

# DOWNLOAD PDF CHOICE AND CONTEXT : UNDERSTANDING WHY PEOPLE MOVE

## Chapter 1 : Dignity in care - The Dignity Factors: Choice and control

*The social context of urban, White, middle-class Americans has been well represented by health care providers, the health care system, and health behavior research more than has the social context of poor people, immigrants, rural populations, people of color, or national minorities.*

Uncertainty avoidance UA Long-term orientation Power distance The value dimension referring to how openly a society or culture accepts or does not accept differences between people in hierarchies in the workplace, in politics, and so on. Examples of these cultures include Japan, Mexico, and the Philippines. In Japan or Mexico, the senior person is almost a father figure and is automatically given respect and usually loyalty without questions. In Southern Europe, Latin America, and much of Asia, power is an integral part of the social equation. People tend to accept relationships of servitude. At the other end of the spectrum are low power distance cultures, in which superiors and subordinates are more likely to see each other as equal in power. Countries found at this end of the spectrum include Austria and Denmark. To be sure, not all cultures view power in the same ways. In Sweden, Norway, and Israel, for example, respect for equality is a warranty of freedom. Subordinates and managers alike often have carte blanche to speak their minds. Interestingly enough, research indicates that the United States tilts toward low power distance but is more in the middle of the scale than Germany and the United Kingdom. The United States actually ranks somewhat lower in power distance—under forty as noted in Figure 3. The United States has a culture of promoting participation at the office while maintaining control in the hands of the manager. In individualistic cultures, what counts most is self-realization. Initiating alone, sweating alone, achieving alone—not necessarily collective efforts—are what win applause. In individualistic cultures, competition is the fuel of success. The United States and Northern European societies are often labeled as individualistic. In the United States, individualism is valued and promoted—from its political structure individual rights and democracy to entrepreneurial zeal capitalism. Other examples of high-individualism cultures include Australia and the United Kingdom. Basically, individual members render loyalty to the group, and the group takes care of its individual members. Cultures that prize collectivism and the group over the individual include Singapore, Korea, Mexico, and Arab nations. The protections offered by traditional Japanese companies come to mind as a distinctively group-oriented value. The next dimension is masculinity The value dimension referring to how a society views traits that are considered feminine or masculine. In masculine-oriented cultures, gender roles are usually crisply defined. Men tend to be more focused on performance, ambition, and material success. They cut tough and independent personas, while women cultivate modesty and quality of life. Cultures in Japan and Latin American are examples of masculine-oriented cultures. In feminine-oriented cultures, both genders swap roles, with the focus on quality of life, service, and independence. The Scandinavian cultures rank as feminine cultures, as do cultures in Switzerland and New Zealand. The United States is actually more moderate, and its score is ranked in the middle between masculine and feminine classifications. The next dimension is uncertainty avoidance UA The value dimension referring to how much uncertainty a society or culture is willing to accept.. This refers to how much uncertainty a society or culture is willing to accept. It can also be considered an indication of the risk propensity of people from a specific culture. People who have high uncertainty avoidance generally prefer to steer clear of conflict and competition. They tend to appreciate very clear instructions. At the office, sharply defined rules and rituals are used to get tasks completed. Stability and what is known are preferred to instability and the unknown. Company cultures in these countries may show a preference for low-risk decisions, and employees in these companies are less willing to exhibit aggressiveness. Japan and France are often considered clear examples of such societies. Examples of these cultures are Denmark, Singapore, Australia, and to a slightly lesser extent, the United States. Members of these cultures usually require less formal rules to interact. The fifth dimension is long-term orientation The value dimension referring to whether a culture has a long-term or short-term orientation. This dimension was added by Hofstede after the original

