教育学经典教材·英文影印版

Educational Psychology:

Developing Learners (7th Edition)

数育心理學

(第七版)

[美] Jeanne Ellis Ormrod 珍妮·E·奥姆罗德 著

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珍妮·E·奥姆罗德教授在布朗大学获得心理学学士学位,在宾夕法尼亚州立大学获得教育心理学的硕士和博士学位。后来在坦普尔大学和科罗拉多大学波尔多分校进行博士后研究并获得了学校心理学家的执照。她还当过多年的中学地理教师,一直到1998年,她都是北科罗拉多大学的教育心理学教授,现在在新罕布什尔大学工作。

奥姆罗德教授因为她的这本《教育心理学》教材而广为人知。自从 1995 年培生教育公司出版奥姆罗德的《教育心理学》以来,该书广受师生好评。具体来说,该书有以下特色:

1. 强调自主学习和建构

作者在每一章都设计了亲身体验活动,帮助读者掌握重要的论点,构建对教育心理学更全面、更有意义的理解。在每章开头和结尾都设计了案例,为学习者构建了一个贴近现实的情境,有利于读者加深对教育心理学理论的理解,对真实问题构建自己的解决方法。

2. 理论与实践紧密结合

每章都以案例开头,在内容展开过程中密切联系案例,引导学习者利用教育心理学的理论对案例进行分析。每章的末尾也以案例结尾,并提出问题,让读者运用本章知识结合案例回答问题,学以致用。除此之外,书中的许多栏目,如"原理/假设"表格、"发展趋势"表格和"走进课堂"以及"分析教师策略"栏目引导读者如何将理论应用到学习和教学实践中去。"创建一个建设性的课堂环境"栏目则重视帮助读者理解该书的核心概念如何与课堂管理相关联。

3. 关注学生的多元化和差异性

重视学生的文化背景和群体亚文化对个体学习的影响,并重视在 这种大的背景下考虑学生的个体差异,尤其强调对弱势群体和有特殊 需要群体的教育。很多章都包括"考虑学生的多样性"这样一个主题, 引导教师关注学生的个别差异。每章都设有"在全纳环境中的学生" 栏目,将每章主题与有特殊需要的学生的教育联系起来。

4. 内容与时俱进

与第六版相比,第七版除了在每一章开头新增了教学目标之外,还增加了反映教育心理学各领域新近研究进展的内容。例如,在第3章,新增了"技术与同伴关系",并对"网络欺侮"进行了讨论;第4章新

增了"情绪表达的文化多样性";第5章新增了"Cattell-Horn-Carroll的认知能力理论"、"对干预的反应"等内容。新增的内容更好地反映了教育心理学的理论和研究进展。

全书共分四部分。第一部分阐述了教育心理学和教师决策的关系, 是教材的第1章。主要介绍了作为基于证据实践的教学、理解研究、 收集关于自己学生的数据并作出推论,同时也阐述了教育心理学与教师发展的关系,最后介绍了学习本书的有效策略。

第二部分为教材的第一篇,论述发展与多样性,包括第2章至5 章的内容。第2章主要介绍了人类的认知和语言发展。包括的主题有: 人类发展的基本原则、脑在学习和发展中的作用、皮亚杰和维果斯基 的认知发展理论以及语言发展。第3章主要介绍人格和社会性发展, 包括人格发展、自我意识的发展、同伴关系和人际关系的发展,以及 道德和亲社会性发展。第4章主要介绍了群体差异。包括的主题有 (他和种族差异,性别差异,社会经济差异,有风险的学生的特点、较 学的原因以及对此类学生的支持。第5章着重介绍了个体差异与特殊 ,对此类学生的支持。第5章着重介绍了个体差异与特殊 教育需要。涉及的主题有:智力、认知风格和思维倾向、在一般教育 课堂中教育有特殊需要的学生、有特殊认知或学业困难的学生、有身体 交和行为问题的学生、在认知和社会功能上普遍迟滞的学生、有身体 障碍或感知困难的学生、认知发展超前的学生、当确定和关注特殊需 要时考虑多样性、与有特殊需要的学生工作时的一般建议等。

