret, take responsibility, know how, decide to act | (D) Notice, take responsibility, interpret, decide to act, know how |

Lời giải chi tiết

The correct order is: notice the event → interpret it as an emergency → take responsibility for helping → know how to help → decide to act. **(B)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

A man collapses on a crowded city street. Several passers-by glance at him but, seeing that no one else looks concerned, assume he must be sleeping rather than in medical distress, and continue walking. Using an appropriate concept from Latané and Darley's model, explain why no one stopped to help.

Lời giải chi tiết

This illustrates **pluralistic ignorance** blocking progress at Stage 2 (interpreting the event as an emergency). Each passer-by looks to the outward calm of other bystanders as a cue for how to interpret the situation; because everyone else also appears unconcerned (each individually assuming the same thing), each bystander concludes — incorrectly — that the man is not in genuine distress. This is a form of informational social influence: bystanders use others' reactions as information about reality, and the whole group can collectively misjudge a genuine emergency as a non-emergency.

Bài tập luyện tập

In a different scenario, a woman collapses on a busy train platform in full view of dozens of commuters, all of whom immediately recognise the situation as a medical emergency, yet nobody moves to help because each person assumes someone else — perhaps someone with first-aid training — will step in. Which stage of Latané and Darley's model is blocked here, and by which named barrier?

Lời giải chi tiết

Here the event has already been correctly interpreted as an emergency (Stage 2 is not blocked), so the barrier operates at **Stage 3 — taking responsibility**. This is **diffusion of responsibility**: with many bystanders present, each individual feels a reduced personal obligation to act, assuming someone else (possibly more qualified) will take responsibility instead. Paradoxically, the larger the crowd, the lower the chance that any one specific person intervenes.

Bài tập luyện tập

A bystander notices someone choking, correctly interprets it as an emergency, and feels personally responsible for helping, but hesitates because he has never learned the abdominal-thrust (Heimlich) technique. Which stage of Latané and Darley's model is blocked?

- | | |
|----------------------------------|-------------------------|
| (A) Notice the event | (C) Take responsibility |
| (B) Interpret it as an emergency | (D) Know how to help |

Lời giải chi tiết

He has already passed Stages 1–3 (noticed, interpreted correctly, and accepted responsibility) but is blocked at Stage 4, because he lacks the relevant knowledge or skill to act. **(D)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

Define **pluralistic ignorance** and explain how it differs from **diffusion of responsibility**, referring to the specific stage of Latané and Darley's model at which each operates.

Lời giải chi tiết

Pluralistic ignorance is the tendency for each member of a group to misjudge an ambiguous situation as a non-emergency because everyone else also appears outwardly calm, even though each individual bystander may privately be uncertain or concerned. It operates at **Stage 2 (interpreting the event)** – the question at this point is whether the event is an emergency at all. **Diffusion of responsibility** is the tendency for each bystander to feel less personal responsibility to act as the number of other bystanders increases, assuming someone else will (or already has) intervened. It operates at **Stage 3 (taking responsibility)** – by this point the event has already been correctly identified as an emergency, and the issue is who, specifically, will act. The two barriers therefore address different questions ("is this an emergency?" versus "whose job is it to act?") at two distinct points in the decision sequence.

Bài tập luyện tập

According to social identity theory, what are the three processes, in order, by which group membership shapes self-concept and behaviour?

- | | |
|--|--|
| (A) Comparison, categorisation, identification | (C) Identification, comparison, categorisation |
| (B) Categorisation, identification, comparison | (D) Categorisation, comparison, identification |

Lời giải chi tiết

The three processes, in order, are: **social categorisation** (sorting people into in-groups and out-groups), **social identification** (adopting the identity of one's in-group, tying self-esteem to it), and **social comparison** (comparing the in-group favourably to out-groups, often producing in-group favouritism). (B).

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain how social identity theory could account for why the donor chimpanzees in Yamamoto, Humle & Tanaka (2009) helped a familiar partner rather than a stranger.

Lời giải chi tiết

Social identity theory suggests that individuals (and, by extension, other highly social species) tend to categorise familiar, bonded companions as part of an "in-group," while unfamiliar individuals are treated more like an out-group. Cooperative or helping behaviour is generally directed more readily towards in-group members, since helping a familiar partner may carry lower social risk and stronger existing social bonds than helping a stranger. This would predict that a donor chimpanzee's willingness to pass a tool through the mesh depends partly on the strength of the existing relationship with the collector, consistent with the general finding that primate helping and cooperation are typically strongest between familiar, bonded partners.

Bài tập luyện tập

A psychology student claims: "Conformity has only ever been found in collectivist cultures; individualist cultures do not show conformity effects at all." Evaluate this claim.

Lời giải chi tiết

This claim is inaccurate. Cross-cultural replications of Asch-style conformity procedures have found conformity effects in both individualist and collectivist cultural samples – conformity is not unique to collectivist societies. What cross-cultural research generally suggests is a difference of **degree**: average conformity rates tend to be somewhat *higher* in more collectivist samples than in more individualist samples, plausibly because collectivist cultural values place greater emphasis on group harmony. However, culture acts as a **moderating** factor that adjusts the size of the effect, not a factor that determines whether conformity occurs at all; the claim that individualist cultures show no conformity effect is an overgeneralisation not supported by the evidence.

Bài tập luyện tập

Which of the following best distinguishes a collectivist culture from an individualist culture?

- | | |
|--|---|
| (A) Collectivist cultures never show obedience to authority | sonal autonomy and achievement |
| (B) Collectivist cultures place greater relative emphasis on group harmony and interdependence, while individualist cultures place greater relative emphasis on per- | (C) Individualist cultures are always more conformist |
| | (D) There is no meaningful psychological difference between the two |

Lời giải chi tiết

Collectivist cultures tend to emphasise interdependence and group harmony, while individualist cultures tend to emphasise personal autonomy and individual achievement; this is a difference in relative cultural emphasis, not an absolute rule, and both types of culture show conformity and obedience phenomena. **(B)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

Compare Milgram's **agentic state theory** and Latané and Darley's **cognitive bystander model** as explanations for why ordinary people sometimes fail to prevent harm to others. In your answer, consider (a) the type of behaviour each explanation was developed to account for, (b) the underlying psychological mechanism each proposes, and (c) one similarity between the two explanations.

Lời giải chi tiết

(a) Type of behaviour: agentic state theory was developed to explain *active* harmful behaviour carried out under instruction from a legitimate authority figure (e.g., administering electric shocks in Milgram's study), whereas the cognitive bystander model was developed to explain *passive* failure to intervene when witnessing someone else's distress or an emergency, with no authority figure directing the bystander's behaviour.

(b) Mechanism: agentic state theory proposes that people shift from an autonomous to an agentic psychological state, transferring perceived responsibility for their own actions onto a

legitimate authority figure. The cognitive bystander model instead proposes a sequential decision process (notice, interpret, take responsibility, know how, decide to act), where failure to help results from a block at one particular stage (commonly diffusion of responsibility at the "take responsibility" stage, or pluralistic ignorance at the "interpret" stage) – responsibility is diffused among multiple bystanders rather than transferred to a single authority figure.

(c) **Similarity:** both explanations centre on a reduction in a person's sense of **personal responsibility** as the key mechanism that allows harmful outcomes (through action or inaction) to occur – in Milgram's case responsibility is displaced *upward* onto an authority figure, while in the bystander model responsibility is displaced *sideways* onto other bystanders present.

Bài tập luyện tập

"Milgram's laboratory method and Piliavin, Rodin & Piliavin's field method each involve a trade-off between experimental control and ecological validity." Discuss this statement with reference to both studies.

Lời giải chi tiết

Milgram's laboratory experiment used a highly standardised procedure (fixed script, fixed verbal prods, fixed voltage increments, a controlled physical setting), giving strong **experimental control**: extraneous variables were minimised, and the study could be reliably repeated. However, the artificial task (an ostensible shock generator, an unfamiliar university laboratory) and the unusual nature of the situation reduce its **ecological validity** – it is unclear how well obedience in this contrived setting generalises to obedience in everyday contexts such as workplaces or the military.

Piliavin, Rodin & Piliavin's field experiment, by contrast, was staged in a real subway car among genuinely unaware bystanders, giving it high **ecological validity** for naturalistic helping behaviour – the behaviour observed was not influenced by participants knowing they were being studied. However, this came at the cost of reduced **experimental control**: extraneous variables such as time of day, carriage crowding, and passenger mood could not be tightly regulated, making it somewhat harder to isolate the precise causal effect of the manipulated variables (though the core manipulations of victim type and race were still systematically varied).

Overall, both approaches involve a genuine trade-off: greater control generally comes at some cost to ecological validity, and greater ecological validity generally comes at some cost to control – a recurring tension throughout social approach research.

Bài tập luyện tập

A researcher argues that Milgram's findings show that "obedience to authority is a fixed feature of human psychology that fully explains events such as the Holocaust." Evaluate this claim with reference to the concepts of **reductionism** and **holism**.

Lời giải chi tiết

This claim can be criticised as **reductionist**, because it explains a complex historical event using a single situational-psychological mechanism (obedience to legitimate authority via the agentic state) while ignoring other relevant levels of explanation, such as individual differences in personality and moral values, ideological indoctrination, economic and political context, and long-term processes of dehumanisation. Even within Milgram's own data, not everyone obeyed – a substantial minority of participants refused to continue to the maximum shock level, showing

that situational pressure, while powerful, does not uniformly override individual moral resistance. A more **holistic** explanation would combine situational factors (legitimate authority, incremental commitment, diffusion of responsibility) with dispositional factors (individual differences in empathy, moral reasoning, and capacity to resist authority) and broader social/historical context, rather than relying on a single mechanism to "fully" explain such events.

Bài tập luyện tập

Outline **one** real-world application of Latané and Darley's cognitive model of bystander intervention.

Lời giải chi tiết

The model has been used to design bystander-intervention training programmes (for example, in workplaces, schools, and universities, and in first-aid/CPR courses) that explicitly target each of the five stages: helping people learn to notice subtle signs of an emergency or of harassment (Stage 1); providing training to correctly interpret ambiguous situations rather than assuming "it's probably nothing" (Stage 2, countering pluralistic ignorance); explicitly assigning responsibility to specific individuals rather than leaving it diffuse (Stage 3, countering diffusion of responsibility, e.g. by training people to point directly at one bystander and say "you, call an ambulance"); teaching concrete skills such as basic first aid (Stage 4); and building confidence and reducing fear of embarrassment so people are more willing to act once they have decided to (Stage 5).

Bài tập luyện tập

In Yamamoto, Humle & Tanaka's (2009) study, which two variables were systematically manipulated across trials?

- | | |
|---|---|
| (A) The species of the collector and donor | (C) The size of the mesh partition and the time of day |
| (B) Whether help was explicitly requested, and which tool (correct or incorrect) was available to the donor | (D) The age of the collector and the donor's hunger level |

Lời giải chi tiết

The researchers manipulated (1) whether the collector explicitly requested help through begging/reaching gestures or made no request, and (2) which tool was available to the donor to pass through the mesh (the functionally correct tool for the collector's task, or an irrelevant one). **(B)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

A field researcher wants to increase the ecological validity of a study on obedience to authority, while minimising ethical concerns about deception and psychological harm compared with Milgram's original procedure. Suggest **one** modification to the original procedure that could achieve this, and explain the likely trade-off involved.

Lời giải chi tiết

One possible modification is to use a "voice-feedback only" or lower-maximum-voltage variant, similar to some ethically modified replications, in which the study is stopped at a much lower shock level than 450V (removing exposure to the most extreme, most distressing part of the procedure) and/or participants are given a more thorough pre-briefing about the possibility of a mild deception with full consent to continue or withdraw at various checkpoints. The likely trade-off is that stopping earlier or softening the deception is likely to reduce the psychological realism of the "authority-versus-conscience" dilemma that made the original study so striking, potentially reducing the ecological validity of the obedience rate obtained – there is an inherent tension between fully protecting participants from harm and preserving the psychologically compelling, high-stakes nature of the original obedience paradigm.

Bài tập luyện tập

Which of the following statements about culture and social behaviour is best supported by cross-cultural psychological research?

- (A) Conformity only occurs in collectivist cultures
(B) Obedience to legitimate authority has only been observed in individualist cultures
(C) Both conformity and obedience have been documented across a wide range of cultures, though the average degree observed can vary with cultural values such as individualism/collectivism
(D) Culture has no measurable effect on conformity or obedience

Lời giải chi tiết

Cross-cultural replications consistently find both conformity and obedience phenomena across individualist and collectivist societies alike; culture acts as a moderating variable that can shift the average *degree* of conformity or obedience observed (for example, somewhat higher average conformity in some collectivist samples), but does not eliminate either phenomenon in any culture studied. (C).

Bài tập luyện tập

"Every core study in this unit involves an unavoidable ethical cost." Using **one** named ethical issue from **each** of the three core studies (Milgram; Piliavin, Rodin & Piliavin; Yamamoto, Humle & Tanaka), evaluate whether this statement is justified.

Lời giải chi tiết

Milgram (1963): deception about the true purpose of the study and the reality of the shocks was necessary to obtain valid, unrehearsed obedience behaviour – informing participants in advance would have destroyed the very phenomenon being studied, illustrating a genuine and largely unavoidable ethical cost. **Piliavin, Rodin & Piliavin (1969):** the complete absence of informed consent from the unaware subway bystanders was necessary to preserve the naturalistic, unprompted quality of real-world helping behaviour – deliberately informing bystanders in advance would have removed the very naturalism that gave the study its high ecological validity. **Yamamoto, Humle & Tanaka (2009):** because non-human animals cannot give informed consent at all, the ethical question shifts to the welfare of the captive chimpanzees during testing (e.g., any stress caused by separation, task frustration, or captivity itself), which is a

different kind of ethical cost from the human studies but still a cost that comes with using animal subjects to study cooperation.

Overall, the statement is largely justified: in each case, the very feature that makes the study scientifically valuable (spontaneous obedience, unprompted real-world helping, animal comparative data) is also the source of its central ethical concern, suggesting that these ethical costs were not incidental design flaws but the price of studying authentic social behaviour, which is precisely why appropriate debriefing, review, and animal-welfare safeguards remain essential.

The Psychodynamic Approach

Mục tiêu Unit: Vô thức và vai trò của nó trong hành vi; cấu trúc nhân cách Id – Ego – Superego; các giai đoạn phát triển tâm lý tính dục (oral, anal, phallic, latency, genital) và khái niệm “cố định” (fixation); nội dung hiển hiện (manifest) và nội dung tiềm ẩn (latent) của giấc mơ, lỗi lầm Freud (Freudian slip); các cơ chế phòng vệ của Ego; phân tâm học (psychoanalysis) như một phương pháp trị liệu; core study Little Hans (Freud, 1909) về nỗi sợ ngựa; đánh giá cách tiếp cận phân tâm học và so sánh với bốn cách tiếp cận AS còn lại (sinh học, nhận thức, học tập, xã hội).

6.1 Assumptions of the psychodynamic approach

The **psychodynamic approach**, founded by Sigmund Freud (1856–1939), argues that adult personality and behaviour are shaped largely by forces the individual cannot consciously perceive. Where the cognitive approach models the mind as a relatively transparent information processor, the psychodynamic approach assumes that much of the mind's activity is deliberately hidden from awareness – and that uncovering this hidden material is the key to understanding, and treating, psychological distress.

Core assumptions of the psychodynamic approach

- Much of behaviour, thought, and emotion is driven by **unconscious** mental processes that the individual is not aware of and cannot access directly through ordinary introspection.
- Personality is made up of three interacting structures – the **id**, **ego**, and **superego** – and conflict between them generates **anxiety**.
- Personality development proceeds through a fixed sequence of **psychosexual stages** in early childhood; unresolved conflict at any stage can leave a lasting mark on adult personality (**fixation**).
- The ego protects itself from anxiety using a range of largely unconscious **defense mechanisms**.
- Psychodynamic theory is built substantially on detailed, individual **case studies** (an idiographic method), typically drawn from patients undergoing psychoanalysis.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

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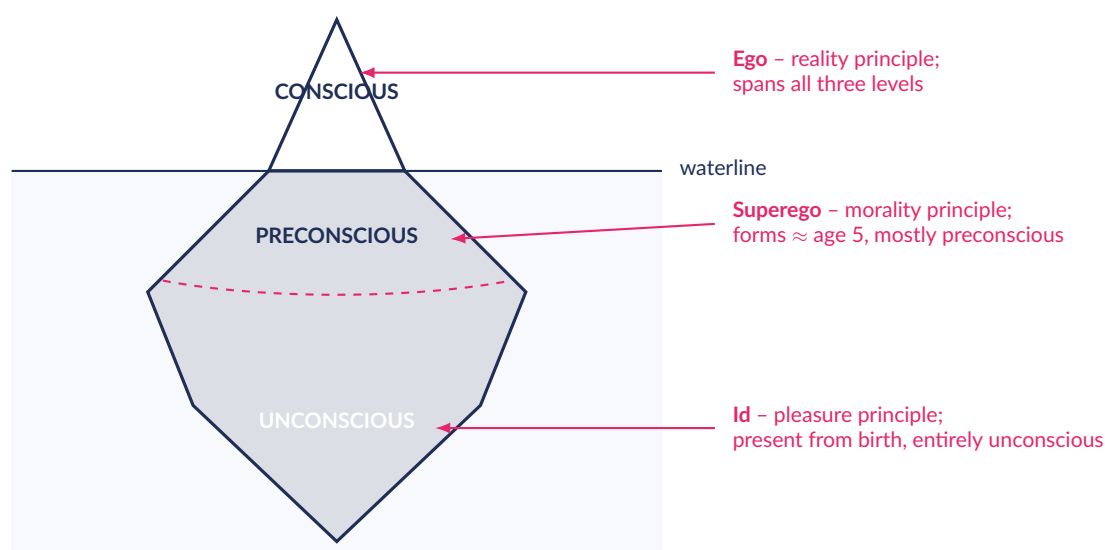
Cách tiếp cận phân tâm học (psychodynamic approach) của Freud cho rằng phần lớn hành vi, suy nghĩ, và cảm xúc của con người bị chi phối bởi các quá trình **vô thức (unconscious)** – những thứ bản thân người đó không hề nhận biết được. Nhân cách gồm 3 cấu trúc tương tác với nhau: **id**, **ego**, **superego**; xung đột giữa chúng tạo ra lo âu (anxiety). Nhân cách trưởng thành được định hình qua các **giai đoạn phát triển tâm lý tính dục (psychosexual stages)** thời thơ ấu – xung đột chưa được giải quyết ở bất kỳ giai đoạn nào cũng có thể để lại dấu ấn lâu dài (gọi là **cố định – fixation**). Ego dùng các **cơ chế phòng vệ** vô thức để bảo vệ bản thân khỏi lo âu. Phần lớn lý thuyết phân tâm học được xây dựng từ các **case study** chi tiết trên từng cá nhân, thường thu thập trong quá trình trị liệu phân tâm (psychoanalysis).

6.2 The structure of personality: id, ego, and superego

Freud proposed that the mind operates at three levels of awareness: the **conscious** (what one is aware of right now), the **preconscious** (material not currently in awareness but readily retrievable, such as a phone number), and the **unconscious** (material that is actively kept out of awareness – including repressed memories, forbidden wishes, and instinctual drives). Superimposed on these levels of awareness is a second model: personality is made up of three structures that operate largely below conscious awareness and are frequently in conflict with one another.

The tripartite structure of personality

- **Id** – present from birth; operates entirely in the unconscious; follows the **pleasure principle**, demanding immediate gratification of basic biological drives (hunger, thirst, sex, aggression) with no regard for reality or morality.
- **Ego** – develops during the first two to three years of life as the child encounters a world that cannot always deliver what the id demands; operates across all three levels of awareness (mostly conscious/preconscious); follows the **reality principle**, mediating realistically between the id's demands, the superego's moral restrictions, and the constraints of the external world. When the ego cannot satisfy the id and superego simultaneously, the result is anxiety, which the ego manages using defense mechanisms (Section 6.5).
- **Superego** – develops at around age five, at the resolution of the phallic stage, through **identification** with the same-sex parent; operates mostly in the preconscious and unconscious; follows the **morality principle**. It has two parts: the **conscience**, which punishes wrongdoing with guilt, and the **ego-ideal**, which rewards approved behaviour with pride.



The “iceberg” model of the mind: only a small fraction of mental life – current conscious awareness – lies above the waterline. The ego operates across all three levels; the superego is mostly preconscious/unconscious; the id is entirely unconscious.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

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Freud chia tâm trí thành 3 tầng nhận thức: **ý thức (conscious)**, **tiền ý thức (preconscious – có thể gọi nhớ lại được)**, và **vô thức (unconscious – bị chặn hoàn toàn khỏi nhận thức)**. Đồng thời, nhân cách gồm 3 cấu trúc: **Id** (nguyên tắc khoái lạc, có từ khi sinh ra, hoàn toàn vô thức, đòi hỏi thoả mãn tức thì); **Ego** (nguyên tắc hiện thực, hình thành trong khoảng 2–3 năm đầu đời, dàn xếp giữa đòi hỏi của Id, ràng buộc đạo đức của Superego, và thực tế bên ngoài); **Superego** (nguyên tắc đạo đức, hình thành ≈ 5 tuổi qua việc **đồng nhất hoá (identification)** với cha/mẹ).

cùng giới, gồm *lượng tâm* – trừng phạt bằng cảm giác tội lỗi, và *cái tôi lý tưởng* – thường bằng cảm giác tự hào). Khi Ego không thể thỏa mãn cả Id lẫn Superego cùng lúc, lo âu xuất hiện và Ego phải dùng cơ chế phòng vệ để xử lý.

6.3 The unconscious mind: dreams and Freudian slips

Because the unconscious is, by definition, inaccessible to direct introspection, Freud argued that it reveals itself only indirectly – through dreams, slips of speech, jokes, and neurotic symptoms. Two of these “windows” onto unconscious material are central to psychodynamic theory and to psychoanalytic practice.

Dreams and parapraxes

- **Manifest content:** the dream exactly as it is consciously experienced and remembered/reported by the dreamer – the surface storyline.
- **Latent content:** the true, underlying unconscious meaning of the dream – typically a repressed wish or unresolved conflict, disguised because it would be too disturbing to experience directly.
- **Dream-work:** the unconscious process that transforms latent content into the (safer, more acceptable) manifest content, using mechanisms such as **condensation** (several unconscious ideas merged into a single dream image), **displacement** (emotional significance shifted from the true, threatening object onto a safer, symbolic one), and **symbolism** (an unconscious idea represented indirectly by an object, e.g., a journey standing for death, or an elongated object standing for a phallic idea).
- **Parapraxes** (“Freudian slips”): unintended slips of the tongue, pen, or memory (e.g., a person accidentally calling their new partner by an ex’s name) that Freud interpreted as leaks of genuine, unconsciously held thoughts breaking through the ego’s usual censorship.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

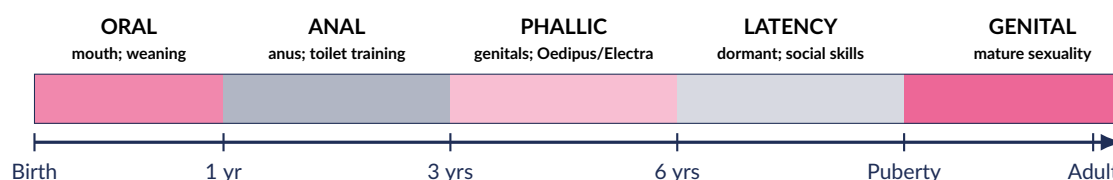
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Nội dung hiển hiện (manifest content) là giấc mơ đúng như người nằm mơ nhớ và kể lại; **nội dung tiềm ẩn (latent content)** là ý nghĩa vô thức thực sự bên dưới (thường là một ước muốn bị dồn nén). **Dream-work** là quá trình vô thức “ngụy trang” nội dung tiềm ẩn thành nội dung hiển hiện an toàn hơn, thông qua cô đọng (condensation), dịch chuyển (displacement), và biểu tượng hoá (symbolism). **Lỗi lời Freud (parapraxis/Freudian slip)** là khi một suy nghĩ vô thức “rò rỉ” ra ngoài qua một lỗi nói/viết/nhớ tưởng như vô tình – Freud cho rằng những lỗi này không hề ngẫu nhiên mà luôn có ý nghĩa tâm lý.

(!) Lỗi thường gặp: Đừng nhầm nội dung **hiển hiện (manifest)** là “không quan trọng” còn **tiềm ẩn (latent)** là “ý nghĩa thật”. Theo Freud, cả hai đều cần thiết: nội dung hiển hiện là dữ liệu *duy nhất* mà nhà phân tâm học có thể quan sát trực tiếp (lời kể của bệnh nhân); nội dung tiềm ẩn chỉ có thể được suy luận *gián tiếp* thông qua việc giải mã hiển hiện – đây chính là công việc trọng tâm của phân tích giấc mơ (dream analysis) trong trị liệu phân tâm học.

6.4 The psychosexual stages of development

Freud theorised that a form of psychic (sexual) energy he called **libido** is concentrated, in turn, on a different part of the body – an **erogenous zone** – at each of five successive stages of childhood development. How successfully the conflict characteristic of each stage is resolved was theorised to shape adult personality.



Freud's five psychosexual stages, with approximate age ranges and the erogenous zone/central conflict theorised for each. All ages are approximate; the theory itself is Freud's own model of development, not an empirically established timetable.

6.4.1 The oral stage (birth to about 1 year)

The **mouth** is the primary erogenous zone: the infant obtains pleasure through sucking, feeding, and later biting. The central conflict is **weaning** – the withdrawal of the breast or bottle. Freud theorised that a child weaned too early or too abruptly (or, alternatively, over-indulged) could become **fixated** at this stage.

Oral fixation (Freud's theory): an adult who experienced unresolved conflict at the oral stage may show **oral-receptive** traits (dependency, over-eating, excessive smoking, nail-biting – behaviours centred on the mouth and on being “fed” or cared for) or **oral-aggressive** traits (sarcasm, verbal hostility, cynicism – an “aggressive” use of the mouth).

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Ở **giai đoạn miệng (oral stage, 0–1 tuổi)**, miệng là vùng khoái cảm chính; xung đột trung tâm là việc **cải sữa**. Theo lý thuyết của Freud (không phải một sự thật đã được kiểm chứng khoa học), nếu xung đột này không được giải quyết tốt, người trưởng thành có thể bị “cố định ở giai đoạn miệng” – biểu hiện qua các đặc điểm liên quan đến miệng như hút thuốc nhiều, cắn móng tay, ăn quá nhiều (kiểu *oral-receptive*), hoặc mỉa mai, hay gây hấn bằng lời nói (kiểu *oral-aggressive*).

6.4.2 The anal stage (about 1–3 years)

The **anus** becomes the erogenous zone as the child gains voluntary control over bowel movements. The central conflict is **toilet training** – how the parents handle this first major demand for self-control.

Anal fixation (Freud's theory): harsh, overly strict toilet training may produce an **anal-retentive** adult – excessively orderly, rigid, stubborn, and stingy (“holding on”); overly lenient training may produce an **anal-expulsive** adult – messy, disorganised, and carelessly generous (“letting go”).

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

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Ở **giai đoạn hậu môn (anal stage, 1–3 tuổi)**, xung đột trung tâm là việc **tập ngồi bô/đi vệ sinh**. Theo Freud, huấn luyện quá khắt khe có thể tạo ra kiểu người trưởng thành **anal-retentive** (ngăn nắp thái quá, cứng nhắc, bướng bỉnh, keo kiệt – xu hướng “giữ lại”); huấn luyện quá dễ dãi có thể tạo ra kiểu **anal-expulsive** (bừa bộn, thiếu tổ chức, phóng khoáng quá mức – xu hướng “buông thả”).

6.4.3 The phallic stage (about 3–6 years)

The **genitals** become the focus of libido, and the child becomes aware of anatomical sex differences. Freud proposed that boys pass through the **Oedipus complex**: an unconscious sexual desire for the mother, accompanied by jealousy of, and fear of retaliation from, the father – specifically **castration anxiety**. The conflict is resolved when the boy **represses** his desire for his mother and instead **identifies** with his father, internalising the father's values and authority; this identification is theorised to be the mechanism through which the **superego** forms. For girls, Freud discussed an analogous

situation sometimes called the **Electra complex** – a term actually introduced by Carl Jung rather than Freud himself, and one Freud was reportedly unenthusiastic about – centred on **penis envy** and resolved through identification with the mother.

(!) **Lỗi thường gặp:** Đừng nhầm lẫn: **Oedipus complex** (bé trai – ham muốn mẹ, lo âu bị cha “trừng phạt”/thiến – castration anxiety) là khái niệm do chính **Freud** đặt ra; còn thuật ngữ **Electra complex** (bé gái – ganh tị dương vật/penis envy, hướng về cha) do **Carl Jung** đề xuất để mô tả tình huống tương tự ở bé gái, và bản thân Freud không hoàn toàn ủng hộ cách gọi này. Cả hai đều được lý thuyết hoá là được giải quyết thông qua **đồng nhất hoá (identification)** với cha/mẹ cùng giới – chính là cơ chế hình thành **Superego**.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

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Ở **giai đoạn dương vật (phallic stage, 3–6 tuổi)**, bộ phận sinh dục trở thành vùng khoái cảm chính. Freud cho rằng bé trai trải qua **Oedipus complex** (ham muốn vô thức với mẹ, ghen tị và sợ hãi cha – *castration anxiety*), giải quyết bằng cách dồn nén ham muốn đó và **đồng nhất hoá** với cha – chính quá trình này hình thành nên **Superego**. Ở bé gái, tình huống tương tự đôi khi được gọi là **Electra complex** (thuật ngữ của Carl Jung, xoay quanh khái niệm “ganh tị dương vật” – penis envy), giải quyết bằng đồng nhất hoá với mẹ.

6.4.4 The latency stage (about 6 years to puberty)

Sexual urges become **dormant** – psychologically “latent” – as psychic energy is redirected away from the erogenous zones and into developing skills, hobbies, and same-sex friendships, and into schooling and social development more broadly. Freud regarded this stage as a period of consolidation rather than conflict.

6.4.5 The genital stage (puberty onward)

Sexual urges re-emerge at puberty, now directed outward toward mature, adult romantic and sexual relationships. Provided that earlier stages were resolved successfully, the individual is theorised to be capable of balanced, mature adult relationships; unresolved conflict carried over from earlier stages can continue to influence adult personality and relationships from this point onward.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

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Ở **giai đoạn tiềm ẩn (latency, 6 tuổi – dậy thì)**, ham muốn tính dục “ngủ yên”, năng lượng tâm lý chuyển sang phát triển kỹ năng, sở thích, và các mối quan hệ bạn bè cùng giới. Ở **giai đoạn sinh dục (genital, từ tuổi dậy thì)**, ham muốn tính dục quay trở lại và hướng ra bên ngoài, tới các mối quan hệ tình cảm trưởng thành – nếu các giai đoạn trước được giải quyết tốt, cá nhân được cho là có khả năng xây dựng mối quan hệ trưởng thành cân bằng.

6.4.6 Fixation

Fixation

Fixation is Freud’s theoretical claim that if a child’s needs are severely frustrated or excessively over-indulged at a particular psychosexual stage, a portion of libido remains permanently invested in that stage. The unresolved conflict does not disappear; instead, it is theorised to continue expressing itself in adult personality traits, habits, or – in Freud’s clinical work – specific neurotic symptoms, such as phobias. It is important to be clear that fixation and stage-specific adult traits are Freud’s own theoretical proposals, not independently verified scientific facts.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

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Cố định (fixation) là một khái niệm lý thuyết của Freud: nếu nhu cầu của trẻ bị đàn áp quá mức hoặc được nuông chiều quá mức ở một giai đoạn tâm lý tính dục nào đó, một phần năng lượng libido sẽ “mắc kẹt” vĩnh viễn ở giai đoạn đó, biểu hiện qua các đặc điểm nhân cách hoặc triệu chứng (ví dụ như ám ảnh sợ – phobia) khi trưởng thành. Cần nhấn mạnh: đây là lý thuyết của Freud, chưa được khoa học thực nghiệm xác nhận là sự thật khách quan.

6.5 Defense mechanisms

The ego is theorised to protect itself from the anxiety generated by conflict between the id, superego, and reality by deploying **defense mechanisms**: largely unconscious strategies that distort or disguise the true source of anxiety so that it becomes more bearable. Used occasionally, defense mechanisms are considered a normal part of everyday coping; used rigidly or excessively, they are theorised to contribute to psychological disturbance.

Defense mechanism	Definition	Example
Repression	Unconsciously excluding a distressing thought, memory, or impulse from conscious awareness entirely.	An adult has no conscious memory of a frightening event from early childhood.
Displacement	Redirecting an emotion or impulse away from its true (often threatening) target onto a safer substitute target.	A person scolded by their boss goes home and shouts at their family instead of confronting the boss.
Projection	Attributing one's own unacceptable thoughts or feelings to another person instead of recognising them in oneself.	A person who is themselves being unfaithful repeatedly (and wrongly) accuses their partner of infidelity.
Denial	Refusing to acknowledge an unpleasant or anxiety-provoking reality, even when evidence for it is clear.	A heavy smoker insists smoking has no effect on their health despite medical warnings.
Regression	Reverting, under stress, to behaviour characteristic of an earlier stage of development.	An adult under extreme stress sulks, cries, or throws a tantrum in a childlike way.
Sublimation	Redirecting an unacceptable impulse (e.g., aggression, sexual energy) into a socially acceptable or productive activity.	A person with strong aggressive urges channels them into competitive boxing or intense physical exercise.
Reaction formation	Converting an unacceptable unconscious impulse into its conscious opposite.	A person who unconsciously resents a colleague behaves toward them with exaggerated, excessive kindness.
Rationalisation	Constructing a logical-sounding but false justification for behaviour that is really driven by unconscious motives.	A candidate rejected for a job insists afterward that they never really wanted the position anyway.
Identification	Unconsciously adopting the attitudes, values, or characteristics of another (often more powerful) person to reduce anxiety.	A child adopts the moral standards and mannerisms of the same-sex parent (central to superego formation).

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

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Cơ chế phòng vệ (defense mechanism) là cách Ego vô thức xử lý lo âu. Ngoài 5 cơ chế quen thuộc – **đồn nén (repression)**, **dịch chuyển (displacement)**, **phóng chiếu (projection)**, **phủ nhận (denial)**, **thoái lui (regression)** – còn có 4 cơ chế khác: **thăng hoa (sublimation)** – chuyển hoá xung động thành hoạt động tích cực, có ích cho xã hội; **hình thành phản ứng (reaction formation)** – biến một cảm xúc không chấp nhận được thành đối lập hoàn toàn trong hành vi; **hợp**

lý hoá (rationalisation) – nguy biện một lý do nghe có vẻ hợp lý để che giấu động cơ thật; và **đồng nhất hoá (identification)** – vô thức tiếp nhận đặc điểm/giá trị của người khác (đặc biệt quan trọng trong việc hình thành Superego).

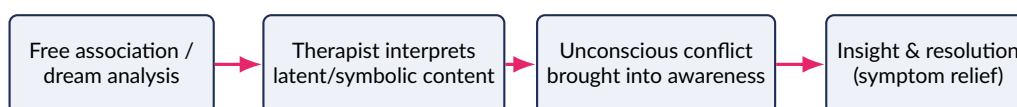
(!) Lỗi thường gặp: Học sinh thường nhầm **dịch chuyển (displacement)** với **phóng chiếu (projection)**. Displacement là chuyển *cảm xúc/phản ứng* của mình sang một mục tiêu an toàn hơn (ví dụ: giận sếp nhưng về nhà quát con); còn projection là gán *chính suy nghĩ/cảm xúc của mình* cho người khác, khiến bản thân không phải thừa nhận nó (ví dụ: người không chung thủy lại nghi ngờ bạn đời không chung thủy). Điểm khác biệt mấu chốt: displacement thay đổi *đối tượng* của cảm xúc; projection thay đổi *ai là chủ thể* của cảm xúc đó.

6.6 Psychoanalysis as a therapy

Psychoanalysis is the therapeutic method Freud developed from his theory: because psychological symptoms are theorised to stem from unconscious conflict, the central therapeutic aim is “**making the unconscious conscious**” – bringing repressed material into conscious awareness so the patient can confront and rationally resolve it, rather than continuing to express it indirectly as a neurotic symptom (such as a phobia).

Key techniques of psychoanalysis

- **Free association:** the patient is encouraged to say whatever comes to mind, without censorship or self-editing, on the theory that the chain of associations will eventually lead toward the repressed unconscious material, revealed indirectly through hesitations, contradictions, and unexpected connections.
- **Dream analysis:** the therapist works with the patient to interpret the manifest content of reported dreams, attempting to decode the disguised latent content and the underlying unconscious conflict.
- **Transference:** the patient unconsciously redirects feelings originally held toward significant figures from their past (typically parents) onto the therapist; rather than being an obstacle, transference is treated as therapeutically valuable, since it re-enacts the patient’s core unconscious conflicts directly within the therapy session, where they can be observed and interpreted.



The psychoanalytic process: unconscious material is accessed via free association and dream analysis, interpreted by the therapist, and – if therapy is successful – becomes consciously available to the patient, allowing rational resolution of the underlying conflict.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

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Phân tâm học (psychoanalysis) là phương pháp trị liệu của Freud, với mục tiêu trung tâm là “đưa vô thức vào ý thức” (making the unconscious conscious). Ba kỹ thuật chính: **liên tưởng tự do (free association)** – bệnh nhân nói ra bất cứ điều gì xuất hiện trong đầu mà không kiểm duyệt; **phân tích giấc mơ (dream analysis)** – giải mã nội dung tiềm ẩn từ nội dung hiển hiện của giấc mơ; **chuyển di (transference)** – bệnh nhân vô thức chuyển cảm xúc dành cho người quan trọng trong quá khứ (thường là cha/mẹ) sang nhà trị liệu, giúp bộc lộ xung đột cốt lõi ngay trong buổi trị liệu để nhà trị liệu diễn giải.

6.7 Core study: Little Hans --- Freud (1909)

Core study · Freud (1909): analysis of a phobia in a five-year-old boy

Aim: to provide case-study support for Freud's theory of **infantile sexuality** and the **Oedipus complex** by tracing the unconscious origin of a specific childhood phobia.

Procedure: a longitudinal case study of "Little Hans," a five-year-old boy who had developed an intense phobia of horses. Hans's father, a supporter of Freud's theories, kept detailed notes and letters recording Hans's behaviour, dreams, and remarks, which he sent to Freud for interpretation; Freud met Hans directly on at least one occasion but based almost all of his analysis on the father's written reports (qualitative data from a single case).

Findings: Hans developed an intense fear of horses – specifically a fear of being bitten and of horses falling down – and this fear was strongest towards horses with black material around the mouth and blinkers on their eyes. The phobia emerged around the time of the birth of Hans's baby sister, alongside curiosity about genitals, increased affection toward his mother, and some hostility toward his father.

Freud's interpretation: the phobia was a symbolic **displacement** of Hans's unconscious **castration anxiety** and Oedipal rivalry with his father. The horse unconsciously represented the father: the black material around the horse's mouth was said to represent the father's moustache, and the blinkers were said to represent the father's glasses. Fear of the horse allowed Hans to avoid consciously confronting his forbidden fear of, and hostility toward, his father.

Conclusion: childhood phobias can arise from unconscious psychosexual conflict (here, unresolved conflict at the phallic stage/Oedipus complex) rather than from any direct, real-world danger; such phobias are theorised to be resolvable once the underlying unconscious conflict is brought into conscious awareness and interpreted – Hans's phobia subsided as he grew older and, in Freud's account, worked through this Oedipal conflict.

(!) Lỗi thường gặp: Những phê phán chính đối với Little Hans: (1) **tính chủ quan/thiên kiến người quan sát** – cha của Hans đã tin vào lý thuyết phân tâm học từ trước, nên có thể đã diễn giải và ghi chép lời nói của Hans theo hướng phù hợp với lý thuyết đó (thiếu tính khách quan); (2) **khả năng khái quát hoá thấp** – đây là nghiên cứu trên 1 cá nhân ($n = 1$), khó áp dụng kết luận cho trẻ em nói chung; (3) **vấn đề về tính khả kiểm chứng sai (falsifiability)** – gần như bất kỳ hành vi nào của Hans cũng có thể được diễn giải lại sao cho phù hợp với lý thuyết Oedipus complex, khiến lý thuyết khó bị bác bỏ bằng bằng chứng.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Little Hans (Freud, 1909) là case study nổi tiếng: bé trai 5 tuổi sợ ngựa dữ dội, đặc biệt ngựa có vệt đen quanh miệng và đeo miếng che mắt. Freud diễn giải đây là sự **dịch chuyển** của *castration anxiety* và xung đột Oedipus với cha – con ngựa tượng trưng cho người cha (ria mép → vệt đen quanh miệng; kính → miếng che mắt). Nghiên cứu này minh họa cách phân tâm học lý giải triệu chứng (phobia) là biểu hiện của xung đột vô thức chưa giải quyết, và về nguyên tắc có thể được chữa khỏi khi xung đột đó được đưa vào ý thức và diễn giải – đúng như mục tiêu trị liệu "making the unconscious conscious" ở Section 6.6. Tuy nhiên, nghiên cứu bị phê phán vì tính chủ quan (cha Hans vốn tin vào lý thuyết Freud), cỡ mẫu $n = 1$, và khó kiểm chứng sai.

6.8 Evaluating the psychodynamic approach

Strengths: (1) case studies such as Little Hans provide rich, detailed, **idiographic** insight into individual psychological experience that experimental methods cannot easily capture; (2) the approach was genuinely groundbreaking in highlighting the role of the **unconscious mind** and of **early childhood experience** in shaping adult personality, at a time when psychology largely ignored both; (3) it has had a lasting influence on **therapy** (psychoanalytic and psychodynamic therapies remain in clinical use) and on wider culture (concepts such as “the unconscious,” “ego,” “denial,” and “Freudian slip” are now part of everyday language).

Limitations: (1) many psychodynamic concepts are difficult or impossible to test scientifically – the philosopher of science Karl Popper argued that psychoanalytic theory lacks **falsifiability**, since almost any behaviour can be reinterpreted after the fact to fit the theory, making it hard to specify what observation would ever disprove it; (2) the approach reflects strong **psychic determinism** – behaviour is portrayed as driven by unconscious forces from early childhood, leaving little room for conscious choice or free will; (3) the evidence base relies heavily on **case studies**, often built from a therapist’s subjective interpretation of a patient’s (sometimes reconstructed, retrospective) reports, raising concerns about researcher bias and about generalising from very small, unrepresentative samples.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Điểm mạnh của phân tâm học: cung cấp hiểu biết **idiographic** (chuyên sâu về từng cá nhân) rất phong phú; đi tiên phong trong việc nhấn mạnh vai trò của **vô thức** và **thời thơ ấu**; có ảnh hưởng lâu dài đến trị liệu tâm lý và văn hoá đại chúng. **Điểm yếu:** (1) khó **kiểm chứng sai (falsifiability)** – nhà triết học khoa học Karl Popper cho rằng lý thuyết phân tâm học có thể diễn giải lại để phù hợp với hầu như mọi tình huống, nên khó bị bác bỏ bằng bằng chứng thực nghiệm; (2) mang tính **tất định tâm lý (psychic determinism)** cao – hầu như không chừa chỗ cho ý chí tự do; (3) phụ thuộc nhiều vào **case study** và diễn giải chủ quan của nhà trị liệu, cỡ mẫu nhỏ, dữ liệu hồi cứu (retrospective) dễ bị sai lệch do trí nhớ hoặc thiên kiến.