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four you just read about. It resulted in the effort to understand the difference in thinking between the East and the West. Certain values are associated with each orientation. The long-term orientation values persistence, perseverance, thriftiness, and having a sense of shame. These are evident in traditional Eastern cultures. The short-term orientation values tradition only to the extent of fulfilling social obligations or providing gifts or favors. These cultures are more likely to be focused on the immediate or short-term impact of an issue. Not surprisingly, the United Kingdom and the United States rank low on the long-term orientation. Long- and short-term orientation and the other value dimensions in the business arena are all evolving as many people earn business degrees and gain experience outside their home cultures and countries, thereby diluting the significance of a single cultural perspective. As a result, in practice, these five dimensions do not occur as single values but are really woven together and interdependent, creating very complex cultural interactions. Even though these five values are constantly shifting and not static, they help us begin to understand how and why people from different cultures may think and act as they do. Hall A respected anthropologist who applied his field to the understanding of cultures and intercultural communications. Hall is best noted for three principal categories of how cultures differ: Hall is best noted for three principal categories that analyze and interpret how communications and interactions between cultures differ: In what are called high-context cultures, such as those found in Latin America, Asia, and Africa, the physical context of the message carries a great deal of importance. In low-context cultures, people verbally say exactly what they mean. In high-context cultures, such as those found in Latin America, Asia, and Africa, the physical context of the message carries a great deal of importance. People tend to be more indirect and to expect the person they are communicating with to decode the implicit part of their message. While the person sending the message takes painstaking care in crafting the message, the person receiving the message is expected to read it within context. The message may lack the verbal directness you would expect in a low-context culture. In high-context cultures, body language is as important and sometimes more important than the actual words spoken. In contrast, in low-context cultures such as the United States and most Northern European countries, people tend to be explicit and direct in their communications. Satisfying individual needs is important. Low-context communication aspires to get straight to the point. Communication between people from high-context and low-context cultures can be confusing. In business interactions, people from low-context cultures tend to listen only to the words spoken; they tend not to be cognizant of body language. As a result, people often miss important clues that could tell them more about the specific issue. Hall called this the study of proxemics The study of space and distance between people as they interact. Space refers to everything from how close people stand to one another to how people might mark their territory or boundaries in the workplace and in other settings. How close is too close depends on where you are from. Whether consciously or unconsciously, we all establish a comfort zone when interacting with others. Standing distances shrink and expand across cultures. Latins, Spaniards, and Filipinos whose culture has been influenced by three centuries of Spanish colonization stand rather close even in business encounters. In cultures that have a low need for territory, people not only tend to stand closer together but also are more willing to share their space—whether it be a workplace, an office, a seat on a train, or even ownership of a business project. Polychronic versus Monochronic Cultures Hall identified that time is another important concept greatly influenced by culture. In polychronic cultures A culture in which people can do several things at the same time. In monochronic cultures A culture in which people tend to do one task at a time. Rather, people in monochronic cultures, such as Northern Europe and North America, tend to schedule one event at a time. For them, an appointment that starts at 8 a. People are expected to arrive on time, whether for a board meeting or a family picnic. Time is a means of imposing order. In polychronic cultures, by contrast, time is nice, but people and relationships matter more. Finishing a task may also matter more. People might attend to three things at once and think nothing of it. Or they may cluster informally, rather than arrange themselves in a queue. In polychronic cultures, people regard work as part of a larger interaction with a community. If an agenda is not complete, people in polychronic cultures are less likely to simply end the meeting and are more likely to continue to finish the business at hand. Those who

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prefer monochronic order may find polychronic order frustrating and hard to manage effectively. What Else Determines a Culture? The methods presented in the previous sections note how we look at the structures of cultures, values, and communications. They also provide a framework for a comparative analysis between cultures, which is particularly important for businesses trying to operate effectively in multiple countries and cultural environments. Additionally, there are other external factors that also constitute a culture—manners, mind-sets, values, rituals, religious beliefs, laws, arts, ideas, customs, beliefs, ceremonies, social institutions, myths and legends, language, individual identity, and behaviors, to name a few. While these factors are less structured and do not provide a comparative framework, they are helpful in completing our understanding of what impacts a culture. When we look at these additional factors, we are seeking to understand how each culture views and incorporates each of them. For example, are there specific ceremonies or customs that impact the culture and for our purposes its business culture? For example, in some Chinese businesses, feng shui—an ancient Chinese physical art and science—is implemented in the hopes of enhancing the physical business environment and success potential of the firm. Of these additional factors, the single most important one is communication.

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## Chapter 2 : Criminology Theories: The Varied Reasons Why People Commit Crimes

*people make decisions and choices covers a range of different people in different situations, for example from clinicians treating patients or investors and financial experts, to students taking part in psychological experiments.*