第三部分为教材的第二篇,论述学习与动机,包括第6章至第11 章的内容。第6章是学习与认知过程,主要阐述了认知心理学的基本 假设、人类记忆模型、长时记忆存储、长时记忆的提取、认知过程中 的多样性。第7章是知识建构,主要介绍了在学习和记忆中的建构过 程、组织知识、促进有效的知识建构、当知识建构出错:错误观念的 来源、建构过程的多样性等。第8章介绍了高级认知过程,主要阐述 了元认知和学习策略、迁移、问题解决、创造力、批判性思维,以及 在创造性、批判性思维和其他复杂思维过程中的多样性。第9章是行 为主义学习观,主要介绍了行为主义的基本假设、巩固现有的刺激-反应联结:经典条件作用、从结果学习:操作条件作用、鼓励建设性 行为的策略、不鼓励不期望行为的策略、应对特别困难的课堂行为、 学生行为及对结果反应的多样性、行为主义方法的优势和潜在局限。 第 10 章是社会认知学习观,主要阐述了社会认知理论的基本假设、社 会认知观的强化与惩罚、示范、自我效能、自我调节、重温互为因果、 比较三种学习观。第11章是动机与情感,主要介绍了动机的本质、人 类的基本需要、动机中的认知因素、情感及其影响。

第四部分为教材的第三篇,论述课堂策略,包括第12章至第15章的内容。第12章是教学策略,主要介绍了制定教学计划、讲解式策

略、实际操作和练习活动、互动协作的方法,以及如何考虑学生的多样性进行有差异的教学等。第13章是营造一个建设性的学习环境,涉及的主题有:营造一个有助于学习的环境、协调与他人的努力、处理不良行为、重视校园攻击和暴力行为。第14章是课堂评估策略,主要涉及不同形式的教育评估、将评估用于不同的目的、好的评估的重要特性、非正式评估、纸笔评估、表现性评估、在正式评估中的其他常虑、在课堂评估时考虑学生的差异。第15章主要介绍了如何对学生的成就和能力进行总结。涉及的主题有:单次评估结果的总结、确定课程总评成绩、使用档案袋、标准化测验、高风险测验与职责、考虑学生的多样性、评估结果的保密与交流。

本教材虽然是基于西方的文化背景,但其中的内容大多也适合我 国文化,可以作为心理学专业学生、师范类专业学生以及未来从事教 育工作的学习者的教材或重要参考书,同时对我国中小学教师的教育 实践也有重要的参考价值。本书影印版的出版对我国心理学工作者和 教育工作者来说无疑是一件幸事。

龚少英

2011年6月于桂子山

[龚少英,华中师范大学心理学院教授,中国心理学会教育心理学分会理事, 华中师范大学心理学院发展与教育心理学专业学科带头人。]

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^{* ** ***} 请参见 http://www.crup.com.cn/gggl。

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Teaching and Educational Psychology

CASE STUDY: Picture Yourself

Picture yourself standing in front of a class of twenty-tive children or adolescents. Your goal is for your students to *learn* something—perhaps how to distinguish between nouns and pronouns, interpret bar graphs, dribble a basketball, or diagnose the problem in a malfunctioning automobile engine. Some of your students are clearly engaged in your lesson, but others appear to have different priorities. Sarah and Marta, the best of friends, are whispering and giggling. Clifton and Lenesa seem lost in their thoughts. Danny, Joe, and Friedrich are shoving one another, and their behavior seems to be escalating into a

major conflict. At the back of the room, Nicole is slumped deep in her chair with her arms crossed and a "you-can't-make-me-do-it" expression on her face.

 As the teacher in this situation, what things might you immediately do to increase the likelihood that your students will benefit from your lesson? What things might you also do over the next few days and weeks to increase your students' ability and desire to learn the things you want to teach them?