6.9 Comparing the five approaches to psychology

This unit completes the survey of the five approaches making up the AS Psychology core: biological, cognitive, learning, social, and psychodynamic. Table 6.1 summarises each approach’s key assumption, its representative core studies, and one strength and one limitation – a useful revision tool, and a bridge toward the applied topics that build on these approaches later in the course.

Approach	Key assumption	Core studies	Strength	Limitation
Biological	Behaviour is caused by physiological processes – genes, hormones, neurotransmitters, brain structure (“nature”).	Dement & Kleitman (1957); Schachter & Singer (1962); Hassett, Siebert & Wallen (2008)	Objective, scientific methods (e.g. EEG, hormone assays) give high internal validity.	Can be reductionist – explaining complex behaviour by physiology alone risks ignoring social/cognitive influences.
Cognitive	Behaviour results from internal mental processes (memory, perception, thinking) studied indirectly via controlled tasks.	Andrade (2009); Baron-Cohen et al. (2001); Pozzulo & Lindsay (1998)	Well-controlled methods with valuable real-world applications (e.g. eyewitness testimony reform).	Often relies on artificial laboratory tasks with low ecological validity.
Learning	Behaviour is learned from the environment via classical conditioning, operant conditioning, and observational (social) learning.	Bandura, Ross & Ross (1961); Saavedra & Silverman (2002); Fagen, Acharya & Kaufman (2006)	Produced effective therapeutic applications (e.g. systematic desensitisation, token economies).	Environmentally deterministic – may underestimate biological and cognitive contributions.
Social	Behaviour is shaped by the real or imagined presence of other people – obedience, conformity, group processes.	Milgram (1963); Piliavin, Rodin & Piliavin (1969)	High relevance to real-world social behaviour and institutional ethics.	Raises ethical concerns (deception, distress) and situational variables are hard to isolate.
Psychodynamic	Unconscious conflict, rooted in early childhood psychosexual experience, drives adult personality and behaviour.	Freud (1909), Little Hans	Rich idiographic insight; pioneered the role of the unconscious and of childhood; lasting influence on therapy and culture.	Largely unfalsifiable; relies heavily on subjective interpretation of single case studies.

Table 6.1: the five AS approaches to psychology compared.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Bảng 6.1 tổng hợp 5 cách tiếp cận của tâm lý học AS: **sinh học** (hành vi do sinh lý – gen, hormone, não bộ), **nhận thức** (hành vi do quá trình tâm lý bên trong – trí nhớ, tri giác, tư duy), **học tập** (hành vi được học từ môi trường qua điều kiện hoá cổ điển/tạo tác và học qua quan sát), **xã hội** (hành vi bị ảnh hưởng bởi sự hiện diện thật/tưởng tượng của người khác), và **phân tâm học** (hành vi do xung đột vô thức bắt nguồn từ trải nghiệm tâm lý tính dục thời thơ ấu). Mỗi cách tiếp cận có core study, điểm mạnh, và điểm yếu riêng – việc so sánh giúp thấy rõ rằng không có cách tiếp cận nào giải thích được *toàn bộ* hành vi con người, và các cách tiếp cận thường bổ sung cho nhau.

Ôn tập nhanh: Id/Ego/Superego = khoái lạc/hiện thực/đạo đức. 5 giai đoạn tâm lý tính dục theo thứ tự: Oral → Anal → Phallic → Latency → Genital (nhớ bằng “O-A-P-L-G”). Superego hình thành ≈ 5 tuổi qua identification. Little Hans: ngựa = cha (biểu tượng), sợ ngựa = dịch chuyển của castration anxiety/Oedipus complex. Mục tiêu trị liệu phân tâm học: “making the unconscious conscious.” Điểm yếu lớn nhất cần nhớ khi viết bài đánh giá: thiếu tính kiểm chứng sai (Popper) và tất định tâm lý.

6.10 Problem Bank

Bài tập luyện tập

Which structure of personality operates according to the reality principle, mediating between the id's demands, the superego's restrictions, and the constraints of the external world?

- | | |
|-------------|------------------|
| (A) The id | (C) The superego |
| (B) The ego | (D) The libido |

Lời giải chi tiết

The **ego** develops in the first two to three years of life specifically to deal realistically with a world that cannot always immediately satisfy the id, and it must also answer to the superego's moral demands once that develops. **(B)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

In Freud's (1909) case study, Little Hans developed an intense phobia of horses at around age five. (a) Identify the psychosexual stage Hans was in in Freud's account. (b) Name the central conflict Freud associated with that stage in boys. (c) Explain how Freud linked Hans's phobia to this conflict.

Lời giải chi tiết

(a) The **phallic stage** (approximately age 3–6). **(b)** The **Oedipus complex** – unconscious desire for the mother accompanied by rivalry with, and fear of retaliation from, the father (**castration anxiety**). **(c)** Freud interpreted Hans's fear of horses as a **displacement** of his castration anxiety and Oedipal hostility toward his father onto a safer, symbolic substitute: the horse unconsciously represented the father, with the black muzzle representing the father's moustache and the blinkers representing his glasses.

Bài tập luyện tập

Evaluate Freud's (1909) Little Hans study as a piece of psychological research. Give one strength and one limitation.

Lời giải chi tiết

Strength: as a longitudinal case study, it provided rich, detailed, idiographic data about one child's psychological development over time, including material (dreams, remarks, behaviour) that would be very difficult to capture using a controlled experiment. **Limitation:** the data were collected and filtered almost entirely by Hans's father, who already believed in Freud's theories before recording his observations – this raises a serious risk of **researcher/observer bias**, since ambiguous behaviour could easily have been recorded or interpreted in a way that supported the Oedipus complex theory rather than being an objective account.

Bài tập luyện tập

Compare the psychodynamic and learning explanations of phobias, using Little Hans (Freud, 1909) and Little Albert (Watson & Rayner, 1920) as examples.

Lời giải chi tiết

The **psychodynamic** explanation (Little Hans) holds that the phobia is a *symbolic, symptomatic* expression of an underlying unconscious conflict (here, castration anxiety/Oedipal rivalry) that has nothing directly to do with horses themselves – the horse is merely a substitute object onto which the true anxiety has been displaced. The **learning** explanation (Little Albert) holds that a phobia is acquired directly through **classical conditioning**: a previously neutral stimulus (the white rat) is repeatedly paired with a frightening unconditioned stimulus (a loud noise) until it alone triggers a conditioned fear response, with no unconscious symbolism involved. A key similarity is that both explanations trace the phobia to a specific early-childhood incident. A key difference is testability: the learning account makes directly observable, falsifiable predictions (pairing, generalisation to similar stimuli, extinction with retraining), whereas the psychodynamic account depends on subjective interpretation of symbolic meaning that is far harder to verify or disprove.

Bài tập luyện tập

According to Freud, which structure of personality operates entirely in the unconscious and is present from birth?

- | | |
|--------------|----------------|
| (A) Ego | (C) Id |
| (B) Superego | (D) Conscience |

Lời giải chi tiết

The **id** is present from birth and, unlike the ego and superego, operates entirely in the unconscious, demanding immediate gratification under the pleasure principle. **(C)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

At approximately what age does Freud theorise the superego forms, and via what process?

- | | |
|--|------------------------------------|
| (A) Age 1, via weaning | (C) Puberty, via the genital stage |
| (B) Age 5, via identification with the same-sex parent | (D) Age 3, via toilet training |

Lời giải chi tiết

The superego is theorised to form at around **age 5**, at the resolution of the phallic stage, through **identification with the same-sex parent**. **(B)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

Which psychosexual stage is associated with the age range approximately 1–3 years, the anus as erogenous zone, and toilet training as the central conflict?

- | | |
|----------|-------------|
| (A) Oral | (C) Phallic |
| (B) Anal | (D) Latency |

Lời giải chi tiết

This describes the **anal stage**. **(B)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

Outline the tripartite structure of personality proposed by Freud, and explain what happens (in Freud's theory) when the ego cannot satisfy both the id and the superego at the same time.

Lời giải chi tiết

Freud proposed three interacting structures: the **id** (present from birth, entirely unconscious, follows the pleasure principle, demands immediate gratification of biological drives); the **ego** (develops in the first 2–3 years, spans all three levels of awareness, follows the reality principle, mediates realistically between the id, the superego, and external reality); and the **superego** (forms at ≈age 5 via identification with the same-sex parent, follows the morality principle, comprising the conscience and the ego-ideal). When the ego cannot satisfy the id's demands without violating the superego's moral restrictions (or without conflicting with reality), the result is **anxiety**; the ego then deploys unconscious **defense mechanisms** to reduce this anxiety.

Bài tập luyện tập

Anh, an adult, is extremely stubborn, rigidly organised, and unusually stingy with money. Using Freud's theory of psychosexual fixation, (a) name the stage at which Anh may theoretically have become fixated, (b) name this specific personality type, and (c) suggest what kind of parental behaviour during that stage Freud's theory would predict as the cause.

Lời giải chi tiết

(a) The **anal stage** (approximately age 1–3). (b) This is the **anal-retentive** personality type (orderly, rigid, stubborn, stingy – a pattern of “holding on”). (c) Freud's theory would predict that Anh's parents used excessively harsh, strict toilet training, so that the conflict at this stage was never fully resolved and libido remained fixated there.

Bài tập luyện tập

Minh smokes heavily, bites his nails, and relies heavily on others to make decisions for him. According to Freud's theory of fixation, which stage and which fixation type does this best illustrate?

- (A) Anal-expulsive
(B) Oral-receptive

- (C) Phallic
(D) Oral-aggressive

Lời giải chi tiết

Behaviours centred on the mouth and on dependency/being cared for (smoking, nail-biting, relying on others) fit the **oral-receptive** fixation, theorised to result from unresolved conflict at the **oral stage**. (B).

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain, in Freud's theory, why the Oedipus complex is described as being resolved through “identification,” and why this process is significant for the rest of personality development.

Lời giải chi tiết

Freud theorised that the boy resolves the intense anxiety generated by the Oedipus complex (unconscious desire for the mother, fear of the father's retaliation/castration anxiety) by **repressing** his desire for the mother and instead unconsciously **identifying** with the father – taking on the father's characteristics, attitudes, and moral standards rather than continuing to compete with him. This process is significant because it is theorised to be the mechanism through which the **superego** forms: by internalising the father's (or, for girls, the mother's) moral authority, the child acquires an internal conscience and ego-ideal that will continue to regulate behaviour throughout life.

Bài tập luyện tập

The term “Electra complex,” sometimes used to describe girls' equivalent of the Oedipus complex, was introduced by which theorist, and what unconscious process did Freud associate with its resolution?

Lời giải chi tiết

The term **Electra complex** was introduced by **Carl Jung**, not Freud himself (Freud reportedly did not favour the term, though he discussed the underlying idea, centred on **penis envy**). Freud theorised that this situation is resolved through **identification with the mother**, by the same general mechanism through which the Oedipus complex is resolved in boys.

Bài tập luyện tập

During which psychosexual stage does Freud theorise that sexual urges become dormant while the child's psychic energy is redirected into skills, hobbies, schooling, and same-sex friendships?

- (A) Genital
(B) Phallic

- (C) Latency
(D) Anal

Lời giải chi tiết

This is the **latency stage** (roughly age 6 to puberty), a period Freud regarded as one of consolidation rather than conflict. **(C)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

What does the onset of the genital stage, at puberty, theoretically mark, according to Freud, and what determines whether this stage proceeds smoothly?

Lời giải chi tiết

The genital stage marks the **re-emergence of sexual urges**, now directed outward toward mature, adult romantic and sexual relationships rather than toward the self or a parent. Whether this stage proceeds smoothly depends, in Freud's theory, on whether the **earlier stages** (oral, anal, phallic, latency) were successfully resolved without leaving significant fixation; unresolved conflict carried over from earlier stages is theorised to continue disrupting adult relationships and personality from this point onward.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain Freud's general concept of **fixation**. Why is it important, when discussing fixation, to describe it explicitly as "Freud's theory" rather than as an established fact?

Lời giải chi tiết

Fixation is Freud's claim that if a child's needs are severely frustrated or excessively indulged at a given psychosexual stage, part of their libido remains permanently invested in that stage, continuing to influence adult personality traits or symptoms. It must be described explicitly as Freud's theory (rather than fact) because the claimed links between specific childhood experiences and specific adult traits are derived almost entirely from Freud's own subjective case-study interpretations; they have not been established through controlled, independently replicable scientific research, and alternative explanations for the same adult traits (e.g., genetic temperament, later-life learning) are equally or more plausible.

Bài tập luyện tập

For each scenario, name the defense mechanism being illustrated: (a) A man who is angry with his demanding manager says nothing at work, then snaps irritably at his partner for a minor mistake that evening. (b) A student who insulted a friend and felt guilty has no conscious memory of the incident at all when asked about it later. (c) A woman who unconsciously feels intensely jealous of her sister instead treats her sister with exaggerated warmth and generosity at every opportunity.

Lời giải chi tiết

(a) **Displacement** – the anger is redirected from its true (threatening) target, the manager, onto a safer substitute target, the partner. (b) **Repression** – the distressing memory has been excluded from conscious awareness entirely. (c) **Reaction formation** – the true, unacceptable feeling (jealousy/hostility) is converted into its conscious opposite (exaggerated warmth).

Bài tập luyện tập

For each scenario, name the defense mechanism being illustrated: (a) A person who was unfaithful to their partner becomes convinced, without evidence, that their partner is the one being unfaithful. (b) A person diagnosed with a serious illness insists to friends that the diagnosis must be a laboratory error, despite consistent test results. (c) A talented but frustrated athlete redirects their competitive aggression into an intense, disciplined training routine that wins them championships.

Lời giải chi tiết

(a) **Projection** – the person's own unacceptable impulse (infidelity) is attributed to another person instead. (b) **Denial** – an unpleasant reality (the diagnosis) is refused acknowledgment despite clear evidence. (c) **Sublimation** – an unacceptable or potentially destructive impulse (aggression) is redirected into a socially valued, productive activity (competitive training).

Bài tập luyện tập

For each scenario, name the defense mechanism being illustrated: (a) An adult who has just been demoted at work bursts into tears and refuses to speak to anyone, behaving as a young

child might after being scolded. (b) A man rejected by a university he badly wanted to attend tells everyone that he never really liked that university's programme anyway. (c) A young boy begins copying his father's opinions, mannerisms, and moral judgements almost exactly.

Lời giải chi tiết

(a) **Regression** – reverting, under stress, to behaviour characteristic of an earlier developmental stage. (b) **Rationalisation** – constructing a plausible-sounding but false justification to disguise the real (unconscious) motive, here likely disappointment/hurt at being rejected. (c) **Identification** – unconsciously adopting the attitudes and characteristics of another (more powerful) person, here central to the boy's superego development.

Bài tập luyện tập

Distinguish between the manifest content and the latent content of a dream, and explain the role of dream-work in psychoanalytic theory.

Lời giải chi tiết

The **manifest content** is the dream exactly as consciously experienced and reported by the dreamer – the literal storyline. The **latent content** is the true underlying unconscious meaning of the dream, typically a repressed wish or unresolved conflict too disturbing to be experienced directly. **Dream-work** is the unconscious process (using condensation, displacement, and symbolism) that disguises the latent content, transforming it into the safer manifest content that is actually experienced and recalled; in psychoanalysis, dream analysis works backward from the manifest content to try to reconstruct the latent content.

Bài tập luyện tập

A woman means to say “I'd love to see you again soon” to a colleague she is attracted to, but instead says “I'd love to sleep with you again soon.” What is this kind of error called in psychodynamic theory, and how would Freud interpret it?

Lời giải chi tiết

This is a **parapraxis**, commonly known as a **Freudian slip**. Freud would interpret it not as a random or meaningless error but as a genuine unconscious wish (attraction/desire) unintentionally “leaking through” the ego's normal censorship of speech, revealing a thought the speaker would not consciously have chosen to express.

Bài tập luyện tập

Which of the following best describes the aim of free association as used in psychoanalysis?

- | | |
|---|--|
| (A) To test a patient's short-term memory span | (C) To directly measure a patient's physiological arousal |
| (B) To let the patient speak without censorship so that unconscious material is eventually revealed | (D) To train the patient to avoid discussing their childhood |

Lời giải chi tiết

The aim of free association is to let the patient speak without self-editing so that, through the chain of associations, repressed unconscious material is gradually revealed – often indirectly, through hesitations, contradictions, or unexpected connections. **(B)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain what is meant by **transference** in psychoanalysis, and why Freud considered it therapeutically useful rather than simply an inconvenience.

Lời giải chi tiết

Transference occurs when a patient unconsciously redirects feelings originally held toward significant figures from their past – typically a parent – onto the therapist. Freud considered this therapeutically valuable (rather than merely an inconvenience) because it effectively re-enacts the patient's core unconscious conflicts *live*, within the therapy session itself, giving the therapist a direct opportunity to observe, interpret, and help the patient work through those very conflicts rather than relying solely on the patient's verbal reports of past events.

Bài tập luyện tập

State the central therapeutic aim of psychoanalysis in Freud's own terms, and explain briefly how this aim connects to the resolution of Little Hans's phobia.

Lời giải chi tiết

The central aim of psychoanalysis is “**making the unconscious conscious**” – bringing repressed, unconscious conflict into conscious awareness so the patient can confront and rationally resolve it rather than continuing to express it as a disguised symptom. In Little Hans's case, Freud believed the phobia would ease once the unconscious castration anxiety and Oedipal rivalry underlying it were interpreted and brought into awareness (via the father's reports and Freud's own interpretations) – consistent with Freud's account that Hans's fear of horses did in fact subside as he grew older.

Bài tập luyện tập

Outline the philosopher Karl Popper's central criticism of psychoanalytic theory, and explain, using an example, why it is considered difficult to apply this criticism.

Lời giải chi tiết

Popper argued that a scientific theory must be **falsifiable** – it must specify observations that would, in principle, disprove it. He criticised psychoanalytic theory for failing this test: because almost any behaviour can be reinterpreted after the fact to fit the theory, no observation seems capable of disproving it. For example, a boy who shows open affection toward his father, and a boy who shows open hostility toward his father, could *both* be explained by the Oedipus complex (the first as successful repression/identification, the second as unresolved rivalry) – so neither outcome could ever count as evidence against the theory.

Bài tập luyện tập

Which of the five AS approaches to psychology conducted Milgram's (1963) study of obedience and Piliavin, Rodin, and Piliavin's (1969) subway "Good Samaritan" study?

(A) Cognitive

(C) Social

(B) Biological

(D) Psychodynamic

Lời giải chi tiết

Both studies concern how the real presence of other people (an authority figure; bystanders on a train) shapes individual behaviour – this is the defining assumption of the **social** approach. (C).

Bài tập luyện tập

Using the comparison of approaches in Section 6.9, identify one similarity and one difference between the biological approach and the psychodynamic approach in how they explain the causes of behaviour.

Lời giải chi tiết

Similarity: both approaches are broadly deterministic – they trace adult behaviour back to causes largely outside the individual's conscious control (biological: genes/physiology present from birth or determined by biological maturation; psychodynamic: unconscious conflict rooted in early childhood). **Difference:** the biological approach locates the cause of behaviour in measurable physical structures and processes (brain regions, hormones, neurotransmitters) that can be studied using objective methods such as EEG or hormone assays; the psychodynamic approach locates the cause in unconscious mental conflict that cannot be directly observed or measured, and can only be inferred indirectly through methods such as case studies, dream analysis, and free association.

Bài tập luyện tập

Essay: Outline and evaluate the psychodynamic approach to psychology. Refer to the concepts of the unconscious mind and psychosexual stages, and to the Little Hans study (Freud, 1909), in your answer.

Lời giải chi tiết

A complete answer should include: **Outline** – the assumption that unconscious conflict, arising from the interaction of id, ego, and superego, and shaped by unresolved conflict at one of the psychosexual stages (oral, anal, phallic, latency, genital), drives adult personality and behaviour; the concept of fixation, by which unresolved stage-specific conflict produces characteristic adult traits or symptoms; and the therapeutic aim of psychoanalysis, "making the unconscious conscious." **Little Hans:** summarise the aim (supporting the Oedipus complex/infantile sexuality), procedure (longitudinal case study based mainly on the father's records), findings (phobia of horses, especially those with black muzzles and blinkers), and Freud's interpretation (displacement of castration anxiety/Oedipal rivalry, horse symbolising the father). **Evaluation** – strengths: rich idiographic insight, pioneering emphasis on the unconscious and childhood, lasting influence on therapy and culture; limitations: low falsifiability (Popper's criticism), strong psychic determinism, over-reliance on subjective case-study interpretation and

small, potentially biased samples (as with Hans's father). A strong answer weighs these points against each other rather than simply listing them, and reaches a balanced, justified conclusion about the approach's overall scientific and practical value.

Bài tập luyện tập

Essay: Using Table 6.1, compare the psychodynamic approach with any two other AS approaches to psychology in terms of (a) their key assumption about the cause of behaviour, and (b) the kind of evidence (core studies/methods) each uses to support its claims.

Lời giải chi tiết

A strong answer selects two contrasting approaches and addresses both (a) and (b) explicitly, for example: **Psychodynamic vs. learning** – (a) the psychodynamic approach attributes behaviour to unconscious conflict rooted in early childhood psychosexual experience, whereas the learning approach attributes behaviour entirely to learning from environmental experience (classical/operant conditioning, observational learning), with no reference to unconscious processes; (b) the psychodynamic approach relies on subjective interpretation of individual case studies (e.g., Freud's Little Hans, 1909), while the learning approach relies on controlled, replicable experimental studies (e.g., Bandura, Ross & Ross, 1961; Watson & Rayner, 1920), which are more directly falsifiable. **Psychodynamic vs. cognitive** – (a) the psychodynamic approach sees behaviour as driven by hidden, unconscious conflict, while the cognitive approach sees behaviour as the product of identifiable, modellable mental processes (memory, perception) that the individual is not necessarily unaware of; (b) cognitive research (e.g., Baron-Cohen et al., 2001; Pozzulo & Lindsay, 1998) typically uses controlled, quantifiable tasks with measurable outcomes, giving it stronger claims to scientific rigour than the psychodynamic approach's reliance on qualitative case-study interpretation.

Bài tập luyện tập

A psychology student argues: "Because Little Hans's phobia eventually went away, this proves that Freud's psychoanalytic interpretation of the case was correct." Evaluate this claim.

Lời giải chi tiết

This claim overstates what the case study can demonstrate. The fact that Hans's phobia subsided over time does not, by itself, prove that Freud's *specific* interpretation (displaced castration anxiety and Oedipal rivalry, horse symbolising the father) was the true underlying cause – phobias in children are also commonly reported to fade naturally with time and maturation, regardless of any psychoanalytic intervention, and alternative explanations (e.g., a learning-based extinction of an association, reduced exposure to frightening horse-related experiences, general cognitive and emotional development) cannot be ruled out from a single, uncontrolled case study. This illustrates a broader limitation of psychodynamic case-study evidence: because there is no comparison/control condition, and no single alternative explanation can be conclusively excluded, correlational or coincidental changes are easily – but not necessarily correctly – attributed to the theory being tested.

Bài tập luyện tập

Give one ethical consideration that arises specifically from the way data were collected in the Little Hans case study, and explain why it matters.

Lời giải chi tiết

One key ethical consideration is **informed consent and the vulnerability of a child participant**: Hans, a five-year-old, could not meaningfully consent to having his private thoughts, dreams, and behaviour recorded and analysed, and interpreted material of a sexual nature (the Oedipus complex, castration anxiety) was attributed to him without his own agreement or, arguably, full understanding. This matters because it raises the question of whether the psychological welfare and privacy of a young child were adequately protected, and highlights why modern research ethics place strong emphasis on safeguards (parental/guardian consent, right to withdraw, protection from harm) specifically for research involving children.

Bài tập luyện tập

Which pair correctly matches a defense mechanism with its definition? (a) Sublimation – redirecting an unacceptable impulse into a socially valued activity. (b) Rationalisation – unconsciously adopting another person’s characteristics. (c) Identification – constructing a false but plausible justification for one’s behaviour. (d) Reaction formation – refusing to acknowledge an unpleasant reality.

(A) (a) only

(C) (b), (c), and (d)

(B) (a) and (b)

(D) All four

Lời giải chi tiết

Only pairing (a) is correct: sublimation does redirect an unacceptable impulse into a socially valued activity. Pairing (b) is wrong (that definition describes identification, not rationalisation); pairing (c) is wrong (that definition describes rationalisation, not identification); pairing (d) is wrong (that definition describes denial, not reaction formation). **(A)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

A ten-year-old child shows little interest in romantic relationships and instead focuses intensely on football training and friendships with other boys. According to Freud’s stage theory, which stage is this child most likely in?

(A) Phallic

(C) Genital

(B) Latency

(D) Anal

Lời giải chi tiết

This pattern – dormant sexual/romantic interest with energy directed into skills, hobbies, and same-sex friendships – is characteristic of the **latency stage** (roughly age 6 to puberty). **(B)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain why the psychodynamic approach is often described as reflecting strong **psychic determinism**, and briefly state one consequence of this for how the approach views free will.

Lời giải chi tiết

The psychodynamic approach is described as reflecting strong psychic determinism because it explains adult thought, emotion, and behaviour almost entirely as the product of forces the

individual cannot consciously access or control – unconscious conflict between the id, ego, and superego, and unresolved conflict from early psychosexual stages that occurred before the child had any real capacity for conscious choice. One consequence is that the approach leaves very little room for genuine **free will**: even behaviour that feels freely chosen (e.g., a Freudian slip, an irrational fear, a personality trait) is theorised to be ultimately caused by hidden unconscious forces rather than by conscious deliberation.

Bài tập luyện tập

A young woman insists she does not mind that she was not invited to a close friend's wedding, claiming she "wasn't that interested in going anyway," even though she is visibly upset. Which defense mechanism does this most likely illustrate, and how is it different from denial?

Lời giải chi tiết

This illustrates **rationalisation** – constructing a logical-sounding but false justification ("I wasn't that interested anyway") to disguise the real, unconscious hurt she feels. It differs from **denial** in what is being distorted: denial refuses to acknowledge that an upsetting reality exists at all (e.g., insisting she truly does not feel hurt), whereas rationalisation acknowledges the situation (not being invited) but reinterprets its meaning or cause to make it emotionally more acceptable, without denying the event itself occurred.

Applied Specialism: Clinical Psychology

Mục tiêu Unit: Áp dụng tâm lý học lâm sàng (A2): định nghĩa và phân loại rối loạn tâm thần (DSM-5/ICD-11), độ tin cậy và giá trị của chẩn đoán (nghiên cứu cốt lõi Rosenhan 1973), tâm thần phân liệt, rối loạn cảm xúc/kiểm soát xung động, rối loạn lo âu, nghiện (addiction), các phương pháp điều trị và khung đánh giá điều trị, cùng các vấn đề đánh giá tổng quát của tâm lý học lâm sàng (mô hình diathesis-stress, gián lược luận, đạo đức điều trị bắt buộc).

7.1 Defining and Classifying Psychological Abnormality

7.1.1 Criteria for defining abnormality

Before any disorder can be diagnosed or treated, clinical psychology must first answer a deceptively hard question: what counts as **abnormal**? No single criterion is adequate on its own, so clinicians and researchers use four overlapping criteria.

Four criteria for abnormality

- **Statistical infrequency:** behaviour, thoughts, or emotions that occur rarely in the population (i.e., fall outside the statistically common range, typically beyond roughly two standard deviations from the mean) are labelled abnormal. *Limitation:* rarity alone does not imply harm (a very high IQ is statistically rare but not disordered), and some disorders (e.g., mild depressive symptoms) are common enough to fail this criterion despite being genuinely impairing.
- **Deviation from social norms:** behaviour that violates the unwritten rules of conduct within a particular society or culture is judged abnormal. *Limitation:* social norms vary across cultures and historical periods (e.g., attitudes to homosexuality have changed markedly across DSM editions), so this criterion risks pathologising cultural or political non-conformity rather than genuine dysfunction.
- **Failure to function adequately:** abnormality is indicated when a person can no longer meet the ordinary demands of daily living — maintaining hygiene, relationships, employment, or personal safety — and when their behaviour causes them (or others) distress. *Limitation:* some disordered individuals function outwardly well (masking distress), while some unconventional but non-disordered lifestyles look like “failure to function” to an outside observer.
- **Deviation from ideal mental health (Jahoda):** rather than defining abnormality directly, this approach lists positive criteria for good mental health (e.g., accurate perception of reality, self-actualisation, autonomy, resistance to stress, positive self-attitude) and treats any large shortfall from this ideal as abnormal. *Limitation:* the ideal is demanding and culturally loaded — very few people, disordered or not, meet all criteria simultaneously.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Không có một tiêu chí duy nhất định nghĩa được **sự bất thường tâm lý**, nên các nhà lâm sàng thường kết hợp 4 tiêu chí: (1) **Hiếm gặp về mặt thống kê** — hành vi nằm ngoài phạm vi phổ

biến của dân số, nhưng hiếm không đồng nghĩa với có hại; (2) **Lệch chuẩn xã hội** – vi phạm quy tắc ứng xử ngầm định của một xã hội/văn hoá, nhưng chuẩn mực xã hội thay đổi theo thời gian và văn hoá; (3) **Không đáp ứng được chức năng sống hàng ngày** – mất khả năng duy trì vệ sinh, công việc, quan hệ xã hội, gây đau khổ cho bản thân/người khác; (4) **Lệch khỏi sức khoẻ tâm thần lý tưởng (Jahoda)** – liệt kê các tiêu chí tích cực (nhận thức đúng thực tế, tự hiện thực hoá, tự chủ...) và coi sự thiếu hụt lớn so với lý tưởng này là bất thường. Mỗi tiêu chí đều có giới hạn riêng, nên trong đề thi cần đánh giá cả bốn.

7.1.2 Classification systems: DSM-5 and ICD-11

Once a working definition of abnormality is agreed, disorders must be organised into a shared, communicable system so that clinicians across the world can reach the same diagnosis from the same set of symptoms. Two major classification systems are used internationally.

Feature	DSM-5	ICD-11
Publisher	American Psychiatric Association (APA)	World Health Organization (WHO)
Scope	Manual dedicated entirely to mental disorders	Chapter on mental, behavioural, and neurodevelopmental disorders within a wider manual covering <i>all</i> diseases
Approach	Detailed operational criteria (symptom counts, duration thresholds) for each category	Broader clinical description guidelines intended to be more flexible across cultures and healthcare settings
Primary use	Common in the USA and much clinical research	Used for international health statistics and clinical practice in most other countries, including the UK

Both systems classify disorders into named categories on the basis of clusters of symptoms, and both are revised periodically as new evidence and clinical consensus accumulate (e.g., ICD-11 in 2019, following DSM-5 in 2013 and DSM-5-TR in 2022). Neither system claims to identify a single biological cause for each category – diagnosis is symptom-based, not test-based.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Có **hai hệ thống phân loại** chính được dùng trên thế giới: **DSM-5** (Diagnostic and Statistical Manual, do Hiệp hội Tâm thần học Hoa Kỳ – APA – biên soạn) và **ICD-11** (International Classification of Diseases, do Tổ chức Y tế Thế giới – WHO – biên soạn, bao gồm mọi loại bệnh chứ không riêng tâm thần). DSM-5 đưa ra tiêu chí rất cụ thể (số lượng triệu chứng, thời gian tối thiểu), trong khi ICD-11 mô tả lâm sàng linh hoạt hơn để áp dụng across nhiều nền văn hoá. Cả hai đều chẩn đoán dựa trên **cụm triệu chứng** quan sát được, không dựa trên xét nghiệm sinh học trực tiếp, và đều được cập nhật định kỳ.

7.1.3 Reliability and validity of diagnosis

A classification system is only useful if it produces diagnoses that are both **reliable** (consistent) and **valid** (accurate/meaningful).

Reliability and validity in diagnosis

- **Inter-rater reliability:** the degree to which two or more independent clinicians, given the same patient information, arrive at the *same* diagnosis. Low inter-rater reliability (clinicians

disagreeing) undermines confidence in the whole classification system.

- **Test-retest reliability:** the degree to which the *same* clinician, assessing the same patient on two separate occasions (with no genuine change in condition), reaches the same diagnosis each time.
- **Validity:** whether a diagnostic category actually corresponds to a genuine, distinct underlying condition, and whether it predicts what it should (e.g., response to a particular treatment, or course of the illness over time).
- **Cultural bias in diagnosis:** the same behaviour or reported symptom (e.g., hearing the voice of a deceased relative, extreme emotional expressiveness) may be interpreted as a normal cultural or religious practice in one culture and as a symptom of psychosis in another, because diagnostic criteria have often been developed and validated on Western, English-speaking populations.

Successive revisions of DSM and ICD have attempted to address these problems directly: DSM-5 introduced more precise operational criteria (specific symptom counts and durations) partly to raise inter-rater reliability compared with earlier, more impressionistic editions; both DSM-5 and ICD-11 include **cultural formulation** guidance, encouraging clinicians to consider a patient's cultural background before interpreting a reported symptom as pathological; and both systems continue to revise category boundaries (e.g., separating obsessive-compulsive disorder from the anxiety disorders in DSM-5) as research clarifies which symptom clusters travel together and predict a distinct course and treatment response – i.e., as validity evidence accumulates.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Một hệ thống chẩn đoán tốt cần có **độ tin cậy (reliability)** và **giá trị (validity)**. **Độ tin cậy liên đánh giá viên (inter-rater):** hai bác sĩ khác nhau xem cùng một hồ sơ bệnh án có đưa ra cùng một chẩn đoán không? **Độ tin cậy kiểm tra lại (test-retest):** cùng một bác sĩ, đánh giá cùng bệnh nhân ở hai thời điểm khác nhau (khi bệnh không thực sự thay đổi) có cho kết quả giống nhau không? **Giá trị:** liệu một danh mục chẩn đoán có thực sự phản ánh một tình trạng bệnh lý riêng biệt và dự đoán đúng diễn tiến/đáp ứng điều trị hay không? **Thiên kiến văn hoá (cultural bias):** cùng một triệu chứng có thể được xem là bình thường ở văn hoá này nhưng bị coi là bệnh lý ở văn hoá khác, vì tiêu chí chẩn đoán thường được xây dựng chủ yếu từ dân số phương Tây. Các phiên bản DSM/ICD mới đều cố gắng khắc phục hai vấn đề này bằng tiêu chí cụ thể hơn và hướng dẫn xem xét bối cảnh văn hoá.

7.1.4 Core study: Rosenhan (1973) – On being sane in insane places

The most influential single study on the reliability and validity of psychiatric diagnosis is David Rosenhan's field experiment, published in the journal *Science* in 1973.

Core study · Rosenhan (1973)

Aim: to test whether psychiatric diagnosis can reliably distinguish the sane from the insane – that is, whether hospital staff can accurately tell who is genuinely mentally disordered and who is not, once a person has entered the psychiatric system.

Procedure: eight “pseudopatients” with no genuine psychiatric symptoms (including Rosenhan himself, and a mix of other men and women from varied occupations) sought admission to twelve different psychiatric hospitals across the USA. Each pseudopatient telephoned for an appointment and, on arrival, reported a single fabricated symptom: hearing an unclear voice, of the same sex as themselves, saying words such as “empty”, “hollow”, and “thud”. Beyond this one invented symptom, pseudopatients gave a truthful account of their life history (with

names/occupations altered) and reported no other symptoms at all. Once admitted to the ward, each pseudopatient immediately stopped simulating *any* symptoms and behaved completely normally, cooperating with staff and — critically — covertly noting their observations of ward life (which became a central part of the data).

Findings: all eight pseudopatients were admitted; seven were given a diagnosis of schizophrenia and one a diagnosis of manic depression. None of the pseudopatients were detected as sane by any member of hospital staff at any point during their stay, despite displaying entirely normal behaviour once admitted (their length of stay ranged from about one to seven weeks). Notably, a number of genuine patients on the wards did suspect that the pseudopatients were not really unwell, sometimes voicing this directly (“you’re not crazy, you’re a journalist or professor”). Ordinary behaviour, such as note-taking, was frequently reinterpreted by staff through the lens of the existing diagnostic label — for example, being recorded in nursing notes as “patient engages in writing behaviour”, consistent with pathology, rather than as a normal activity. Eventually, all pseudopatients were discharged, not as “sane” but with their diagnosis listed as being “in remission”.

Conclusion: the study raises serious doubts about the **reliability and validity of psychiatric diagnosis** within institutional settings: staff were unable to distinguish sane pseudopatients from genuinely disordered patients over an extended period. It also demonstrates the power of a **diagnostic label** and institutional context to shape how a person’s entirely normal behaviour is subsequently perceived and interpreted — once labelled “schizophrenic”, ordinary behaviour was seen as confirming the label rather than contradicting it.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Nghiên cứu của **Rosenhan (1973)** kiểm tra xem chẩn đoán tâm thần có thể phân biệt đáng tin cậy giữa người bình thường và người có bệnh hay không. **8 người giả bệnh** (pseudopatients) — hoàn toàn khoẻ mạnh về tâm thần — xin nhập viện tại nhiều bệnh viện tâm thần khác nhau ở Mỹ, chỉ khai báo **một triệu chứng** duy nhất: nghe thấy một giọng nói không rõ ràng, nói các từ như “rỗng”, “trống trải”, “thịch”. Sau khi nhập viện, họ **ngừng hoàn toàn** việc giả vờ có triệu chứng và cư xử hoàn toàn bình thường. Kết quả: **cả 8 người đều được nhận vào viện**, phần lớn bị chẩn đoán **tâm thần phân liệt**, và **không một nhân viên y tế nào** phát hiện ra họ là người bình thường trong suốt thời gian nằm viện — dù một số bệnh nhân thật sự lại nghi ngờ điều này. Họ được xuất viện với chẩn đoán “đang thuyên giảm” chứ không phải “bình thường”. Kết luận: nghiên cứu đặt ra nghi vấn nghiêm trọng về **độ tin cậy và giá trị** của chẩn đoán tâm thần trong bối cảnh viện, đồng thời cho thấy **nhãn chẩn đoán** có thể bóp méo cách người khác diễn giải hành vi hoàn toàn bình thường.



Design of Rosenhan (1973): a single fabricated symptom secured admission; once inside, entirely normal behaviour failed to trigger detection or discharge as “sane”.

Rosenhan’s study has clear **strengths**: it was conducted in real psychiatric hospitals rather than an artificial laboratory setting, giving it high ecological validity, and its findings had a substantial real-world impact on diagnostic practice and on later revisions of diagnostic manuals. It also has notable **limitations**: it required deceiving hospital staff (an ethical concern, since staff could not give informed consent to being studied and unknowingly devoted clinical resources to healthy pseudopatients), the sample of hospitals was relatively small and not representative of psychiatric care in general, and later critics have questioned some methodological details of the study (including whether all

reported events can be independently verified), meaning its conclusions, while influential, should be applied with some caution.

(!) Lỗi thường gặp: Đừng viết rằng Rosenhan chứng minh “chẩn đoán tâm thần là vô giá trị”. Kết luận chính xác hơn: nghiên cứu cho thấy chẩn đoán **có thể thiếu tin cậy và giá trị trong bối cảnh cụ thể được nghiên cứu** (viện tâm thần Mỹ đầu thập niên 1970), và nhãn chẩn đoán có thể ảnh hưởng đến cách diễn giải hành vi — đây không phải là bằng chứng rằng *mọi* chẩn đoán tâm thần đều sai, mà là lời cảnh báo về giới hạn của quy trình chẩn đoán dựa trên quan sát hành vi.

7.1.5 Stigma and the impact of diagnostic labelling

Rosenhan's findings about staff reinterpreting normal behaviour once a label had been applied point to a wider issue in clinical psychology: the social impact of **diagnostic labelling**. Once a person receives a diagnosis such as “schizophrenia”, other people (and sometimes the individual themselves) may begin to interpret their behaviour, however ordinary, through the lens of that label — a process that can contribute to **stigma**: negative stereotyping, social exclusion, and discrimination directed at people with a mental health diagnosis. Stigma can have serious practical consequences, including reduced willingness to seek help, difficulty obtaining or keeping employment, and reduced self-esteem (sometimes called **self-stigma**, when a person internalises negative societal attitudes about their own diagnosis). This is one reason clinicians are encouraged to communicate diagnoses carefully and to consider the psychological and social impact of a label, not only its clinical accuracy.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Việc gán **nhãn chẩn đoán** (ví dụ “tâm thần phân liệt”) không chỉ mang tính y khoa mà còn có tác động xã hội lớn: người khác (và đôi khi chính bệnh nhân) bắt đầu diễn giải mọi hành vi của họ theo nhãn đó, góp phần tạo ra **sự kỳ thị (stigma)** — định kiến tiêu cực, phân biệt đối xử, khó khăn trong công việc và quan hệ xã hội. Đây chính là điều Rosenhan quan sát được: nhân viên y tế diễn giải cả những hành vi hoàn toàn bình thường (như ghi chép) theo hướng bệnh lý chỉ vì đã có nhãn chẩn đoán. Nhiều bệnh nhân còn tự kỳ thị bản thân (**self-stigma**), làm giảm sự tự tin và né tránh tìm kiếm hỗ trợ.

7.2 Schizophrenia

7.2.1 Symptoms

Schizophrenia is a severe disorder characterised by a profound disturbance of thought, perception, and emotional expression. Its symptoms are traditionally divided into two categories.

Positive symptoms (added to normal experience)	Negative symptoms (reduction/loss of normal function)
Hallucinations — perceiving things that are not present (most commonly auditory, e.g., hearing voices)	Avolition — a marked reduction in motivation to initiate or persist in goal-directed activity
Delusions — strongly held false beliefs resistant to contrary evidence (e.g., delusions of persecution or grandeur)	Flat affect — a reduced range and intensity of emotional expression
Disorganised speech and thought — incoherent or loosely connected speech, reflecting disordered thinking	Alogia — poverty of speech; reduced quantity and spontaneity of verbal output
	Social withdrawal — reduced interest in and engagement with other people

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Triệu chứng của tâm thần phân liệt chia làm hai nhóm: **triệu chứng dương tính** (positive) — những trải nghiệm *thêm vào* so với bình thường: **ảo giác** (hallucinations, thường là ảo thanh — nghe thấy giọng nói), **hoang tưởng** (delusions — niềm tin sai lệch nhưng rất kiên định), **ngôn ngữ/tư duy vô tổ chức**; và **triệu chứng âm tính** (negative) — sự *suy giảm* chức năng bình thường: **mất động lực** (avolition), **cảm xúc cùn mòn** (flat affect), **nghèo nàn ngôn ngữ** (alogia), **thu mình xã hội**. Phân biệt hai nhóm này là kỹ năng thi thường gặp.

7.2.2 Biological explanations

The dopamine hypothesis

The dopamine hypothesis proposes that schizophrenia (particularly its positive symptoms) results from **excess dopamine activity**, especially at **D2 receptors** in the **mesolimbic pathway** of the brain. Supporting evidence includes: (1) amphetamines, which increase dopamine release, can induce psychotic symptoms resembling schizophrenia in healthy individuals and worsen symptoms in patients; (2) antipsychotic drugs that block D2 receptors tend to reduce positive symptoms, consistent with excess dopamine transmission being involved in producing them. The hypothesis is less successful at explaining negative symptoms, which some researchers link instead to *reduced* dopamine activity in other brain pathways (e.g., the mesocortical pathway) — suggesting the full picture involves more than a single, uniform change in dopamine level across the whole brain.