Cultural Diversity Montaigne said, "The most universal quality is diversity. It is a journey never finished, because the process and the endpoints change constantly. The journey is bound up with communication and conflict, since misunderstandings and miscommunication can cause and escalate conflict. Effective communication is often the key to making progress in a conflict. Progress through conflict is possible, and the route is twofold. First, self-knowledge and self-awareness are needed. Without these, our seemingly normal approaches to meaning-making and communication will never be clear enough that we can see them for what they are: Second, cultural fluency is needed, meaning familiarity with culture and the ability to act on that familiarity. This may sound simple enough, but it actually requires significant, continuous effort. Hall writes in the introduction to his book, *The Dance of Life*, [3] for us to understand each other may mean, "reorganizing [our] thinking Two of these tools are explored here. Communication Tools for Understanding Culture Additional insights into communication tools for understanding cultural differences are offered by Beyond Intractability project participants. The tools we will examine here relate to communication and ways of seeing the self in relation to others. High-context and low-context communication, and Individualist and communitarian conceptions of self and other. Since all of these tools are used in the service of understanding culture, a working definition of culture is useful. Donal Carbaugh defines culture as "a system of expressive practices fraught with feelings, a system of symbols, premises, rules, forms, and the domains and dimensions of mutual meanings associated with these. Communication is the vehicle by which meanings are conveyed, identity is composed and reinforced, and feelings are expressed. As we communicate using different cultural habits and meaning systems, both conflict and harmony are possible outcomes of any interaction. There is no comprehensive way to understand culture and its relationships to communication and conflict. The two tools outlined here give windows into how different groups of people make sense of their worlds. They are neither reliable guides to every member of a particular group nor are they fixed in nature, since culture is constantly evolving and changing as people within groups and the contexts around them change. These two sets of tools are the most frequently used classifications of cultures used by anthropologists and communication scholars. We begin with one of the most familiar sets of tools: High-context and Low-context Communication refers to the degree to which speakers rely on factors other than explicit speech to convey their messages. This tool, developed by Edward T. Hall, [6] suggests that communication varies according to its degree of field dependence, and that it can be classified into two general categories -- high-context and low-context. Field dependence refers to the degree to which things outside the communication itself affect the meaning. For example, a request for a child to "shut the door" relies comparatively little on context, while a comment containing meaning other than what is on the surface relies largely on context for its meaning to be received. A high-context message of disagreement might be telegraphed to a spouse or a co-worker by the words chosen or the way they are spoken, even if no disagreement is explicitly voiced. Hall says that every human being is confronted by far more sensory stimuli than can possibly be attended to. Cultures help by screening messages, shaping perceptions and interpretations according to a series of selective filters. In high-context settings, the screens are designed to let in implied meanings arising from the physical setting, relational cues, or shared understandings. In low-context settings, the screens direct attention more to the literal meanings of words and less to the context surrounding the words. All of us engage in both high-context and low-context communication. There are times we "say what we mean, and mean what we say," leaving little to be "read in" to the explicit message. This is low-context communication. At other times, we may infer, imply, insinuate, or deliver with nonverbal cues messages that we want to have conveyed but do not speak. This is high-context communication. Most of the time, we are somewhere nearer the middle of the continuum, relying to some

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extent on context, but also on the literal meaning of words. To understand this distinction between high-context and low-context communication, ask yourself these questions: Do I tend to "let my words speak for themselves," or prefer to be less direct, relying on what is implied by my communication? There are times when direct, clear communication is most appropriate, and times when it is preferable to communicate in layers of meaning to save face, spare feelings, or allow for diffuse interpretations. Most people rely on a whole range of verbal and nonverbal cues to understand the meaning of what is said. Even in the most direct, low-context setting, meanings will be conveyed that are not explicitly spoken. The novelist Amy Tan describes the different starting points of English and Chinese this way: Depending on the kind of relationship, the situation, and the purpose of communication, they may be more or less explicit and direct. In close relationships, communication short-hand is often used, which makes communication opaque to outsiders but perfectly clear to the parties. With strangers, the same people may choose low-context communication. Low- and high-context communication refers not only to individual communication strategies, but may be used to understand cultural groups. Generally, Western cultures tend to gravitate toward low-context starting points, while Eastern and Southern cultures tend to use high-context communication. Within these huge categories, there are important differences and many variations. Where high-context communication tends to be featured, it is useful to pay specific attention to nonverbal cues and the behavior of others who may know more of the unstated rules governing the communication. Where low-context communication is the norm, directness is likely to be expected in return. It is less important to classify any communication as high or low context than it is to understand whether nonverbal or verbal cues are the most prominent. The choice of high-context and low-context as labels has led to unfortunate misunderstandings, since there is an implied ranking in the adjectives. In fact, neither is better or worse than the other. They are simply different. Each has possible pitfalls for cross-cultural communicators. Generally, low-context communicators interacting with high-context communicators should be mindful that nonverbal messages and gestures may be as important as what is said; status and identity may be communicated nonverbally and require appropriate acknowledgement; face-saving and tact may be important, and need to be balanced with the desire to communicate fully and frankly; building a good relationship can contribute to effectiveness over time; and indirect routes and creative thinking are important alternatives to problem-solving when blocks are encountered. Individualism and Communitarianism is the second dimension important to conflict and conflict resolution. In communitarian settings sometimes called collectivist settings , children are taught that they are part of a circle of relations. This identity as a member of a group comes first, summed up in the South African idea of ubuntu: Wherever they go, their identity as a member of their group goes out in front. Identity is not isolated from others, but is determined with others according to group needs and views. When conflict arises, behavior and responses tend to be jointly chosen. Individualist patterns involve ideas of the self as independent, self-directed, and autonomous. Many Western conflict-resolution approaches presuppose exactly this kind of person: Children raised in this milieu are rewarded for initiative, personal achievement, and individual leadership. They may be just as close to their families as a child raised in a communitarian setting, but they draw the boundaries differently: Duty, honor, and deference to authority are less prominent for those with individualist starting points than communitarian ones. Individual and communitarian identities are two quite different ways of being in the world. They connect at some point, of course, since all groups are made up of individuals and all individuals find themselves in relationship with various groups. But the starting points are different. To discern the basic difference, ask yourself which is most in the foreground of your life, the welfare, development, security, prosperity, and well-being of yourself and others as individuals, or the shared heritage, ecological resources, traditional stories, and group accomplishments of your people? Generally, those who start with individualism as their beginning tend to be most comfortable with independence, personal achievement, and a competitive conflict style. Those who start with a communal orientation are more focused on social connections, service, and a cooperative conflict style. French anthropologist Raymonde Carroll, who is married to a North American, suggests that North Americans tend to see individual identities as existing outside all networks.