TEACHING OTHER PEOPLE—especially teaching the generation that will follow you into the adult world—can be one of the most rewarding professions on the planet. It can also be a very complex, challenging profession. Certainly, effective teaching involves presenting a topic or skill in such a way that students can understand and master it. Yet it involves many other things as well. For instance, teachers must get students' attention (consider Clifton and Lenesa), motivate students to want to learn the subject matter (consider Nicole), and transform existing interpersonal relationships—some friendly, some not—into a cohesive, respectful, and productive learning community. Furthermore, effective teaching requires determining where students are currently "at" in their learning and development—what they know and don't know, what they can and can't do, what cognitive and social skills they have and have not acquired, and so on. And it requires accommodating students' diverse backgrounds, beliefs, and family circumstances, as well as the physical, cognitive, and behavioral disabilities that some students may have.

Mastering the multifaceted nature of teaching takes time and practice, of course. But it also takes knowledge about human learning and motivation,



developmental trends, individual and group differences, and effective instruction and assessment practices. Such topics are the domain of **educational psychology**. This book will help you understand children and adolescents—how they learn and develop, how they are likely to be similar to but also different from one another, what topics and activities are apt to "turn them on" in the classroom, and so on. It will also give you a toolbox of strategies for planning and carrying out instruction, creating an environment that keeps students motivated and on task, and assessing students' progress and achievement.

aching as Evidence-Based Practice

You have been a student for many years now, and in the process you have undoubtedly learned a great deal about how children learn and change over time and about how teachers can foster their learning and development. But exactly how much *do* you know? To help you find out, I've developed a short pretest, Ormrod's Own Psychological Survey (OOPS).

EXPERIENCING FIRSTHAND

Ormrod's Own Psychological Survey

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

True/False

- Some children are predominantly left-brain thinkers, whereas others are predominantly right-brain thinkers.
- 2. When we compare boys and girls, we find that the two groups are, on average, similar in their mathematical and verbal abilities.
- The best way to learn and remember a new fact is to repeat it over and over.
- 4. Although students initially have many misconceptions about the world, they quickly revise their thinking once their teacher presents information that contradicts their existing beliefs.
- 5. Taking notes during a lecture usually interferes with learning more than it helps.
- ____ 6. Students often misjudge how much they know about a topic.
- When a teacher rewards one student for appropriate behavior, the behavior of other students may also improve.
 - 8. Anxiety sometimes helps students learn and perform more successfully in the classroom.
- When teachers have children tutor their peers in academic subjects, the tutors gain very little from the process.
- _____ 10. The ways in which teachers assess students' learning influence what and how students actually learn.

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

1. Some children are predominantly left-brain thinkers, whereas others are predominantly right-brain thinkers. FALSE. With the development of new medical technologies in recent years, researchers have learned a great deal about how the human



educational psychology Academic discipline that (a) systematically studies the nature of learning, child development, motivation, and related topics and (b) applies its research findings to the identification and development of effective instructional practices.

brain works and which parts of it specialize in which aspects of human thinking. The two halves, or *bemispheres*, of the brain do seem to have somewhat different specialties, but they continually communicate and collaborate in tackling even the simplest of daily tasks. Practically speaking, there is no such thing as exclusively left-brain or right-brain thinking. We'll look at the brain and its development in Chapter 2.

2. When we compare boys and girls, we find that the two groups are, on average, similar in their mathematical and verbal abilities. TRUE. Despite widespread beliefs to the contrary, boys and girls tend to be similar in their abilities to perform mathematical and verbal tasks. Any differences in the average performance of boys and girls in these areas are usually too small for teachers to worry about. We'll explore gender differences—and similarities as well—in Chapter 4.



Effective teachers consider their students' diverse backgrounds, abilities, and needs when planning and delivering instruction.