Genetic research also provides strong evidence for a biological contribution: twin studies consistently find a substantially higher concordance rate for schizophrenia in monozygotic (identical) twins than in dizygotic (non-identical) twins, family studies show that risk rises with the closeness of biological relationship to an affected relative, and adoption studies show that children of a biological parent with schizophrenia carry an elevated risk even when raised by adoptive parents without the disorder — evidence that genetic transmission, not simply shared upbringing, contributes to risk. Because concordance in monozygotic twins is well below 100%, however, genes clearly do not act alone; this observation motivates the **diathesis-stress model** (Section 7.7), in which an inherited biological vulnerability only develops into full schizophrenia when combined with an environmental trigger.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Giả thuyết dopamine cho rằng tâm thần phân liệt (đặc biệt là triệu chứng dương tính) liên quan đến **dư thừa dopamine**, nhất là ở **thụ thể D2** trên **đường dẫn truyền mesolimbic**. Bằng chứng: amphetamine (làm tăng dopamine) có thể gây triệu chứng loạn thần giống tâm thần phân liệt; thuốc chống loạn thần chặn thụ thể D2 giúp giảm triệu chứng dương tính. Tuy nhiên giả thuyết này giải thích kém hơn với triệu chứng âm tính. Về mặt di truyền: nghiên cứu cặp song sinh cho thấy tỷ lệ đồng mắc ở song sinh cùng trứng cao hơn khác trứng; nghiên cứu con nuôi cho thấy nguy cơ tăng theo huyết thống sinh học dù được nuôi dưỡng bởi cha mẹ nuôi không mắc bệnh — chứng tỏ có yếu tố di truyền thực sự, không chỉ do môi trường nuôi dưỡng chung. Vì tỷ lệ đồng mắc song sinh cùng trứng không đạt 100%, gene không phải là yếu tố duy nhất — đây là cơ sở cho **mô hình diathesis-stress**.

7.2.3 Diathesis-stress applied to schizophrenia

Applying the general diathesis-stress logic specifically to schizophrenia: an individual may inherit a biological predisposition (a **diathesis**) — for example, genetic variants affecting dopamine signalling — that on its own is not sufficient to produce the disorder. Onset is triggered when this vulnerability combines with a significant environmental **stressor**, such as early life adversity, heavy cannabis use,

obstetric complications, or a major stressful life event. This integrative view explains why monozygotic twins, despite sharing (almost) identical genes, do not show 100% concordance: the co-twin without the disorder likely carries the diathesis but has not encountered a sufficient triggering stressor.

7.2.4 Treatments

Antipsychotic drug treatments

- **Typical (first-generation) antipsychotics**, e.g. **chlorpromazine**: act primarily as **D2 receptor antagonists**, blocking dopamine transmission throughout the brain. They are generally effective against positive symptoms but commonly cause extrapyramidal (motor) side effects, because they also block dopamine pathways involved in movement control.
- **Atypical (second-generation) antipsychotics**, e.g. **clozapine**: act on both **dopamine and serotonin** receptors, with a more selective/temporary binding profile at D2 receptors. They tend to produce fewer motor side effects than typical antipsychotics and may have some benefit for negative symptoms, though they carry their own risks (e.g., clozapine requires regular blood monitoring because of a small risk of a serious blood disorder).
- **Cognitive behavioural therapy (CBT)** is frequently used as an **adjunct** (addition) to antipsychotic medication, helping patients evaluate and reduce distress from delusional beliefs and hallucinations, and to develop coping strategies — it is not typically used as a sole treatment for schizophrenia.

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VN

Thuốc chống loạn thần điển hình (typical) như chlorpromazine chặn thụ thể D2 dopamine trên toàn não — hiệu quả với triệu chứng dương tính nhưng dễ gây tác dụng phụ vận động (do cũng chặn dopamine ở vùng kiểm soát vận động). **Thuốc chống loạn thần không điển hình (atypical)** như clozapine tác động lên cả dopamine và serotonin, ít tác dụng phụ vận động hơn nhưng có nguy cơ riêng (clozapine cần theo dõi máu định kỳ). **CBT** thường được dùng **bổ sung** cho thuốc, giúp bệnh nhân đánh giá lại niềm tin hoang tưởng và giảm đau khổ do ảo giác, chứ hiếm khi dùng đơn độc.

7.3 Mood and Impulse-Control Disorders

7.3.1 Major depressive disorder

Major depressive disorder (MDD) is diagnosed when a person experiences persistent low mood and/or **anhedonia** (loss of interest or pleasure in previously enjoyable activities), together with symptoms such as fatigue, disturbed sleep, appetite change, feelings of worthlessness, and difficulty concentrating, present for at least two weeks and representing a change from previous functioning.

Explanations of depression

- **Biological — the monoamine hypothesis**: depression is linked to reduced activity of monoamine neurotransmitters, particularly **serotonin** and **noradrenaline**, in the brain. Genetic factors also contribute to vulnerability, as shown by elevated concordance rates in monozygotic compared with dizygotic twins.
- **Cognitive — Beck's cognitive theory**: depression arises from characteristic negative patterns of thinking established (often in childhood) and then reactivated by later stress. Central to this is the **negative triad**: negative automatic thoughts about the *self* ("I am worthless"), the *world* ("nothing ever goes right"), and the *future* ("things will never improve").

These are maintained by systematic **cognitive distortions**, such as **catastrophising** (assuming the worst possible outcome) and overgeneralising from a single negative event.

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Rối loạn trầm cảm chủ yếu (MDD): tâm trạng buồn kéo dài và/hoặc **mất hứng thú** (anhedonia) với các hoạt động từng yêu thích, kèm mệt mỏi, rối loạn giấc ngủ/ăn uống, kéo dài ít nhất 2 tuần. **Giải thích sinh học: giả thuyết monoamine** — giảm hoạt động của serotonin và noradrenaline, cộng với yếu tố di truyền. **Giải thích nhận thức (Beck): bộ ba nhận thức tiêu cực** (negative triad) — suy nghĩ tiêu cực về bản thân, thế giới, và tương lai — được duy trì bởi các **méo mó nhận thức** như **thảm hoạ hoá** (catastrophising).

7.3.2 Bipolar disorder and impulse-control disorders

Bipolar disorder involves alternating episodes of mania (elevated mood, increased energy, reduced need for sleep, impulsivity) and depression, distinguishing it from unipolar (major depressive) disorder. **Impulse-control disorders**, such as **kleptomania** (recurrent failure to resist urges to steal items not needed for personal use or monetary value), are associated with impaired regulation by the **pre-frontal cortex**, the brain region normally responsible for inhibiting impulsive behaviour and weighing longer-term consequences.

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Rối loạn lưỡng cực (bipolar): xen kẽ giữa giai đoạn **hưng cảm** (mania — tâm trạng phấn khích, tăng năng lượng, giảm nhu cầu ngủ, bốc đồng) và giai đoạn trầm cảm — khác với trầm cảm đơn cực. **Rối loạn kiểm soát xung động** (ví dụ kleptomania — trộm cắp cưỡng bức) liên quan đến sự suy giảm điều hoà của **vỏ não trước trán (prefrontal cortex)**, vùng não vốn chịu trách nhiệm ức chế hành vi bốc đồng.

7.3.3 Treatments

SSRIs (selective serotonin reuptake inhibitors) are the most commonly prescribed medication for depression: they block the reabsorption (reuptake) of serotonin at the synapse, increasing its availability, consistent with the monoamine hypothesis. **CBT** for depression directly targets Beck's negative triad and cognitive distortions, helping patients identify, challenge, and replace automatic negative thoughts with more balanced alternatives; it is often combined with **behavioural activation**, which structures a gradual return to rewarding and previously enjoyed activities to counter avolition and social withdrawal.

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SSRI (thuốc ức chế tái hấp thu serotonin chọn lọc) là thuốc phổ biến nhất cho trầm cảm — ngăn tái hấp thu serotonin tại synapse, làm tăng lượng serotonin sẵn có. **CBT** trực tiếp giải quyết bộ ba nhận thức tiêu cực và các méo mó nhận thức của Beck, thường kết hợp với **kích hoạt hành vi (behavioural activation)** — từng bước đưa bệnh nhân trở lại các hoạt động có ý nghĩa/thú vị để chống lại tình trạng mất động lực và thu mình.

7.4 Anxiety Disorders

7.4.1 Types of anxiety disorder

Anxiety disorders

- **Specific phobia:** a marked, persistent, and excessive fear of a specific object or situation (e.g., spiders, heights, flying), out of proportion to any actual danger, leading to avoidance.
- **Generalised anxiety disorder (GAD):** persistent, excessive worry about a wide range of everyday events and activities, not focused on one specific trigger, accompanied by physical symptoms such as muscle tension and restlessness.
- **Obsessive-compulsive disorder (OCD):** intrusive, unwanted, repetitive thoughts (**obsessions**) that provoke anxiety, coupled with repetitive behaviours or mental acts (**compulsions**) performed to reduce that anxiety. OCD was historically grouped with the anxiety disorders, but DSM-5 places it in its own separate category (obsessive-compulsive and related disorders) in recognition of its distinctive features, even though anxiety remains central to the disorder.

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Am ảnh sợ đặc hiệu (specific phobia): sợ hãi quá mức, dai dẳng với một đối tượng/tình huống cụ thể, dẫn đến né tránh. **Rối loạn lo âu lan toả (GAD):** lo lắng quá mức, dai dẳng về nhiều vấn đề hàng ngày (không tập trung vào một tác nhân cụ thể), kèm căng cơ, bồn chồn. **Rối loạn ám ảnh cưỡng chế (OCD):** suy nghĩ ám ảnh xâm nhập (obsessions) gây lo âu, đi kèm hành vi/nghi thức cưỡng chế (compulsions) để giảm lo âu đó. DSM-5 tách OCD ra khỏi nhóm rối loạn lo âu thành một nhóm riêng, dù lo âu vẫn là yếu tố trung tâm.

7.4.2 Explanations of anxiety disorders

Biological, behavioural, and cognitive explanations

- **Biological:** genetic predisposition raises vulnerability to anxiety disorders; neurologically, an **overactive amygdala** (the brain structure central to processing fear) has been linked to exaggerated fear responses, while in GAD specifically, **dysregulated GABA** activity (GABA is the brain's principal inhibitory neurotransmitter, normally dampening neural excitability) is thought to leave the nervous system in a chronically over-aroused state.
- **Behavioural/learning:** phobias can be acquired through **classical conditioning** — an originally neutral stimulus becomes paired with a frightening or painful unconditioned stimulus, so that the previously neutral stimulus alone comes to trigger a conditioned fear response (see the conditioning principles covered in the learning theory chapter); the fear is then maintained through avoidance, which prevents the association from being unlearned.
- **Cognitive:** anxiety disorders are maintained by a tendency toward **catastrophic misinterpretation** — automatically interpreting ambiguous bodily sensations or situations as signalling extreme danger (e.g., interpreting a slightly raised heart rate as evidence of an imminent heart attack), which escalates physiological arousal and reinforces the anxious interpretation in a self-sustaining cycle.

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Giải thích sinh học: khuynh hướng di truyền, **hạch hạnh nhân (amygdala)** hoạt động quá mức gây phản ứng sợ hãi phóng đại; ở GAD, **GABA** (chất dẫn truyền thần kinh ức chế chính) hoạt động rối loạn khiến hệ thần kinh luôn trong trạng thái kích thích quá mức. **Giải thích học tập/hành vi:** ám ảnh sợ có thể hình thành qua **điều kiện hoá cổ điển** — một kích thích trung

tính ghép cặp với kích thích gây sợ, sau đó tự nó gây ra phản ứng sợ; hành vi né tránh duy trì nỗi sợ vì ngăn cản việc "học lại". **Giải thích nhận thức:** xu hướng **diễn giải thảm họa** — hiểu sai các cảm giác cơ thể mơ hồ thành dấu hiệu nguy hiểm cực độ, tạo vòng lặp tự duy trì lo âu.

7.4.3 Treatments

Treating anxiety disorders

- **Systematic desensitisation:** a gradual, graded exposure technique combined with relaxation training, working up a fear hierarchy from least to most frightening situations, so the feared stimulus becomes paired with relaxation instead of anxiety (counterconditioning).
- **Flooding:** exposure to the most feared stimulus at full intensity from the outset (rather than gradually), relying on the fact that anxiety cannot be sustained indefinitely and will eventually subside (extinction) while the person remains in the feared situation.
- **CBT:** directly targets the catastrophic misinterpretations underlying anxiety, helping patients identify and test unhelpful automatic thoughts against evidence, and often incorporates behavioural exposure elements.
- **Medication:** **benzodiazepines** enhance the effect of GABA at GABA receptors, increasing inhibitory neural activity and producing a calming effect; **SSRIs** are also widely used for anxiety disorders (as well as depression), increasing serotonin availability.

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Giải mẫn cảm hệ thống (systematic desensitisation): tiếp xúc dần dần với đối tượng gây sợ theo một "thang sợ hãi" (từ ít đến nhiều), kết hợp thư giãn để thay thế phản ứng lo âu. **Ngập lụt (flooding):** tiếp xúc ngay với tình huống sợ hãi nhất ở cường độ tối đa, dựa trên nguyên lý lo âu không thể duy trì mãi mãi và sẽ giảm dần (dập tắt). **CBT:** giải quyết trực tiếp các diễn giải thảm họa. **Thuốc:** **benzodiazepine** tăng cường tác dụng của GABA (gây trấn tĩnh); **SSRI** cũng được dùng rộng rãi cho rối loạn lo âu.

7.5 Addiction

7.5.1 Substance and behavioural addiction

Addiction refers to a pattern of compulsive engagement with a rewarding stimulus, continued despite negative consequences, and typically accompanied by **tolerance** (needing more of the substance/behaviour to achieve the same effect) and **withdrawal** (unpleasant physical or psychological symptoms on stopping). Addiction is not limited to psychoactive substances (e.g., nicotine, alcohol, opioids): **behavioural addictions**, such as gambling disorder, involve the same compulsive engagement and loss of control directed at an activity rather than a substance.

Explanations of addiction

- **Biological:** genetic factors contribute to vulnerability (family and twin studies show elevated risk of addiction among relatives of people with substance use disorders), and repeated substance use (or, in behavioural addiction, repeated engagement in the rewarding activity) triggers surges of **dopamine** in the brain's **reward pathway** (the same mesolimbic circuitry implicated in schizophrenia's positive symptoms), reinforcing the behaviour and, over repeated exposure, altering the reward system's baseline sensitivity so that greater stimulation is needed to achieve the same rewarding effect (tolerance).

- **Learning/cognitive: operant conditioning** explains why addictive behaviours persist — the substance or behaviour is **positively reinforced** by the pleasurable effect it produces, and, once physical dependence develops, **negatively reinforced** because further use removes the unpleasant state of withdrawal. **Expectancy theory** adds a cognitive dimension: an individual's learned beliefs about what a substance will do for them (e.g., "alcohol will help me relax socially") influence how much they use and how hard they find it to stop, independent of the substance's actual pharmacological effect.

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Nghiện là kiểu hành vi tham gia cưỡng bức vào một kích thích gây khoái cảm (chất hoặc hành vi), tiếp diễn dù có hậu quả tiêu cực, kèm **dung nạp** (cần liều/mức độ nhiều hơn để đạt cùng hiệu ứng) và **cái nghiện** (triệu chứng khó chịu khi ngừng). **Nghiện hành vi** (ví dụ nghiện cờ bạc) có cơ chế tương tự nghiện chất nhưng hướng đến một hoạt động thay vì một chất. **Giải thích sinh học:** yếu tố di truyền, và **đường dẫn truyền thưởng dopamine (dopamine reward pathway)** bị kích hoạt lặp lại, dẫn thay đổi độ nhạy của hệ thống thưởng (gây dung nạp). **Giải thích học tập/nhận thức:** **điều kiện hoá thao tác** — hành vi nghiện được **củng cố dương** bởi khoái cảm và **củng cố âm** bởi việc loại bỏ cảm giác khó chịu khi cai; **lý thuyết kỳ vọng (expectancy theory)** cho rằng niềm tin học được về tác dụng của chất (không phụ thuộc tác dụng được lý thực) cũng ảnh hưởng đến mức độ sử dụng.

7.5.2 Treatments for addiction

Treating addiction

- **Biological: nicotine replacement therapy (NRT)** delivers nicotine through a safer route (patches, gum) without the harmful combustion products of smoking, gradually reducing dose to ease withdrawal; **agonist substitution** more generally (e.g., methadone as a substitute for heroin) replaces an addictive substance with a longer-acting, more controllable agonist at the same receptors, reducing withdrawal and cravings while allowing gradual dose reduction.
- **Behavioural/cognitive:** techniques based on operant conditioning (e.g., contingency management, offering tangible rewards for verified abstinence) directly target the reinforcement mechanisms that maintain addiction; CBT targets the cognitive expectancies and triggers associated with use, helping individuals identify high-risk situations and develop alternative coping responses.

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Điều trị sinh học: **liệu pháp thay thế nicotine (NRT)** cung cấp nicotine qua đường an toàn hơn (miếng dán, kẹo cao su), giảm dần liều để giảm triệu chứng cai; **thay thế chủ vận (agonist substitution)** (ví dụ methadone thay heroin) dùng một chất tác động lên cùng thụ thể nhưng dễ kiểm soát hơn, giảm dần liều theo thời gian. **Điều trị hành vi/nhận thức:** các kỹ thuật dựa trên điều kiện hoá thao tác (thường cho việc kiêng khem được xác nhận) và CBT giúp nhận diện tình huống nguy cơ và xây dựng cách ứng phó thay thế.

7.6 Evaluating Treatments

Whenever a treatment for a psychological disorder is assessed — whether biological or psychological — the same three-part framework should be applied consistently.

Framework for evaluating any treatment

- **Effectiveness:** does the treatment actually reduce symptoms and improve functioning, and how does it compare with other available treatments or with no treatment (placebo)?
- **Appropriateness:** is the treatment suitable for this particular patient, considering side effects, ease of use, cost, and the patient's own preferences and circumstances?
- **Ethical issues:** does the treatment raise concerns such as informed consent, risk of dependency, or short-term distress caused by the treatment itself?

Treatment	Effectiveness	Appropriateness	Ethical issues
Antipsychotics (e.g. chlorpromazine, clozapine)	Reduce positive symptoms in many patients; less effective for negative symptoms	Requires ongoing monitoring (e.g., blood tests for clozapine); some patients cannot tolerate side effects	Risk of significant motor/other side effects; question of informed consent when insight is impaired
SSRIs	Effective for many patients with moderate/severe depression, though response varies between individuals	Generally easier to take (oral, once daily) than psychological therapy; some patients prefer medication to talking therapy or vice versa	Risk of dependency debated; discontinuation effects; requires informed consent about side-effect profile
Systematic desensitisation	Effective for many specific phobias, particularly when the fear hierarchy is followed carefully	Requires patient motivation and time (multiple sessions); not always suitable for very severe or complex fears	Causes some short-term distress during exposure; requires informed consent and control resting with the patient

(!) **Lỗi thường gặp:** Khi đánh giá bất kỳ phương pháp điều trị nào trong đề thi, luôn trình bày đủ 3 khía cạnh: **hiệu quả (effectiveness)**, **tính phù hợp (appropriateness)** – bao gồm tác dụng phụ, tính dễ sử dụng, sở thích bệnh nhân – và **vấn đề đạo đức (ethical issues)** – bao gồm đồng thuận, nguy cơ phụ thuộc, đau khổ ngắn hạn. Chỉ nói “thuốc này hiệu quả” mà bỏ qua hai khía cạnh còn lại sẽ bị coi là đánh giá thiếu.

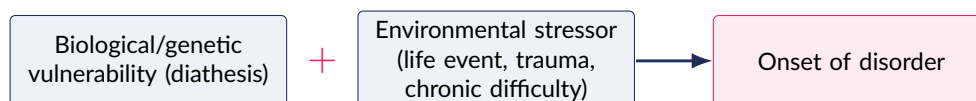
7.7 General Evaluation Issues in Clinical Psychology

7.7.1 Reductionism versus holism

Biological explanations of disorder (e.g., the dopamine hypothesis, the monoamine hypothesis) are **reductionist**: they explain complex psychological experiences by reference to simpler underlying biological processes such as neurotransmitter levels. This approach has practical strengths – it generates testable predictions and concrete drug treatments – but risks overlooking psychological and social contributors to disorder (life events, thought patterns, relationships) that purely biological accounts do not capture. Psychological explanations (cognitive, behavioural) address these factors directly, but can in turn be criticised for underplaying biological vulnerability. The most complete accounts of most disorders in clinical psychology are increasingly **integrative**, treating biological and psychological factors as interacting causes rather than competing alternatives.

7.7.2 The diathesis-stress model as an integrative account

The **diathesis-stress model** is the clearest example of this integrative approach: it proposes that a disorder develops only when an underlying **vulnerability** (diathesis – which may be genetic/biological, but could also be a psychological vulnerability such as a persistent negative thinking style) combines with a sufficient **environmental stressor** (a significant life event, chronic difficulty, or trauma). Neither factor alone is normally sufficient; the model explains why some people who carry a genetic predisposition never develop a disorder (they never encounter a sufficient stressor) and why some people exposed to major stress do not develop a disorder either (they lack the underlying vulnerability).



The diathesis-stress model: an inherited or acquired vulnerability combines with a sufficient environmental trigger to produce onset of a disorder; either factor alone is typically insufficient.

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VN

Giản lược luận (reductionism): giải thích sinh học (giả thuyết dopamine, monoamine) quy các trải nghiệm tâm lý phức tạp về các quá trình sinh học đơn giản hơn – hữu ích để tạo ra thuốc điều trị cụ thể nhưng có thể bỏ sót yếu tố tâm lý/xã hội. **Mô hình diathesis-stress** là cách tiếp cận **tích hợp**: rối loạn chỉ xuất hiện khi **yếu tố dễ mắc (diathesis)** – có thể là di truyền/sinh học hoặc tâm lý – kết hợp với một **tác nhân gây stress từ môi trường** đủ lớn. Đây là lý do một số người mang gene nguy cơ không bao giờ mắc bệnh (không gặp tác nhân kích hoạt đủ mạnh), trong khi người khác gặp stress lớn cũng không mắc bệnh (không có yếu tố dễ mắc nền tảng).

7.7.3 Ethics of compulsory treatment versus community care

Clinical psychology also raises broader ethical questions about *where* and *how* treatment should occur. **Compulsory (involuntary) treatment and institutionalisation** – detaining and treating a person against their wishes, typically used when a disorder is judged to pose a serious risk to the person themselves or others – protects safety but raises concerns about **autonomy** and **informed consent**, and, as Rosenhan's study illustrates, institutional settings can shape how a person's behaviour is subsequently interpreted once labelled. **Community care** approaches – treating people within their own communities using outpatient services, supported housing, and social support rather than long-term hospitalisation – aim to preserve independence and reduce the stigmatising effects of institutionalisation, but require sufficient community resources and support networks to be safe and effective, and are not always appropriate during an acute crisis.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Điều trị bắt buộc/nhập viện cưỡng chế – giữ và điều trị một người trái với ý muốn của họ, thường dùng khi rối loạn gây nguy hiểm nghiêm trọng cho bản thân/người khác – bảo vệ an toàn nhưng đặt ra vấn đề về **quyền tự chủ** và **đồng thuận**; nghiên cứu của Rosenhan cho thấy môi trường viện có thể làm sai lệch cách diễn giải hành vi sau khi đã có nhãn chẩn đoán. **Chăm sóc tại cộng đồng** – điều trị ngoại trú, hỗ trợ nhà ở, mạng lưới xã hội thay vì nhập viện dài hạn – giúp bảo toàn sự độc lập và giảm kỳ thị, nhưng cần đủ nguồn lực cộng đồng và không phải lúc nào cũng phù hợp trong tình huống khủng hoảng cấp tính.

7.8 Summary: Comparing Disorders

Disorder	Key symptoms	Biological explanation	Main treatments
Schizophrenia	Positive: hallucinations, delusions, disorganised speech. Negative: avolition, flat affect, alogia	Dopamine hypothesis (excess D2 activity, mesolimbic pathway); genetic vulnerability	Typical/atypical antipsychotics; CBT as adjunct
Depression (MDD)	Persistent low mood, anhedonia, fatigue, sleep/appetite change (≥ 2 weeks)	Monoamine hypothesis (reduced serotonin/noradrenaline); genetic factors	SSRIs; CBT with behavioural activation
Anxiety disorders (phobia, GAD, OCD)	Excessive fear/worry, avoidance, (in OCD) obsessions and compulsions	Genetic predisposition; overactive amygdala; dysregulated GABA (GAD)	Systematic desensitisation, flooding, CBT; benzodiazepines, SSRIs
Addiction	Compulsive use/engagement despite harm; tolerance; withdrawal	Genetic vulnerability; dopamine reward pathway sensitisation	NRT/agonist substitution; contingency management, CBT

7.9 Problem Bank

Bài tập luyện tập

According to the dopamine hypothesis, the positive symptoms of schizophrenia are most closely associated with excess dopamine activity at which receptor type, in which pathway?

- (A) D2 receptors, mesolimbic pathway (C) GABA receptors, amygdala
(B) Serotonin receptors, hippocampus (D) D1 receptors, cerebellum

Lời giải chi tiết

The dopamine hypothesis links positive symptoms of schizophrenia to excess dopamine activity at **D2 receptors** in the **mesolimbic pathway**. (A).

Bài tập luyện tập

Which of the following is a negative symptom of schizophrenia, rather than a positive symptom?

- (A) Auditory hallucination (C) Avolition
(B) Delusion of persecution (D) Disorganised speech

Lời giải chi tiết

Avolition (loss of motivation) is a negative symptom — a reduction in normal functioning. The other three options are all positive symptoms (added experiences: hallucinations, delusions, disorganised speech). (C).

Bài tập luyện tập

Outline one strength and one weakness of using antipsychotic medication to treat schizophrenia.

Lời giải chi tiết

Strength: antipsychotics (particularly atypical antipsychotics such as clozapine) can significantly reduce distressing positive symptoms such as hallucinations and delusions, allowing many patients to function outside hospital and engage more effectively with other therapies (e.g., CBT). **Weakness:** antipsychotics, especially typical antipsychotics such as chlorpromazine, commonly cause significant side effects (e.g., motor/extrapyramidal symptoms), they are generally less effective against negative symptoms, and long-term use raises appropriateness and consent concerns, particularly for patients with impaired insight into their condition.

Bài tập luyện tập

Compare the biological (monoamine hypothesis) and cognitive (Beck's negative triad) explanations of depression, identifying one similarity and one difference between them.

Lời giải chi tiết

Similarity: both explanations propose an underlying, relatively stable vulnerability that predisposes a person to depression – reduced serotonin/noradrenaline activity (biological) or an established negative thinking style (cognitive) – that can then be triggered or worsened by life circumstances. **Difference:** the monoamine hypothesis locates the cause primarily in physical brain chemistry and is treated mainly with medication (SSRIs), while Beck's cognitive theory locates the cause in learned patterns of thought (the negative triad and associated distortions such as catastrophising) and is treated primarily through psychological therapy (CBT) that directly challenges those thoughts. A full answer should note that the two are not mutually exclusive: an integrative (diathesis-stress) account can combine biological vulnerability with cognitive patterns as joint contributors.

Bài tập luyện tập

In Rosenhan's (1973) study, how many pseudopatients took part, and what single fabricated symptom did each report on admission?

- | | |
|--|--|
| (A) Twelve pseudopatients; reporting visual hallucinations of a bright light | (C) Eight pseudopatients; reporting delusions of persecution |
| (B) Eight pseudopatients; reporting an unclear voice saying words like "empty", "hollow", "thud" | (D) Twelve pseudopatients; reporting a fear of leaving the house |

Lời giải chi tiết

Eight pseudopatients took part, and each reported a single fabricated auditory symptom: hearing an unclear voice saying words such as "empty", "hollow", and "thud". **(B)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

In Rosenhan's study, what happened to the pseudopatients' behaviour once they were admitted to hospital, and how did hospital staff respond to this behaviour?

Lời giải chi tiết

Once admitted, the pseudopatients immediately stopped reporting or simulating any symptoms and behaved entirely normally for the remainder of their stay. Despite this, hospital staff at no point detected that they were sane: normal behaviours (such as note-taking) were often reinterpreted by staff as consistent with the existing diagnosis rather than as evidence of normal functioning, and all pseudopatients were eventually discharged with their diagnosis recorded as "in remission" rather than being identified as never having been unwell.

Bài tập luyện tập

Rosenhan's (1973) study is often criticised on ethical grounds. Explain the main ethical issue raised, and evaluate whether this weakens the study's conclusions about diagnostic reliability and validity.

Lời giải chi tiết

The main ethical issue is **deception**: hospital staff were not informed that pseudopatients were part of a study and so could not give informed consent to being observed and assessed, and clinical time and resources were used on people who were not genuinely unwell. **Evaluation**: this ethical problem concerns how the data were obtained rather than the accuracy of the findings themselves – the deception was in fact necessary to test realistically whether staff could detect sanity under normal working conditions, since informing staff in advance would have compromised the very question being studied. The ethical cost therefore does not by itself invalidate the conclusion that staff failed to detect sane individuals, though it does mean the study could not ethically be repeated in the same form today, which limits direct replication.

Bài tập luyện tập

Identify two strengths of Rosenhan's (1973) study as a piece of psychological research.

Lời giải chi tiết

(1) The study had high ecological validity, since it was conducted in real psychiatric hospitals with genuine staff and patients rather than in an artificial laboratory setting, meaning its findings reflect authentic clinical practice. (2) The findings had substantial real-world impact, contributing to reform of diagnostic practice and prompting greater caution about the reliability and validity of psychiatric diagnosis in institutional settings.

Bài tập luyện tập

Identify two limitations of Rosenhan's (1973) study.

Lời giải chi tiết

(1) The sample of hospitals used was relatively small and may not be representative of psychiatric institutions more broadly, limiting generalisability. (2) The study has since been criticised

on methodological grounds (including questions about the verifiability of some reported details), meaning its striking conclusions should be treated with some caution rather than as a definitive verdict on all psychiatric diagnosis.

Bài tập luyện tập

A genuine patient on the ward in Rosenhan's study reportedly told a pseudopatient, "You're not crazy... you're a journalist or a professor." What does this detail suggest about the study's conclusions?

Lời giải chi tiết

This detail suggests that ordinary behavioural cues distinguishing a sane person from a genuinely disordered patient may have still been detectable to at least some observers — implying that the failure of hospital *staff* to notice the pseudopatients' sanity may reflect something specific about the institutional and professional context (e.g., staff relying heavily on the existing diagnostic label, limited direct interaction time, or expectation effects) rather than an inherent impossibility of ever distinguishing sane from disordered behaviour.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain what is meant by "inter-rater reliability" in the context of psychiatric diagnosis, and explain why low inter-rater reliability is a problem for a classification system such as DSM-5 or ICD-11.

Lời giải chi tiết

Inter-rater reliability refers to the extent to which two or more independent clinicians, assessing the same patient information, arrive at the same diagnosis. If inter-rater reliability is low, different clinicians reach different diagnoses for the same presentation, which undermines confidence that the diagnostic category reflects a genuine, objectively identifiable condition rather than a subjective clinical judgement — this in turn affects treatment decisions (since treatment usually follows diagnosis) and the validity of research that groups patients by diagnostic category.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain how cultural bias can affect the reliability and validity of a psychiatric diagnosis, using an example.

Lời giải chi tiết

Cultural bias occurs because diagnostic criteria are often developed and validated primarily on Western populations, so the same reported experience can be interpreted very differently depending on cultural context. For example, hearing the voice of a deceased relative during religious mourning practices may be considered a normal, culturally sanctioned experience in some cultures, but could be misinterpreted as an auditory hallucination symptomatic of a psychotic disorder by a clinician unfamiliar with that cultural context. This lowers validity (the diagnosis may not reflect a genuine disorder) and can lower reliability across cultural contexts (clinicians from different backgrounds may reach different diagnoses for the same presentation).

Bài tập luyện tập

Which classification system is published by the World Health Organization and covers all diseases, not only mental disorders?

- (A) DSM-5 (C) DSM-5-TR
(B) ICD-11 (D) The Jahoda criteria

Lời giải chi tiết

ICD-11 (International Classification of Diseases) is published by the WHO and covers all diseases, with mental and behavioural disorders forming one chapter within it. **(B)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

State and briefly explain two of Jahoda's criteria for "ideal mental health".

Lời giải chi tiết

Any two of, for example: (1) **Accurate perception of reality** – perceiving the world and oneself without significant distortion. (2) **Autonomy** – the capacity to make independent decisions and regulate one's own behaviour rather than being wholly dependent on others. (3) **Resistance to stress** – the ability to cope with everyday stress without being overwhelmed. (4) **Self-actualisation** – working toward realising one's own potential and personal growth. A large shortfall from these criteria is treated, under this approach, as indicating abnormality.

Bài tập luyện tập

A person's behaviour is extremely rare statistically (occurring in fewer than 1% of the population) but causes them no distress and does not impair their daily functioning. Using the four criteria for abnormality, explain why this person might not be considered to have a psychological disorder.

Lời giải chi tiết

Statistical infrequency alone is not sufficient to establish abnormality – many rare behaviours or traits (e.g., unusually high talent, an uncommon but harmless hobby) are not disordered. Applying the other criteria: the behaviour does not deviate in a harmful way if it does not violate important social norms in a damaging sense; it does not represent a **failure to function adequately**, since the person experiences no distress and continues to meet the ordinary demands of daily life; and without further information suggesting a large shortfall from Jahoda's ideal mental health criteria, there is no strong basis for diagnosis. This illustrates why clinicians should weigh all four criteria together rather than relying on statistical rarity alone.

Bài tập luyện tập

A patient reports persistent excessive worry about a wide range of everyday matters (finances, health, work), with no single specific trigger, and marked muscle tension. Which disorder does this best match?

- (A) Specific phobia (C) Obsessive-compulsive disorder
(B) Generalised anxiety disorder (D) Bipolar disorder

Lời giải chi tiết

Persistent, excessive worry about a broad range of everyday concerns (not one specific trigger), together with physical tension symptoms, matches generalised anxiety disorder (GAD). **(B)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain, using the concept of GABA, why benzodiazepines are used to treat anxiety disorders.

Lời giải chi tiết

GABA is the brain's principal inhibitory neurotransmitter, normally acting to reduce neural excitability. In GAD and other anxiety disorders, GABA activity is thought to be dysregulated, leaving the nervous system in a chronically over-aroused state. Benzodiazepines enhance the effect of GABA at GABA receptors, increasing inhibitory activity throughout the nervous system and producing a calming, anxiety-reducing effect. Because this mechanism directly targets neural arousal rather than the underlying learned or cognitive triggers of anxiety, benzodiazepines are typically used for short-term symptom relief rather than as a sole long-term treatment, given the additional risk of dependency associated with prolonged use.

Bài tập luyện tập

Distinguish between systematic desensitisation and flooding as treatments for specific phobia.

Lời giải chi tiết

Systematic desensitisation exposes the patient **gradually**, working up a fear hierarchy from least to most frightening situations while pairing each stage with relaxation, so the feared stimulus becomes counter-conditioned to a relaxed rather than fearful response. Flooding instead exposes the patient to the **most** feared stimulus immediately, at full intensity, relying on the fact that anxiety cannot be sustained indefinitely and will eventually subside through extinction while the person remains in the feared situation. Both rely on classical conditioning principles, but they differ sharply in the pace and intensity of exposure, and flooding typically produces more acute short-term distress.

Bài tập luyện tập

Evaluate flooding as a treatment for specific phobia in terms of effectiveness, appropriateness, and ethical issues.

Lời giải chi tiết

Effectiveness: flooding can produce rapid symptom reduction, sometimes in a single extended session, because extinction of the fear response can occur relatively quickly once the person discovers that the feared outcome does not occur even under full exposure. **Appropriateness:** it may not be suitable for all patients or all phobias (e.g., very severe fears, or patients with other conditions that make intense physiological arousal risky), and it requires a patient able to tolerate high levels of short-term distress. **Ethical issues:** flooding causes considerable short-term distress by design, raising the requirement for full informed consent, a clear right to withdraw, and careful clinical judgement about whether the short-term distress is justified by the potential long-term benefit.

Bài tập luyện tập

A patient with obsessive-compulsive disorder repeatedly checks that the front door is locked, despite already having checked it several times, to relieve intense anxiety about intruders. Identify the obsession and the compulsion in this example.

Lời giải chi tiết

The **obsession** is the intrusive, anxiety-provoking thought/fear about intruders entering through an unlocked door. The **compulsion** is the repetitive checking behaviour (repeatedly checking the lock), performed specifically to reduce the anxiety generated by the obsession.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain why monozygotic (identical) twin concordance rates for schizophrenia, although higher than dizygotic twin rates, are still well below 100%.

Lời giải chi tiết

Monozygotic twins share (almost) all of their genes, so a concordance rate below 100% shows that genetic factors alone cannot fully account for schizophrenia — an environmental trigger must also be involved for the disorder to develop in a genetically vulnerable individual. This is precisely the logic of the diathesis-stress model: the twin without schizophrenia likely still carries the inherited biological vulnerability (diathesis) but has not been exposed to a sufficient environmental stressor to trigger onset.

Bài tập luyện tập

Sketch (in words) the diathesis-stress model and explain how it can be applied to explain why not everyone with a family history of depression develops the disorder.

Lời giải chi tiết

The diathesis-stress model proposes that a disorder develops only when an underlying vulnerability (diathesis — e.g., an inherited predisposition affecting neurotransmitter regulation, or a persistent negative cognitive style) combines with a sufficient environmental stressor (e.g., a major loss, chronic difficulty, or trauma). Applied to depression: a person with a family history of depression may inherit a biological or cognitive vulnerability, but if they never encounter a sufficiently severe or sustained stressor, the vulnerability may never be triggered into full-blown depression — explaining why family history raises risk without guaranteeing onset.

Bài tập luyện tập

Which of the following best describes “agonist substitution” as a biological treatment for addiction?

- | | |
|--|--|
| (A) Blocking all dopamine receptors to eliminate cravings entirely | reduction |
| (B) Replacing an addictive substance with a longer-acting, more controllable substance acting on the same receptors, to ease withdrawal and allow gradual dose | (C) Using systematic desensitisation to gradually reduce fear of withdrawal symptoms |
| | (D) Increasing serotonin reuptake to reduce craving-related mood symptoms |

Lời giải chi tiết

Agonist substitution replaces an addictive substance with a longer-acting, more controllable agonist acting at the same receptors (e.g., methadone for heroin, nicotine replacement for cigarette smoking), easing withdrawal symptoms and permitting a gradual, controlled reduction in dose. **(B)**.

Bài tập luyện tập

Using operant conditioning, explain why an addictive behaviour that produces unpleasant long-term consequences can nonetheless persist.

Lời giải chi tiết

Addictive behaviour is maintained by two forms of reinforcement operating together: **positive reinforcement**, because the substance or behaviour produces an immediate pleasurable effect that the brain's reward pathway registers as rewarding; and, once physical dependence develops, **negative reinforcement**, because continuing the behaviour removes or avoids the unpleasant state of withdrawal. Because both forms of reinforcement act immediately, they outweigh the delayed and often less certain long-term negative consequences (e.g., health problems), which is why the behaviour can persist despite being harmful overall.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain what "expectancy theory" adds to a purely biological account of addiction.

Lời giải chi tiết

Expectancy theory adds a cognitive dimension: it proposes that a person's learned beliefs about what a substance (or behaviour) will do for them – for example, believing that alcohol will reduce social anxiety or improve mood – influence how much they use it and how strongly they are motivated to continue, independent of the substance's actual pharmacological effect. This explains variation in use and relapse risk that a purely biological account (based only on receptor changes and reward pathway sensitisation) cannot fully capture, and points to cognitive/expectation-focused therapy as a useful addition to purely biological treatment.

Bài tập luyện tập

Evaluate SSRIs as a treatment for depression using the effectiveness/appropriateness/ethics framework.

Lời giải chi tiết

Effectiveness: SSRIs are effective for many patients with moderate to severe depression, though response varies between individuals and full therapeutic effect can take several weeks. **Appropriateness:** SSRIs are relatively easy to take (usually a single daily oral dose) and may suit patients who prefer or cannot access psychological therapy, though they are not equally suitable for everyone (e.g., interactions with other medication, or a preference for non-drug treatment). **Ethical issues:** patients require informed consent about possible side effects and about discontinuation effects if the medication is stopped abruptly; there is ongoing debate about the risk of psychological or physiological dependency with long-term use.

Bài tập luyện tập

A student writes: “Rosenhan’s study proves that psychiatric diagnosis is never valid and psychiatric hospitals should be closed.” Explain why this is an inaccurate conclusion to draw from the study.

Lời giải chi tiết

This overstates the study’s actual conclusion. Rosenhan’s findings raise doubts about the reliability and validity of diagnosis specifically in the institutional context studied (US psychiatric hospitals in the early 1970s), and highlight how a diagnostic label can shape the interpretation of subsequent behaviour — they do not demonstrate that psychiatric diagnosis is *never* valid in any context, nor do they provide direct evidence about the broader question of whether psychiatric hospitals should exist. A more accurate conclusion is that the study exposed specific limitations in diagnostic practice at the time, which contributed to later reforms, rather than invalidating clinical diagnosis or institutional care altogether.

Bài tập luyện tập

Identify which classification criterion (DSM-5 or ICD-11 emphasis) is most associated with each description: (a) a manual providing detailed, specific symptom counts and duration thresholds for each disorder; (b) a chapter within a broader manual covering all diseases, intended to be flexible across diverse healthcare settings worldwide.

Lời giải chi tiết

(a) DSM-5, published by the American Psychiatric Association, which favours detailed operational criteria (specific symptom counts and duration thresholds). **(b)** ICD-11, published by the World Health Organization, whose mental disorders chapter sits within a manual covering all diseases and is designed with more flexible clinical description guidelines for use across highly varied international healthcare settings.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain, with reference to the negative triad, why a person with depression might interpret a single piece of critical feedback at work as evidence that they will “always fail at everything”.

Lời giải chi tiết

Beck’s negative triad proposes that depressed individuals hold characteristic negative automatic beliefs about the self, the world, and the future. A single piece of critical feedback can be processed through this triad and distorted via **overgeneralisation** (extending one specific negative event to all future situations) and **catastrophising** (assuming the worst possible long-term outcome), producing the conclusion “I will always fail at everything” — a belief about the future consistent with the negative triad — even though the original evidence (one instance of feedback) does not logically support such a sweeping conclusion.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain one way in which stigma resulting from a psychiatric diagnosis could make a person’s underlying condition harder to treat.

Lời giải chi tiết

Stigma can make a person reluctant to seek help in the first place (fear of being negatively labelled or excluded socially), delaying diagnosis and treatment, and can also produce **self-stigma** – the person internalising negative societal attitudes about their own diagnosis, which can reduce self-esteem, worsen the very symptoms (e.g., withdrawal, low mood) the treatment is meant to address, and reduce motivation to engage fully with therapy or medication.

Bài tập luyện tập

Compulsory hospitalisation and community care represent two different approaches to managing serious mental disorder. Discuss one ethical advantage and one ethical concern for each approach.

Lời giải chi tiết

Compulsory hospitalisation: *advantage* – it can protect the safety of a person in acute crisis (and of others) when risk is judged to be high; *concern* – it overrides the person's autonomy and their ability to give informed consent to treatment, and, as Rosenhan's study illustrates, institutional settings can shape how staff subsequently interpret a person's behaviour once a diagnostic label has been applied. **Community care:** *advantage* – it preserves greater independence and reduces the stigmatising effects associated with long-term institutionalisation; *concern* – it depends on adequate community resources and support networks being available, and may be inappropriate or unsafe for a person in the midst of an acute crisis, potentially delaying necessary intervention.

Bài tập luyện tập

Essay: "Biological explanations provide a more useful account of psychological disorder than psychological (cognitive/behavioural) explanations." Discuss this claim with reference to at least two disorders covered in this unit.

Lời giải chi tiết

A strong answer would first outline what biological explanations offer: for schizophrenia, the dopamine hypothesis and genetic/twin evidence link disorder to identifiable neurochemical and hereditary factors, generating testable predictions and effective drug treatments (antipsychotics); for depression, the monoamine hypothesis similarly links low mood to reduced serotonin/noradrenaline activity, supporting SSRI treatment. These accounts are valuable because they are relatively precise and falsifiable, and because they have produced treatments with demonstrable effectiveness for many patients.

However, purely biological accounts have clear limitations: monozygotic twin concordance for schizophrenia is well below 100%, showing genes are not sufficient on their own; and Beck's cognitive theory explains additional variance in depression (the negative triad, cognitive distortions such as catastrophising) that a purely biochemical account does not address, and CBT – targeting these cognitive patterns directly – is an effective treatment in its own right, sometimes as effective as medication and without the same side-effect profile. Psychological explanations also account better for how symptoms are experienced and maintained day-to-day (e.g., avoidance behaviour in anxiety disorders, cognitive distortions in depression), which is clinically useful for talking therapies.

A balanced conclusion should reject the idea that either explanation alone is more useful in general, and instead argue that the two are complementary: the diathesis-stress model inte-

grates biological vulnerability with psychological/environmental triggers, and in clinical practice, treatment is often most effective when biological (medication) and psychological (CBT) approaches are combined, addressing different aspects of the same disorder rather than competing to be the single correct explanation.

Bài tập luyện tập

Essay: Evaluate the contribution of Rosenhan's (1973) study to our understanding of the reliability and validity of psychiatric diagnosis.

Lời giải chi tiết

A strong answer would begin by summarising the study accurately: eight pseudopatients with no genuine symptoms gained admission to different psychiatric hospitals by reporting a single fabricated auditory symptom; once admitted, all behaved entirely normally, yet none were detected as sane by staff, most were diagnosed with schizophrenia, and all were eventually discharged with their diagnosis recorded as "in remission". This directly demonstrates a failure of diagnostic **validity** in that setting (genuinely sane individuals were diagnosed as disordered) and raises questions about **reliability** across institutions, since the same fabricated presentation led to broadly consistent (mis)diagnosis at multiple different hospitals.

The study's contribution is strengthened by its high ecological validity (conducted in real hospitals, not a laboratory) and by its considerable real-world impact — it is widely credited with contributing to reforms in diagnostic practice and increased caution about over-reliance on institutional labels. The study also introduced an important related concept: that a diagnostic **label** can bias the interpretation of a person's subsequent behaviour, since staff reinterpreted normal actions (such as note-taking) as consistent with pathology once a diagnosis had been assigned.

A balanced evaluation must also weigh its limitations: it required deceiving hospital staff, who could not give informed consent, raising ethical concerns; its sample of hospitals, while spanning different regions, was still limited in number and may not generalise to all clinical settings or eras; and some of its methodological details have been questioned by later critics. The most defensible conclusion is that Rosenhan's study provides compelling, historically influential evidence that diagnosis *can* lack reliability and validity under certain institutional conditions, and that diagnostic labels can shape perception — but it should not be over-generalised as proof that psychiatric diagnosis is inherently and permanently invalid across all contexts, especially given subsequent efforts (more specific DSM-5 criteria, cultural formulation guidance) to address exactly the problems it identified.

Ôn tập nhanh – Tâm lý học lâm sàng (Clinical Psychology):

- **4 tiêu chí bất thường:** hiếm gặp thống kê, lệch chuẩn xã hội, không đáp ứng chức năng sống, lệch khỏi sức khỏe tâm thần lý tưởng (Jahoda) — luôn cần cả 4, không dùng riêng lẻ.
- **DSM-5** (APA, Mỹ, tiêu chí cụ thể) vs **ICD-11** (WHO, toàn cầu, linh hoạt hơn). Độ tin cậy: liên đánh giá viên (inter-rater), kiểm tra lại (test-retest); cẩn thận với thiên kiến văn hoá.
- **Rosenhan (1973):** 8 người giả bệnh, 1 triệu chứng bịa (nghe giọng nói “rỗng/trống trải/thịch”) → tất cả được nhận viện, hầu hết chẩn đoán tâm thần phân liệt, không ai bị phát hiện là bình thường → nghi vấn độ tin cậy/giá trị chẩn đoán & sức mạnh của nhãn chẩn đoán. Ưu điểm: bối cảnh thực tế; Hạn chế: lừa dối nhân viên y tế, mẫu bệnh viện nhỏ.
- **Tâm thần phân liệt:** dương tính (ảo giác, hoang tưởng, ngôn ngữ vô tổ chức) vs âm tính (mất động lực, cảm xúc cùn mòn, nghèo ngôn ngữ, thu mình). Giả thuyết dopamine (D2, mesolimbic) + di truyền + diathesis-stress. Điều trị: thuốc chống loạn thần điển hình/không điển hình, CBT bổ sung.
- **Trầm cảm:** giả thuyết monoamine (serotonin/noradrenaline) + bộ ba nhận thức Beck (bản thân/thế giới/tương lai). Điều trị: SSRI, CBT + kích hoạt hành vi.
- **Lo âu:** ám ảnh sợ đặc hiệu, GAD, OCD. Giải thích: di truyền, hạch hạnh nhân, GABA (sinh học); điều kiện hoá cổ điển (hành vi); diễn giải thảm hoạ (nhận thức). Điều trị: giải mã cảm hệ thống, ngập lụt, CBT, benzodiazepine/SSRI.
- **Nghiện:** dopamine reward pathway + di truyền (sinh học); điều kiện hoá thao tác + lý thuyết kỳ vọng (học tập/nhận thức). Điều trị: NRT/thay thế chủ vận, quản lý hậu quả, CBT.
- **Đánh giá điều trị:** luôn xét đủ hiệu quả — tính phù hợp — đạo đức. **Diathesis-stress:** vulnerability + stressor = khởi phát rối loạn — mô hình tích hợp sinh học/tâm lý.

Applied Specialism: Consumer Psychology

Mục tiêu Unit: Tâm lý học người tiêu dùng (A2) – một trong bốn chuyên đề ứng dụng: mô hình khả năng tinh luyện (Elaboration Likelihood Model) và hai con đường thuyết phục (trung tâm và ngoại vi); đặc điểm nguồn phát và thông điệp quảng cáo (độ tin cậy, sức hấp dẫn, người nổi tiếng, thông điệp một chiều/hai chiều, lời kêu gọi sợ hãi, hiệu ứng tiếp xúc lặp lại); điều kiện hoá cổ điển trong quảng cáo (Gorn, 1982) và quảng cáo tiềm thức; tính dễ bị ảnh hưởng của trẻ em trước quảng cáo; bao bì, thương hiệu và nhãn mác sản phẩm; không khí cửa hàng (atmospherics: Milliman, 1982; North, Hargreaves & McKendrick, 1997) và cách bố trí sản phẩm; các giai đoạn ra quyết định mua hàng và bất hoà nhận thức sau mua; cùng các vấn đề đánh giá tâm lý học người tiêu dùng như một lĩnh vực ứng dụng (đạo đức, phương pháp luận, ứng dụng thực tế, khác biệt cá nhân/văn hoá).

8.1 Advertising and Persuasion

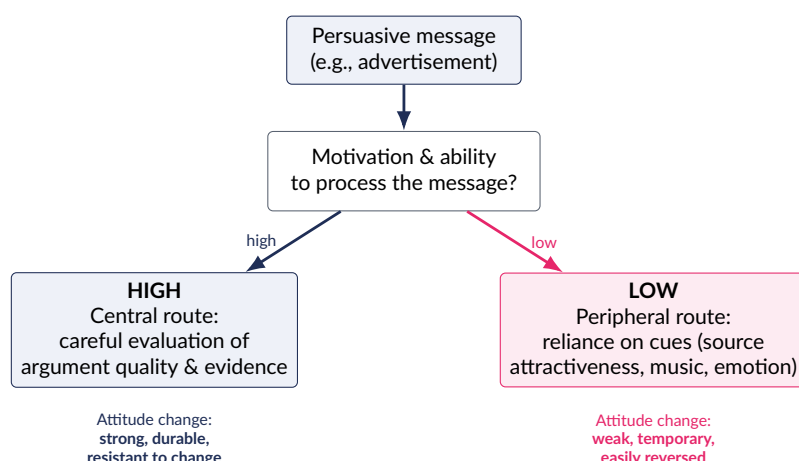
8.1.1 The Elaboration Likelihood Model (ELM)

Petty and Cacioppo's (1986) **Elaboration Likelihood Model** explains how an advertisement or persuasive message changes attitudes, by proposing that persuasion can travel along one of two different routes depending on how much careful, effortful thought ("elaboration") the receiver gives to the message.

The Elaboration Likelihood Model

- **Central route:** used when the receiver has both the **motivation** (personal relevance, involvement) and the **ability** (time, knowledge, lack of distraction) to think carefully about the message. The receiver scrutinises the actual arguments and evidence in the advertisement. Attitude change produced this way tends to be **stronger, more durable, and more resistant to counter-persuasion**, because it is based on genuine cognitive evaluation of the message content.
- **Peripheral route:** used when motivation or ability to process the message is **low** (the receiver is distracted, uninvolved, or the topic is unimportant to them). Instead of evaluating arguments, the receiver relies on superficial, easy-to-process **peripheral cues** – the attractiveness or credibility of the source, the number of arguments presented (regardless of quality), background music, or the emotional tone of the advert. Attitude change produced this way tends to be **weaker, more temporary, and easily reversed** by a counter-message.

The same advertisement can be processed centrally by one viewer and peripherally by another, depending on that viewer's involvement with the product category at the time.



The Elaboration Likelihood Model (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986): whether a message is processed via the central or peripheral route depends on the receiver's motivation and ability to elaborate on it, and this determines how durable the resulting attitude change will be.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Mô hình khả năng tinh luyện (ELM) của Petty & Cacioppo (1986) giải thích quảng cáo thuyết phục người xem theo hai con đường khác nhau. **Con đường trung tâm (central route)**: khi người xem có cả **động lực** (sản phẩm liên quan đến bản thân) và **khả năng** (đủ thời gian, kiến thức, không bị xao nhãng) để suy nghĩ kỹ, họ sẽ đánh giá cẩn thận nội dung lập luận trong quảng cáo – thay đổi thái độ theo cách này **bền vững** và khó bị thay đổi ngược lại. **Con đường ngoại vi (peripheral route)**: khi động lực hoặc khả năng xử lý thấp, người xem dựa vào các **tín hiệu bề mặt** (độ hấp dẫn/uy tín của người quảng cáo, số lượng lập luận, âm nhạc, cảm xúc) thay vì nội dung thật sự – thay đổi thái độ theo cách này **yếu và tạm thời**, dễ bị đảo ngược bởi một thông điệp phản bác.

Feature	Central route	Peripheral route	Example cue / trigger
When used	Motivation & ability to process are high	Motivation & ability to process are low	High-involvement purchase (car, insurance) vs. low-involvement (snack, soft drink)
Mechanism	Careful, effortful evaluation of message content and argument quality	Reliance on superficial cues rather than argument content	Celebrity, attractive model, pleasant music, humour, emotional appeal
Durability of attitude change	Strong, durable, resistant to counter-arguments	Weak, temporary, easily reversed by a new message	–
Typical advert style	Detailed factual copy, comparisons, technical specifications, statistics	Image-driven, short slogans, emotional or aesthetic focus	Perfume, soft-drink, and lifestyle adverts typically rely on peripheral cues

Comparison of the central and peripheral routes to persuasion within the Elaboration Likelihood Model.

Applying the ELM to advertising strategy

A company selling a complex financial product (e.g., a pension plan) is more likely to succeed with an advert that presents clear, detailed comparisons and evidence, because customers are highly motivated (money is at stake) and this product category invites careful thought – favouring the **central route**. A company selling a low-involvement snack food is more likely

to succeed with an advert built around an attractive presenter, catchy music, and humour, because most viewers give the advert little sustained thought — favouring the **peripheral route**. Advertisers therefore tailor persuasive strategy to the expected level of consumer involvement with the product category.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Với sản phẩm phức tạp, có giá trị cao (ví dụ bảo hiểm, lương hưu), người tiêu dùng có động lực lớn để suy nghĩ kỹ nên quảng cáo nên tập trung vào **lập luận, số liệu, so sánh** (con đường trung tâm). Với sản phẩm giá trị thấp, ít liên quan cá nhân (đồ ăn vặt, nước ngọt), người xem thường không dành nhiều công sức suy nghĩ nên quảng cáo dựa vào **hình ảnh, âm nhạc, sự hài hước** (con đường ngoại vi) sẽ hiệu quả hơn.

8.1.2 Source characteristics: credibility, attractiveness, celebrity endorsement

Source factors in persuasion

- **Source credibility:** a message is more persuasive when it comes from a source perceived as **expert** (knowledgeable, qualified) and **trustworthy** (honest, without an obvious ulterior motive) — e.g., a dentist recommending a toothpaste.
- **Source attractiveness:** physically attractive or likeable sources tend to be more persuasive, particularly via the peripheral route, partly because people tend to associate attractiveness with other positive qualities (a **halo effect**).
- **Celebrity endorsement:** pairing a celebrity with a product is thought to work largely through a **classical conditioning**-like mechanism: positive feelings that consumers already associate with the celebrity (the unconditioned stimulus) become associated, through repeated pairing, with the product (which becomes a conditioned stimulus), so the product comes to elicit some of that same positive feeling.
- **Matching (congruence):** endorsement is generally more effective when there is a sensible **match** between the celebrity's image/expertise and the product/target audience (e.g., an athlete endorsing sportswear) than when the pairing seems arbitrary or forced.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

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Độ tin cậy nguồn (source credibility): quảng cáo thuyết phục hơn khi đến từ nguồn được coi là chuyên gia và đáng tin cậy. **Sức hấp dẫn của nguồn:** người phát ngôn hấp dẫn thường thuyết phục hơn qua con đường ngoại vi, một phần do **hiệu ứng hào quang** (halo effect) — người xem gán ghép các phẩm chất tốt khác cho người hấp dẫn. **Người nổi tiếng quảng cáo (celebrity endorsement)** hoạt động giống cơ chế **điều kiện hoá cổ điển**: cảm xúc tích cực sẵn có với người nổi tiếng (UCS) được ghép với sản phẩm (trở thành CS) qua lặp lại, khiến sản phẩm cũng gợi lên cảm xúc tích cực đó. Hiệu quả cao nhất khi có sự **phù hợp** giữa hình ảnh người nổi tiếng và sản phẩm/đối tượng khách hàng.

8.1.3 Message factors: one-sided vs. two-sided arguments, fear appeals, repetition

Message structure

- **One-sided messages** present only arguments in favour of the product. These tend to work well with audiences who are already favourably disposed, or who are not expecting to hear a counter-argument.
- **Two-sided messages** acknowledge a minor limitation or a competitor's advantage alongside the main persuasive case. These can increase perceived source credibility and honesty, and can make the audience more resistant to later counter-persuasion, particularly with audiences who are more sceptical or already aware of alternative viewpoints.
- **Fear appeals:** advertisements (e.g., anti-smoking, road-safety, insurance) sometimes emphasise a frightening consequence of not using the product/service. The well-established general pattern is that a **moderate** level of fear, combined with a **clear, credible, and achievable solution** (e.g., "quit now using this programme"), tends to be more persuasive than either very low fear (easily ignored) or very high fear presented **without** a clear solution – extreme fear with no obvious way to reduce it can cause the audience to avoid or deny the message altogether (defensive avoidance) rather than act on it.
- **Repetition / mere exposure effect:** simply being exposed to a stimulus (a brand, a slogan, a jingle) repeatedly tends, up to a point, to increase liking for it, even without any new information being conveyed – the basis for high-frequency advertising campaigns. Beyond a certain point, however, repetition can produce wear-out and irritation, reducing effectiveness.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Thông điệp một chiều chỉ trình bày lý lẽ ủng hộ sản phẩm – hiệu quả với đối tượng đã có thiện cảm sẵn. **Thông điệp hai chiều** thừa nhận một hạn chế nhỏ hoặc điểm mạnh của đối thủ, giúp tăng cảm giác trung thực/đáng tin và tăng khả năng chống lại phản bác sau này, đặc biệt với người xem hoài nghi. **Lời kêu gọi sợ hãi (fear appeals):** mức độ sợ hãi **vừa phải** kết hợp với một **giải pháp rõ ràng, khả thi** thường thuyết phục hơn so với sợ hãi quá thấp (dễ bị bỏ qua) hoặc quá cao mà không có giải pháp (khiến người xem né tránh/phủ nhận thông điệp – defensive avoidance). **Hiệu ứng tiếp xúc lặp lại (mere exposure effect):** tiếp xúc lặp lại với một thương hiệu/khẩu hiệu thường làm tăng mức độ yêu thích, dù không có thêm thông tin mới – nhưng lặp lại quá nhiều có thể gây nhàm chán, phản tác dụng.

Fear appeals and the efficacy message

An anti-smoking campaign that shows graphic, extreme images of disease but provides no information about how to quit may cause some viewers to avoid thinking about the advert altogether, or to dismiss it as exaggerated (defensive avoidance), leaving attitudes and behaviour largely unchanged. A campaign that pairs a moderate depiction of health risk with a clear, achievable action (a quitline number, a step-by-step cessation programme) is generally more persuasive, because it gives the audience both a reason to worry and a believable way to resolve that worry.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Ví dụ: một chiến dịch chống hút thuốc chỉ chiếu hình ảnh bệnh tật cực đoan mà không đưa ra cách bỏ thuốc cụ thể có thể khiến người xem né tránh hoặc phủ nhận thông điệp. Ngược lại, một chiến dịch kết hợp mức độ sợ hãi vừa phải với một giải pháp rõ ràng, khả thi (số điện

thoại tư vấn, chương trình cai thuốc từng bước) thường thuyết phục hơn.

8.1.4 Classical conditioning in advertising: Gorn (1982)

Advertisers frequently attempt to build positive associations with a brand using the same logic as classical conditioning: repeatedly pairing a neutral product (which starts out with no particular emotional value) with a stimulus that already reliably produces a pleasant feeling (e.g., liked music, an attractive scene, humour), so that the product itself eventually comes to elicit some of that positive feeling.

Gorn (1982): music and product choice

Gorn's classic study investigated whether pairing a neutral product (a pen, in one of two colours) with music that participants either liked or disliked would affect which product they subsequently chose. Participants viewed a product paired with either pleasant, well-liked background music or unpleasant, disliked music, and were later given the opportunity to choose one of the products for themselves. The general, well-established finding was that products that had been paired with liked music were chosen more often than products paired with disliked music. This is taken as evidence that classical conditioning – pairing a neutral stimulus with an affect-laden one – can shape consumer product preference, supporting the use of pleasant music, imagery, and humour in advertising to build positive brand associations.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Nghiên cứu của **Gorn (1982)** là ví dụ kinh điển về điều kiện hoá cổ điển trong quảng cáo: người tham gia xem một sản phẩm trung tính (một chiếc bút) được ghép với nhạc nền mà họ **thích** hoặc **không thích**. Sau đó, khi được chọn một sản phẩm để mang về, những sản phẩm từng được ghép với nhạc được yêu thích thường được chọn **nhiều hơn** so với sản phẩm ghép với nhạc không được yêu thích. Kết quả này cho thấy việc ghép sản phẩm với âm nhạc, hình ảnh, hoặc sự hài hước dễ chịu có thể tạo ra thiện cảm với thương hiệu, ngay cả khi bản thân sản phẩm không thay đổi.

(!) Lỗi thường gặp: Đừng mô tả nghiên cứu của Gorn (1982) bằng những con số cụ thể không có thật (ví dụ "%75 người chọn..."). Trong bài thi, chỉ cần mô tả **xu hướng chung**: sản phẩm ghép với nhạc được yêu thích được chọn nhiều hơn sản phẩm ghép với nhạc không được yêu thích – đây là kiểu kết luận định tính, không phải một con số thống kê chính xác cần ghi nhớ.

8.1.5 Subliminal advertising

Subliminal advertising

Subliminal advertising refers to messages presented below the threshold of conscious awareness (e.g., an image flashed too briefly to be consciously perceived, or a message embedded very faintly within other content), on the assumption that the unconscious mind might still register and act on it. Despite popular belief (fuelled by since-discredited claims from the 1950s about flashing "drink Coca-Cola" messages in cinemas), the general scientific consensus is that subliminal messages have, **at most, very weak and unreliable effects** on actual consumer behaviour. Effects that have been demonstrated in careful laboratory studies tend to be small, short-lived, highly dependent on the exact experimental conditions, and far weaker than supraliminal (consciously perceived) persuasion techniques. Subliminal advertising is banned or restricted by broadcasting regulations in a number of countries, largely on ethical grounds

(concern about covert manipulation) rather than because it is a demonstrably powerful technique.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Quảng cáo tiềm thức (subliminal advertising) là thông điệp được trình bày dưới ngưỡng nhận thức có ý thức (ví dụ hình ảnh chớp quá nhanh để nhận ra). Mặc dù có niềm tin phổ biến (xuất phát từ những tuyên bố từ thập niên 1950 sau này đã bị bác bỏ), **giới khoa học hiện nay đồng thuận rằng** quảng cáo tiềm thức, nếu có tác dụng, thì tác dụng đó **rất yếu và không đáng tin cậy** – nhỏ hơn nhiều so với các kỹ thuật thuyết phục có ý thức. Nhiều quốc gia vẫn cấm quảng cáo tiềm thức chủ yếu vì lý do **đạo đức** (lo ngại thao túng ngầm), không phải vì nó được chứng minh là cực kỳ hiệu quả.

8.1.6 Children's susceptibility to advertising

Advertising to children

Young children's cognitive development limits their ability to critically evaluate advertising. Below a certain developmental stage (roughly the early-to-mid primary school years), many children cannot reliably distinguish **advertising intent** (that an advert is trying to persuade them to buy something) from ordinary **programme content** – they may treat adverts shown alongside a cartoon as simply more entertainment, without recognising the persuasive, commercial purpose behind them. Younger children are also less able to recognise techniques such as exaggeration, product-only depiction ("food looks bigger/better than reality"), or the use of premiums (free toys) to drive "pester power" (children requesting a product from parents). This raises significant **ethical and regulatory** concerns, and many countries restrict or ban advertising specific product categories (e.g., unhealthy food, toys) to young children, or require advertisements aimed at children to be clearly separated from programme content.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Trẻ nhỏ (đặc biệt dưới độ tuổi tiểu học lớn) thường **chưa phát triển đủ nhận thức** để phân biệt **mục đích quảng cáo** (thuyết phục mua hàng) với **nội dung chương trình** bình thường – các em có thể coi quảng cáo xen giữa phim hoạt hình chỉ là một phần giải trí khác. Trẻ cũng khó nhận ra các kỹ thuật như phóng đại, hoặc việc tặng kèm đồ chơi để tạo "áp lực đòi mua" (pester power) lên cha mẹ. Vì vậy, nhiều nước có quy định hạn chế/cấm quảng cáo một số loại sản phẩm (đồ ăn không lành mạnh, đồ chơi) nhắm đến trẻ em, hoặc yêu cầu tách bạch rõ ràng quảng cáo với nội dung chương trình.

8.2 Product Packaging, Branding, and Labelling

8.2.1 Colour, shape, and typography in packaging

Packaging design and perceived product qualities

Packaging communicates information about a product before a single word is read, largely through colour, shape, and typography.

- **Colour associations** are widely cited (though not absolute, universal laws – associations can vary by culture and product category): **red** and **orange** are commonly associated with energy, excitement, appetite, and urgency (frequently used for fast food and clearance sales); **blue** is commonly associated with trust, calm, cleanliness, and reliability (frequently used by banks, healthcare, and technology brands); **green** is commonly associated with na-

ture, health, and environmental friendliness (frequently used for organic or "eco" products); **black** and **gold** are commonly associated with luxury and premium quality.

- **Shape** of packaging (rounded vs. angular, tall vs. squat) can influence perceptions of the product itself — e.g., rounded packaging is often perceived as gentler or sweeter, angular packaging as more premium or high-performance.
- **Typography** (font style, weight, size) affects perceived qualities such as trustworthiness, playfulness, or luxury — e.g., elegant serif fonts are often associated with tradition and prestige, while bold sans-serif fonts are associated with modernity and simplicity.

These design cues operate largely through the **peripheral route**: consumers rarely deliberate consciously about packaging colour, yet it still shapes expectations about taste, quality, and appropriate use.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Bao bì truyền tải thông tin về sản phẩm trước cả khi người mua đọc một chữ nào, thông qua **màu sắc, hình dáng, và kiểu chữ**. **Đỏ/cam** thường gắn với năng lượng, sự thèm ăn, khẩn cấp (đồ ăn nhanh, giảm giá); **xanh dương** gắn với sự tin cậy, bình yên, sạch sẽ (ngân hàng, y tế, công nghệ); **xanh lá** gắn với thiên nhiên, sức khoẻ (sản phẩm hữu cơ); **đen/vàng kim** gắn với sự sang trọng. Đây là những **liên tưởng phổ biến**, không phải quy luật tuyệt đối, và có thể khác nhau theo văn hoá. Những tín hiệu thiết kế này chủ yếu tác động qua **con đường ngoại vi** — người mua hiếm khi suy nghĩ có ý thức về màu bao bì, nhưng nó vẫn định hình kỳ vọng về hương vị và chất lượng.

Colour	Common association	Typical use in packaging/branding
Red / orange	Energy, appetite, excitement, urgency	Fast food, snacks, clearance/sale labelling
Blue	Trust, calm, cleanliness, reliability	Banks, healthcare products, technology brands
Green	Nature, health, freshness, sustainability	Organic food, "eco-friendly" and natural products
Black / gold	Luxury, sophistication, premium quality	High-end cosmetics, luxury goods, premium food/drink lines
Yellow	Optimism, attention-grabbing, low cost	Value/budget product ranges, warning labels

Widely-cited colour associations used in product packaging and branding. These are general tendencies, moderated by culture and product category, not fixed rules.

8.2.2 Branding and brand loyalty

Brand image, personality, and loyalty

A **brand** is more than a name or logo: it is the overall bundle of associations, expectations, and feelings a consumer has learned to attach to a product or company.

- **Brand image** is the set of perceptions consumers hold about a brand, built up through advertising, packaging, and experience.
- **Brand personality** refers to human-like traits (e.g., "adventurous," "sophisticated," "trustworthy") that consumers attribute to a brand, which can help consumers feel the brand expresses something about their own identity.
- **Brand loyalty** is a consumer's tendency to repeatedly choose the same brand over competitors, driven by repeated positive experience (the product reliably meets or exceeds

expectations), trust built over time, and emotional attachment to the brand's image/personality. Loyal customers are less price-sensitive, more resistant to competitor advertising, and more likely to recommend the brand to others.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Thương hiệu (brand) không chỉ là tên hay logo, mà là toàn bộ những liên tưởng và cảm xúc người tiêu dùng gắn với sản phẩm. **Hình ảnh thương hiệu (brand image)** là tập hợp nhận thức về thương hiệu được xây dựng qua quảng cáo, bao bì, và trải nghiệm. **Cá tính thương hiệu (brand personality)** là những đặc điểm giống con người (ví dụ "phiêu lưu", "sang trọng") mà người tiêu dùng gán cho thương hiệu. **Lòng trung thành thương hiệu (brand loyalty)** hình thành từ trải nghiệm tích cực lặp lại, sự tin tưởng theo thời gian, và sự gắn bó cảm xúc — khách hàng trung thành ít nhạy cảm với giá và khó bị quảng cáo đối thủ lay chuyển hơn.

8.2.3 Nutritional and warning labelling

Label design and consumer choice

Nutritional labels (e.g., calorie counts, "traffic-light" colour-coded fat/sugar/salt indicators) and warning labels (e.g., health warnings on tobacco or alcohol packaging) are designed to inform consumer choice and encourage healthier behaviour. The clarity, prominence, and format of labelling all affect how much impact it has: labels that are simple, visually prominent (e.g., large, colour-coded, front-of-pack rather than small print on the back), and require little effortful processing tend to influence choice more than dense, text-heavy nutritional panels that demand careful reading (which many consumers, processing the product peripherally in a busy shopping environment, will simply not read). Graphic health warnings (e.g., images of disease on cigarette packaging) attempt to use a fear-appeal mechanism directly at the point of purchase.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Nhãn dinh dưỡng (chỉ số calo, hệ thống màu "đèn giao thông" cho chất béo/đường/muối) và nhãn cảnh báo (cảnh báo sức khỏe trên bao thuốc lá, rượu) được thiết kế để giúp người tiêu dùng đưa ra lựa chọn lành mạnh hơn. Nhãn càng **đơn giản, nổi bật, đặt ở mặt trước bao bì** thì càng có tác động lớn hơn so với bảng thông tin dày đặc chữ ở mặt sau — vì trong môi trường mua sắm bận rộn, nhiều người xử lý thông tin theo **con đường ngoại vi** và sẽ không đọc kỹ. Cảnh báo sức khỏe bằng hình ảnh (trên bao thuốc lá) áp dụng trực tiếp cơ chế **lời kêu gọi sợ hãi** ngay tại điểm mua hàng.

8.3 The Retail Environment: Atmospherics

8.3.1 Store atmospherics: music and shopping behaviour

Atmospherics refers to the deliberate design of a retail environment's sensory features (music, lighting, scent, layout, temperature) to influence shopper mood, movement, and spending.

Milliman (1982): music tempo in supermarkets

Milliman's well-known field study manipulated the tempo of background music played in a real supermarket (comparing slow-tempo versus fast-tempo music on different days) and observed customers' in-store behaviour. The general, well-established finding was that **slow-tempo background music was associated with slower in-store movement** (customers walked more slowly around the store) **and with higher supermarket sales** compared with fast-tempo

music. The proposed explanation is that slower movement gives shoppers more time to notice and consider additional products, increasing unplanned purchases, whereas fast music encourages shoppers to move through the store more quickly and buy less.

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Nghiên cứu thực địa nổi tiếng của **Milliman (1982)** thay đổi nhịp độ nhạc nền trong một siêu thị thật (nhạc chậm so với nhạc nhanh) và quan sát hành vi khách hàng. Kết quả chung được biết đến rộng rãi: **nhạc nền chậm** có liên quan đến việc khách hàng **di chuyển chậm hơn** trong cửa hàng và **doanh số bán hàng cao hơn** so với nhạc nhanh. Lời giải thích là khi di chuyển chậm, khách hàng có nhiều thời gian hơn để chú ý và cân nhắc thêm sản phẩm, dẫn đến nhiều lần mua sắm ngẫu hứng hơn.

North, Hargreaves & McKendrick (1997): music and product choice

This field study placed French-style accordion music or German-style Bierkeller (brass band) music alongside a display of French and German wines in a supermarket, and recorded which wine shoppers purchased. The general finding was that playing French-style music was associated with a bias toward purchasing French wine, while playing German-style music was associated with a bias toward purchasing German wine — even though most shoppers, when asked afterward, did not report that the music had influenced their choice. This is used as a classic illustration of **priming**: background music activated culturally-linked associations (accordion music activating ideas of "French-ness") that shifted product choice toward the congruent item, largely outside conscious awareness.

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Nghiên cứu của **North, Hargreaves & McKendrick (1997)** phát nhạc kiểu Pháp (accordion) hoặc nhạc kiểu Đức (nhạc kèn Bierkeller) bên cạnh quầy rượu vang Pháp và Đức trong siêu thị. Kết quả: khi phát nhạc Pháp, khách hàng có xu hướng **chọn rượu vang Pháp** nhiều hơn; khi phát nhạc Đức, xu hướng chọn **rượu vang Đức** tăng lên — mặc dù phần lớn khách hàng khi được hỏi lại **không nhận ra** âm nhạc đã ảnh hưởng đến lựa chọn của họ. Đây là ví dụ kinh điển về **hiệu ứng môi (priming)**: âm nhạc nền kích hoạt các liên tưởng văn hoá (nhạc accordion gợi liên tưởng "Pháp"), làm lệch lựa chọn sản phẩm về phía tương ứng, phần lớn nằm ngoài nhận thức có ý thức.

Study	Manipulation	General finding
Milliman (1982)	Tempo of background music (slow vs. fast) in a real supermarket	Slow-tempo music associated with slower shopper movement and higher sales than fast-tempo music
North, Hargreaves & McKendrick (1997)	Genre of background music (French accordion vs. German Bierkeller brass band) played beside a French/German wine display	Music genre biased wine purchases toward the culturally congruent country, mostly without shoppers' conscious awareness (priming)

Two classic field studies of retail atmospherics: background music can shape movement, spending, and even specific product choice.

8.3.2 Store layout, product placement, and impulse buying

Layout and placement

- **Eye-level placement:** products placed at adult eye level on shelves tend to sell better than those placed near the floor or very high up, since they require the least effort to notice and reach (sometimes called the "eye-level is buy-level" principle); manufacturers often pay retailers for this premium shelf space.
- **End-of-aisle displays and checkout displays:** placing products at the ends of aisles or beside the checkout — locations that shoppers pass regardless of their planned route, often while their guard is down or while queueing with little else to do — reliably increases unplanned, **impulse purchases** of the displayed item.
- **Store layout** (the path customers are guided along, placement of high-margin or high-demand items) is designed to maximise the number of product categories a shopper is exposed to before leaving, increasing the opportunity for unplanned purchases.

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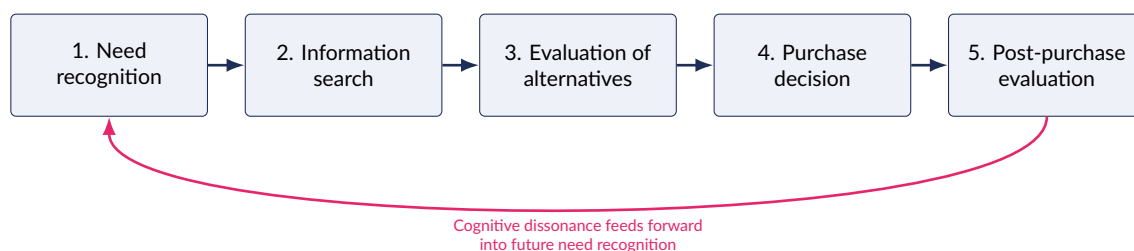
Đặt sản phẩm ở tầm mắt (eye-level) giúp bán chạy hơn vì dễ nhìn thấy và dễ lấy nhất — nhà sản xuất thường trả thêm phí để có vị trí này. **Trưng bày ở đầu dãy kệ hoặc gần quầy thu ngân** — nơi khách hàng luôn đi qua dù không có kế hoạch mua — làm tăng đáng kể các lần **mua hàng ngẫu hứng** (impulse buying). **Bố trí cửa hàng** được thiết kế để dẫn khách đi qua càng nhiều loại sản phẩm càng tốt trước khi rời đi, tăng cơ hội mua thêm ngoài kế hoạch.

8.4 Consumer Decision-Making

8.4.1 Stages of the consumer decision-making process

Five stages of consumer decision-making

1. **Need recognition:** the consumer becomes aware of a gap between their current state and a desired state (e.g., noticing the milk has run out, or seeing an advert that creates a new desire).
2. **Information search:** the consumer gathers information about possible options, from internal sources (memory of past experience) and external sources (advertising, packaging, online reviews, word of mouth, in-store staff).
3. **Evaluation of alternatives:** the consumer compares the available options against relevant criteria (price, quality, brand reputation, features), which may be processed via the central route (careful comparison) or peripheral route (relying on brand image or packaging cues), depending on involvement.
4. **Purchase decision:** the consumer selects and buys a specific option, though the final purchase can still be altered at the point of sale by situational factors (a promotion, an out-of-stock item, an impulse trigger).
5. **Post-purchase evaluation:** the consumer assesses whether the product met expectations. If the product falls short of expectations, or if the consumer becomes aware of an attractive alternative they did not choose, **cognitive dissonance** (an uncomfortable feeling of tension arising from holding conflicting cognitions — e.g., "I chose this expensive product" vs. "the cheaper alternative also looked good") can result.



The five stages of consumer decision-making. Post-purchase cognitive dissonance can feed back into the need-recognition stage of a future purchase (e.g., prompting a search for reassurance, or a switch to a different brand next time).

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Năm giai đoạn ra quyết định mua hàng: (1) **Nhận thức nhu cầu** – nhận ra khoảng cách giữa trạng thái hiện tại và mong muốn; (2) **Tìm kiếm thông tin** – từ trí nhớ (nội bộ) và quảng cáo/đánh giá/truyền miệng (bên ngoài); (3) **Đánh giá các lựa chọn** – so sánh theo tiêu chí (giá, chất lượng, thương hiệu), có thể qua con đường trung tâm hoặc ngoại vi; (4) **Quyết định mua** – vẫn có thể bị thay đổi tại điểm bán bởi yếu tố tình huống (khuyến mãi, hết hàng); (5) **Đánh giá sau mua** – nếu sản phẩm không như kỳ vọng, hoặc phát hiện lựa chọn khác hấp dẫn hơn, người mua có thể trải qua **bất hoà nhận thức (cognitive dissonance)**.

8.4.2 Post-purchase cognitive dissonance and how marketers reduce it

Reducing post-purchase dissonance

Festinger's concept of **cognitive dissonance** applies directly after a purchase: the consumer holds the cognition "I bought product X" alongside potentially conflicting cognitions ("product Y also had advantages," "X was expensive," "X might not perform as promised"), producing psychological discomfort that motivates the consumer to reduce it – often by seeking out information that confirms their choice was correct, and avoiding information that suggests otherwise. Marketers actively try to reduce anticipated post-purchase dissonance (and thereby reduce returns, complaints, and brand-switching) through several strategies:

- **Reassurance communications** after purchase (confirmation emails praising the customer's choice, follow-up tips on getting the most from the product).
- **Guarantees and warranties** that reduce the perceived risk of having made the wrong choice.
- **Easy returns/refund policies**, which reduce the cost of being "locked in" to a bad decision and paradoxically increase confidence in the original purchase.
- **Post-purchase advertising** reinforcing the brand's positive qualities, aimed partly at existing customers rather than only new ones.

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Bất hoà nhận thức sau mua: người mua giữ đồng thời các nhận thức mâu thuẫn nhau ("tôi đã mua X" và "sản phẩm Y cũng có ưu điểm"), gây khó chịu tâm lý và thúc đẩy họ tìm thông tin xác nhận lựa chọn của mình là đúng. Nhà tiếp thị chủ động giảm bất hoà này bằng: **email xác nhận/trấn an** sau mua, **bảo hành/cam kết** giảm cảm giác rủi ro, **chính sách đổi trả dễ dàng**, và quảng cáo củng cố hình ảnh thương hiệu hướng đến cả khách hàng hiện tại, không chỉ khách hàng mới.

8.4.3 Impulse buying

Impulse buying

Impulse buying is an unplanned, often sudden and immediate purchase decision made without the deliberate evaluation-of-alternatives stage described above. It is influenced by both **situational factors** (time pressure, low prices/promotions, attractive in-store displays, positive mood, availability of money/credit) and **individual-difference factors** (some individuals are more chronically prone to impulsive buying than others, often linked to broader impulsivity or lower self-regulation, and to using shopping as a way of managing mood). Retail atmospherics (music, layout, lighting) and product placement (end-of-aisle, checkout displays) are specifically designed to increase the likelihood of impulse purchases by putting shoppers into a more relaxed, less deliberative state of mind.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

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Mua hàng ngẫu hứng (impulse buying) là quyết định mua không có kế hoạch, thường đột ngột, bỏ qua giai đoạn đánh giá lựa chọn kỹ lưỡng. Bị ảnh hưởng bởi **yếu tố tình huống** (áp lực thời gian, khuyến mãi, trưng bày hấp dẫn, tâm trạng tích cực) và **yếu tố khác biệt cá nhân** (một số người có xu hướng mua ngẫu hứng cao hơn, thường liên quan đến tính bốc đồng hoặc khả năng tự kiểm soát thấp, và dùng việc mua sắm như cách điều chỉnh tâm trạng). Không khí cửa hàng và cách bố trí sản phẩm được thiết kế có chủ đích để tăng khả năng mua ngẫu hứng.

8.5 Evaluation of Consumer Psychology as an Applied Field

Strengths and limitations of consumer psychology

- **Ethical issues:** techniques such as classical conditioning in advertising, atmospherics, and celebrity endorsement raise the question of where **informing** consumers ends and **manipulating** them begins, particularly when persuasion operates through the peripheral route or below conscious awareness (as with priming from background music, or subliminal techniques). Advertising to **children**, who cannot reliably recognise persuasive intent, is a particular ethical concern and is regulated in many countries. **Fear appeals** raise questions about the acceptable level of distress that can legitimately be induced in an audience (e.g., in anti-smoking or road-safety campaigns) to change behaviour for a broader social good.
- **Real-world application (strength):** consumer psychology has substantial, demonstrable commercial and public-health value — its principles are used not only by advertisers and retailers to increase sales, but also by public-health and safety campaigns (e.g., anti-smoking, drink-driving, healthy-eating campaigns) to change behaviour for social benefit, and by policymakers designing nutritional labelling.
- **Methodological issues:** many classic studies (e.g., Milliman, 1982; North et al., 1997) are conducted as **field experiments** in real supermarkets, which gives them high **ecological validity** (real shoppers, real purchases) but reduced control over extraneous variables (e.g., which customers happen to be shopping on a given day), making cause-and-effect conclusions less certain than in a tightly controlled laboratory study. Conversely, many laboratory studies of persuasion (e.g., Gorn, 1982) offer greater control but reduced ecological validity, since a brief laboratory task with unfamiliar products may not fully capture real purchasing behaviour with familiar, personally relevant brands.
- **Individual and cultural differences:** susceptibility to persuasion techniques is not uniform. **Culture** can moderate colour associations, music-genre associations, and the acceptability

of certain advertising appeals (e.g., direct comparative advertising is common in some cultures but frowned upon or restricted in others). **Age** moderates susceptibility, with young children particularly vulnerable to advertising due to limited understanding of persuasive intent, while older or more experienced consumers may be more resistant, relying more on the central route once they have developed sceptical, deliberate purchasing habits. Individual differences in need for cognition (some people habitually prefer effortful, central-route processing; others habitually prefer peripheral cues) also moderate which persuasive techniques are most effective for a given person.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Vấn đề đạo đức: các kỹ thuật như điều kiện hoá cổ điển trong quảng cáo, không khí cửa hàng, và người nổi tiếng đặt ra câu hỏi ranh giới giữa **cung cấp thông tin** và **thao túng**, đặc biệt khi thuyết phục diễn ra qua con đường ngoại vi hoặc dưới ngưỡng ý thức. Quảng cáo nhắm đến **trẻ em** là mối quan tâm đạo đức đặc biệt. **Ứng dụng thực tế** là điểm mạnh: nguyên lý tâm lý học người tiêu dùng được dùng cả trong quảng cáo thương mại lẫn các chiến dịch sức khoẻ cộng đồng (chống hút thuốc, an toàn giao thông). **Vấn đề phương pháp luận:** nghiên cứu thực địa (Milliman; North et al.) có **giá trị sinh thái cao** nhưng ít kiểm soát biến nhiễu; nghiên cứu phòng thí nghiệm (Gorn) kiểm soát tốt hơn nhưng giá trị sinh thái thấp hơn. **Khác biệt cá nhân/văn hoá:** văn hoá ảnh hưởng đến liên tưởng màu sắc/âm nhạc và mức độ chấp nhận một số hình thức quảng cáo; trẻ em dễ bị ảnh hưởng hơn người lớn; người có xu hướng tư duy sâu ("need for cognition" cao) ít bị ảnh hưởng bởi tín hiệu ngoại vi hơn.