- 3. The best way to learn and remember a new fact is to repeat it over and over. FALSE. Although repeating information numerous times is better than doing nothing at all, repetition of specific facts is a relatively ineffective way to learn. Students learn information more easily and remember it longer when they relate it to things they already know. One especially effective strategy is **elaboration**: using prior knowledge to expand or embellish on a new idea in some way, perhaps by critiquing it, thinking of an example of it, or generating potential applications of it. We'll revisit elaboration later in the chapter and examine it in more depth in Chapter 6.
- 4. Although students initially have many misconceptions about the world, they quickly revise their thinking once their teacher presents information that contradicts their existing beliefs. FALSE. As you will discover in Chapter 7, students typically have many misconceptions about the world. For instance, they may believe that the earth is round only in the sense that a pancake is round or that people would fall into space if they traveled to the South Pole. Students often hold strongly to these misconceptions, even in the face of contradictory evidence or instruction. As teachers, one of our biggest challenges is to help students discard their erroneous beliefs in favor of more accurate and useful perspectives. We'll identify strategies for promoting such conceptual change in Chapter 7.
- 5. Taking notes during a lecture usually interferes with learning more than it helps. FALSE. In general, students who take notes learn more material from a lecture than students who don't take notes. Note taking appears to facilitate learning in at least two ways: It helps students put, or store, information into memory more effectively, and it enables them to review the information at a later time. We'll look at research concerning the effectiveness of note taking and other study strategies in Chapter 8.
- 6. Students often misjudge how much they know about a topic. TRUE. Contrary to popular opinion, students are usually not the best judges of what they do and don't know. For example, many students think that if they have spent a long time studying a textbook chapter, they must know its contents very well. Yet if they have spent most of their study time inefficiently (perhaps by "reading" while thinking about something else altogether or by mindlessly copying definitions), they may know far less than they think they do. We'll consider this illusion of knowing further in Chapter 8.
- 7. When a teacher rewards one student for appropriate behavior, the behavior of other students may also improve. TRUE. When a teacher rewards one student for behaving in a particular way, others who have observed the student being rewarded sometimes begin to behave similarly. We'll identify numerous roles that observation plays in learning as we explore social cognitive theory in Chapter 10.



claboration Cognitive process in which learners embellish on new information based on what they already know.

- 8. Anxiety sometimes helps students learn and perform more successfully in the classroom. TRUE. Many people think that anxiety is always a bad thing. Yet for some classroom tasks, and especially for relatively easy tasks, a moderate level of anxiety actually *improves* learning and performance. In Chapter 11, we'll discover that the specific effects of anxiety, whether helpful or counterproductive, depend on the situation.
- 9. When teachers have children tutor their peers in academic subjects, the tutors gain very little from the process. FALSE. When students teach one another, the tutors often benefit as much as the students being tutored. For instance, in one research study, fourth graders who were doing relatively poorly in mathematics served as arithmetic tutors for first and second graders; the tutors themselves showed a substantial improvement in arithmetic skills (Inglis & Biemiller, 1997). We'll look more closely at the effects of student-to-student tutoring in Chapter 12.
- 10. The ways in which teachers assess students' learning influence what and how students actually learn. TRUE. What and how students learn depend, in part, on how they expect their learning to be assessed. For example, students typically spend more time studying the things they think will be on a test than the things they think the test won't cover. And they are more likely to organize and integrate class material as they study if they expect assessment activities to require such organization and integration. In Chapter 14, we'll identify a variety of ways in which classroom assessment practices can influence students' learning.

How many of the OOPS items did you answer correctly? Did some of the false items seem convincing enough that you marked them true? Did some of the true items contradict certain beliefs you had? If either of these was the case, you are hardly alone. College students often agree with statements that seem obvious but are, in fact, completely wrong (Gage, 1991; Lennon, Ormrod, Burger, & Warren, 1990). Furthermore, many students in teacher education classes reject research findings that appear to contradict their personal beliefs and experiences (Gregoire, 2003; Holt-Reynolds, 1992; Wideen, Mayer-Smith, & Moon, 1998).