(!) Lỗi thường gặp: Khi đánh giá (evaluate) một nghiên cứu như Milliman (1982) hay North et al. (1997) trong bài thi, đừng chỉ nói "đây là thí nghiệm thực địa nên có giá trị sinh thái cao" một cách chung chung. Hãy nêu **cụ thể**: vì được tiến hành trong siêu thị thật với khách hàng thật đang mua sắm thật, kết quả có khả năng khái quát cao hơn sang hành vi mua sắm thực tế – nhưng đồng thời khó kiểm soát các biến gây nhiễu như ai đang mua sắm hôm đó, họ đã ăn trưa chưa, hay có đang vội hay không.

8.6 Practice Bank

Bài tập luyện tập

Q1. According to the Elaboration Likelihood Model, which condition favours the central route to persuasion?

- | | |
|---|---|
| (A) Low motivation and low ability to process the message | (C) An attractive celebrity endorsing the product |
| (B) High motivation and high ability to process the message | (D) Loud, upbeat background music in the advert |

Lời giải chi tiết

Answer: B. The central route is used when the receiver has both the motivation (personal relevance) and the ability (time, knowledge, lack of distraction) to think carefully about the message content. Options A, C, and D describe conditions or cues associated with the peripheral route.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q2. A shopper carefully compares the technical specifications, battery life, and reviews of two laptops for over an hour before buying one. Which route of the ELM does this best illustrate, and why?

Lời giải chi tiết

This illustrates the **central route**. The shopper shows high **motivation** (a laptop is an expensive, personally relevant purchase) and high **ability** (they take the time to gather and evaluate detailed information such as specifications and reviews, rather than relying on superficial cues). According to the ELM, attitude change and brand preference formed this way should be relatively durable and resistant to a competitor's later counter-advertising.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q3. Explain, using the ELM, why a low-involvement product such as a chocolate bar is more often advertised using an attractive presenter and catchy music rather than detailed factual arguments.

Lời giải chi tiết

Consumers typically have low personal involvement with a low-cost, habitual purchase like a chocolate bar, so their motivation to process a detailed argument is low, and they are unlikely to give the advert sustained, effortful thought. Under these conditions, the ELM predicts that persuasion is more effective via the **peripheral route**: superficial cues such as an attractive presenter, likeable music, or humour are more likely to shift attitudes than a dense argument the audience will not attend to. The trade-off is that this attitude change tends to be weaker and more easily reversed than centrally-processed change.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q4. Which of the following best describes the mechanism proposed to explain celebrity endorsement effects?

- | | |
|---|---|
| (A) Operant conditioning through positive reinforcement of the celebrity | (C) Social learning theory through vicarious punishment |
| (B) Classical conditioning: positive feelings toward the celebrity become associated with the product | (D) Cognitive dissonance reduction after purchase |

Lời giải chi tiết

Answer: B. Celebrity endorsement is understood mainly through a classical-conditioning-like mechanism: the celebrity (already associated with positive feelings, functioning like a UCS) is repeatedly paired with the product, so the product (originally neutral) becomes a CS that also elicits some of that positive feeling.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q5. A sports-drink brand chooses a professional athlete to endorse its product rather than a musician. Using the concept of matching/congruence, explain why this choice is likely to be

more effective.

Lời giải chi tiết

Endorsement is generally more persuasive when there is a sensible **match** between the celebrity's image or area of expertise and the product/audience. A professional athlete is directly relevant to a sports drink (linked to performance, fitness, and credibility about the product's benefits), so the pairing feels natural and believable to the target audience of athletic or fitness-oriented consumers. A musician, while potentially likeable, has no obvious expertise or relevant association with sports performance, so the endorsement would feel more arbitrary and would be expected to produce weaker, less credible persuasion.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q6. Outline the difference between a one-sided and a two-sided persuasive message, and explain one advantage of using a two-sided message with a sceptical audience.

Lời giải chi tiết

A **one-sided** message presents only arguments in favour of the product, with no acknowledgment of any limitation or competing advantage. A **two-sided** message presents the main persuasive case but also acknowledges a minor limitation or a competitor's strength. With a sceptical audience, a two-sided message can increase perceived source credibility and honesty (because the source appears to be presenting a balanced picture rather than a one-sided sales pitch), and can make the audience more resistant to later counter-persuasion, since the minor weakness has already been addressed and "inoculated" against.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q7. An anti-drink-driving campaign shows extremely graphic footage of fatal crashes but gives no information about alternative ways to get home safely. Based on research into fear appeals, predict a likely limitation of this campaign and explain why.

Lời giải chi tiết

A likely limitation is that the campaign may be **less effective than intended**, because it presents very high fear without a clear, achievable solution. Research on fear appeals suggests that moderate fear combined with a clear efficacious solution is generally more persuasive than extreme fear alone. Without a solution (e.g., information on calling a taxi, designating a driver, or a helpline), viewers may experience **defensive avoidance** – looking away from, dismissing, or mentally blocking out the frightening message – rather than being motivated to change their behaviour, because the fear generated has no obvious outlet for resolution.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q8. Which schedule of persuasive exposure is illustrated by the "mere exposure effect"?

- (A) A single, highly detailed exposure to a two-sided argument
- (B) Repeated exposure to the same brand/slogan increasing liking over time, up to a point
- (C) A single exposure paired with a strong fear appeal
- (D) Exposure to a subliminal message below conscious awareness

Lời giải chi tiết

Answer: B. The mere exposure effect describes how repeated exposure to a stimulus (a brand, jingle, or slogan) tends to increase liking for it, even without new information being conveyed, though excessive repetition can eventually cause wear-out and reduced effectiveness.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q9. Describe Gorn's (1982) study of music and product choice, and state its main conclusion.

Lời giải chi tiết

Gorn's study paired a neutral product (a pen) with either music that participants liked or music they disliked, and later gave participants the opportunity to choose one of the products. The general finding was that products that had been paired with liked music were chosen more often than products paired with disliked music. The main conclusion is that classical conditioning – pairing a neutral stimulus with an affectively pleasant one – can shape consumer product preference and liking, supporting the widespread advertising practice of pairing products with pleasant music, imagery, or humour.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q10. Which of the following statements best reflects the current scientific consensus on subliminal advertising?

- (A) Subliminal messages reliably and powerfully change consumer purchasing behaviour
- (B) Subliminal messages have, at most, very weak and unreliable effects on behaviour
- (C) Subliminal advertising is the most effective persuasive technique available
- (D) Subliminal advertising works only on children, never on adults

Lời giải chi tiết

Answer: B. Despite popular belief, the scientific consensus is that subliminal messages have at most very weak and unreliable effects on actual behaviour, far weaker and less consistent than consciously-perceived (supraliminal) persuasion techniques.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q11. Explain why young children are considered particularly vulnerable to television advertising.

Lời giải chi tiết

Young children, especially below the early-to-mid primary school years, often cannot reliably distinguish **advertising intent** (that an advert is trying to persuade them to want or buy something) from ordinary **programme content**, so they may process adverts as simply another part of the entertainment rather than recognising their persuasive, commercial purpose. They are also less able to recognise techniques such as exaggeration or the use of free-toy premiums, making them susceptible to "pester power" effects where they pressure parents to buy advertised products. This developmental limitation is the main reason many countries regulate or restrict advertising directed at young children.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q12. Evaluate one ethical issue raised by advertising directed at children.

Lời giải chi tiết

One ethical issue is that advertising to young children may constitute **manipulation rather than fair persuasion**, because children below a certain developmental stage cannot recognise persuasive intent and so cannot give informed, critical consideration to the message – unlike adults, who can (at least in principle) evaluate an advert's claims. This raises a concern about exploiting a vulnerable audience for commercial gain, and about the resulting pressure placed on parents (pester power) and on family relationships. On the other hand, some argue that responsibility ultimately rests with parents to mediate their children's exposure to and understanding of advertising, and that regulation (e.g., restricting advertising of unhealthy food to children, requiring clear separation of adverts from programmes) can address the concern without banning advertising altogether. Overall, the issue highlights a tension between commercial freedom of speech and the protection of a cognitively vulnerable audience.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q13. A shampoo bottle uses a rounded shape and green colouring. Using research on packaging, explain what associations this design is likely intended to create.

Lời giải chi tiết

The rounded shape is likely intended to create an impression of gentleness (rounded packaging is often perceived as softer/gentler than angular packaging), which fits a personal-care product marketed on mildness. The green colouring is widely associated with nature, health, and freshness, suggesting the shampoo is natural, gentle on hair, or environmentally friendly. Both design choices operate largely through the **peripheral route**: consumers rarely consciously reason about bottle shape or colour, but these cues still shape expectations about the product's qualities before it is even used.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q14. Which colour is most commonly associated with luxury and premium quality in packaging research?

(A) Yellow

(C) Black/gold

(B) Red

(D) Green

Lời giải chi tiết

Answer: C. Black and gold are widely cited as associated with luxury, sophistication, and premium quality, and are frequently used in the packaging of high-end cosmetics and premium food or drink lines.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q15. Define brand loyalty and outline two factors that help build it.

Lời giải chi tiết

Brand loyalty is a consumer's tendency to repeatedly choose the same brand over competing alternatives. Two factors that help build it: (1) **Repeated positive experience** — each time the product reliably meets or exceeds expectations, trust in the brand strengthens, making the consumer more likely to choose it again without re-evaluating alternatives. (2) **Brand personality/image** — when a brand's perceived personality (e.g., "adventurous," "trustworthy") aligns with how a consumer sees themselves or wants to be seen, an emotional attachment forms that goes beyond simple product satisfaction, further increasing repeat purchase and resistance to competitor advertising.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q16. Explain how nutritional label design (e.g., "traffic-light" colour coding) can affect health-related consumer choice, including one limitation of labelling as a health intervention.

Lời giải chi tiết

Simple, visually prominent, colour-coded labels (e.g., red/amber/green indicators for fat, sugar, and salt on the front of the pack) require little effortful processing, so they can be noticed and used even by shoppers processing information peripherally in a busy store, nudging them toward healthier choices. A limitation is that dense, text-heavy nutritional panels (e.g., a small-print table on the back of the pack) demand careful, central-route reading that many time-pressed shoppers will simply skip, so poorly-designed or overly complex labelling may have little real impact on behaviour even though the information is technically available.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q17. Describe Milliman's (1982) study of music tempo in a supermarket and state its general finding.

Lời giải chi tiết

Answer: Milliman manipulated the tempo of background music (slow versus fast) played in a real supermarket on different occasions and observed customers' shopping behaviour and the store's sales. The general finding was that slow-tempo background music was associated with slower in-store movement by customers and with higher sales, compared with fast-tempo music — attributed to slower-moving shoppers having more time to notice and consider additional products.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q18. In North, Hargreaves and McKendrick's (1997) wine study, what psychological process best explains the effect of background music on which wine shoppers chose?

- (A) Operant conditioning through reinforcement choice
(B) Priming — music activated culturally-linked associations that shifted product
(C) Cognitive dissonance reduction
(D) Central-route processing of factual wine information

Lời giải chi tiết

Answer: B. Playing French- or German-style music activated culturally-linked associations ("French-ness" or "German-ness") that primed shoppers toward the congruent wine, largely without shoppers' conscious awareness that the music had influenced them.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q19. A supermarket places sweets and magazines at the checkout, and puts popular breakfast cereals at adult eye level rather than on the bottom shelf. Explain the psychological reasoning behind both placement decisions.

Lời giải chi tiết

Checkout placement of sweets and magazines exploits the fact that shoppers pass this location regardless of their planned route, often while queueing with little else to occupy their attention and with reduced deliberate evaluation — this reliably increases unplanned, **impulse purchases**. Eye-level placement of cereals follows the "eye-level is buy-level" principle: products positioned where they can be seen and reached with minimal effort sell better than products on very high or very low shelves, since they are noticed more often and require less deliberate searching to select.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q20. List, in order, the five stages of the consumer decision-making process.

Lời giải chi tiết

(1) Need recognition; (2) Information search; (3) Evaluation of alternatives; (4) Purchase decision; (5) Post-purchase evaluation.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q21. A customer buys an expensive coat, then later feels uneasy after noticing a cheaper coat elsewhere with similar features. Identify this psychological state and describe two strategies a retailer could use to reduce it.

Lời giải chi tiết

This is **post-purchase cognitive dissonance**: the customer holds the conflicting cognitions "I paid a high price for this coat" and "a cheaper alternative also seemed to offer similar features," producing psychological discomfort. Two strategies a retailer could use to reduce it: (1) send

a **reassurance/confirmation communication** after purchase praising the customer's choice or offering styling tips, reinforcing that they made a good decision; (2) offer a clear **guarantee or easy returns policy**, which reduces the perceived risk of having made the wrong choice and can paradoxically increase the customer's confidence in the purchase they already made.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q22. Which of the following is most strongly associated with a tendency toward impulse buying?

- | | |
|--|--|
| (A) High need for cognition and careful evaluation of alternatives | (C) Attractive in-store displays combined with a positive mood and low self-regulation |
| (B) Low situational time pressure and no promotional displays | (D) Extensive information search prior to purchase |

Lời giải chi tiết

Answer: C. Impulse buying is increased by situational factors such as attractive displays, promotions, and positive mood, and by individual-difference factors such as lower self-regulation/higher impulsivity. Options A, B, and D describe conditions associated with careful, planned decision-making rather than impulse buying.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q23. Evaluate the methodological strengths and weaknesses of using field experiments (such as Milliman, 1982, or North et al., 1997) to study consumer behaviour in real stores.

Lời giải chi tiết

Strengths: Field experiments conducted in real supermarkets have high **ecological validity** — the participants are genuine shoppers engaged in real purchasing behaviour with their own money, in a natural setting, rather than an artificial task in a laboratory. This means findings are more likely to generalise to real-world consumer behaviour than results from a contrived lab task. **Weaknesses:** field settings offer much less control over extraneous variables than a laboratory — for example, the specific mix of customers shopping on a given day, their mood, how hungry or rushed they are, or unrelated promotions running at the same time could all affect purchasing independently of the manipulated variable (music tempo or genre). This reduces confidence that the manipulated variable, rather than some uncontrolled factor, caused the observed effect, and can make such studies harder to replicate exactly.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q24. Design an outline advertising campaign for a new, high-cost home security system, explaining how you would use both the central and peripheral routes of the ELM to maximise persuasion across different segments of the audience.

Lời giải chi tiết

Because a home security system is an expensive, high-involvement, personally relevant purchase, many potential customers will engage in careful, effortful evaluation, so the campaign

should include strong **central-route** content: detailed technical information (response times, sensor reliability, independent safety certifications), comparative statistics against competitors, and customer testimonials describing concrete outcomes (e.g., attempted break-ins deterred). This content should be prominent on the company website and in longer-format print/online adverts where motivated customers can seek it out.

At the same time, some potential customers will only be reached in passing (a short television or social-media advert) where they have low motivation or ability to process detailed arguments at that moment. For this audience, the campaign should use **peripheral-route** cues: a credible, trustworthy-seeming presenter (e.g., a recognisable, security-associated public figure – matching/congruence), reassuring visual imagery (a calm family at home), and a simple, repeated slogan to build recognition through the mere exposure effect. A moderate fear appeal (the risk of burglary) paired with a clear, efficacious solution (installing this specific, easy-to-use system) can be used carefully, avoiding extremely graphic or high-fear content that might trigger defensive avoidance.

Combining both routes allows the campaign to build durable, well-reasoned attitude change in highly-involved customers while still capturing the attention and initial interest of a wider, less-involved audience through peripheral cues.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q25. "Advertising to children should be banned entirely." Evaluate this claim, drawing on psychological research and evidence.

Lời giải chi tiết

Arguments for a ban: Research indicates that young children, particularly below the early-to-mid primary school years, cannot reliably distinguish advertising intent from programme content, meaning they lack the critical capacity that regulation of adult advertising typically assumes consumers have. This makes them a uniquely vulnerable audience, susceptible to exaggerated claims and premium-based "pester power" tactics that can create family conflict and encourage unhealthy consumption patterns (e.g., of sugary food advertised during children's programming). On ethical grounds, exploiting a cognitively vulnerable population for commercial gain is difficult to justify.

Arguments against an outright ban: A complete ban may be impractical to enforce (children are exposed to advertising through many channels, including media not specifically aimed at them, and via older siblings/parents' devices) and could be seen as an excessive restriction on commercial free speech and on informing parents and older children about genuinely useful products. Targeted regulation – restricting advertising of specific harmful product categories (e.g., unhealthy food) to children, requiring clear separation between adverts and programme content, and involving parental mediation – may achieve much of the intended protective benefit without a blanket ban, and is the approach actually adopted in many countries.

Conclusion: the strongest, evidence-based position is not necessarily "ban everything" but "restrict and clearly label," recognising both children's genuine cognitive vulnerability and the practical/ethical difficulties of a total prohibition.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q26. A researcher wants to test whether fear-appeal intensity affects the persuasiveness of a road-safety advertisement. Outline a suitable method, including one strength and one limitation of your chosen approach.

Lời giải chi tiết

A suitable method is a **laboratory experiment** using an independent measures design: participants are randomly allocated to view either a low-fear, moderate-fear, or high-fear version of the same road-safety advertisement (each including the same clear, efficacious safety solution, e.g., "always wear a seatbelt"), after which their attitudes toward safe driving (and, if possible, intended behaviour) are measured using a standardised questionnaire. **Strength:** random allocation to conditions and standardising all other features of the advert (only fear level differs) allows good control over extraneous variables, supporting a clearer cause-and-effect conclusion about fear intensity's effect on persuasion. **Limitation:** because participants know they are being studied and are viewing an advert outside a real driving/advertising context, the study has reduced ecological validity – the artificial setting may not fully capture how people would respond to encountering the same advert unexpectedly during normal television viewing or browsing.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q27. Explain, with reference to two-sided messages, why a car manufacturer might choose to mention that a competitor's model has slightly better fuel economy while still promoting its own car overall.

Lời giải chi tiết

By acknowledging a minor, true limitation (a competitor's slightly better fuel economy) while still making the main case for its own car's advantages (e.g., safety features, price, comfort), the manufacturer presents a **two-sided message**. This can increase the audience's perception of the manufacturer as honest and objective rather than purely self-interested, which raises source credibility. It can also "inoculate" the audience against the competitor's own advertising, since the potential objection has already been raised and addressed, making the audience more resistant to being persuaded by a rival's counter-argument later.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q28. Outline how classical conditioning principles (NS, UCS, UCR, CS, CR) apply to Gorn's (1982) study of music and product choice.

Lời giải chi tiết

In Gorn's study, the **neutral stimulus (NS)** is the product (a pen), which initially has no strong emotional value of its own. The **unconditioned stimulus (UCS)** is the music that participants already liked, which automatically produces a positive emotional reaction – the **unconditioned response (UCR)**. By repeatedly pairing the product with the liked music, the product becomes a **conditioned stimulus (CS)**, coming to elicit some of that same positive feeling – a **conditioned response (CR)** – even in the absence of the music, which is reflected in participants more often choosing the product that had been paired with liked (rather than disliked) music.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q29. Evaluate the claim that consumer psychology findings, because they are so widely used by advertisers, must be highly reliable and universally applicable.

Lời giải chi tiết

The claim overstates the certainty of consumer psychology findings. While core principles (e.g., the ELM, classical conditioning of positive associations, atmospherics effects on shopping behaviour) are well-replicated in general form, several qualifications apply: (1) **Cultural and individual differences** moderate many effects – colour associations, music-genre associations, and the acceptability of certain persuasive appeals vary across cultures and across individuals differing in need for cognition or impulsivity, so a technique effective in one market or with one audience may be less effective in another. (2) **Methodological trade-offs** mean that field studies with high ecological validity often sacrifice control (making causal claims less certain), while tightly controlled lab studies sacrifice ecological validity. (3) Some popularly believed techniques, such as **subliminal advertising**, are used far less than public perception suggests precisely *because* the scientific evidence for their effectiveness is weak. The widespread commercial use of consumer psychology principles reflects their general, real-world usefulness, not proof that every specific finding is universally reliable.

Bài tập luyện tập

Q30. A researcher observes that customers who use a store's mobile app tend to make more impulse purchases than customers who shop only in person. Suggest one explanation for this observation, using concepts from this unit.

Lời giải chi tiết

One explanation is that mobile shopping apps can replicate and even intensify several of the situational triggers known to promote impulse buying: personalised product recommendations and prominent, one-tap "buy now" placements function similarly to eye-level or checkout-style displays in physical stores (maximising exposure to tempting items with minimal effort to purchase), while push notifications and time-limited promotional offers create the kind of time pressure and heightened emotional/positive-mood state associated with reduced deliberate evaluation of alternatives. Together, these features may reduce the friction between need recognition and purchase decision, encouraging more purchases to skip the careful evaluation-of-alternatives stage that might occur during more deliberate in-person or desktop shopping.

Ôn tập nhanh

Ôn tập nhanh — Tâm lý học người tiêu dùng (Consumer Psychology):

- **ELM (Petty & Cacioppo, 1986):** con đường **trung tâm** (động lực + khả năng cao → đánh giá lập luận → thay đổi thái độ bền vững) vs. con đường **ngoại vi** (động lực/khả năng thấp → dựa vào tín hiệu bề mặt → thay đổi thái độ tạm thời).
- **Nguồn phát:** độ tin cậy, sức hấp dẫn, người nổi tiếng (cơ chế điều kiện hoá cổ điển; hiệu quả nhất khi có **sự phù hợp** — matching).
- **Thông điệp:** một chiều vs. hai chiều (hai chiều tăng tín nhiệm với khán giả hoài nghi); **lời kêu gọi sợ hãi** — sợ vừa phải + giải pháp rõ ràng hiệu quả hơn sợ cực đoan không có giải pháp; **mere exposure effect** — lặp lại vừa đủ tăng thiện cảm.
- **Gorn (1982):** sản phẩm ghép với nhạc được yêu thích được chọn nhiều hơn sản phẩm ghép với nhạc không được yêu thích — minh hoạ điều kiện hoá cổ điển trong quảng cáo. Không dùng số liệu bịa.
- **Quảng cáo tiềm thức:** tác dụng thực tế **rất yếu và không đáng tin cậy** — không phải kỹ thuật thuyết phục mạnh như lầm tưởng phổ biến.
- **Trẻ em:** chưa phân biệt được ý định quảng cáo với nội dung chương trình → vấn đề đạo đức/quy định.
- **Bao bì:** màu sắc/hình dáng/kiểu chữ tạo liên tưởng (đỏ/cam = năng lượng; xanh dương = tin cậy; xanh lá = tự nhiên; đen/vàng = sang trọng) — chủ yếu qua con đường ngoại vi. **Thương hiệu & lòng trung thành** xây dựng qua trải nghiệm tích cực lặp lại.
- **Không khí cửa hàng (atmospherics):** Milliman (1982) — nhạc chậm → di chuyển chậm, doanh số cao hơn nhạc nhanh; North et al. (1997) — nhạc Pháp/Đức mỗi (prime) lựa chọn rượu vang tương ứng. **Vị trí sản phẩm** — tầm mắt, đầu dây kệ, quầy thu ngân → tăng mua ngẫu hứng.
- **5 giai đoạn ra quyết định:** nhận thức nhu cầu → tìm kiếm thông tin → đánh giá lựa chọn → quyết định mua → đánh giá sau mua (có thể sinh **bất hoà nhận thức**, được giảm bằng bảo hành/trấn an/đối trả dễ dàng).
- **Đánh giá:** cân bằng giữa đạo đức (thao túng vs. thông tin, quảng cáo trẻ em, lời kêu gọi sợ hãi), ứng dụng thực tế mạnh mẽ, vấn đề phương pháp luận (thực địa vs. phòng thí nghiệm), và khác biệt cá nhân/văn hoá điều chỉnh mức độ dễ bị thuyết phục.

Applied Specialism: Health Psychology

Mục tiêu Unit: Ứng dụng tâm lý học vào sức khỏe thể chất (A2) – mô hình niềm tin sức khỏe (Health Belief Model) và thuyết hành vi có kế hoạch (Theory of Planned Behaviour) trong việc dự đoán hành vi bảo vệ sức khỏe; mối quan hệ bác sĩ–bệnh nhân, trí nhớ thông tin y khoa (Ley), và sự không tuân thủ điều trị (non-adherence); phân loại đau, thuyết Kiểm soát Cổng (Gate Control Theory) của Melzack & Wall, các phương pháp đo lường và kiểm soát đau; sinh lý học của stress (Hội chứng Thích nghi Chung – GAS của Selye), nguồn gốc stress (biến cố cuộc sống, phiền toái hàng ngày, stress công việc), phong cách ứng phó (coping), và các kỹ thuật quản lý stress; cùng các vấn đề đánh giá tâm lý học sức khỏe như một lĩnh vực ứng dụng: mô hình sinh–tâm lý–xã hội, ứng dụng thực tiễn, vấn đề phương pháp luận và đạo đức.

9.1 Health Beliefs and Health Behaviours

Health psychology studies how psychological factors influence physical health, illness, and health-care – including why people do or do not engage in behaviours that protect their health (e.g., attending a screening appointment, getting vaccinated, quitting smoking) even when they are fully aware of the medical facts. Several models attempt to predict and explain health-related decision-making.

9.1.1 The Health Belief Model (Becker, 1974)

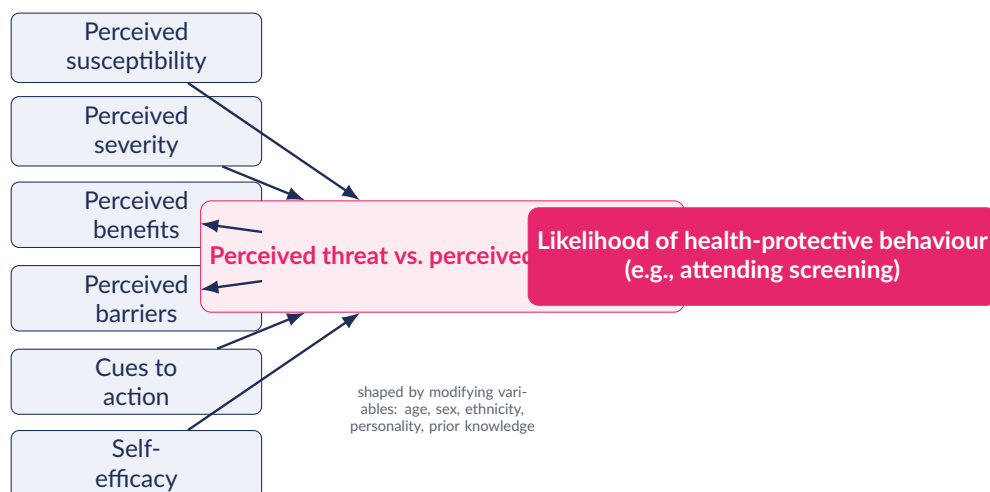
The Health Belief Model

The **Health Belief Model (HBM)**, developed by Rosenstock (1966) and extended by Becker and colleagues (1974), proposes that whether a person engages in a health-protective behaviour depends on a combination of beliefs about the illness and the behaviour, rather than on objective medical risk alone.

- **Perceived susceptibility:** the person's belief about how likely they personally are to get the illness/condition (e.g., "How likely am I to develop cervical cancer?").
- **Perceived severity:** the person's belief about how serious the illness and its consequences would be if they did get it (medically and socially).
- **Perceived benefits:** the person's belief that the recommended health-protective action would actually be effective in reducing the threat.
- **Perceived barriers:** the practical, psychological, financial, or social costs the person believes stand in the way of taking the action (e.g., cost, pain, embarrassment, time, fear of a bad result).
- **Cues to action:** internal or external triggers that prompt the person to act at a given moment (e.g., a symptom appearing, a reminder letter, a friend's diagnosis, a public health campaign).
- **Self-efficacy:** added in later versions of the model (Rosenstock, Strecher & Becker, 1988) – the person's confidence in their own ability to successfully carry out the behaviour.

The model also recognises **modifying variables** (age, sex, ethnicity, personality, socioeconomic

status, prior knowledge) that shape how strongly each belief is held. According to the HBM, a person is most likely to take health-protective action when perceived susceptibility and perceived severity are high (creating a sense of threat), perceived benefits are high, perceived barriers are low, and an appropriate cue to action and sufficient self-efficacy are present.



The Health Belief Model: six belief components combine to determine perceived threat and the perceived cost/benefit of acting, which in turn predicts the likelihood of engaging in a health-protective behaviour.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Mô hình Niềm tin Sức khỏe (Health Belief Model – HBM) của Rosenstock (1966) và Becker (1974) cho rằng khả năng một người thực hiện hành vi bảo vệ sức khỏe phụ thuộc vào: **cảm nhận về khả năng mắc bệnh (perceived susceptibility)**, **cảm nhận mức độ nghiêm trọng (perceived severity)**, **cảm nhận lợi ích (perceived benefits)** của hành động, **cảm nhận rào cản (perceived barriers)**, **tác nhân kích hoạt hành động (cues to action)**, và (trong phiên bản sau) **niềm tin vào năng lực bản thân (self-efficacy)**. Các **biến điều tiết** (tuổi, giới tính, dân tộc, tính cách...) ảnh hưởng đến mức độ mạnh yếu của từng niềm tin này. Người có xu hướng hành động bảo vệ sức khỏe cao nhất khi họ cảm thấy nguy cơ cao, hậu quả nghiêm trọng, lợi ích của hành động rõ ràng, rào cản thấp, và có một tác nhân kích hoạt cụ thể.

Applying the HBM to a screening decision

Mrs. Aisha, 45, receives a letter inviting her to a routine breast cancer screening. She has heard the procedure can be uncomfortable and is worried about missing work. Her mother was diagnosed with breast cancer at 50. Use the HBM to analyse whether Mrs. Aisha is likely to attend.

Perceived susceptibility: likely raised by her mother's diagnosis (a family history cue), making her feel personally at risk. **Perceived severity:** breast cancer is widely understood to be serious, so this component is likely already high. **Perceived benefits:** she needs to believe early screening genuinely improves outcomes. **Perceived barriers:** discomfort and time off work are working *against* attendance. **Cues to action:** the invitation letter itself is a direct cue, reinforced by her mother's history. **Self-efficacy:** her confidence in being able to arrange the appointment around her work schedule. According to the HBM, whether Mrs. Aisha attends depends on whether her perceived susceptibility, severity, and benefits (all pushing towards attendance) outweigh her perceived barriers (pushing against it) – a health campaign targeting her specifically would try to keep susceptibility/severity salient while actively lowering the

barriers (e.g., offering appointments outside work hours).

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Ví dụ áp dụng HBM: một tác nhân kích hoạt (thư mời tầm soát, tiền sử gia đình) làm tăng cảm nhận về nguy cơ và mức độ nghiêm trọng, nhưng các rào cản (đau, mất thời gian) lại kéo theo hướng ngược lại. Quyết định cuối cùng phụ thuộc vào việc các niềm tin **thúc đẩy** hành động có lớn hơn các niềm tin **cản trở** hay không – đây chính là logic cốt lõi của mô hình.

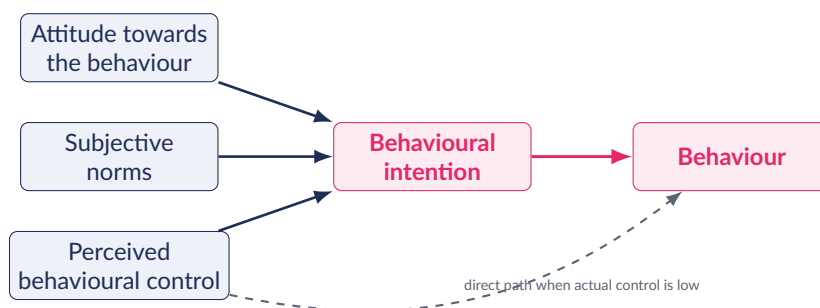
9.1.2 The Theory of Planned Behaviour (Ajzen, 1991)

Theory of Planned Behaviour

The **Theory of Planned Behaviour (TPB)** proposes that the most immediate and direct predictor of whether a person performs a behaviour is their **behavioural intention**, which is itself shaped by three factors:

- **Attitudes towards the behaviour:** the person's own positive or negative evaluation of performing the behaviour.
- **Subjective norms:** the person's perception of whether people who matter to them (family, friends, community) approve or expect them to perform the behaviour.
- **Perceived behavioural control:** the person's belief about how easy or difficult the behaviour would be to perform, including perceived skills, resources, and obstacles – this factor can also influence the behaviour directly, not only through intention, when actual control over the behaviour is limited.

Stronger intentions, formed from favourable attitudes, supportive subjective norms, and high perceived control, are assumed to translate more reliably into actual behaviour.



The Theory of Planned Behaviour: attitudes, subjective norms and perceived behavioural control combine to form a behavioural intention, which predicts the behaviour; perceived behavioural control can also act directly on behaviour.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Thuyết Hành vi có Kế hoạch (Theory of Planned Behaviour – TPB) của Ajzen (1991) cho rằng yếu tố dự đoán trực tiếp nhất của hành vi là **ý định hành vi (behavioural intention)**, được hình thành từ ba yếu tố: **thái độ đối với hành vi**, **chuẩn mực chủ quan** (subjective norms – cảm nhận về kỳ vọng của người xung quanh), và **nhận thức kiểm soát hành vi** (perceived behavioural control – cảm nhận về mức độ dễ/khó thực hiện). So với HBM (tập trung vào niềm tin về bệnh tật), TPB nhấn mạnh vai trò của **áp lực xã hội** và **ý định** như bước trung gian trước khi hành vi thực sự xảy ra.

9.1.3 Barriers to health behaviour change and campaign design

Barriers and how campaigns address them

Real-world barriers to health-protective behaviour commonly include: low perceived susceptibility (“it won’t happen to me”), low perceived severity, doubts about whether the action will help, practical barriers (cost, access, time), fear or embarrassment, and low self-efficacy (not believing one can succeed, e.g., in quitting smoking). Effective health campaigns are often designed to target specific HBM components directly:

HBM component	Campaign strategy	Example
Perceived susceptibility	Personalise risk with statistics or testimonials showing the target group is genuinely at risk	“1 in <i>n</i> people like you will develop this condition” messaging
Perceived severity	Vivid, concrete information about the real consequences of the illness	Graphic warnings on cigarette packaging
Perceived benefits	Clear evidence that the recommended action actually works	“Screening catches 9 out of 10 cases early” style messaging
Perceived barriers	Remove practical obstacles directly	Free or mobile screening units, evening/weekend clinic hours
Cues to action	Provide a concrete trigger at the right moment	Text-message reminders, GP invitation letters
Self-efficacy	Build confidence through skills training or small achievable steps	Structured step-by-step smoking-cessation programmes

How health campaigns map onto individual components of the Health Belief Model.

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Các rào cản thường gặp: cảm thấy mình không có nguy cơ, nghi ngờ hiệu quả hành động, rào cản thực tế (chi phí, thời gian), sợ hãi/ngại ngùng, thiếu tự tin vào bản thân. Các chiến dịch truyền thông sức khỏe hiệu quả thường nhắm trực tiếp vào từng thành phần của HBM: cá nhân hoá rủi ro (tăng perceived susceptibility), hình ảnh hậu quả sống động (tăng perceived severity), bằng chứng hiệu quả rõ ràng (tăng perceived benefits), loại bỏ rào cản thực tế (giảm perceived barriers), và tin nhắn nhắc nhở đúng lúc (cues to action).

(!) **Lỗi thường gặp:** Đừng nhầm HBM là một mô hình *đảm bảo* hành vi sẽ xảy ra. HBM chỉ mô tả các niềm tin *liên quan* đến khả năng hành động cao hơn hay thấp hơn – nó không tính đến các yếu tố như thói quen, cảm xúc bốc đồng, hay áp lực xã hội trực tiếp (những yếu tố mà TPB có đề cập rõ hơn qua *subjective norms*). Một câu hỏi thường gặp: TPB khác HBM chủ yếu ở việc thêm **chuẩn mực chủ quan** và **ý định hành vi** như một bước trung gian rõ ràng.

9.2 The Doctor--Patient Relationship

9.2.1 Patient understanding and memory of medical information

Ley's research on patient recall

Philip Ley's research (1988) on doctor–patient communication established a well-known general pattern: patients typically forget or misunderstand a substantial portion of what they are told during a medical consultation, and this problem is worse when the information is complex, delivered using medical jargon, or when the patient is anxious (anxiety narrows attention and interferes with encoding new information). Ley identified several factors that reliably **improve** recall:

- **Primacy effect:** information given *first* in a consultation is recalled better than information given later, so stating the most important information early is more effective.
- **Simplicity:** using short words and short sentences, avoiding unnecessary medical jargon, improves both understanding and recall.
- **Explicit categorisation:** clearly telling the patient the structure of what is coming (e.g., “First I’ll explain the diagnosis, then the treatment, then what to do if symptoms return”) improves recall of each category.
- **Repetition:** repeating key points, and using specific rather than vague statements, both increase how much is retained.

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Nghiên cứu của **Ley (1988)** cho thấy một quy luật chung: bệnh nhân thường **quên hoặc hiểu sai** một phần đáng kể những gì bác sĩ nói, đặc biệt khi thông tin phức tạp, dùng nhiều thuật ngữ y khoa, hoặc khi bệnh nhân đang lo lắng (lo lắng làm giảm khả năng ghi nhớ thông tin mới). Trí nhớ được cải thiện khi: thông tin quan trọng được nói **đầu tiên** (hiệu ứng đầu tiên – **primacy effect**), câu từ **đơn giản** (ít thuật ngữ), có **phân loại rõ ràng** về cấu trúc thông tin sắp trình bày, và thông tin được **lặp lại**.

Applying Ley's findings

A doctor tells a patient, in rapid succession and using technical language: “You have hypertension, we’ll start you on an ACE inhibitor, take it once daily, avoid excessive potassium intake, come back in six weeks for a follow-up, and here’s information about lifestyle changes...” The patient later can only recall being told to “come back in six weeks.” Explain this pattern using Ley’s research, and suggest one improvement.

The patient’s anxiety at receiving a new diagnosis, combined with the complexity and jargon (“hypertension”, “ACE inhibitor”, “potassium”), would be predicted by Ley’s research to reduce overall recall. The information recalled (the follow-up date) was one of the *last* things said, which is unusual given the primacy effect – suggesting the earlier, more clinically important information (the diagnosis and medication instructions) was especially poorly retained relative to how important it was. An improvement consistent with Ley’s findings would be to state the most important information (the diagnosis and how to take the medication) *first*, in simple language, explicitly signal the structure (“I’m going to tell you three things: what you have, what to do about it, and when to come back”), and repeat the key instruction before ending the consultation.

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Ví dụ minh họa: bệnh nhân chỉ nhớ chi tiết được nói **cuối cùng** (ngày tái khám) thay vì thông tin quan trọng hơn (chẩn đoán, cách dùng thuốc) – điều này cho thấy thông tin quan trọng đáng

lễ nên được nói **đầu tiên** và bằng ngôn ngữ đơn giản, có cấu trúc rõ ràng, và được lặp lại để tăng khả năng ghi nhớ.

9.2.2 Non-adherence (non-compliance) to medical advice

Types and causes of non-adherence

Non-adherence occurs whenever a patient does not follow medical advice as prescribed (e.g., not taking medication, not completing a course of antibiotics, not attending follow-up appointments).

- **Intentional non-adherence:** the patient makes a conscious decision not to follow the advice – for example, because they disagree with the diagnosis, distrust the treatment, are worried about side effects, or hold health beliefs that conflict with the recommendation (linking directly to the HBM: low perceived benefits or high perceived barriers predict intentional non-adherence).
- **Unintentional non-adherence:** the patient intends to follow the advice but fails to do so because of practical obstacles – forgetting doses, misunderstanding the instructions (linking to Ley's research on poor recall), or being unable to afford or access the treatment.

Further factors affecting adherence include the **complexity of the regimen** (more doses per day, more medications, more complicated instructions all reduce adherence), **side effects** (unpleasant side effects reduce willingness to continue), and the overall **quality of doctor–patient communication** (patients who feel listened to, and who understand the reasoning behind advice, are more likely to adhere).

Type		Description	Typical cause
Intentional adherence	non-	A deliberate decision not to follow advice	Disagreement with diagnosis, fear of side effects, low perceived benefit, distrust
Unintentional adherence	non-	Advice not followed despite intending to	Forgetting, misunderstanding instructions, cost, practical access problems

Intentional versus unintentional non-adherence, with typical causes of each.

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Không tuân thủ điều trị (non-adherence) có hai loại: **có chủ ý (intentional)** – bệnh nhân *chủ động quyết định* không làm theo (do không tin tưởng, sợ tác dụng phụ, hoặc niềm tin sức khỏe không phù hợp – liên hệ trực tiếp với HBM); và **không chủ ý (unintentional)** – bệnh nhân *muốn* làm theo nhưng không làm được do quên, hiểu sai hướng dẫn (liên hệ với nghiên cứu của Ley), hoặc rào cản thực tế (chi phí, khả năng tiếp cận). Các yếu tố khác ảnh hưởng: **độ phức tạp của phác đồ điều trị, tác dụng phụ, và chất lượng giao tiếp bác sĩ–bệnh nhân.**

9.2.3 Improving adherence

Strategies to improve adherence

- **Clear, simplified communication:** applying Ley's findings directly – simple language, important information first, explicit structure, repetition.
- **Involving patients in decisions:** shared decision-making increases the patient's sense of

ownership over the treatment plan and can directly increase perceived benefits and reduce perceived barriers (HBM).

- **Simplifying the regimen:** reducing the number of daily doses or combining medications reduces the practical burden that causes unintentional non-adherence.
- **Reminder systems:** text messages, pill organisers, phone apps, or follow-up calls act as cues to action and reduce forgetting.

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Cách cải thiện tuân thủ điều trị: giao tiếp rõ ràng, đơn giản (áp dụng nghiên cứu của Ley), cho bệnh nhân tham gia quyết định điều trị, đơn giản hoá phác đồ (giảm số lần uống thuốc/ngày), và sử dụng hệ thống nhắc nhở (tin nhắn, hộp chia thuốc, cuộc gọi tái khám) đóng vai trò như cues to action.

(!) **Lỗi thường gặp:** Đừng cho rằng không tuân thủ điều trị luôn là do bệnh nhân "lười biếng" hay "không quan tâm". Rất nhiều trường hợp là **không chủ ý (unintentional)** – do quên, hiểu sai hướng dẫn, hoặc không đủ khả năng chi trả – những nguyên nhân này cần giải pháp hoàn toàn khác (nhắc nhở, đơn giản hoá) so với nguyên nhân **có chủ ý** (cần giải quyết niềm tin và lo ngại của bệnh nhân qua trò chuyện, không chỉ nhắc nhở).

9.3 Pain

9.3.1 Types of pain and its components

Acute vs. chronic pain; components of pain

Acute pain has a clear, identifiable onset and cause (e.g., an injury or surgery), serves an adaptive warning function, and typically resolves within the expected healing time. **Chronic pain** persists well beyond the normal healing period (commonly defined as lasting longer than three to six months), often continues even when the original tissue damage has healed or cannot be fully explained by ongoing physical damage, and can itself become a long-term condition requiring management rather than cure.

Pain is not a single, purely physical sensation. It has (at least) two distinguishable components:

- **Sensory (physical) component:** the raw physiological detection of a noxious stimulus by nociceptors and its transmission along nerve pathways – the “how strong, where, what kind” of the signal.
- **Psychological/emotional/motivational component:** how unpleasant, threatening, or distressing the pain *feels*, and how strongly it motivates escape or protective behaviour – influenced by attention, mood, expectation, and past experience.

The same physical injury can therefore produce very different *experienced* pain in different people, or in the same person at different times, because the psychological component varies even when the sensory input is similar.

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Đau cấp tính (acute pain) có nguyên nhân rõ ràng, có chức năng cảnh báo, và thường hết khi vết thương lành. **Đau mạn tính (chronic pain)** kéo dài quá thời gian lành thương bình thường (thường trên 3–6 tháng), đôi khi vẫn tồn tại dù tổn thương thực thể đã lành. Đau có **hai thành phần**: thành phần cảm giác (**sensory**) – tín hiệu vật lý thô từ thụ thể đau; và thành phần tâm

lý/cảm xúc/động lực – mức độ khó chịu, đe dọa mà người đó *cảm nhận*, chịu ảnh hưởng bởi sự chú ý, tâm trạng, kỳ vọng, và kinh nghiệm quá khứ. Vì vậy cùng một tổn thương vật lý có thể gây ra trải nghiệm đau rất khác nhau ở những người khác nhau.

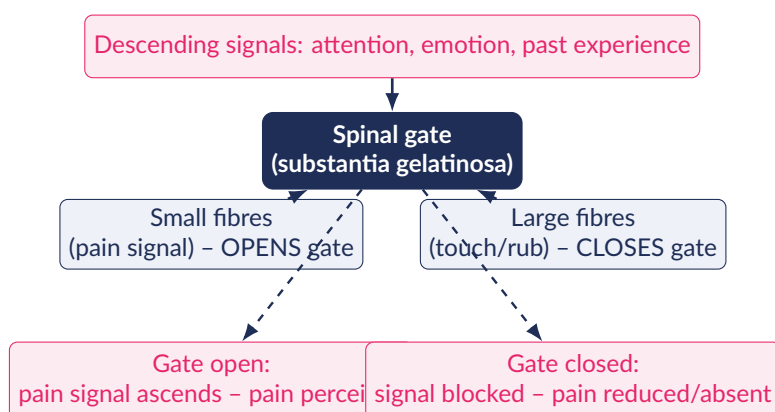
9.3.2 The Gate Control Theory of pain (Melzack & Wall, 1965)

Gate Control Theory

Melzack and Wall's **Gate Control Theory** proposes that a “neurological gate,” located in the **substantia gelatinosa** of the spinal cord's dorsal horn, controls whether pain signals travelling from the body actually reach the brain and are consciously perceived. The gate can be opened or closed by two kinds of input:

- **Peripheral (physiological) input:** activity in small nerve fibres (which carry pain/danger signals) tends to **open** the gate, allowing pain signals through; activity in large nerve fibres (which carry non-painful touch, pressure, and vibration signals) tends to **close** the gate, blocking pain signals – this is why rubbing or applying pressure to a freshly bumped area (stimulating large fibres) reduces the perceived pain.
- **Descending (psychological) input:** signals travelling *down* from the brain, reflecting attention, emotional state, and past experience, can also open or close the gate – for example, intense concentration on a distracting task or high excitement (as sometimes reported by athletes or soldiers who do not notice an injury until after a competition/battle) can close the gate and suppress pain, while anxiety, fear, or focused attention *on* the pain can open the gate and intensify it.

If the gate is **open**, pain signals ascend to the brain and are consciously perceived as pain; if the gate is **closed**, the signal is blocked (or greatly reduced) before reaching the brain, and pain is reduced or not perceived at all. Gate Control Theory was influential because it was the first widely accepted model to explain pain as the product of *both* physiological and psychological factors, rather than a simple, fixed, one-to-one relationship between tissue damage and pain experienced.



Gate Control Theory: peripheral input (small vs. large nerve fibre activity) and descending psychological input both act on a spinal “gate,” determining whether pain signals reach and are perceived by the brain.

Applying Gate Control Theory

Explain, using Gate Control Theory, why (a) rubbing a stubbed toe seems to reduce the pain, and (b) a footballer with a broken bone sometimes does not notice the injury until after the match ends.

(a) Rubbing the toe stimulates the **large nerve fibres** that carry non-painful touch/pressure signals. This large-fibre activity closes the spinal gate, reducing the amount of pain signal (carried by small fibres from the injury) that can pass through to the brain – lowering perceived pain even though the injury itself is unchanged. (b) During intense competition, the footballer's attention is completely absorbed by the match, and high arousal/excitement is present. These are **descending psychological signals** from the brain that can close the gate, blocking the ascending pain signal from the injury from being consciously perceived until, after the match, attention shifts and arousal drops – reopening the gate and allowing the pain to be felt.

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Thuyết Kiểm soát Cổng (Gate Control Theory) của Melzack & Wall (1965): một "cổng" thần kinh ở tuỷ sống (chất keo – substantia gelatinosa) quyết định tín hiệu đau có đến được não hay không. Cổng bị ảnh hưởng bởi **tín hiệu ngoại vi** (sợi thần kinh nhỏ mang tín hiệu đau – **mở** cổng; sợi lớn mang tín hiệu chạm/xoa – **đóng** cổng, giải thích tại sao xoa chỗ đau lại giảm đau) và **tín hiệu đi xuống từ não** (chú ý, cảm xúc, kinh nghiệm quá khứ – có thể đóng hoặc mở cổng, giải thích tại sao vận động viên đôi khi không nhận ra chấn thương cho đến khi trận đấu kết thúc). Nếu cổng **mở**, tín hiệu đau lên não và được cảm nhận là đau; nếu **đóng**, tín hiệu bị chặn và đau giảm hoặc không được cảm nhận.

9.3.3 Measuring pain

Methods of measuring pain

Because pain is a subjective, multidimensional experience, several different methods are used to measure it, each with different strengths and weaknesses.

- **Self-report measures:** the **McGill Pain Questionnaire** asks patients to select descriptive words from lists covering three dimensions of pain – *sensory* (e.g., throbbing, shooting, burning), *affective* (e.g., tiring, sickening, fearful), and *evaluative* (an overall intensity rating) – producing a rich, qualitative and quantitative profile of the pain experience. Simpler tools include the **Visual Analogue Scale (VAS)**, where the patient marks a point on a line between "no pain" and "worst pain imaginable," and **numeric rating scales** (e.g., rating pain 0–10).
- **Behavioural (observational) measures:** trained observers record visible pain behaviours – grimacing, guarding (protecting a body part), limping, reduced activity, moaning – useful when a patient cannot self-report (e.g., infants, patients with severe cognitive impairment).
- **Physiological measures:** objective indicators such as heart rate, blood pressure, muscle tension, and skin conductance, which tend to rise with acute pain due to sympathetic nervous system activation.

Method	Example	Strength	Limitation
Self-report	McGill Pain Questionnaire; Visual Analogue Scale; numeric rating scale	Captures the patient's own subjective experience in rich detail (McGill covers sensory, affective, evaluative dimensions)	Subjective; depends on language/verbal ability; cannot be used with non-verbal patients (infants, severe dementia)
Behavioural/observational	Observing grimacing, guarding, limping, reduced activity	Usable with non-verbal patients; does not rely on self-report	Prone to observer bias/-subjectivity; observed behaviour may not match actual pain intensity (cultural display rules, stoicism, malingering)
Physiological	Heart rate, blood pressure, muscle tension, skin conductance	Objective, quantifiable, does not depend on communication	Reflects general arousal, not pain specifically (confounded by anxiety/exertion); correlates poorly with chronic pain, which may show habituation despite ongoing pain

Comparison of the three main approaches to measuring pain.

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Ba nhóm phương pháp đo lường đau: **tự báo cáo (self-report)** – ví dụ McGill Pain Questionnaire (đo cả ba khía cạnh: cảm giác, cảm xúc, đánh giá tổng quát) hoặc thang đo hình ảnh (VAS) – ưu điểm là nắm bắt được trải nghiệm chủ quan chi tiết, nhưng nhược điểm là **mang tính chủ quan** và không dùng được cho bệnh nhân không nói được (trẻ sơ sinh, sa sút trí tuệ nặng); **quan sát hành vi (behavioural)** – quan sát nhãn mặt, bảo vệ vùng đau, đi khập khiễng – dùng được cho người không nói được nhưng dễ bị **thiên kiến người quan sát**; **sinh lý học (physiological)** – nhịp tim, huyết áp, độ căng cơ – khách quan nhưng phản ánh sự **kích hoạt chung** (có thể do lo âu chứ không chỉ do đau) và tương quan kém với đau mạn tính.

9.3.4 Pain management

Managing pain: pharmacological and psychological approaches

- **Pharmacological (analgesic) approaches:** non-opioid analgesics (e.g., paracetamol, NSAIDs) reduce pain and inflammation at the site of injury or centrally; opioid analgesics (e.g., morphine) act on opioid receptors in the central nervous system to block pain signal transmission and perception, and are typically reserved for more severe pain due to risks of tolerance and dependence.
- **Relaxation and distraction:** deliberately redirecting attention away from the pain (distraction) or lowering overall physiological arousal (relaxation, e.g., progressive muscle relaxation, controlled breathing) can, according to Gate Control Theory, send descending signals that help close the spinal gate and reduce perceived pain.
- **Cognitive-behavioural pain management:** teaches patients to identify and restructure unhelpful, catastrophic thoughts about pain (e.g., “this pain means something is badly wrong and will never improve”), and to build active coping strategies (goal-setting, pacing activity), reducing the psychological/motivational component of the pain experience.
- **Biofeedback:** patients are connected to equipment that provides real-time feedback (visual or auditory) on a physiological measure linked to pain, such as muscle tension (EMG) or

heart rate, and learn – through trial, feedback, and reinforcement – to voluntarily control that response, reducing tension-related pain (e.g., in tension headaches).

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VN Kiểm soát đau gồm hai nhóm chính: **dược lý (pharmacological)** – thuốc giảm đau không opioid (paracetamol, NSAID) và opioid (morphine, dùng cho đau nặng, có nguy cơ dung nạp/nghiện); và **tâm lý (psychological)** – **thư giãn** và **đánh lạc hướng chú ý** (theo Gate Control Theory, giúp đóng cổng đau), **quản lý đau theo hướng nhận thức-hành vi (CBT)** (điều chỉnh suy nghĩ tiêu cực về đau), và **biofeedback** (phản hồi sinh lý theo thời gian thực, ví dụ độ căng cơ hoặc nhịp tim, giúp bệnh nhân học cách tự điều chỉnh phản ứng cơ thể).

(!) Lỗi thường gặp: Đừng cho rằng Gate Control Theory nói rằng đau "chỉ là tâm lý" (all in the mind). Thuyết này khẳng định đau là kết quả của **cả hai** yếu tố sinh lý (hoạt động sợi thần kinh lớn/nhỏ) và tâm lý (chú ý, cảm xúc) tác động lên cùng một cơ chế sinh lý thực sự (cổng ở tuỷ sống) – không phải là phủ nhận thành phần vật lý của đau.

9.4 Stress

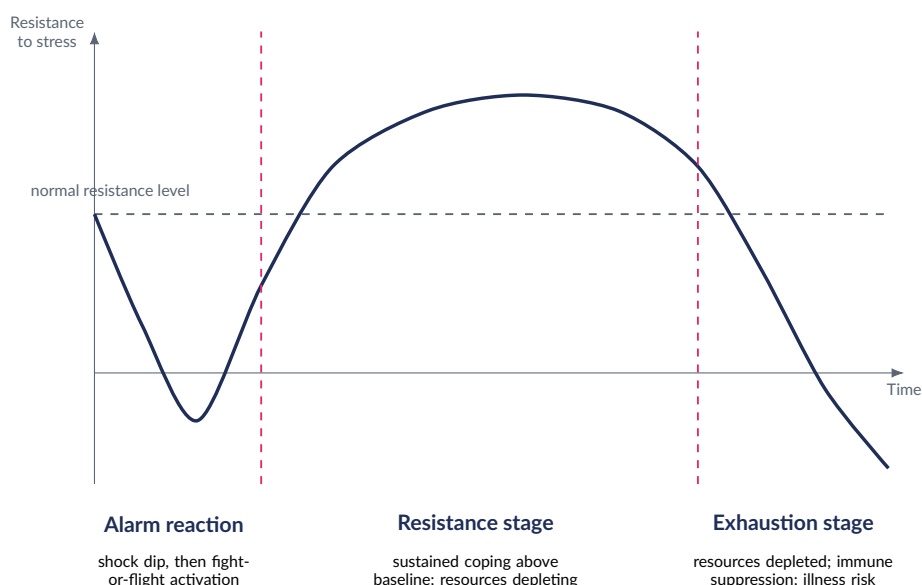
9.4.1 The physiological stress response: Selye's General Adaptation Syndrome

General Adaptation Syndrome (Selye)

Hans Selye proposed that the body responds to *any* prolonged stressor with the same non-specific, three-stage physiological pattern, which he called the **General Adaptation Syndrome (GAS)**:

- **Alarm reaction:** the initial detection of the stressor triggers rapid sympathetic nervous system activation and the HPA axis (see the Biological Approach chapter for the full hypothalamus–pituitary–adrenal pathway), producing the fight-or-flight response (raised heart rate, blood pressure, released glucose) and an initial dip in resistance below normal.
- **Resistance stage:** if the stressor continues, the body adapts and appears to cope, maintaining elevated cortisol output and physiological arousal above baseline in order to continue resisting the stressor; outwardly the person may seem to be managing, but bodily resources are being steadily depleted.
- **Exhaustion stage:** if the stressor persists long enough, the body's resources for maintaining resistance become depleted. Physiological systems (including the immune system) begin to fail, leaving the person vulnerable to "diseases of adaptation" – including infections, cardiovascular problems, and stomach ulcers – and, in extreme cases, collapse.

The GAS is described as **non-specific** because Selye argued the same three-stage pattern occurs regardless of the type of stressor (physical, psychological, biological), only the appropriate *initial* response (e.g., which hormones/behaviours) differing by stressor type.



Selye's General Adaptation Syndrome: resistance to stress over time through the alarm, resistance, and exhaustion stages, given a stressor that continues without resolution.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

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Hội chứng Thích nghi Chung (General Adaptation Syndrome - GAS) của Hans Selye mô tả phản ứng sinh lý **không đặc hiệu**, ba giai đoạn của cơ thể trước stress kéo dài: **giai đoạn báo động (alarm)** – kích hoạt hệ giao cảm và trục HPA (xem chương Tiếp cận Sinh học), phản ứng chiến-hay-chạy; **giai đoạn kháng cự (resistance)** – cơ thể tiếp tục "chống chọi" ở mức cao hơn bình thường, cortisol duy trì cao, nhưng nguồn lực đang dần cạn kiệt; **giai đoạn kiệt sức (exhaustion)** – nguồn lực cạn kiệt, hệ miễn dịch suy yếu, dễ mắc "bệnh do thích nghi" (loét dạ dày, bệnh tim mạch, nhiễm trùng). GAS "không đặc hiệu" nghĩa là mô hình ba giai đoạn này xảy ra tương tự nhau bất kể loại tác nhân gây stress là gì.

9.4.2 Sources of stress

Life events, daily hassles, and workplace stress

Life events – Holmes and Rahe's **Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS)** is built on the idea that any significant life change, even a positive one such as marriage or a promotion, requires psychological and social **readjustment**, and that readjustment itself is a source of stress. The SRRS assigns each of a list of common life events a numerical weighting reflecting the amount of readjustment it typically demands; a person's scores for the events they have experienced (e.g., over the past year) are summed to give a total life-change score, with higher cumulative scores associated with a greater subsequent risk of stress-related illness. The approach is influential precisely because it recognised that stress is not caused only by obviously negative events.

Daily hassles (Kanner and colleagues) are the minor, recurring irritations of everyday life – losing keys, traffic delays, arguments, time pressure – which occur far more frequently than major life events and can have a substantial cumulative impact on wellbeing, in some research predicting stress-related outcomes even more strongly than infrequent major life events.

Workplace (occupational) stress arises from factors such as **role ambiguity** (unclear expectations about one's job responsibilities), **work overload** (too much to do in the time available), and **lack of control** over how and when work is done – the combination of high demands and low control over one's work is widely regarded as a particularly potent source of occupational

strain.

Applying sources-of-stress research

Explain, using both life events research and workplace stress research, why an employee who has recently been promoted might nonetheless be experiencing significant stress.

Under the logic of the SRRS, a promotion is a positive event but still requires substantial **readjustment** (new responsibilities, new relationships, a new routine), so it can contribute meaningfully to overall stress load even though it is not a negative event. If the new role also involves **role ambiguity** (unclear expectations of the new position), **work overload** (an increased workload without a proportional increase in support), and reduced **control** (less autonomy in a more senior but more scrutinised position), these occupational stressors can compound the readjustment demands of the promotion itself, illustrating how life-event stress and workplace stress can interact rather than operate independently.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Biến cố cuộc sống (life events): thang **SRRS** của Holmes & Rahe dựa trên ý tưởng rằng bất kỳ thay đổi lớn nào trong cuộc sống – kể cả sự kiện tích cực như kết hôn hay thăng chức – đều đòi hỏi sự **tái thích nghi (readjustment)**, và bản thân việc tái thích nghi này gây ra stress; điểm số các biến cố được cộng dồn để ước tính mức độ stress và nguy cơ bệnh tật. **Phiền toái hàng ngày (daily hassles)** của Kanner – những khó chịu nhỏ, lặp đi lặp lại (kẹt xe, mất chìa khoá) – xảy ra thường xuyên hơn nhiều và có thể tác động tích lũy mạnh không kém các biến cố lớn. **Stress công việc:** sự mơ hồ về vai trò, quá tải công việc, và thiếu quyền kiểm soát là những nguồn gây căng thẳng nghề nghiệp chính.

9.4.3 Individual differences: coping strategies and social support

Problem-focused vs. emotion-focused coping

Lazarus and Folkman's transactional model distinguishes two broad coping strategies people use once a situation has been appraised as stressful:

- **Problem-focused coping:** directly tackling the source of the stress – e.g., seeking information, making a plan, managing time better, confronting the problem directly. Tends to be most effective when the stressor is genuinely **controllable**.
- **Emotion-focused coping:** managing one's emotional reaction to the stressor rather than the stressor itself – e.g., relaxation, reappraisal, seeking emotional support, distraction, denial. Tends to be more useful when the stressor is largely **uncontrollable**.

Social support acts as an important buffer against the harmful effects of stress: it can operate as a general benefit to wellbeing regardless of stress level, or specifically **buffer** the impact of stress by providing practical help, information, or emotional reassurance precisely when a stressor occurs. People with strong social support networks tend to show better psychological and physical health outcomes under equivalent levels of life stress.

Coping style	Description	Example
Problem-focused	Directly addressing the source of stress; most effective for controllable stressors	A student overwhelmed by revision makes a detailed study timetable and asks a teacher for extra help
Emotion-focused	Managing the emotional reaction to stress; more useful for uncontrollable stressors	A person facing a terminal diagnosis uses relaxation techniques and seeks comfort from friends

Problem-focused and emotion-focused coping, with a worked example of each.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Ứng phó tập trung vào vấn đề (problem-focused coping): giải quyết trực tiếp nguồn gốc gây stress – hiệu quả nhất khi tình huống **có thể kiểm soát được**. **Ứng phó tập trung vào cảm xúc (emotion-focused coping):** quản lý phản ứng cảm xúc thay vì giải quyết vấn đề – hữu ích hơn khi tình huống **không thể kiểm soát**. **Hỗ trợ xã hội (social support)** đóng vai trò như một "tấm đệm" (buffer) giảm tác động tiêu cực của stress, thông qua hỗ trợ thực tế, thông tin, hoặc an ủi tinh thần.

9.4.4 Stress management techniques

Managing stress

- **Biofeedback:** the person is connected to equipment monitoring a physiological measure (e.g., heart rate, muscle tension, skin conductance) and receives continuous real-time feedback (a tone, a moving display), allowing them to learn, through practice and reinforcement, to voluntarily lower their own physiological arousal. Strength: gives the person direct, measurable control and no drug side effects; requires specialist equipment and sustained practice to become effective, and effects may not generalise well outside the training context without continued practice.
- **Relaxation training:** techniques such as progressive muscle relaxation and controlled breathing directly reduce sympathetic nervous system activation. Strength: cheap, safe, no side effects; limitation: requires regular practice and motivation, and does not address the external source of the stressor itself.
- **Cognitive-behavioural stress management (CBSM):** combines cognitive restructuring (identifying and challenging unhelpful, catastrophic thoughts about a stressor) with practical coping-skills training (e.g., assertiveness, time management, relaxation), often delivered in a structured group programme. Strength: addresses both the emotional and the practical/behavioural aspects of stress, with effects that tend to persist; limitation: requires time, patient engagement, and a trained practitioner, so may be less accessible or immediate than a drug treatment.
- **Drug treatments:** for example, **beta-blockers** reduce the physiological symptoms of stress (they block adrenaline's effects on the heart, lowering heart rate and blood pressure). Strength: fast-acting, directly reduces physical symptoms with minimal patient effort; limitation: only treats the physiological *symptoms* of stress, not its psychological experience or its underlying source, does not teach any long-term coping skill, and carries a risk of side effects and dependence with long-term use.

Technique	How it works	Key limitation
Biofeedback	Real-time feedback on a physiological measure lets the person learn voluntary control	Requires equipment and sustained practice to generalise
Relaxation training	Directly reduces sympathetic arousal (progressive muscle relaxation, breathing)	Needs regular practice; does not remove the stressor itself
Cognitive-behavioural stress management	Restructures unhelpful thoughts and builds practical coping skills	Time-, effort-, and practitioner-intensive
Drug treatment (e.g. beta-blockers)	Blocks physiological symptoms of arousal (heart rate, blood pressure)	Treats symptoms only, not the cause; side effects/dependence risk

Four stress management approaches compared.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Bốn kỹ thuật quản lý stress: **Biofeedback** – phản hồi sinh lý theo thời gian thực giúp học cách tự kiểm soát; **huấn luyện thư giãn** – giảm trực tiếp kích hoạt giao cảm; **quản lý stress theo hướng nhận thức-hành vi (CBSM)** – kết hợp điều chỉnh suy nghĩ và kỹ năng ứng phó thực tế; **điều trị bằng thuốc** (ví dụ **beta-blocker**) – giảm nhanh triệu chứng sinh lý (nhịp tim, huyết áp) nhưng **không giải quyết** nguyên nhân tâm lý hay nguồn gốc của stress, và không dạy kỹ năng ứng phó lâu dài.

(!) **Lỗi thường gặp:** Đừng nhầm lẫn giữa việc điều trị **triệu chứng** và điều trị **nguyên nhân** của stress. Beta-blocker làm giảm nhịp tim/huyết áp rất nhanh nhưng không thay đổi cách một người **nhận thức** hay **ứng phó** với tác nhân gây stress – khác hẳn với CBSM hay huấn luyện thư giãn, vốn xây dựng kỹ năng lâu dài.

9.5 Evaluation Issues in Health Psychology

The biopsychosocial model

The **biopsychosocial model** (Engel, 1977) proposes that health and illness result from the interaction of three sets of factors: **biological** (genetics, physiology, pathogens, injury), **psychological** (beliefs, behaviour, coping style, emotional state), and **social** (relationships, social support, socioeconomic status, culture). It stands in deliberate contrast to a purely **biomedical model**, which explains illness only in terms of physical pathology. Health psychology as a field is essentially an application of the biopsychosocial model: the HBM and TPB address the psychological and social dimensions of health behaviour; Gate Control Theory explicitly integrates biological and psychological factors in pain; and stress research links psychological appraisal and coping (psychological/social) to physiological illness outcomes (biological) via the HPA axis.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Mô hình Sinh-Tâm lý-Xã hội (**biopsychosocial model**) của Engel (1977) cho rằng sức khỏe và bệnh tật là kết quả của sự tương tác giữa yếu tố **sinh học**, **tâm lý**, và **xã hội** – đối lập với **mô hình y sinh học thuần túy (biomedical model)** chỉ nhìn bệnh tật qua lăng kính bệnh lý thực thể. Toàn bộ tâm lý học sức khỏe về bản chất là ứng dụng của mô hình này.

Strengths, methodological issues, and ethical issues

Real-world application is a clear strength of health psychology: HBM-informed campaigns can genuinely increase screening uptake and vaccination rates; understanding non-adherence has led to practical improvements in how medical advice is communicated; Gate Control Theory underpins effective psychological pain-management programmes; and stress research has informed workplace wellbeing policies aimed at reducing role ambiguity, overload, and lack of control.

Methodological issues: self-report measures of pain and stress (e.g., the McGill Pain Questionnaire, self-reported stress levels) are inherently **subjective** and open to social desirability bias, individual differences in willingness to report distress, and language/cultural differences in describing internal states. Much of the research on sources of stress, particularly life-events research using the SRRS, is **correlational**: a high life-change score is associated with more illness, but this cannot establish that life events *cause* illness, since a third variable (such as a generally anxious or neurotic personality) could plausibly increase both the number of life events reported/experienced and the likelihood of illness.

Ethical issues: health psychology research and interventions must ensure fully **informed consent**, particularly where an intervention involves deliberately inducing stress, withholding treatment (e.g., in a control group), or discussing sensitive diagnoses; and must protect the **confidentiality** of sensitive health data (diagnoses, test results, psychological state), which if disclosed inappropriately could cause significant harm (e.g., stigma, discrimination, employment or insurance consequences).

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Điểm mạnh: ứng dụng thực tiễn rõ ràng – chiến dịch dựa trên HBM tăng tỷ lệ tầm soát, hiểu về non-adherence cải thiện giao tiếp y khoa, Gate Control Theory là nền tảng cho quản lý đau tâm lý, nghiên cứu stress cải thiện chính sách nơi làm việc. **Vấn đề phương pháp luận:** các thang đo tự báo cáo về đau/stress mang tính **chủ quan**; nghiên cứu biến cố cuộc sống (SRRS) thường mang tính **tương quan**, không thể khẳng định **quan hệ nhân quả** (một biến thứ ba như tính cách lo âu có thể gây ra cả hai). **Vấn đề đạo đức:** cần đảm bảo **sự đồng thuận có hiểu biết (informed consent)** và **bảo mật dữ liệu sức khoẻ (confidentiality)**, đặc biệt khi can thiệp liên quan đến gây stress có chủ đích hoặc tiết lộ chẩn đoán nhạy cảm.

Ôn tập nhanh: HBM – susceptibility, severity, benefits, barriers, cues to action, self-efficacy → hành vi bảo vệ sức khoẻ; TPB – attitude + subjective norms + perceived behavioural control → intention → hành vi. **Ley:** trí nhớ y khoa kém hơn khi phức tạp/lo âu; cải thiện qua primacy, đơn giản, phân loại, lặp lại. **Non-adherence:** có chủ ý (niềm tin, tác dụng phụ) vs. không chủ ý (quên, hiểu sai). **Đau:** cấp tính vs. mạn tính; thành phần cảm giác vs. tâm lý; **Gate Control Theory** – sợi nhỏ mở cổng, sợi lớn đóng cổng, tín hiệu từ não cũng điều chỉnh cổng. **Đo đau:** tự báo cáo (McGill, VAS) / hành vi / sinh lý. **Quản lý đau:** thuốc giảm đau, thư giãn, đánh lạc hướng, CBT, biofeedback. **GAS (Selye):** báo động → kháng cự → kiệt sức, liên quan trực HPA. **Nguồn stress:** biến cố cuộc sống (SRRS), phiền toái hàng ngày, stress công việc (mơ hồ vai trò, quá tải, thiếu kiểm soát). **Ứng phó:** problem-focused vs. emotion-focused; hỗ trợ xã hội là bộ đệm. **Quản lý stress:** biofeedback, thư giãn, CBSM, thuốc (beta-blocker chỉ trị triệu chứng). **Đánh giá:** mô hình sinh-tâm lý-xã hội, ứng dụng thực tiễn, vấn đề tương quan/nhân quả, đạo đức (đồng thuận, bảo mật).

9.6 Problem Bank

Bài tập luyện tập

According to the Health Belief Model, which component refers to a person's belief about how likely they personally are to develop a health condition?

- | | |
|------------------------------|------------------------|
| (A) Perceived severity | (C) Perceived barriers |
| (B) Perceived susceptibility | (D) Cues to action |

Lời giải chi tiết

(B) Perceived susceptibility. Perceived severity concerns how serious the illness would be, not how likely the person is to get it; perceived barriers concern obstacles to acting; cues to action are triggers prompting action at a given moment.

Bài tập luyện tập

Which HBM component was added in later versions of the model (Rosenstock, Strecher & Becker, 1988)?

- | | |
|------------------------|------------------------|
| (A) Perceived benefits | (C) Self-efficacy |
| (B) Cues to action | (D) Perceived severity |

Lời giải chi tiết

(C) Self-efficacy. The original 1966/1974 model included susceptibility, severity, benefits, barriers, and cues to action; self-efficacy (confidence in one's ability to perform the behaviour) was added later.

Bài tập luyện tập

Mr. Okafor, 52, has been told his blood pressure is high and he should start taking daily medication. He believes "a bit of high blood pressure never hurt anyone," finds the tablets large and unpleasant to swallow, and has not been given a clear explanation of what will happen if he does not take them.

- (a) Using the HBM, identify which two components are working *against* Mr. Okafor taking the medication.
- (b) Suggest one campaign/communication strategy that could increase his adherence, linking it explicitly to an HBM component.

Lời giải chi tiết

(a) His belief that "a bit of high blood pressure never hurt anyone" reflects **low perceived severity** (and possibly low perceived susceptibility to serious consequences); finding the tablets unpleasant reflects a **perceived barrier** to taking the medication. Both work against him starting/continuing the medication. **(b)** A doctor could increase **perceived severity** by clearly and concretely explaining the real risks of untreated high blood pressure (e.g., stroke, heart attack) – this directly targets the HBM component that is currently too low to motivate action, while also addressing his barrier by discussing an alternative formulation of the medication if available.

Bài tập luyện tập

Evaluate the Health Belief Model as an explanation of health-protective behaviour. Refer to at least one strength and one limitation.

Lời giải chi tiết

Strength: the HBM has strong practical/applied value – because it breaks health behaviour down into specific, identifiable beliefs, health campaigns can be designed to target the precise belief that is lacking in a given population (e.g., raising perceived susceptibility, or removing perceived barriers), making the model directly useful for improving public health outcomes such as screening uptake. **Limitation:** the HBM assumes health decisions are the outcome of a broadly rational weighing-up of beliefs, but it does not adequately account for the role of **emotion**, **habit**, or direct **social pressure** from others (which the Theory of Planned Behaviour addresses more explicitly through subjective norms) – a person may hold all the “correct” beliefs and still not act, or may act for emotional/social reasons unrelated to any of the model’s components.

Bài tập luyện tập

In the Theory of Planned Behaviour, which factor reflects a person’s perception of whether people important to them approve of the behaviour?

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| (A) Perceived behavioural control | (C) Attitude towards the behaviour |
| (B) Subjective norms | (D) Self-efficacy |

Lời giải chi tiết

(B) Subjective norms. Perceived behavioural control concerns how easy/difficult the behaviour is perceived to be; attitude concerns the person’s own evaluation of the behaviour; self-efficacy is not a formal TPB term (it is closest conceptually to perceived behavioural control, but is a distinct HBM term).

Bài tập luyện tập

Distinguish between the Health Belief Model and the Theory of Planned Behaviour, referring to at least one similarity and one difference.

Lời giải chi tiết

Similarity: both models propose that health behaviour results from a combination of specific beliefs rather than from medical risk information alone, and both can be used to design targeted interventions to change behaviour. **Difference:** the HBM focuses on beliefs about the *illness* and the recommended *action* (susceptibility, severity, benefits, barriers), whereas the TPB places its central emphasis on a *behavioural intention* formed from attitudes, subjective norms (social pressure), and perceived behavioural control – explicitly incorporating the influence of other people’s expectations, which the HBM does not directly include.

Bài tập luyện tập

Which of the following, according to Ley’s research, is most likely to *improve* a patient’s recall of medical information?

- (A) Giving the most important information last (C) Explicitly telling the patient the structure of the information in advance
- (B) Using precise medical terminology throughout (D) Delivering all information in a single uninterrupted sentence

Lời giải chi tiết

(C). Explicit categorisation (telling the patient the structure of what is coming) is one of Ley's identified factors that improves recall, alongside primacy (important information first, not last, ruling out A), simplicity (ruling out B, since jargon reduces understanding), and repetition/clear structuring (ruling out D).

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain two factors that reduce a patient's understanding and memory of information given during a medical consultation, and explain how a doctor could address each one.

Lời giải chi tiết

Factor 1 – complexity/jargon: technical medical language is harder to understand and encode into memory, especially for patients without medical training. This can be addressed by using **simple, everyday language** and short sentences. **Factor 2 – anxiety:** a patient who is anxious (e.g., about a new diagnosis) has narrowed attention and reduced capacity to encode new information accurately. This can be addressed by acknowledging the patient's emotional state, allowing time for questions, and **repeating** the most important points once the patient has had a moment to process the initial anxiety-inducing information, ideally also providing written information to take away.

Bài tập luyện tập

A patient has been prescribed a two-week course of antibiotics but stops taking them after five days because she feels better and dislikes the taste of the tablets, believing the remaining tablets are unnecessary.

- (a) Is this an example of intentional or unintentional non-adherence? Justify your answer.
(b) Suggest one strategy to improve her adherence in future.

Lời giải chi tiết

(a) This is **intentional non-adherence**: the patient made a deliberate decision to stop taking the medication, based on her own belief (that feeling better means the tablets are no longer needed) and her dislike of an unpleasant side effect/quality (the taste) – she was not prevented by forgetting or a practical obstacle. (b) A doctor could improve future adherence by explicitly explaining, at the point of prescribing, *why* the full course must be completed even after symptoms improve (e.g., that stopping early can allow surviving bacteria to develop resistance) – directly targeting her (currently low) **perceived benefit** of continuing treatment once she already feels well.

Bài tập luyện tập

Discuss two ways in which healthcare practitioners can improve patient adherence to medical advice.

Lời giải chi tiết

Simplifying the regimen: reducing the number of daily doses (e.g., prescribing a once-daily rather than four-times-daily medication where clinically possible) directly reduces the practical burden that causes **unintentional** non-adherence through forgetting or inconvenience. **Involving the patient in decision-making:** discussing options and reasoning collaboratively, rather than simply issuing instructions, increases the patient's sense of ownership over the treatment plan, which can increase their perceived benefit of the treatment and reduce intentional non-adherence rooted in disagreement or distrust; it can be combined with reminder systems (text alerts, pill organisers) to further reduce unintentional non-adherence.

Bài tập luyện tập

Which of the following best distinguishes acute pain from chronic pain?

- (A) Acute pain is always more intense than chronic pain as healing occurs
(B) Chronic pain typically persists beyond the normal expected healing time, while acute pain has a clear cause and resolves
(C) Chronic pain only occurs in older patients
(D) Acute pain has no identifiable physical cause

Lời giải chi tiết

(B). Acute pain has an identifiable cause and an adaptive warning function, resolving as the underlying injury heals; chronic pain persists well beyond the expected healing period (often defined as beyond three to six months), sometimes without full ongoing tissue damage to explain it.

Bài tập luyện tập

According to Gate Control Theory, activity in which type of nerve fibre tends to *close* the spinal gate and reduce perceived pain?

- (A) Small fibres
(B) Large fibres
(C) Motor fibres
(D) Optic fibres

Lời giải chi tiết

(B) **Large fibres.** Large fibres carry non-painful touch, pressure, and vibration signals; their activity closes the gate and blocks pain signals (carried by small fibres) from ascending. This is why rubbing a painful area can reduce perceived pain.

Bài tập luyện tập

A patient with chronic lower back pain reports that the pain feels much worse on days when she is anxious about her finances, even though a doctor confirms there has been no change in her physical condition. Using Gate Control Theory, explain this pattern.

Lời giải chi tiết

Gate Control Theory proposes that the spinal gate is influenced not only by peripheral (physiological) input but also by **descending psychological signals** from the brain, including emotional

state. On days when the patient is anxious, these descending signals are more likely to **open** the gate (rather than close it), increasing the amount of pain signal that reaches and is consciously perceived by the brain – even though the peripheral, physical input from her back has not changed. This explains why her *experienced* pain fluctuates with her emotional state despite no change in the underlying physical condition, illustrating that pain is a joint product of physiological and psychological factors rather than a fixed one-to-one reflection of tissue state.

Bài tập luyện tập

Evaluate Gate Control Theory as an explanation of pain. Refer to at least one strength and one limitation.

Lời giải chi tiết

Strength: the theory successfully explains real, previously puzzling phenomena that a purely physiological account of pain could not – such as why rubbing an injury reduces pain, why distraction or extreme excitement can suppress pain awareness, and why the same injury can produce very different experienced pain in different psychological states – giving it strong explanatory power and clear applications to psychological pain-management techniques (distraction, relaxation, CBT). **Limitation:** the theory is somewhat vague about the precise neurological mechanism of the “gate” itself and how exactly descending psychological signals physically act on it, and it has been refined by later, more detailed neuromatrix models of pain; it also does not fully specify how to predict, in advance, exactly which psychological factors will open versus close the gate for a given individual.

Bài tập luyện tập

Which pain measurement method assesses sensory, affective, and evaluative dimensions of pain using descriptive words chosen by the patient?

- | | |
|-------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| (A) Visual Analogue Scale | (C) Heart rate monitoring |
| (B) McGill Pain Questionnaire | (D) Behavioural observation checklist |

Lời giải chi tiết

(B) **McGill Pain Questionnaire.** It asks patients to select words describing their pain across sensory (e.g., throbbing), affective (e.g., fearful), and evaluative (overall intensity) dimensions, giving a more detailed profile than a single-line scale like the VAS.

Bài tập luyện tập

Compare self-report and physiological measures of pain, identifying one advantage of physiological measures over self-report measures, and one advantage of self-report measures over physiological ones.

Lời giải chi tiết

Advantage of physiological measures: they are objective and do not depend on the patient's ability or willingness to communicate, so they can be used with patients who cannot self-report (e.g., unconscious patients, infants) and are not affected by social desirability or language bar-

riers. **Advantage of self-report measures:** they capture the patient's actual subjective experience directly, including its emotional/affective quality (e.g., how frightening or exhausting the pain feels), which physiological measures cannot capture – a raised heart rate could reflect anxiety, exercise, or pain, so it is a poor proxy for the specific subjective quality and intensity of pain that self-report tools like the McGill Pain Questionnaire can describe in detail.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain how biofeedback could be used to help a patient manage chronic tension headaches.

Lời giải chi tiết

The patient would be connected to equipment (e.g., an EMG sensor) monitoring muscle tension in the head/neck, which provides continuous, real-time feedback (e.g., a tone that rises and falls with tension level). By experimenting with different mental/physical strategies (relaxation, breathing) while watching or listening to the feedback, the patient learns which strategies successfully lower the measured tension, and through repeated practice and reinforcement (seeing the feedback signal improve) gradually learns to voluntarily reduce muscle tension without needing the equipment – directly reducing the physical trigger for tension headaches.

Bài tập luyện tập

Which stage of Selye's General Adaptation Syndrome is characterised by depleted physiological resources and heightened vulnerability to illness?

- | | |
|----------------------|----------------------|
| (A) Alarm reaction | (C) Exhaustion stage |
| (B) Resistance stage | (D) Recovery stage |

Lời giải chi tiết

(C) Exhaustion stage. The alarm reaction is the initial fight-or-flight activation; the resistance stage involves sustained coping at elevated (but not yet depleted) resource levels; “recovery stage” is not one of Selye's three named stages.

Bài tập luyện tập

A factory worker has been dealing with a demanding supervisor and mandatory overtime for eight months. He initially felt alert and coped well, but now reports constant exhaustion, frequent colds, and was recently diagnosed with a stomach ulcer. Identify which stage of the GAS he is most likely in, and justify your answer with reference to the case.

Lời giải chi tiết

He is most likely in the **exhaustion stage**. His initial alertness and apparent coping over several months corresponds to the **resistance stage** (sustained elevated functioning while resources were still available), but his current presentation – constant exhaustion, frequent infections (suggesting immune suppression), and a stomach ulcer (a classic “disease of adaptation” associated with prolonged cortisol exposure) – indicates his physiological resources for continued resistance have become depleted, matching the defining features of the exhaustion stage.

Bài tập luyện tập

Using the General Adaptation Syndrome, explain why prolonged workplace stress (e.g., sustained work overload and lack of control) could increase an employee's risk of developing a stress-related illness.

Lời giải chi tiết

According to Selye's GAS, the body responds to any prolonged stressor – including chronic workplace stressors such as sustained overload and lack of control – with the same three-stage, non-specific pattern. In the **alarm reaction**, the employee's HPA axis and sympathetic nervous system activate repeatedly each working day, releasing cortisol and adrenaline. If the demanding conditions continue day after day without resolution, the employee enters the **resistance stage**, maintaining elevated cortisol output and physiological arousal in order to keep coping and appearing to function normally – but this sustained elevated output steadily depletes the body's physiological resources (including suppressing normal immune function, since cortisol has an immunosuppressive effect when chronically elevated). If the overload and lack of control are never resolved (e.g., no reduction in workload, no increase in autonomy), the employee eventually reaches the **exhaustion stage**: resources are depleted, the immune system can no longer function adequately, and the employee becomes vulnerable to “diseases of adaptation” such as infections, cardiovascular problems, or ulcers. This explains, at a physiological level, why chronic occupational stress – not just single acute stressful incidents – is associated with a raised long-term risk of illness.

Bài tập luyện tập

According to Holmes and Rahe's Social Readjustment Rating Scale, why can a positive life event such as marriage still contribute to a person's overall stress score?

- (A) Positive events are always excluded from the scale
(B) Any significant life change requires psychological/social readjustment, and readjustment itself is a source of stress
(C) Marriage always causes more stress than negative events
(D) The scale only measures workplace stress

Lời giải chi tiết

(B). The SRRS is built on the principle that it is the amount of **readjustment** a change demands – not whether the change is subjectively “good” or “bad” – that determines its contribution to stress load, which is why positive events such as marriage or a promotion are included and scored alongside clearly negative events.

Bài tập luyện tập

Evaluate the use of the Social Readjustment Rating Scale (SRRS) as a measure of a person's risk of stress-related illness. Refer to at least one strength and one limitation.