It's easy to be persuaded by common sense and assume that what seems logical must be reality. Yet common sense and logic don't always tell us the true story about how people actually learn and develop, nor do they always give us accurate information about how best to help students succeed in the classroom. Instead, our knowledge about learning and instruction must come from a more objective source of information—that is, from systematic research. Increasingly, educators and policy makers alike are calling for **evidence-based practice**—the use of instructional methods and other classroom strategies that research has consistently shown to bring about significant gains in students' development and academic achievement (e.g., Darling-Hammond & Bransford, 2005; Waterhouse, 2006).

Understanding Research

Historically, most research related to learning, development, and educational practice has been **quantitative research**; that is, it has involved collecting data that either take the form of numbers or can easily be converted into numbers. These numbers are tabulated and usually statistically analyzed to determine underlying trends and other patterns in the data. For example, we are apt to get quantitative information from students' performance on achievement tests, students' responses to rating-scale questionnaires, and school district records of students' attendance and dropout rates.

In recent years, educational researchers have also made considerable use of **qualitative research**, in which they examine complex phenomena that cannot be easily reduced to numerical values. For example, a qualitative research study might involve lengthy interviews in which students describe their hopes for the future, a detailed case study of interpersonal relationships within a tight-knit cliege of adoles-

evidence-based practice Instructional method or other classroom strategy that research has consistently shown to bring about significant gains in students' development and/or academic achievement.

quantitative research Research yielding information that is inherently numerical in nature or can easily be reduced to numbers.

qualitative research Research yielding information that cannot be easily reduced to numbers; typically involves an in-depth examination of a complex phenomenon. cent girls, or in-depth observations of several teachers who create distinctly different psychological "climates" in their classrooms.

Ultimately, teachers gain a better understanding of students and effective classroom practices when they consider findings from *both* quantitative and qualitative research. It is important, then, that you understand what these two different kinds of research can—and also what they *cannot*—do for you.



descriptive study Research study that enables researchers to draw conclusions about the current state of affairs but not about correlational or cause-and-effect relationships.

Quantitative Research

Most quantitative research studies fall into one of three general categories: descriptive, correlational, or experimental. These three categories yield different kinds of information and warrant different kinds of conclusions.

Descriptive Studies A **descriptive study** does exactly what its name implies: It *describes* a situation. Descriptive studies might give us information about the characteristics of students, teachers, or schools. They might also provide information about how often certain events or behaviors occur. In general, descriptive studies enable us to draw conclusions about the way things are—the current state of affairs. The second column of Table 1.1 presents examples of questions we could answer with descriptive studies.

Compare Contrast	Questions We Might Answer with Quantitative and Qualitative Research Studies					
Topic						
	Descriptive Studies	Correlational Studies	Experimental Studies	Qualitative Research		
Reading	How pervasive are gender stereotypes in books com- monly used to teach read- ing in the elementary grades?	Are better readers also better spellers?	Which of two reading pro- grams produces greater gains in reading compre- hension?	What things do high- achieving students say they do "in their heads" when they read and study their textbooks?		
Abstract Thinking	What percentage of high school students can think abstractly about academic topics?	Are older students more capable of abstract thought than younger students?	Can abstract thinking skills be improved through spe- cially designed educa- tional programs?	What misconceptions are often seen in high school students' explanations of abstract concepts?		
Aggression	What kinds of aggressive behaviors occur in schools, and with what frequencies?	Are students more likely to be aggressive at school if they often see violence at home or in their neighbor- hoods?	Which method is most effective in reducing aggressive behavior: rein- forcing appropriate behav- ior, punishing aggressive behavior, or a combination of both?	What distinct qualities characterize high schools in which members of violence-prone adolescen gangs interact congenially and respectfully?		
Achievement Tests	How well have students performed on a recent national achievement test?	Do students who get the highest scores on multiple-choice tests also get the highest scores on essay tests dealing with the same content domain?	Do different kinds of tests (e.g., multiple choice vs. essay tests) encourage stu- dents to study in different ways and therefore affect what students actually learn?	In what ways do teachers' instructional practices change when their jobs and salaries depend on their students' scores on statewide or national achievement tests?		