Lời giải chi tiết

Strength: the SRRS provides a simple, standardised, quick-to-administer way of estimating cumulative stress load, and its central insight – that readjustment, not just negativity, drives stress – broadened how researchers and clinicians think about the sources of stress, including

recognising that seemingly positive changes can matter for health outcomes. **Limitation:** research using the SRRS is **correlational**: a higher life-change score is associated with a greater likelihood of subsequent illness, but this association cannot establish that life events *cause* illness. A third variable, such as a generally anxious or neurotic personality, could independently increase both the number of life events a person experiences/reports and their likelihood of becoming ill, or pre-existing illness could itself generate more life events (e.g., job loss), reversing the assumed direction of causality. The scale also applies a fixed weighting to each event, but the same event (e.g., divorce) may require very different amounts of readjustment for different individuals.

Bài tập luyện tập

Which of the following best distinguishes “daily hassles” from major life events as a source of stress?

- (A) Daily hassles are always more serious than life events cumulative impact, unlike infrequent major life events
- (B) Daily hassles are minor, frequently recurring irritations that can have a substantial (C) Daily hassles only affect children
- (D) Daily hassles cannot be measured

Lời giải chi tiết

(B). Daily hassles (e.g., traffic delays, losing keys) are minor individually but occur far more often than major life events, and research (e.g., Kanner and colleagues) suggests their cumulative impact on wellbeing can be substantial, sometimes predicting stress outcomes as strongly as or more strongly than infrequent major life events.

Bài tập luyện tập

Which of the following combinations is most strongly associated with high occupational (workplace) stress, according to research on job strain?

- (A) Low demands and high control (C) High demands and low control
- (B) High demands and high control (D) Low demands and low control

Lời giải chi tiết

(C) **High demands and low control.** A job that places heavy demands on an employee (work overload, tight deadlines) while giving them little say over how or when the work is done is regarded as particularly stressful, since the employee cannot use problem-focused strategies to manage the demands themselves. Role ambiguity (unclear expectations) further compounds this occupational strain.

Bài tập luyện tập

A university student has a major assignment due in two days that she has not yet started (a controllable stressor, since she can still act on it) and is also worried about a chronic illness in a family member (a largely uncontrollable stressor). Suggest, with justification, which broad coping style is likely to be more effective for each situation.

Lời giải chi tiết

For the **assignment** (a controllable stressor), **problem-focused coping** is likely to be more effective – for example, drawing up a concrete plan, prioritising tasks, and working through the assignment directly tackles the actual source of stress and can genuinely remove it. For the **family illness** (a largely uncontrollable stressor, since she cannot personally change the medical situation), **emotion-focused coping** – such as seeking emotional support from friends, using relaxation techniques, or reappraising the situation – is likely to be more effective, since problem-focused strategies have little to act on when the stressor itself cannot be directly resolved by the person's own actions.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain the “buffering” role of social support in the relationship between stress and illness.

Lời giải chi tiết

Social support is said to “buffer” the effects of stress when it specifically protects a person from the harmful impact of stress *at the point a stressor occurs* – for example, by providing practical help (reducing the practical burden of a stressor), useful information (helping the person cope more effectively), or emotional reassurance (reducing the perceived severity/threat of the situation). Under the buffering account, people with strong social support networks experience *less* of a negative health impact from an equivalent level of life stress than people with weak support networks, because the support directly cushions the impact of the stressor rather than simply improving wellbeing in general at all times.

Bài tập luyện tập

Which of the following best describes how biofeedback helps a person manage stress?

- | | |
|--|---|
| (A) It provides real-time feedback on a physiological measure, allowing the person to learn voluntary control over that response | on the heart |
| (B) It works by blocking adrenaline's effects | (C) It removes the external source of stress directly |
| | (D) It relies entirely on discussion of childhood experiences |

Lời giải chi tiết

(A). Biofeedback connects a person to equipment that displays a physiological measure (e.g., heart rate, muscle tension) in real time; through practice and reinforcement from seeing the feedback improve, the person learns to voluntarily control that physiological response. (B) describes the mechanism of beta-blockers, not biofeedback.

Bài tập luyện tập

Compare the effectiveness and appropriateness of biofeedback and drug treatment (e.g., beta-blockers) as stress management techniques.

Lời giải chi tiết

Biofeedback teaches the person an active, transferable skill: because they learn to directly recognise and control their own physiological arousal, the benefits can persist and generalise to future stressful situations without ongoing intervention, and it carries no drug side effects. However, it requires specialist equipment, sustained practice, and patient motivation, and results are not immediate. **Drug treatment** (e.g., beta-blockers) works quickly and requires minimal effort from the patient, directly reducing physiological symptoms such as raised heart rate and blood pressure. However, it only addresses the physiological *symptoms* of stress, not the underlying psychological experience or the source of the stress itself, teaches no long-term coping skill, and carries risks of side effects and dependence with prolonged use. Overall, biofeedback may be more appropriate for a person seeking a durable, symptom-free long-term coping skill, while drug treatment may be more appropriate for rapid short-term symptom relief (e.g., before a single high-stakes event).

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain the biopsychosocial model of health, and use it to explain why a purely biomedical approach to treating a patient's chronic pain might be insufficient.

Lời giải chi tiết

The **biopsychosocial model** (Engel, 1977) proposes that health and illness result from the interaction of biological factors (e.g., the physical source of tissue damage), psychological factors (e.g., beliefs about the pain, attention, emotional state, coping style), and social factors (e.g., social support, work demands, cultural attitudes to pain). A purely **biomedical** approach to chronic pain would treat only the physical/biological component (e.g., prescribing analgesics for the tissue damage), but as Gate Control Theory shows, the patient's psychological state (anxiety, attention, catastrophic thinking) can independently open or close the spinal gate and substantially change how much pain is actually perceived, regardless of the physical injury. A purely biomedical approach that ignores these psychological factors (and social factors such as available support or workplace accommodations) is therefore likely to leave a significant, treatable part of the patient's pain experience unaddressed – which is why effective chronic pain management typically combines pharmacological treatment with psychological approaches such as CBT, relaxation, or biofeedback.

Bài tập luyện tập

A researcher finds a strong positive correlation between employees' self-reported life-change scores (SRRS) over the past year and the number of sick days they took. A newspaper reports this as “proof that stressful life events cause illness.” Evaluate this claim.

Lời giải chi tiết

The newspaper's claim overstates what a correlational finding can show. A strong positive correlation between life-change scores and sick days indicates that the two variables tend to rise and fall together, but it cannot by itself establish that life events *cause* illness. Several alternative explanations are possible: (1) a **third variable**, such as a generally anxious or health-vulnerable disposition, could independently increase both the number of stressful events a person experiences/reports and their likelihood of taking sick days; (2) the **direction of causality** could run the other way – early symptoms of illness could themselves generate stressful life events (e.g., job difficulties, relationship strain), rather than life events causing the illness; (3)

both self-reported life events and self-reported sick days rely on **subjective report**, which may be biased by the same underlying tendency to report negatively. A true causal claim would require an experimental design (not possible or ethical here, since life events cannot be randomly assigned) or at minimum a longitudinal design controlling for plausible third variables.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain why informed consent and confidentiality are particularly important ethical considerations in health psychology research and interventions.

Lời giải chi tiết

Informed consent is especially important in health psychology because interventions and studies often involve sensitive personal information (diagnoses, health behaviours, psychological state) and sometimes involve deliberately inducing stress, withholding treatment from a control group, or asking participants to confront frightening health information (e.g., cancer risk) – participants must fully understand what participation involves and be free to withdraw, given the potential for genuine psychological or physical impact. **Confidentiality** is critical because health data is highly sensitive: inappropriate disclosure of a diagnosis, a psychological assessment, or a pattern of non-adherence could lead to real-world harm for the individual, including stigma, discrimination, or consequences for employment or insurance. Because health psychology sits at the intersection of medical and psychological data, researchers and practitioners must apply particularly careful safeguards (secure storage, anonymisation, restricted access) beyond those needed in less sensitive areas of psychological research.

Applied Specialism: Organisational Psychology

Mục tiêu Unit: (A2) Các lý thuyết động lực làm việc — tháp nhu cầu Maslow (1943), thuyết hai yếu tố Herzberg (1959), thuyết nhu cầu tập nhiệm McClelland, và các phương pháp thiết kế công việc (mở rộng, làm giàu, luân chuyển công việc); định nghĩa và đo lường sự hài lòng công việc cùng mối liên hệ với vắng mặt, nghỉ việc, năng suất; các mô hình lãnh đạo và quản lý — Theory X/Y của McGregor, ba phong cách lãnh đạo (độc đoán, dân chủ, tự do), tiếp cận đặc điểm và tình huống (mô hình ngẫu nhiên Fiedler), lãnh đạo chuyển đổi và trao đổi; hành vi nhóm trong tổ chức — tư duy nhóm (groupthink), phân cực nhóm, làm việc nhóm, và hiện tượng lười biếng xã hội (social loafing); cấu trúc và văn hoá tổ chức; công thái học (ergonomics) và ảnh hưởng của tiếng ồn, ánh sáng, nhiệt độ; và các vấn đề đánh giá tâm lý học tổ chức như một lĩnh vực ứng dụng.

10.1 Motivation to Work

Organisational psychologists study why employees choose to work hard, persist at difficult tasks, and direct their effort towards particular goals within a workplace. Several influential theories, originally developed in general psychology or management science, have been applied specifically to understand and improve motivation at work.

10.1.1 Maslow's hierarchy of needs applied to the workplace

Abraham Maslow (1943) proposed that human needs are organised into a hierarchy of five levels, and that people are generally motivated to satisfy needs at a lower level before higher-level needs become motivating. Although Maslow's theory was developed as a general theory of human motivation, it has been widely applied to explain what motivates employees in an organisational context.

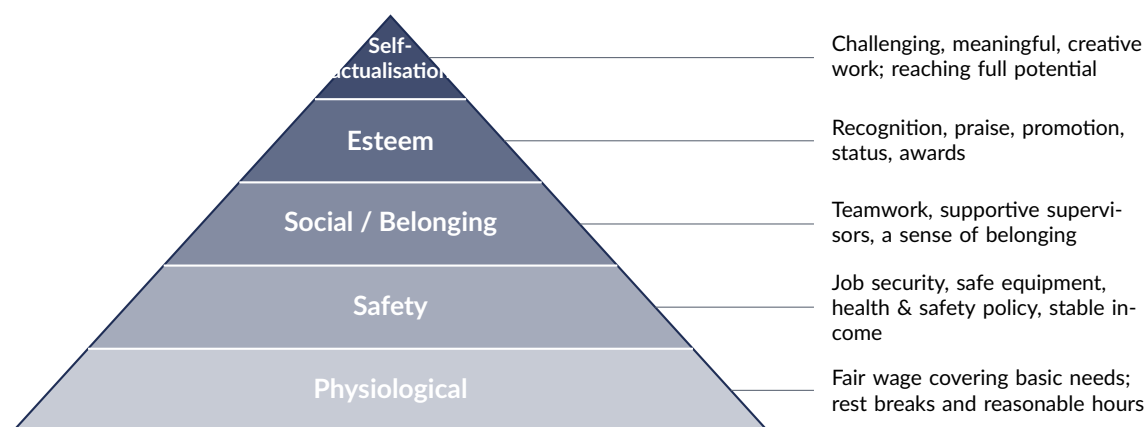
Maslow's hierarchy of needs: workplace application

From the bottom (most basic) to the top (highest) of the hierarchy:

- **Physiological needs:** the basic requirements for survival. At work: a wage sufficient to afford food, housing, and rest; adequate breaks.
- **Safety needs:** security and freedom from physical or economic threat. At work: job security, safe working conditions, fair and stable pay, health and safety policies, pension/insurance benefits.
- **Social (belongingness) needs:** the need for friendship, acceptance, and connection with others. At work: teamwork, positive relationships with colleagues and supervisors, a sense of belonging to the organisation.
- **Esteem needs:** the need to be respected, valued, and to have a sense of achievement and status. At work: recognition, praise, promotion, awards, respect from colleagues and management.
- **Self-actualisation:** the need to fulfil one's full potential, to grow, and to be creative. At work: challenging and meaningful work, opportunities for creativity, autonomy, and per-

sonal development.

According to Maslow, lower needs generally require at least **partial satisfaction** before higher needs become strongly motivating — an employee worried about job security (a safety need) is unlikely to be strongly motivated by an opportunity for creative, self-actualising work until that safety concern is addressed. Once a need is reasonably well satisfied, it typically ceases to be a strong motivator, and attention shifts to the next level up.



Maslow's (1943) hierarchy of needs applied to the workplace, with a representative workplace example at each level. Lower needs generally require at least partial satisfaction before the next level up becomes strongly motivating.

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Maslow (1943) cho rằng nhu cầu con người được sắp xếp theo **5 bậc thang** từ thấp đến cao: **sinh lý** (lương đủ sống, nghỉ ngơi), **an toàn** (công việc ổn định, an toàn lao động), **xã hội/thuộc về** (làm việc nhóm, quan hệ đồng nghiệp tốt), **được tôn trọng** (công nhận, thăng chức, địa vị), và **tự thể hiện bản thân** (công việc thử thách, sáng tạo, phát huy hết tiềm năng). Nguyên tắc quan trọng: nhu cầu bậc thấp cần được **thỏa mãn ít nhất một phần** trước khi nhu cầu bậc cao hơn trở thành động lực mạnh — một nhân viên đang lo lắng về sự ổn định công việc (an toàn) khó có thể được thúc đẩy mạnh bởi cơ hội sáng tạo (tự thể hiện) cho đến khi mối lo đó được giải quyết.

10.1.2 Herzberg's two-factor theory

Frederick Herzberg (1959) interviewed accountants and engineers about times they felt exceptionally good or exceptionally bad about their jobs, and found that the factors associated with satisfaction were consistently different from the factors associated with dissatisfaction. This led him to propose that job satisfaction and job dissatisfaction are not opposite ends of a single scale, but are influenced by two entirely separate sets of factors.

Herzberg's two-factor theory

- **Hygiene factors:** features of the job context (the conditions surrounding the work). Their *absence* causes dissatisfaction, but their presence, by itself, does not create satisfaction or motivation — it merely prevents dissatisfaction. Examples: pay, company policy and administration, working conditions, job security, relationships with supervisors and colleagues, status.
- **Motivator factors:** features of the job content (the work itself). Their *presence* actively increases satisfaction and motivation. Examples: achievement, recognition, responsibility, the work itself, advancement, personal growth.

The key practical implication is that **removing dissatisfaction** and **creating satisfaction** are two separate management processes requiring two separate strategies: improving hygiene factors (e.g., raising pay, improving working conditions) can reduce dissatisfaction, but will not by itself make employees genuinely motivated or satisfied; only improving motivator factors (e.g., giving employees more responsibility, recognising achievement, enriching the work itself) actively increases motivation.

Factor type	Effect	Workplace examples
Hygiene factors	Absence causes dissatisfaction; presence alone does not create satisfaction or motivation — it only prevents dissatisfaction	Pay and salary, company policy and administration, working conditions, job security, quality of supervision, relationships with colleagues, status
Motivator factors	Presence actively increases satisfaction and motivation; their absence does not necessarily cause dissatisfaction, simply an absence of positive motivation	Sense of achievement, recognition for good work, responsibility, the intrinsic interest of the work itself, opportunities for advancement, personal growth

Herzberg's (1959) two-factor theory: hygiene factors and motivator factors operate independently rather than as opposite ends of a single satisfaction scale.

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Herzberg (1959) phỏng vấn kế toán viên và kỹ sư về những lúc họ cảm thấy rất tốt hoặc rất tệ trong công việc, và phát hiện rằng các yếu tố gây **hài lòng** luôn khác với các yếu tố gây **không hài lòng** — hai điều này không nằm trên cùng một thang đo đối lập. **Yếu tố duy trì (hygiene factors)** như lương, chính sách công ty, điều kiện làm việc: nếu *thiếu* sẽ gây bất mãn, nhưng nếu có cũng không tự động tạo ra động lực — chỉ ngăn được sự bất mãn mà thôi. **Yếu tố động viên (motivator factors)** như thành tựu, sự công nhận, trách nhiệm, bản thân công việc: nếu có sẽ thực sự làm tăng động lực và sự hài lòng. Hàm ý quản lý quan trọng: muốn *giảm bất mãn* và muốn *tăng động lực* là hai việc khác nhau, cần hai chiến lược khác nhau — tăng lương chỉ giải quyết được bất mãn (yếu tố duy trì), không tự động khiến nhân viên có động lực làm việc hơn.

(!) Lỗi thường gặp: Đừng nhầm lẫn: tăng **lương** (một yếu tố duy trì) không tự động làm nhân viên có động lực hơn theo Herzberg — nó chỉ ngăn ngừa hoặc giảm bớt sự bất mãn. Để thực sự tăng động lực, nhà quản lý cần cải thiện các **yếu tố động viên** (trách nhiệm, sự công nhận, tính thử thách của công việc) chứ không chỉ cải thiện yếu tố duy trì. Đây là điểm học sinh thường trả lời sai trong bài luận về Herzberg.

10.1.3 McClelland's acquired needs theory

David McClelland proposed that individuals differ in the relative strength of three needs, which are learned (acquired) over a lifetime rather than present from birth, and that the relative strength of these needs predicts what kind of work a person finds most motivating.

McClelland's three acquired needs

- **Need for achievement (nAch):** a strong desire to accomplish challenging goals, take personal responsibility for outcomes, and receive clear feedback on performance. Employees high in nAch are motivated by tasks with moderate, achievable difficulty and clear performance feedback, and often prefer individual responsibility over group credit.

- **Need for affiliation (nAff):** a strong desire for friendly relationships and to be liked and accepted by others. Employees high in nAff are motivated by cooperative, team-based work and by approval from colleagues, but may avoid tasks requiring unpopular decisions (e.g., disciplining colleagues).
- **Need for power (nPow):** a strong desire to influence, direct, or have an impact on others. Employees high in nPow are often motivated by positions of authority, status, and competitive success, and may be drawn towards leadership or management roles.

McClelland suggested that effective managers typically show a relatively high need for power (directed towards organisational goals rather than purely personal dominance) combined with only a moderate need for affiliation, since an excessive need for affiliation can make it difficult to make unpopular but necessary decisions.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

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McClelland cho rằng con người có 3 nhu cầu **học được (acquired)** qua trải nghiệm sống, với cường độ khác nhau ở mỗi người, và cường độ này dự đoán loại công việc nào sẽ tạo động lực cho họ: **nhu cầu thành tựu (nAch)** – muốn hoàn thành mục tiêu thử thách, chịu trách nhiệm cá nhân, cần phản hồi rõ ràng; **nhu cầu liên kết (nAff)** – muốn có quan hệ thân thiện, được yêu mến, phù hợp với công việc nhóm; **nhu cầu quyền lực (nPow)** – muốn ảnh hưởng và chỉ đạo người khác, phù hợp với vai trò lãnh đạo. Theo McClelland, nhà quản lý hiệu quả thường có nhu cầu quyền lực cao (hướng đến mục tiêu tổ chức) kết hợp với nhu cầu liên kết ở mức vừa phải.

10.1.4 Job design: enlargement, enrichment, and rotation

Because much of the workplace application of motivation theory (especially Herzberg's motivators) points towards redesigning the work itself rather than simply adjusting pay, organisational psychologists have proposed several approaches to job design intended to increase intrinsic motivation.

Approaches to job design

- **Job enlargement:** increasing the *number and variety* of tasks an employee performs at the same level of responsibility ("horizontal" loading). This can reduce monotony and boredom, but because responsibility and challenge are not increased, the motivational effect is often modest.
- **Job enrichment:** increasing the *depth* of a job by adding greater autonomy, responsibility, and decision-making authority ("vertical" loading) – for example, letting an employee plan their own work, check their own quality, or deal directly with clients. Because it directly targets Herzberg's motivator factors (responsibility, achievement, recognition), job enrichment is generally considered more effective for increasing intrinsic motivation than enlargement alone.
- **Job rotation:** systematically moving employees between different tasks or roles over time. This can reduce boredom, build a wider range of skills, and increase understanding of how different parts of the organisation fit together, though (like enlargement) it does not necessarily increase the depth of responsibility in any single task.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Ba cách **thiết kế lại công việc** nhằm tăng động lực nội tại: **mở rộng công việc (job enlargement)** – tăng số lượng và sự đa dạng nhiệm vụ ở cùng một cấp độ trách nhiệm (mở rộng theo chiều

ngang), giảm nhàm chán nhưng hiệu quả tạo động lực thường khiêm tốn vì trách nhiệm không tăng; **làm giàu công việc (job enrichment)** – tăng *chiều sâu* công việc bằng cách trao thêm quyền tự chủ và trách nhiệm (mở rộng theo chiều dọc), tác động trực tiếp đến các yếu tố động viên của Herzberg nên thường hiệu quả hơn; **luân chuyển công việc (job rotation)** – luân phiên chuyển nhân viên qua các vai trò khác nhau, giúp giảm nhàm chán và xây dựng kỹ năng đa dạng.

Hackman and Oldham (1976) developed the **Job Characteristics Model**, which specifies more precisely *which* features of job enrichment are most important for building intrinsic motivation.

Hackman & Oldham's Job Characteristics Model

The model identifies five core job dimensions that, when present, foster intrinsic motivation by producing three critical psychological states (experienced meaningfulness, experienced responsibility, and knowledge of results):

- **Skill variety:** the degree to which a job requires a range of different skills and abilities.
- **Task identity:** the degree to which a job involves completing a whole, identifiable piece of work from start to finish, rather than only a small fragment of it.
- **Task significance:** the degree to which the job has a meaningful impact on the lives of other people, inside or outside the organisation.
- **Autonomy:** the degree to which the job allows freedom, independence, and discretion in scheduling and carrying out the work.
- **Feedback:** the degree to which carrying out the job itself provides clear, direct information about the effectiveness of one's performance.

Jobs that are high on these five dimensions are predicted to produce higher intrinsic motivation, satisfaction, and performance, particularly for employees with a strong desire for personal growth – giving managers concrete, specific dimensions to target when redesigning a job through enrichment.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Mô hình đặc điểm công việc (**Job Characteristics Model**) của Hackman & Oldham (1976) chỉ ra chính xác 5 đặc điểm công việc cần có để tạo động lực nội tại: **đa dạng kỹ năng** (skill variety), **tính trọn vẹn nhiệm vụ** (task identity – hoàn thành một công việc trọn vẹn từ đầu đến cuối), **ý nghĩa nhiệm vụ** (task significance – tác động thực sự đến người khác), **quyền tự chủ** (autonomy), và **phản hồi** (feedback – biết ngay hiệu quả công việc của mình). Công việc có đầy đủ 5 đặc điểm này thường tạo động lực nội tại, sự hài lòng, và hiệu suất cao hơn, đặc biệt với nhân viên có nhu cầu phát triển bản thân mạnh – mô hình này cho nhà quản lý các mục tiêu cụ thể để áp dụng khi làm giàu công việc.

10.2 Satisfaction at Work

10.2.1 Defining and measuring job satisfaction

Job satisfaction refers to an employee's overall positive or negative evaluative attitude towards their job, encompassing feelings about specific aspects of the work (such as pay, colleagues, and the work itself) as well as an overall global judgement. Because job satisfaction is an internal, subjective attitude, it cannot be observed directly and must be inferred through measurement.

Measuring job satisfaction

Job satisfaction is most commonly measured using **self-report questionnaires and rating scales**, in which employees rate their agreement with statements about their job (a Likert-type scale format, e.g., “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree”). Established instruments include multi-dimensional scales that separately assess satisfaction with different job facets (such as pay, supervision, promotion opportunities, co-workers, and the work itself) as well as an overall satisfaction score. Such self-report measures are quick and easy to administer to large numbers of employees, but rely on employees answering honestly and accurately, and are vulnerable to social desirability bias (e.g., not wanting to appear negative about a current employer) and to mood at the time of completing the questionnaire.

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Sự hài lòng công việc (job satisfaction) là thái độ đánh giá tổng thể (tích cực hay tiêu cực) của nhân viên đối với công việc của họ, bao gồm cả đánh giá về từng khía cạnh cụ thể (lương, đồng nghiệp, bản thân công việc) lẫn đánh giá tổng quát. Vì đây là một thái độ nội tâm chủ quan, nó thường được đo bằng **bảng câu hỏi tự báo cáo (self-report)** theo thang đo Likert. Phương pháp này nhanh, dễ áp dụng cho số lượng lớn nhân viên, nhưng phụ thuộc vào sự trung thực của người trả lời và dễ bị ảnh hưởng bởi **thiên lệch mong muốn xã hội** (không muốn tỏ ra tiêu cực về công ty hiện tại) hoặc tâm trạng tại thời điểm trả lời.

10.2.2 Factors affecting job satisfaction

Key factors affecting job satisfaction

- **Pay:** fair and competitive pay contributes to satisfaction, though (consistent with Herzberg) pay alone tends to prevent dissatisfaction rather than actively create strong long-term satisfaction.
- **Autonomy:** employees who have control over how, when, and in what order they complete their work tend to report higher satisfaction than those under close, rigid control.
- **Relationships with colleagues and supervisors:** supportive, respectful relationships and constructive feedback from supervisors are strongly linked to satisfaction; poor supervision and conflict with colleagues are strongly linked to dissatisfaction.
- **Role clarity:** understanding exactly what is expected in one's job (clear responsibilities, goals, and performance criteria) reduces role ambiguity and associated stress, supporting higher satisfaction.
- **Opportunities for growth:** the availability of training, promotion, and skill development contributes to satisfaction, particularly for employees with a strong need for achievement.

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Các yếu tố chính ảnh hưởng đến sự hài lòng công việc: **lương** (công bằng, cạnh tranh – nhưng theo Herzberg, chủ yếu ngăn bất mãn hơn là tạo hài lòng lâu dài); **quyền tự chủ** (được kiểm soát cách thức và thời gian làm việc); **quan hệ với đồng nghiệp và cấp trên** (hỗ trợ, tôn trọng, phản hồi xây dựng); **sự rõ ràng vai trò** (hiểu rõ trách nhiệm và tiêu chí đánh giá, giảm căng thẳng do mơ hồ vai trò); và **cơ hội phát triển** (đào tạo, thăng tiến).

10.2.3 Job satisfaction and organisational outcomes

Satisfaction, absenteeism, turnover, and productivity

Research consistently finds a moderate **negative** relationship between job satisfaction and both **absenteeism** (satisfied employees are less likely to be frequently absent) and **staff turnover** (satisfied employees are less likely to leave the organisation voluntarily). The relationship between satisfaction and individual **productivity**, however, is generally weaker and more complex: satisfaction and performance can influence each other in both directions (a satisfied employee may work harder, but a high-performing employee who is recognised and rewarded may also become more satisfied as a result), and because most of the supporting evidence is **correlational**, drawing firm causal conclusions about satisfaction directly *causing* higher productivity should be done cautiously.

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Nghiên cứu cho thấy sự hài lòng công việc có mối liên hệ **tiêu cực vừa phải** với **vắng mặt** và **nghỉ việc** (nhân viên hài lòng ít vắng mặt và ít nghỉ việc hơn). Tuy nhiên, mối liên hệ giữa sự hài lòng và **năng suất** yếu và phức tạp hơn nhiều — hai yếu tố này có thể ảnh hưởng qua lại lẫn nhau (hài lòng có thể dẫn đến làm việc chăm chỉ hơn, nhưng làm việc tốt và được công nhận cũng có thể khiến nhân viên hài lòng hơn), và vì phần lớn bằng chứng chỉ mang tính **tương quan**, cần thận trọng khi kết luận rằng sự hài lòng gây ra năng suất cao hơn.

10.3 Leadership and Management

10.3.1 McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

Douglas McGregor (1960) proposed that managers' behaviour towards employees is shaped by which of two contrasting sets of underlying assumptions they hold about human nature and work.

Theory X and Theory Y

Theory X assumes that workers are inherently unmotivated, dislike work, avoid responsibility whenever possible, and must be closely supervised, controlled, and often coerced or threatened with punishment to achieve organisational goals. Managers holding Theory X assumptions tend to adopt a directive, controlling management style.

Theory Y assumes that workers find work as natural as rest or play, are capable of self-direction and self-control when committed to objectives, actively seek out responsibility, and possess creativity and problem-solving ability that is often under-used by organisations. Managers holding Theory Y assumptions tend to adopt a more participative style, delegating responsibility and trusting employees with autonomy.

	Theory X	Theory Y
Assumption about workers	Inherently dislike work, avoid responsibility, lack ambition; must be closely controlled and coerced to perform	Find work as natural as rest or play; self-motivated; seek out and accept responsibility; capable of self-direction
Typical management style	Close supervision, strict rules and monitoring, external rewards/punishments to enforce compliance	Delegation of authority, autonomy, participative decision-making, trust-based relationships
Typical effect	Compliance, but often low intrinsic motivation, creativity, and initiative; high dependence on supervision	Higher intrinsic motivation, initiative, and job satisfaction, where genuinely matched to the work and the employee

McGregor's (1960) Theory X and Theory Y: two contrasting sets of managerial assumptions about human nature at work, and their typical management style and effect.

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McGregor (1960) cho rằng phong cách quản lý phụ thuộc vào giả định của nhà quản lý về bản chất con người. **Theory X** giả định nhân viên vốn dĩ lười, né tránh trách nhiệm, cần bị giám sát chặt chẽ và cưỡng ép mới làm việc — dẫn đến phong cách quản lý kiểm soát chặt. **Theory Y** giả định nhân viên coi công việc là tự nhiên, có động lực nội tại, chủ động tìm kiếm trách nhiệm, có khả năng tự định hướng — dẫn đến phong cách quản lý trao quyền, tin tưởng, để nhân viên tự chủ.

10.3.2 Leadership styles: autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire

A classic line of research, beginning with Lewin, Lippitt, and White (1939), examined how different adult leadership styles affected the behaviour of groups of boys in after-school clubs, with leaders trained to enact each style in turn.

Three leadership styles

- **Autocratic leadership:** the leader makes decisions alone, dictates methods and tasks, and expects compliance with little or no input from group members.
- **Democratic leadership:** the leader involves group members in discussion and decision-making, encouraging participation, though the leader retains ultimate responsibility.
- **Laissez-faire leadership:** the leader provides minimal direction or guidance, leaving most decisions and organisation of work to the group members themselves.

Lewin, Lippitt & White (1939): leadership style and group behaviour

Groups of boys experienced autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire adult leadership at different times, with the leader's behaviour deliberately standardised for each style. Under **autocratic** leadership, the boys showed either high dependence on the leader with work continuing only while the leader was present, or, in some groups, increased hostility and aggression, including scapegoating of individual members; when the leader left the room, productive work dropped sharply. Under **democratic** leadership, the boys showed more consistent motivation, originality, and group cohesion, and work quality was better maintained even when the leader was not present. Under **laissez-faire** leadership, the boys produced the least organised and lowest-quality work, with frequent requests for direction, although some boys reported enjoying the lack of imposed structure.

Style	Description	Typical effect on morale / productivity
Autocratic	Leader makes decisions alone, dictates methods, expects compliance	Fast decisions and high output while supervised; often lowers morale and creativity; work can decline sharply once the leader is absent
Democratic	Leader involves the group in discussion and decisions, but keeps final responsibility	Generally higher morale, creativity, and commitment; work is better maintained without the leader present, though decisions can take longer
Laissez-faire	Leader gives minimal direction, leaving decisions to the group	Can work well with highly skilled, self-motivated groups; often produces the least structure, most requests for guidance, and lowest productivity in groups needing direction

Three leadership styles and their typical effects on group morale and productivity, based on Lewin, Lippitt & White's (1939) classic findings.

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Lewin, Lippitt & White (1939) so sánh 3 phong cách lãnh đạo trên các nhóm trẻ em nam. **Độc đoán (autocratic)**: lãnh đạo tự ra quyết định, đòi hỏi tuân thủ — năng suất cao khi có giám sát nhưng dễ gây thù địch hoặc phụ thuộc, sụt giảm mạnh khi vắng lãnh đạo. **Dân chủ (democratic)**: lãnh đạo cho nhóm tham gia quyết định — tinh thần và sự sáng tạo cao hơn, công việc vẫn duy trì tốt kể cả khi không có lãnh đạo. **Tự do (laissez-faire)**: lãnh đạo hầu như không định hướng — năng suất thấp nhất, nhóm thường xuyên yêu cầu chỉ dẫn, dù một số thành viên thích sự tự do này.

(!) **Lỗi thường gặp**: Đừng nhầm **độc đoán (autocratic)** với đơn giản là "nghiêm khắc". Autocratic được định nghĩa bởi việc *ai ra quyết định* (chỉ một mình lãnh đạo, không hỏi ý kiến nhóm), không phải bởi mức độ nghiêm khắc hay tốc độ. Một lãnh đạo dân chủ vẫn có thể đặt ra kỳ vọng cao và thời hạn nghiêm ngặt — điều đó không tự động biến họ thành độc đoán.

10.3.3 Trait and situational (contingency) approaches to leadership

Trait vs. situational approaches

The **trait approach** assumes that certain stable personal characteristics (e.g., intelligence, self-confidence, sociability, integrity, determination) make some individuals inherently more likely to become effective leaders, regardless of the situation. Research testing this approach has found only modest and inconsistent support: while some traits are weakly associated with leadership emergence and effectiveness, no single trait or fixed set of traits reliably predicts effective leadership across all situations, which has led many researchers to look instead at situational factors.

The **situational (contingency) approach** argues that leadership effectiveness depends on the *fit* between the leader's style and the demands of the specific situation, rather than on fixed personal traits alone. **Fiedler's contingency model** proposes that leadership effectiveness is jointly determined by three situational variables: **leader-member relations** (how much the leader is trusted and respected by the group), **task structure** (how clearly defined and structured the task is), and **position power** (how much formal authority the leader holds, e.g., over rewards and punishments). Together these determine how favourable the overall situation is for the leader. Fiedler proposed that **task-oriented** leaders (focused primarily on getting the job done) tend to perform best in situations that are either very favourable or very unfavourable, while **relationship-oriented** leaders (focused primarily on maintaining good relationships within the group) tend to perform best in situations of moderate favourableness. The key implication is that the same leader may be highly effective in one situation and ineffective in another, so organisations should try to match leaders to suitable situations (or adjust the situation to fit the leader) rather than assuming one style of leadership works everywhere.

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Tiếp cận đặc điểm (trait approach) cho rằng một số đặc điểm cá nhân ổn định (thông minh, tự tin, hoà đồng, chính trực) khiến một số người trở thành lãnh đạo hiệu quả hơn ở mọi tình huống — nhưng nghiên cứu chỉ tìm thấy bằng chứng yếu và không nhất quán. **Tiếp cận tình huống/ngẫu nhiên (situational/contingency approach)** cho rằng hiệu quả lãnh đạo phụ thuộc vào sự *phù hợp* giữa phong cách lãnh đạo và tình huống cụ thể. **Mô hình ngẫu nhiên của Fiedler** xác định 3 yếu tố tình huống: **quan hệ lãnh đạo-thành viên**, **cấu trúc nhiệm vụ**, và **quyền lực vị trí** — cùng nhau quyết định mức độ "thuận lợi" của tình huống. Lãnh đạo **định hướng nhiệm vụ** hoạt động tốt nhất ở tình huống rất thuận lợi hoặc rất bất lợi; lãnh đạo **định hướng quan**

hệ hoạt động tốt nhất ở tình huống thuận lợi vừa phải. Hàm ý: cùng một lãnh đạo có thể hiệu quả ở tình huống này nhưng không hiệu quả ở tình huống khác.

10.3.4 Transactional and transformational leadership

Transactional vs. transformational leadership

Transactional leadership is based on an exchange (transaction) between leader and follower: the leader clarifies expectations and offers rewards contingent on meeting them (or corrective action when performance falls short), essentially managing through a system of clear reward and exchange rather than inspiring change.

Transformational leadership goes beyond simple exchange, aiming instead to inspire and motivate followers towards a shared vision that transcends their immediate self-interest. Transformational leaders are typically characterised by: communicating an inspiring vision of the future; showing **individualised consideration** (attending to each follower's individual needs and development); and providing **intellectual stimulation** (encouraging followers to question assumptions and think creatively about problems). Transformational leadership is generally associated with higher follower commitment, satisfaction, and performance than a purely transactional style, particularly in contexts requiring innovation or organisational change, although effective leaders often combine both transactional and transformational elements rather than relying exclusively on one.

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Lãnh đạo trao đổi (transactional) dựa trên một sự *trao đổi* rõ ràng: lãnh đạo đặt kỳ vọng và thưởng khi đạt được (hoặc sửa sai khi không đạt) – quản lý bằng hệ thống thưởng/phạt hơn là truyền cảm hứng. **Lãnh đạo chuyển đổi (transformational)** vượt xa sự trao đổi đơn thuần: truyền đạt một **tầm nhìn truyền cảm hứng**, thể hiện **sự quan tâm cá nhân hoá** (chú ý đến nhu cầu phát triển riêng của từng thành viên), và **kích thích trí tuệ** (khuyến khích thành viên đặt câu hỏi và tư duy sáng tạo). Lãnh đạo chuyển đổi thường gắn với cam kết, hài lòng, và hiệu suất cao hơn so với lãnh đạo trao đổi thuần túy, đặc biệt trong bối cảnh cần đổi mới hoặc thay đổi tổ chức.

10.4 Group Behaviour in Organisations

10.4.1 Groupthink

Irving Janis (1972) coined the term **groupthink** to describe a mode of thinking that can occur in highly cohesive groups, in which the desire for consensus and harmony overrides a realistic, critical appraisal of alternative courses of action, sometimes leading the group to a poor-quality decision.

Groupthink: conditions, symptoms, and antidotes

Groupthink is particularly likely when a group is highly **cohesive**, is under strong **pressure to reach a decision**, is relatively **insulated** from outside opinions and information, and has a **directive leader** who signals a preferred outcome. Under these conditions, the group may show characteristic symptoms: an illusion of invulnerability; collective rationalisation that dismisses warnings; an unquestioned belief in the group's own morality; stereotyped, dismissive views of rival or outside groups; direct pressure on members who voice doubts; self-censorship of personal reservations; a shared illusion of unanimity (silence mistaken for agreement); and self-appointed "mindguards" who shield the group from dissenting information. The result is that alternative options and risks are not adequately examined before a decision is reached.

Proposed **antidotes** to groupthink include: the leader remaining impartial and withholding their own preference until late in the discussion; assigning at least one member the explicit role of **devil's advocate**, whose job is to challenge the group's reasoning; actively seeking **outside opinions** and expert input; splitting into independent subgroups to reach decisions separately before comparing them; and holding a "second-chance" meeting to reconsider a decision before it is finalised.

Warning signs of groupthink	Antidotes
Illusion of invulnerability; unquestioned belief in the group's own morality	Leader remains impartial and withholds their own opinion until late in the discussion
Collective rationalisation that dismisses warnings or contrary information	Assign a member the explicit role of devil's advocate to challenge the group's reasoning
Stereotyped, dismissive views of outside groups or rivals	Actively seek outside opinions and expert input before finalising a decision
Direct pressure on dissenters; self-censorship of personal doubts	Encourage open expression of doubts; split into independent subgroups to decide separately
Shared illusion of unanimity; self-appointed "mindguards" who screen out dissenting information	Hold a "second-chance" meeting to reconsider the decision before finalising it

Groupthink (Janis, 1972): warning signs and the antidotes proposed to counter them.

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Tư duy nhóm (groupthink), thuật ngữ của Janis (1972), mô tả xu hướng các nhóm **gắn kết cao**, chịu **áp lực đồng thuận**, **cô lập khỏi ý kiến bên ngoài**, và có **lãnh đạo áp đặt**, có thể đàn áp ý kiến bất đồng và không đánh giá phản biện các phương án thay thế, dẫn đến quyết định kém chất lượng. Các dấu hiệu cảnh báo gồm: ảo tưởng bất khả xâm phạm, hợp lý hoá tập thể, coi nhóm ngoài là yếu kém, áp lực lên người bất đồng, tự kiểm duyệt, ảo tưởng đồng thuận, và "người gác cổng tâm trí" (mindguards) ngăn thông tin trái chiều. Các biện pháp khắc phục: khuyến khích bất đồng, chỉ định một người đóng vai "luật sư của quỷ" (devil's advocate) để phản biện, và chủ động tìm ý kiến bên ngoài.

10.4.2 Group polarisation

Group polarisation

Group polarisation refers to the tendency for group discussion to strengthen the group's initial leaning, rather than to produce a compromise or moderate position. If individual members lean, on average, slightly towards a risky decision before discussion, group discussion tends to shift the group towards an even riskier final decision (a "risky shift"); conversely, if members lean slightly towards caution, discussion tends to shift the group towards an even more cautious final decision. Two general explanations are commonly proposed: members are exposed to a greater number of persuasive arguments supporting the group's initial leaning than they had considered individually, and members compare their own view with others and shift towards what they perceive as the socially favoured or more extreme position.

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Phân cực nhóm (group polarisation): thảo luận nhóm có xu hướng **củng cố khuynh hướng ban đầu** của nhóm thay vì tạo ra sự **thoả hiệp** — nếu nhóm ban đầu hơi **ngiên về rủi ro**, thảo luận sẽ đẩy quyết định cuối cùng **rủi ro hơn nữa**; nếu **ngiên về thận trọng**, thảo luận sẽ đẩy về **thận trọng hơn nữa**. Hai cách giải thích: thành viên được tiếp xúc với nhiều lập luận thuyết phục ủng hộ khuynh hướng ban đầu hơn họ từng nghĩ đến một mình, và họ so sánh quan điểm

bản thân với người khác rồi dịch chuyển về phía được cho là "được ưa chuộng" hơn trong nhóm.

(!) Lỗi thường gặp: Đừng nhầm **groupthink** với **group polarisation**. Groupthink là về việc nhóm đàn áp bất đồng và không đánh giá phản biện các phương án (chất lượng ra quyết định bị ảnh hưởng); group polarisation là về việc thảo luận khiến quan điểm ban đầu trở nên cực đoan hơn (không nhất thiết liên quan đến việc đàn áp bất đồng). Hai hiện tượng có thể xảy ra cùng lúc nhưng là hai cơ chế khác nhau.

10.4.3 Teamwork, team roles, and social loafing

Social loafing

Social loafing refers to the tendency for individuals to exert *less* effort when working as part of a group than when working alone, particularly when individual contributions cannot be identified or evaluated separately. Classic research using tasks such as rope-pulling, clapping, and shouting found that measured individual effort declined as group size increased, an effect sometimes attributed to **diffusion of responsibility** (each member feels less personally accountable for the outcome) and reduced fear of evaluation when one's own contribution is hidden within the group total.

Social loafing can be reduced by: making **individual contributions identifiable** (e.g., tracking who completed which part of a task); keeping **team size small**, since the effect tends to become stronger as groups grow larger; assigning **clear individual roles and responsibilities** within the team, so that each member's task is distinct and their contribution can be evaluated; and making the task itself meaningful or personally important to each member, which increases intrinsic motivation to contribute regardless of identifiability.

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Lười biếng xã hội (social loafing): cá nhân bỏ ra **ít nỗ lực hơn** khi làm việc nhóm so với khi làm một mình, đặc biệt khi đóng góp cá nhân *không thể được xác định riêng*. Nghiên cứu kinh điển (kéo dây, vỗ tay, hét lớn) cho thấy nỗ lực cá nhân đo được giảm dần khi nhóm càng lớn — có thể do **khuyến tán trách nhiệm** (mỗi người cảm thấy ít chịu trách nhiệm hơn) và giảm nỗi sợ bị đánh giá khi đóng góp bị "ẩn" trong tổng thể nhóm. Cách khắc phục: làm cho đóng góp cá nhân **có thể nhận diện được**, giữ **quy mô nhóm nhỏ**, phân công **vai trò rõ ràng** cho từng thành viên, và làm cho nhiệm vụ có ý nghĩa với mỗi cá nhân.

10.5 Organisational Structures and Culture

10.5.1 Organisational structure

Organisational structure

- **Tall (hierarchical) structures** have many layers of management and a narrow span of control (each manager oversees relatively few subordinates). Communication between the top and bottom of the organisation typically passes through many layers, which can slow decision-making and distort information as it travels, but can also allow closer supervision at each level.
- **Flat structures** have fewer layers of management and a wider span of control (each manager oversees more subordinates). Communication between top and bottom is typically faster

and more direct, and employees often experience greater autonomy, though managers may have less time to closely supervise or support each individual.

- **Centralised decision-making** concentrates authority for most important decisions at the top of the organisation, giving greater consistency and control but potentially slower responses to local problems and less employee autonomy.
- **Decentralised decision-making** distributes decision-making authority to lower levels of the organisation, typically increasing the speed of local decisions and employee autonomy, but potentially reducing consistency across the organisation.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Cấu trúc cao/phân cấp (tall) có nhiều tầng quản lý, mỗi quản lý giám sát ít nhân viên hơn — thông tin phải đi qua nhiều tầng nên giao tiếp chậm hơn và dễ bị sai lệch, nhưng giám sát chặt chẽ hơn. **Cấu trúc phẳng (flat)** có ít tầng quản lý hơn, mỗi quản lý giám sát nhiều nhân viên hơn — giao tiếp nhanh và trực tiếp hơn, nhân viên có quyền tự chủ cao hơn. **Ra quyết định tập trung (centralised)** dồn quyền quyết định về cấp cao — nhất quán hơn nhưng phản ứng chậm với vấn đề địa phương. **Ra quyết định phân quyền (decentralised)** trao quyền quyết định xuống cấp thấp hơn — nhanh hơn, tự chủ hơn, nhưng có thể kém nhất quán.

10.5.2 Organisational culture

Organisational culture

Organisational culture refers to the shared values, norms, beliefs, and underlying assumptions that characterise an organisation and shape how its members think, feel, and behave — essentially, “the way things are done” within a particular organisation. Culture is transmitted to new employees through socialisation, visible symbols and rituals, stories about the organisation’s history, and the everyday behaviour that is (implicitly or explicitly) rewarded or discouraged. A strong, well-matched organisational culture can increase employee commitment, cooperation, and satisfaction, and can help coordinate behaviour without the need for constant explicit rules; conversely, a mismatched or unhealthy culture (e.g., one that discourages raising concerns) can contribute to problems such as low morale or, in extreme cases, poor group decision-making of the kind described by groupthink.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Văn hoá tổ chức (organisational culture) là các giá trị, chuẩn mực, niềm tin, và giả định chung đặc trưng cho một tổ chức, định hình cách các thành viên suy nghĩ, cảm nhận, và hành xử — nói ngắn gọn là “cách mọi việc được thực hiện” trong tổ chức đó. Văn hoá được truyền tải qua quá trình hoà nhập, biểu tượng, câu chuyện lịch sử tổ chức, và hành vi hàng ngày được khen thưởng hay không khuyến khích. Văn hoá phù hợp và lành mạnh có thể tăng cam kết, hợp tác, và sự hài lòng của nhân viên; văn hoá không phù hợp (ví dụ không khuyến khích nêu lên lo ngại) có thể góp phần gây ra tinh thần làm việc thấp hoặc thậm chí tư duy nhóm.

10.6 The Physical Work Environment: Ergonomics

10.6.1 Principles of ergonomics

Ergonomics

Ergonomics is the study of designing the physical work environment — equipment, workstations, tools, and layout — to fit human physical and cognitive capabilities, rather than requiring humans to adapt to poorly designed equipment. The central aim of ergonomic design is to reduce error, fatigue, discomfort, and risk of injury while supporting efficient, comfortable performance. Ergonomic considerations include the physical dimensions and adjustability of workstations and seating (to accommodate a range of body sizes), the placement and design of controls and displays (to minimise unnecessary reaching, awkward posture, or misreading), and the ambient physical conditions of the workplace such as noise, lighting, and temperature.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Công thái học (ergonomics) là khoa học thiết kế môi trường làm việc vật lý — thiết bị, bàn làm việc, công cụ, bố trí không gian — sao cho **phù hợp với khả năng thể chất và nhận thức của con người**, thay vì bắt con người thích nghi với thiết bị thiết kế kém. Mục tiêu chính là giảm sai sót, mệt mỏi, khó chịu, và nguy cơ chấn thương, đồng thời hỗ trợ hiệu suất làm việc thoải mái và hiệu quả.

10.6.2 Effects of noise, lighting, and temperature

Noise, lighting, and temperature

- **Noise:** excessive or unpredictable noise can impair concentration, interfere with verbal communication, increase psychological stress, and reduce performance on tasks requiring sustained attention or complex mental processing, even when the noise level itself is not loud enough to cause hearing damage.
- **Lighting:** inadequate or poorly directed lighting increases eye strain and fatigue and raises error rates on detail-oriented or visually demanding tasks (e.g., inspection or assembly work); glare and excessive contrast can be equally disruptive as insufficient light.
- **Temperature:** both uncomfortably high and uncomfortably low workplace temperatures are associated with reduced performance and increased discomfort, as physical and mental resources are diverted towards thermal discomfort (or, in extreme cases, physiological strain) rather than towards the task at hand; most guidance recommends maintaining a comfortable, stable temperature range appropriate to the type of work being performed.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Tiếng ồn quá mức hoặc khó đoán có thể làm giảm sự tập trung, cản trở giao tiếp, tăng căng thẳng tâm lý, và giảm hiệu suất ở các nhiệm vụ đòi hỏi chú ý bền vững, ngay cả khi tiếng ồn chưa đủ lớn để gây hại thính giác. **Ánh sáng** kém hoặc bố trí không hợp lý làm tăng mỏi mắt và tỉ lệ sai sót ở công việc đòi hỏi độ chi tiết cao (kiểm tra, lắp ráp); chói lóa cũng gây hại tương tự như thiếu sáng. **Nhiệt độ** quá nóng hoặc quá lạnh đều liên quan đến giảm hiệu suất và tăng khó chịu, vì nguồn lực thể chất và tinh thần bị chuyển hướng sang việc đối phó với sự khó chịu nhiệt thay vì tập trung vào công việc.

10.7 Evaluating Organisational Psychology

Evaluation issues in organisational psychology

- **Person–situation interaction:** work behaviour is shaped by both stable individual differences (personality, needs, ability) and by features of the organisational situation (structure, culture, leadership, physical environment). Theories that focus only on the person (e.g., pure trait approaches to leadership) or only on the situation risk oversimplifying a genuinely interactionist reality.
- **Real-world and economic application:** a major strength of organisational psychology is its direct, practical application – insights from motivation, leadership, and job design theories are widely used by real organisations to improve productivity, employee wellbeing, and staff retention, giving the field clear applied value beyond purely academic interest.
- **Methodological issues:** much organisational research is **correlational** and conducted in real workplace (field) settings rather than tightly controlled laboratory experiments, which limits the ability to draw firm causal conclusions (e.g., about satisfaction and productivity) and can introduce confounding variables that are difficult to control outside the laboratory. In addition, key concepts such as satisfaction and motivation are commonly measured using **self-report** questionnaires, which are subjective and open to social desirability bias and inconsistent interpretation of scale items across individuals.
- **Cross-cultural considerations:** many influential theories (e.g., Maslow's hierarchy of needs) were developed within a Western, individualist cultural context and assume a particular ordering or emphasis of needs (e.g., prioritising individual self-actualisation) that may not generalise straightforwardly to more collectivist cultures, where social and belongingness needs, or group-oriented goals, may be prioritised differently. Applying organisational theories across different cultural and organisational contexts therefore requires caution rather than assuming universal validity.

GIẢI THÍCH TIẾNG VIỆT

VN

Các vấn đề đánh giá quan trọng của tâm lý học tổ chức: **tương tác cá nhân–tình huống** (hành vi làm việc chịu ảnh hưởng của cả đặc điểm cá nhân lẫn tình huống tổ chức, không nên chỉ tập trung vào một phía); **ứng dụng thực tiễn** (điểm mạnh lớn – lý thuyết được áp dụng rộng rãi để cải thiện năng suất, phúc lợi, và giữ chân nhân viên); **vấn đề phương pháp luận** (phần lớn nghiên cứu mang tính **tương quan**, thực hiện ngoài thực địa nên khó kiểm soát biến gây nhiễu, và các khái niệm như hài lòng/động lực thường được đo bằng **tự báo cáo** chủ quan); và **yếu tố văn hoá** (nhiều lý thuyết, ví dụ tháp Maslow, được phát triển trong bối cảnh phương Tây theo chủ nghĩa cá nhân, có thể không áp dụng trực tiếp cho các nền văn hoá tập thể, nơi nhu cầu xã hội/thuộc về có thể được ưu tiên khác đi).

10.8 Bài tập luyện tập

Bài tập luyện tập

According to Maslow's hierarchy of needs, a company introducing a mentorship scheme that gives employees public recognition for outstanding performance is primarily targeting which level of need?

- | | |
|-------------------------|------------------------|
| (A) Physiological needs | (C) Esteem needs |
| (B) Safety needs | (D) Self-actualisation |

Lời giải chi tiết

Public recognition for outstanding performance addresses the need to be respected and valued by others – this is an **esteem** need. (C).

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain, with reference to Maslow's hierarchy, why an employee who is worried about losing their job is unlikely to be strongly motivated by an offer of a creative, autonomous new project.

Lời giải chi tiết

Maslow proposed that needs are satisfied in a generally ascending order, and that a lower need must be at least partially satisfied before a higher need becomes strongly motivating. Worrying about job loss reflects an unmet **safety need**. A creative, autonomous project appeals to **self-actualisation**, one of the highest needs in the hierarchy. Because the employee's safety need is currently unmet, it is likely to dominate their attention and motivation, making the self-actualisation opportunity far less motivating until the underlying safety concern is addressed.

Bài tập luyện tập

Classify each of the following as a Herzberg hygiene factor or a Herzberg motivator factor: (a) company policy on annual leave; (b) being given more responsibility for a project; (c) the physical safety of the working environment; (d) receiving recognition for a completed piece of work.

Lời giải chi tiết

(a) Hygiene factor (company policy). (b) Motivator factor (responsibility). (c) Hygiene factor (working conditions). (d) Motivator factor (recognition).

Bài tập luyện tập

Using Herzberg's two-factor theory, explain why raising all employees' salaries by a fixed amount may not, by itself, increase employee motivation.

Lời giải chi tiết

According to Herzberg, pay is a **hygiene factor**: its absence (e.g., unfairly low pay) can cause dissatisfaction, but its presence, even at a generous level, does not by itself actively increase motivation – it simply prevents or reduces dissatisfaction. Motivation, by contrast, is driven by separate **motivator factors** such as a sense of achievement, recognition, responsibility, and the intrinsic interest of the work itself. Because a straightforward salary rise does not change the content of the job (the level of responsibility, recognition, or challenge involved), it is unlikely to produce a lasting increase in motivation, even though it may temporarily reduce complaints about pay. To genuinely increase motivation, Herzberg's theory implies management would need to separately address motivator factors, for example through job enrichment.

Bài tập luyện tập

A manager who takes on a demanding new project purely for the personal challenge of achieving a difficult goal, and who insists on individual credit and clear performance feedback, is

displaying a strong:

- | | |
|---------------------------------------|---------------------------------|
| (A) Need for affiliation (McClelland) | (C) Need for power (McClelland) |
| (B) Need for achievement (McClelland) | (D) Safety need (Maslow) |

Lời giải chi tiết

A strong preference for challenging, achievable goals, personal responsibility for outcomes, and clear feedback is the classic profile of a high **need for achievement (nAch)** in McClelland's theory. (B).

Bài tập luyện tập

Distinguish between job enlargement and job enrichment, giving one workplace example of each.

Lời giải chi tiết

Job enlargement increases the number and variety of tasks at the *same* level of responsibility ("horizontal" loading) – for example, a cashier who is now also asked to restock several different sections of shelving, in addition to operating the till. **Job enrichment** increases the *depth* of a job by adding greater autonomy and responsibility ("vertical" loading) – for example, giving that same cashier authority to resolve customer complaints independently and to manage their own till reconciliation without supervisor sign-off. Enrichment more directly targets Herzberg's motivator factors and is generally considered more effective for increasing intrinsic motivation.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain one limitation of using only self-report questionnaires to measure job satisfaction.

Lời giải chi tiết

Self-report questionnaires rely on employees answering honestly and accurately, but responses can be distorted by **social desirability bias** (employees may be reluctant to report genuine dissatisfaction with a current employer, especially if anonymity is not fully guaranteed) and by the employee's mood or recent experiences at the time of completing the questionnaire, which may not reflect their more stable, typical attitude towards the job. This subjectivity makes self-report measures less objective than direct behavioural measures such as absenteeism or turnover records.

Bài tập luyện tập

A company observes that employees with higher job satisfaction scores also tend to have higher sales figures. A manager concludes that "increasing job satisfaction directly causes higher sales." Evaluate this conclusion.

Lời giải chi tiết

This conclusion overstates what the evidence shows. The relationship described is **correlational**, and correlational data cannot establish the direction of causality or rule out other explanations. It is equally plausible that higher sales performance *causes* greater job satis-

faction (successful, recognised employees may simply feel more satisfied as a result of their success) rather than satisfaction causing sales, or that a third variable (e.g., a supportive manager, or a particularly desirable sales territory) independently increases both satisfaction and sales figures. A more accurate conclusion would state that job satisfaction and productivity are associated, without asserting a specific causal direction.

Bài tập luyện tập

A manager closely supervises every task performed by their team, sets strict rules for how work must be done, and openly states that employees cannot be trusted to work independently without close control. This manager's assumptions most closely reflect:

- | | |
|-------------------------|----------------------------------|
| (A) McGregor's Theory Y | (C) Transformational leadership |
| (B) McGregor's Theory X | (D) Herzberg's motivator factors |

Lời giải chi tiết

Assuming employees cannot be trusted and require close control and supervision is the defining assumption of McGregor's **Theory X**. (B).

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain, using McGregor's theory, why a manager who holds Theory Y assumptions might choose to give employees significant autonomy over how they organise their own workload.

Lời giải chi tiết

Theory Y assumes that employees find work as natural as rest or play, are capable of self-direction and self-control once committed to objectives, and actively seek out responsibility rather than avoiding it. A manager holding these assumptions would therefore expect that granting employees autonomy over their workload will not lead to reduced effort, but instead will allow employees to apply their own initiative, creativity, and self-motivation – consistent with the belief that close, controlling supervision is largely unnecessary and may even suppress the intrinsic motivation and problem-solving ability Theory Y assumes employees already possess.

Bài tập luyện tập

A team leader gathers input from every team member before making a final decision, encourages open discussion, but ultimately takes personal responsibility for the decision made. This best describes which leadership style?

- | | |
|-------------------|-------------------|
| (A) Autocratic | (C) Democratic |
| (B) Laissez-faire | (D) Transactional |

Lời giải chi tiết

Involving the group in discussion while the leader retains final responsibility for the decision is the defining feature of **democratic** leadership. (C).

Bài tập luyện tập

Summarise Lewin, Lippitt and White's (1939) findings on how autocratic and democratic leadership affected boys' behaviour, and explain what happened to productivity under each style when the leader left the room.

Lời giải chi tiết

Under **autocratic** leadership, boys showed high dependence on the leader (or, in some groups, increased hostility and scapegoating), and productive work **dropped sharply** once the leader left the room, since the group's activity had relied on direct external control rather than internalised motivation. Under **democratic** leadership, boys showed more consistent motivation, originality, and cohesion, and work quality was **better maintained** even in the leader's absence, because the group had internalised commitment to shared goals rather than depending purely on supervision.

Bài tập luyện tập

Outline one strength and one limitation of the trait approach to leadership.

Lời giải chi tiết

Strength: the trait approach highlights that certain characteristics (e.g., confidence, determination, integrity) genuinely do show at least a modest, consistent association with leadership emergence and effectiveness across some studies, providing a starting point for leadership selection and development. **Limitation:** research testing the trait approach has found only modest and inconsistent support overall — no single trait or fixed set of traits reliably predicts effective leadership across all situations, since the same trait profile can be highly effective in one context (e.g., a fast-moving start-up) and ineffective in another (e.g., a highly regulated, procedural environment), which the situational/contingency approach addresses more directly.

Bài tập luyện tập

Using Fiedler's contingency model, explain why a task-oriented leader might perform particularly well in a situation with poor leader-member relations, an unstructured task, and weak position power (a very unfavourable situation).

Lời giải chi tiết

Fiedler proposed that task-oriented leaders tend to perform best at the two extremes of situational favourableness: very favourable or very unfavourable situations. In a highly unfavourable situation (poor relations, an unstructured task, weak position power), a leader who focuses firmly on structuring the task, clarifying roles, and directing action can provide the clear direction a chaotic, low-trust situation badly needs, cutting through ambiguity that a relationship-focused approach might struggle to resolve quickly. A relationship-oriented leader, by contrast, might spend valuable time trying to build rapport and trust that the situation does not readily allow, leaving the underlying task poorly structured and unresolved.

Bài tập luyện tập

A CEO who sets out an inspiring long-term vision for the company, takes time to understand each senior manager's individual career goals, and regularly challenges the leadership team to question long-held assumptions about the business is displaying:

- (A) Transactional leadership (C) Transformational leadership
(B) Autocratic leadership (D) Laissez-faire leadership

Lời giải chi tiết

An inspiring vision, individualised consideration (understanding each manager's personal goals), and intellectual stimulation (challenging assumptions) are the defining features of **transformational** leadership. (C).

Bài tập luyện tập

Distinguish between transactional and transformational leadership, and explain why an organisation undergoing major change might particularly benefit from transformational leadership.

Lời giải chi tiết

Transactional leadership is based on a clear exchange: the leader sets expectations and provides rewards contingent on meeting them (or correction when performance falls short), essentially managing through reward and exchange rather than inspiring change. **Transformational leadership** instead aims to inspire followers towards a shared vision, using individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation to engage followers beyond simple self-interest. An organisation undergoing major change benefits particularly from transformational leadership because change often requires employees to question existing assumptions, tolerate uncertainty, and commit to a new shared vision — exactly what intellectual stimulation and inspirational vision are designed to achieve, whereas a purely transactional approach (rewarding compliance with existing procedures) may reinforce resistance to the very changes being introduced.

Bài tập luyện tập

A senior management team is highly cohesive, has recently become isolated from outside advisors, and is under pressure from a forceful chairperson to approve a risky merger quickly. Team members privately have doubts but do not raise them, assuming that everyone else must support the decision since no one has objected. (a) Name the phenomenon this scenario illustrates. (b) Identify two warning signs present in the scenario. (c) Suggest one specific antidote that could be applied here.

Lời giải chi tiết

(a) This illustrates **groupthink** (Janis, 1972). (b) Two warning signs present: (i) an **illusion of unanimity** — members assume agreement exists simply because no one has objected, when in fact they privately have doubts; (ii) **self-censorship** — members withhold their own reservations rather than voicing them, reinforced by the conditions of high cohesion, insulation from outside advisors, and a directive, forceful leader. (c) One antidote: assign a team member the explicit role of **devil's advocate**, tasked with raising objections and challenging the merger proposal before a final decision is made, or actively seek independent outside opinions (e.g.,

external financial advisors) before proceeding.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain why highly cohesive groups are more, rather than less, vulnerable to groupthink.

Lời giải chi tiết

High cohesion means group members value their membership and the group's harmony highly, which can make them reluctant to voice disagreement or criticism for fear of disrupting relationships or being seen as disloyal to the group. This desire to preserve consensus and good feeling within the group can come to override a realistic, critical evaluation of the decision at hand – precisely the process Janis described as groupthink. Paradoxically, therefore, the very quality (cohesion) that usually helps groups work well together can, under certain conditions (insulation, directive leadership, pressure to decide), increase the risk of poor collective decision-making.

Bài tập luyện tập

A jury of individuals who each lean slightly towards acquittal before deliberation emerges from deliberation strongly and unanimously in favour of acquittal. Which phenomenon does this best illustrate, and briefly explain the underlying mechanism?

- (A) Groupthink, caused by a directive foreperson (C) Group polarisation, as discussion strengthens the group's initial leaning
(B) Social loafing, because responsibility for the verdict is shared (D) Diffusion of responsibility, reducing individual accountability

Lời giải chi tiết

This is **group polarisation**: because the group's average initial leaning was slightly towards acquittal, discussion strengthened (rather than moderated) that leaning, producing a more extreme final position than most individuals held beforehand. This is generally explained by exposure to a wider range of persuasive arguments favouring the majority leaning than jurors had considered alone, and by social comparison processes in which members shift towards the position perceived as more socially favoured within the group. (C).

Bài tập luyện tập

A team of eight employees is asked to brainstorm ideas together as one large group, with no individual accountability for the number or quality of ideas produced. Several members are later found to have contributed very little. (a) Name the phenomenon most likely responsible. (b) Suggest two specific changes to the task that could reduce it.

Lời giải chi tiết

- (a) This is likely an example of **social loafing**: individual effort tends to decline in group settings, especially when individual contributions cannot be separately identified or evaluated.
(b) Two possible changes: (i) make individual contributions **identifiable**, for example by having each member submit their own ideas under their name before the group session, so effort can be evaluated at the individual level; (ii) reduce the group to **smaller sub-teams** with clearly

assigned individual roles, since social loafing tends to become more pronounced as group size increases and less pronounced when each member has a distinct, visible responsibility.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain why social loafing is generally considered a more serious problem in larger groups than in smaller ones.

Lời giải chi tiết

As group size increases, each individual's specific contribution becomes progressively harder for others to observe, identify, or evaluate separately from the group's combined output, increasing anonymity and reducing each member's sense of personal accountability (diffusion of responsibility). In very small groups or pairs, by contrast, an individual's effort (or lack of it) is far more visible to the other member(s), maintaining a stronger sense of accountability and making loafing more noticeable and therefore less likely to persist unchecked.

Bài tập luyện tập

A large multinational company has ten layers of management between the CEO and frontline staff, with every significant decision requiring head-office approval. Identify the type of organisational structure and decision-making described, and outline one likely effect on employee autonomy and communication speed.

Lời giải chi tiết

This describes a **tall (hierarchical)** structure combined with **centralised** decision-making. A likely effect is that employee **autonomy is low**, since even significant local decisions must be approved by head office rather than being made by employees or local managers directly, and **communication is slower**, since information and decisions must pass through many layers of management in both directions, increasing delay and the risk that messages are distorted or diluted as they travel up and down the hierarchy.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain one advantage and one disadvantage of decentralising decision-making authority to regional branch managers in a large retail chain.

Lời giải chi tiết

Advantage: decentralisation allows regional managers, who have direct knowledge of local conditions (customer preferences, local competition, staffing issues), to make faster, more locally appropriate decisions without waiting for approval from head office, generally increasing both responsiveness and managers' sense of autonomy. **Disadvantage:** decentralisation can reduce consistency across the organisation, since different regional managers may make different decisions in similar circumstances (e.g., inconsistent pricing, promotions, or staffing policies across branches), which can weaken a unified brand identity or create perceptions of unfairness between regions.

Bài tập luyện tập

Define organisational culture, and explain one way in which a strong organisational culture might influence new employees' behaviour.

Lời giải chi tiết

Organisational culture refers to the shared values, norms, beliefs, and underlying assumptions that characterise an organisation and shape how its members think, feel, and behave. A strong organisational culture can influence new employees through **socialisation**: new employees observe which behaviours are consistently rewarded, praised, or tolerated by established colleagues and management (e.g., staying late, prioritising customer service, avoiding open criticism of management), and gradually adjust their own behaviour to match these implicit expectations, even without being given explicit written rules — effectively learning “how things are done” in that particular organisation.

Bài tập luyện tập

A factory redesigns its assembly-line workstations so that controls are within easy reach, seating is adjustable to different worker heights, and lighting directly illuminates each inspection point. This redesign is best described as an application of:

- | | |
|--------------------|---------------------------------|
| (A) Job enrichment | (C) Groupthink prevention |
| (B) Ergonomics | (D) Transformational leadership |

Lời giải chi tiết

Designing the physical equipment and workstation to fit human physical capabilities (reach, height, visual requirements) is the definition of **ergonomics**. (B).

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain why excessive background noise in an open-plan office might reduce performance on a task requiring sustained, complex concentration, even if the noise is not loud enough to damage hearing.

Lời giải chi tiết

Excessive or unpredictable noise can interfere with concentration and working memory by competing for limited attentional resources, making it harder to sustain focus on a complex task, and can also increase psychological stress, both of which can reduce performance — entirely independent of whether the noise level is loud enough to cause any physical damage to hearing. Sustained, complex cognitive tasks are particularly vulnerable because they require continuous, focused attention that intermittent or unpredictable noise repeatedly disrupts.

Bài tập luyện tập

A quality-control inspector working under dim, poorly directed lighting begins making more errors identifying small defects on a production line. Explain this outcome with reference to ergonomic principles, and suggest one practical solution.

Lời giải chi tiết

Poor or poorly directed lighting increases eye strain and fatigue and specifically raises error rates on detail-oriented, visually demanding tasks such as defect inspection, since the visual system must work harder to detect fine differences under inadequate illumination. A practical ergonomic solution would be to install brighter, well-directed task lighting specifically at the inspection point (rather than relying only on general room lighting), positioned to avoid glare or excessive contrast, so that fine visual detail can be more easily and accurately detected.

Bài tập luyện tập

Discuss two methodological issues that limit confidence in research findings within organisational psychology.

Lời giải chi tiết

Issue 1 – reliance on correlational, field-based research: much organisational research studies real workplaces rather than tightly controlled laboratory settings, since ethical and practical constraints often prevent random assignment of employees to different management styles or conditions. This means many important relationships (e.g., between satisfaction and productivity) are correlational, limiting the ability to draw firm causal conclusions, since confounding variables (e.g., management quality, workload) are difficult to fully control outside the laboratory. **Issue 2 – reliance on subjective self-report measures:** core concepts such as job satisfaction and motivation are typically measured through self-report questionnaires, which depend on employees answering honestly and can be distorted by social desirability bias or the employee's mood at the time of responding, reducing the objectivity of the data compared to directly observable behavioural measures.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain one reason why applying Maslow's hierarchy of needs to workplaces outside Western, individualist cultures should be done with caution.

Lời giải chi tiết

Maslow's hierarchy was developed within a Western, individualist cultural context, and places individual **self-actualisation** at the very top of the hierarchy, implicitly treating individual personal fulfilment as the highest form of motivation. In more collectivist cultures, however, social/belongingness needs and group-oriented goals (such as contributing to family or community wellbeing, or organisational harmony) may be prioritised very differently, and may not simply give way to individual self-actualisation once satisfied, as the original Western-derived ordering assumes. Applying the hierarchy's specific ordering universally, without considering the cultural context of the workforce, therefore risks misinterpreting what genuinely motivates employees in a different cultural setting.

Bài tập luyện tập

A start-up company wants to redesign a customer-service role to increase intrinsic motivation, reduce staff turnover, and avoid the pitfalls of groupthink in team meetings. Using at least three named theories or concepts from this unit, outline a coherent set of recommendations for the company.

Lời giải chi tiết

A coherent set of recommendations might include: (1) applying **job enrichment** (rather than mere job enlargement) by giving customer-service employees genuine authority to resolve customer issues independently, increasing responsibility and a sense of achievement — directly targeting Herzberg's **motivator factors** rather than only adjusting pay (a hygiene factor), which alone would not be expected to increase intrinsic motivation; (2) ensuring **Theory Y**-consistent management practices, such as trusting employees with autonomy over how they handle calls, since employees who feel trusted and given responsibility are more likely to remain committed and engaged, supporting lower **staff turnover**; (3) in team meetings, explicitly guarding against **groupthink** by assigning a rotating devil's advocate role and actively inviting outside or minority opinions before finalising decisions, preventing highly cohesive teams from suppressing legitimate concerns. Together, these recommendations connect job design, managerial assumptions, and group decision-making processes to the company's stated goals.

Bài tập luyện tập

A delivery company redesigns a driver's role so that the same driver now handles a customer's order from initial dispatch through to final delivery and confirmation (rather than handling only one small stage of the process), and receives direct feedback from customers on each delivery. Using Hackman & Oldham's Job Characteristics Model, identify the two job dimensions most clearly being strengthened.

Lời giải chi tiết

Handling an order from dispatch through to final delivery, as a complete, identifiable piece of work, strengthens **task identity**. Receiving direct feedback from customers on each delivery strengthens the **feedback** dimension, since the job itself now provides clear, direct information about the effectiveness of the driver's performance without needing a separate supervisor review.

Bài tập luyện tập

Explain how Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristics Model provides a more specific set of tools for applying job enrichment than Herzberg's two-factor theory alone.

Lời giải chi tiết

Herzberg's two-factor theory identifies, in general terms, that motivator factors such as responsibility, achievement, and recognition need to be built into the work itself, but does not specify exactly *which* features of a job should be redesigned to achieve this. Hackman and Oldham's Job Characteristics Model builds directly on this idea by specifying **five concrete, measurable job dimensions** — skill variety, task identity, task significance, autonomy, and feedback — that managers can specifically target and adjust when enriching a role, giving a practical, actionable framework rather than only a general principle.

10.9 Ôn tập nhanh

Tâm lý học tổ chức — tổng kết: Maslow (tháp 5 bậc nhu cầu, thấp trước cao sau) và Herzberg (yếu tố duy trì ngăn bất mãn, yếu tố động viên tạo động lực — hai quá trình tách biệt) là hai lý thuyết động lực trọng tâm; McClelland bổ sung ba nhu cầu tập nhiệm (thành tựu, liên kết, quyền lực); thiết kế công việc (mở rộng/làm giàu/lưu chuyển) là ứng dụng thực tế của các lý thuyết này. McGregor (Theory X/Y) giải thích giả định quản lý; ba phong cách lãnh đạo (độc đoán/dân chủ/tự do — Lewin, Lippitt & White, 1939), tiếp cận đặc điểm/tình huống (Fiedler), và lãnh đạo trao đổi/chuyển đổi mô tả cách lãnh đạo vận hành. Ở cấp độ nhóm: tư duy nhóm (Janis, 1972) và phân cực nhóm là hai hiện tượng ra quyết định khác nhau; lười biếng xã hội làm giảm năng suất nhóm nếu đóng góp cá nhân không thể nhận diện. Cấu trúc (cao/phẳng, tập trung/phân quyền), văn hoá tổ chức, và công thái học (tiếng ồn, ánh sáng, nhiệt độ) hoàn thiện bức tranh về môi trường làm việc.

Vài lưu ý ôn tập bao quát cho toàn bộ chương trình A2:

- Với mỗi nghiên cứu gốc (core study) đã học xuyên suốt các Unit, hãy chắc chắn nhớ đủ 5 yếu tố: **tên nhà nghiên cứu + năm, mục đích (aim), quy trình (procedure), kết quả (findings), và kết luận (conclusion)** — đề thi thường yêu cầu tái hiện chính xác từng phần này chứ không chỉ nhớ ý chính.
- Luôn chuẩn bị sẵn phần **đánh giá đạo đức (ethics)** cho mọi nghiên cứu — bảo vệ khỏi tổn hại, đồng thuận, quyền rút lui, và giải toả tâm lý (debrief) là các tiêu chí thường được kiểm tra dù nghiên cứu thuộc unit nào.
- Với cả 4 chuyên đề ứng dụng của A2 (lâm sàng, sức khoẻ, tâm lý học môi trường, và tổ chức), luôn đánh giá các can thiệp/ứng dụng thực tế theo **ba tiêu chí: hiệu quả (effectiveness), tính phù hợp (appropriateness)** với bối cảnh và đối tượng, và **đạo đức (ethics)** của việc áp dụng can thiệp đó.
- Khi đánh giá bất kỳ lý thuyết hay nghiên cứu nào, luôn cân nhắc: **giá trị sinh thái** (liệu kết quả có phản ánh hành vi thực tế ngoài phòng thí nghiệm), **khả năng khái quát hoá** (mẫu nghiên cứu có đại diện không), và **tính tương quan so với nhân quả** (đặc biệt quan trọng với các nghiên cứu thực địa, phi thực nghiệm).
- Luôn liên hệ lý thuyết với **ứng dụng thực tế** khi làm bài luận (ví dụ: từ lý thuyết học tập đến liệu pháp, từ lý thuyết động lực đến thiết kế công việc) — đây là kỹ năng xuyên suốt được đánh giá cao ở cấp độ A2 tại mọi chuyên đề.

Đồng hành cùng 8020 English

Cảm ơn bạn đã học cùng bộ giáo trình quốc tế 8020. **Điểm thật · Thầy thật · Kết quả thật** — nhiều học viên chỉ cần 1–2 khoá để đạt kết quả mong muốn.

Chương trình đào tạo tại 8020 English

IELTS Academic/General · SAT · PTE · Duolingo · TOEFL | AP (College Board) · IB Diploma · Cambridge IGCSE / A-Level | sẵn học bổng du học.

Vì sao chọn 8020 English?

- **100% giáo viên** đạt tối thiểu 8.0 IELTS hoặc 1500 SAT — đội ngũ Giáo sư · Tiến sĩ · Thạc sĩ tốt nghiệp trường top đầu thế giới (Carnegie Mellon — #1 Hoa Kỳ về Khoa học Máy tính).
- **Kèm 1–1** mọi độ tuổi; lớp sĩ số nhỏ 2–5 bạn (đa số dưới 10 bạn/lớp).
- Lộ trình cá nhân hoá, theo sát tiến độ từng học viên; lớp OFFLINE tại TP.HCM & ONLINE toàn quốc.

Bảng vàng học viên

AP 5/5 — Calculus AB/BC
SAT 1590 / 1570 / 1550

AP 4–5 — Biology, Chemistry
IELTS 8.0–9.0

IB 90/100 — Economics
Duolingo 110 · PTE 90

Cảm nhận học viên & phụ huynh

"Bạn đã cải thiện được tư duy Writing — kỹ năng từng là nỗi sợ lớn nhất — và cuối cùng đã đậu vào trường top như mong muốn. Thái độ học tập cực kỳ nghiêm túc; ngay cả khi nằm viện vẫn cố gắng học đều đặn."

— Phan Thị Thanh Hằng • IELTS Overall 8.5

"Cần tất cả kỹ năng trên 7.5 để xét vào trường top 1 Anh Quốc về Y học (chương trình UKFPO của NHS) — và đã đạt mục tiêu sau khi học Writing 1-1."

— Trần Hoàng Bảo Ngọc • IELTS Overall 8.0 (Writing 6.0 → 7.5)

"Gia đình và bé xin cảm ơn thầy cô đã giúp con có hành trang chín chu khi qua Mỹ. Đạt điểm 5 môn Giải tích trong thời gian ngắn là quá mãn nguyện."

— Phụ huynh • AP Calculus BC 5/5

"Em cảm ơn thầy đã luôn đồng hành. Nhờ thầy, em học vững hơn rất nhiều dù thời gian ôn không dài."

— Học viên • AP Calculus AB 4

KẾT QUẢ HỌC VIÊN

FEEDBACK PHỤ HUYNH & HỌC VIÊN AP



Phụ huynh • AP Calculus BC: 5

"Gia đình cảm ơn thầy cô đã giúp con có hành trang chín chu khi qua Mỹ. Đạt điểm 5 môn Giải tích trong thời gian ngắn là quá mãn nguyện."



Phụ huynh • AP Calculus BC

"Mẹ con xin gửi lời cảm ơn chân thành tới thầy và cả nhóm. Thời gian ôn rất ngắn nhưng con nhận được rất nhiều sự hỗ trợ."



Học viên • AP Calculus AB: 4 • Statistics: 3

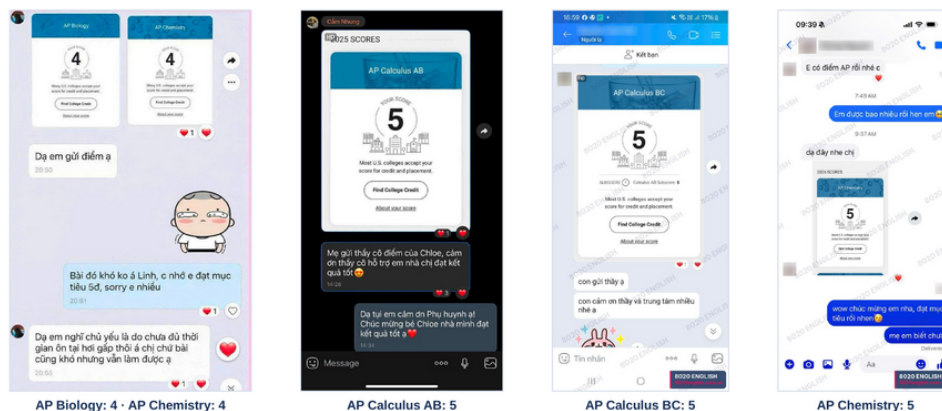
"Em cảm ơn thầy Steven đã luôn đồng hành. Nhờ thầy, em học vững hơn rất nhiều dù thời gian không dài."

Feedback phụ huynh & học viên AP — nhiều môn đạt điểm 4 & 5

Điểm thi thật của học viên

KẾT QUẢ HỌC VIÊN

ĐIỂM SỐ AP

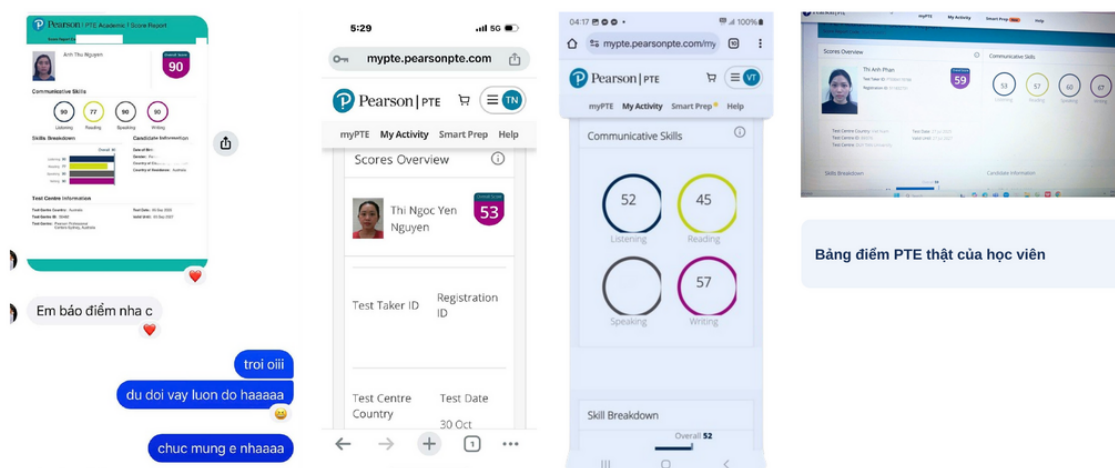
8020
ENGLISH

Bảng điểm AP thật của học viên – nhiều môn đạt điểm 4 & 5

Bảng điểm AP thật – Calculus AB/BC 5/5 · Biology & Chemistry 4-5 (College Board)

KẾT QUẢ HỌC VIÊN

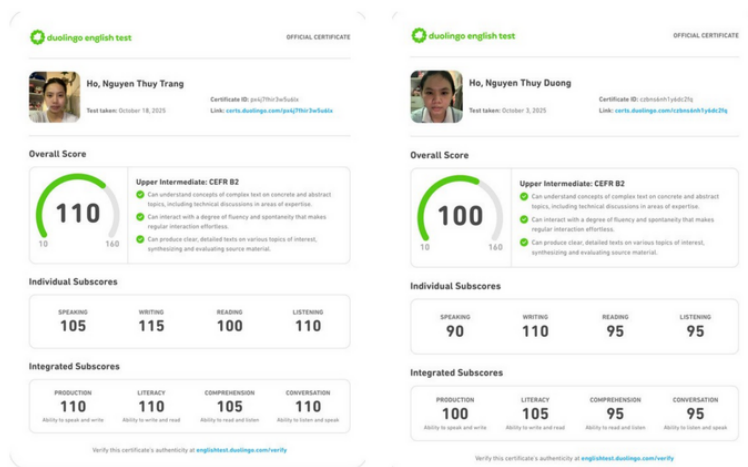
ĐIỂM SỐ PTE

8020
ENGLISH

Học viên 8020 – PTE Academic 90

KẾT QUẢ HỌC VIÊN

ĐIỂM SỐ DUOLINGO



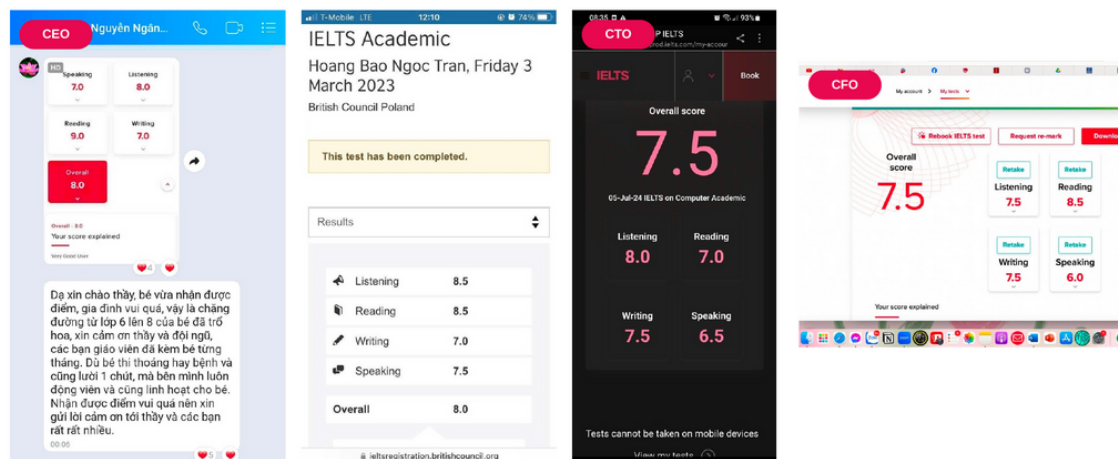
Duolingo English Test – 110 & 100

Học viên 8020 – Duolingo English Test 110 & 100

KẾT QUẢ HỌC VIÊN

THÀNH TÍCH HỌC VIÊN

Bảng điểm thi thật – chất lượng được giám sát nghiêm ngặt. Một số học viên chỉ cần 1–2 khóa để đạt kết quả mong muốn.



Học viên 8020 – IELTS 8.0 / 7.5 / 8.5 (báo điểm thật)

**8020 ENGLISH – CHƯƠNG TRÌNH QUỐC TẾ**

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Offline Trần Phú, P.4, Q.5, TP.HCM

Online Lớp trực tuyến toàn quốc

Web luyenthi8020.com