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This does not mean that social networks do not exist, or that they are unimportant, but that it is notionally possible to see the self apart from these. In the North American view, there is a sense that the self creates its own identity, as in the expression, a "self-made person. One way to discern communitarian or individualist starting points is to listen to forms of greeting and address. Morning Owl reflects that individual identities are subsumed into the collective in his culture: Boundaries around relationships tend to be less porous in communitarian contexts like Japan, where attention is focused on maintaining harmony and cohesion with the group. In the individualist setting of the United States, by contrast, "friendly" behavior is directed to members of in-groups and strangers alike. This difference can lead to misunderstandings across cultures, since the U. American behavior of friendliness to strangers may be seen as inappropriately familiar by those from communitarian settings, while U. Americans may find social networks in communitarian settings very difficult to penetrate. No matter which starting point seems natural, it is important to keep the entire continuum in mind when trying to understand and address conflict. From each vantage point, it is useful to remember some things: From an individualist starting point, achievement involves individual goal-setting and action; I am ultimately accountable to myself and must make decisions I can live with; while I consult with others about choices, I am autonomous: From a communitarian starting point, maintaining group harmony and cohesion is important, and my decisions should not disrupt that; choices are made in consultation with family and authority figures and their input is weighted as heavily, or even more heavily, than mine. I am an overlapping circle amidst other overlapping circles; my decisions reflect on my group and I am accountable to them as a member; and I notice hierarchy and accept direction from those of higher status than myself. With these differences in mind, it is important for individualists to recognize the web of relations encompassing the communitarian party to a conflict, and to act in recognition of those. Similarly, it is helpful for those from communitarian settings to remember that individualists value autonomy and initiative, and to act in ways that respect these preferences. High-context communication often corresponds with communitarian settings, just as low-context communication often occurs in individualist settings. This is not always true, but it is worth exploring because it is frequently the case. Where communitarianism is the preferred starting point, individual expression may be less important than group will. Indirect communication that draws heavily on nonverbal cues may be preferable in such a setting, because it allows for multiple meanings, saves face, leaves room for group input into decisions, and displays interdependence. In individualist settings, low-context communication may be preferable because it is direct, expresses individual desires and initiatives, displays independence, and clarifies the meaning intended by the speaker. Nobel Peace Laureate Jimmy Carter understood the importance of high-context communication with his counterparts from Israel and Egypt in the historic Camp David peace negotiations.

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### Chapter 3 : Why do people migrate? | EMBRACE

*By understanding better how people change without professional assistance, researchers and clinicians have become better able to develop and apply interventions to facilitate changes in clients' maladaptive and unhealthy behaviors.*

Student Answers madihaa Student i think without history no can judge his present or no one can make a plan for future. That is why it is important. We must learn from the past. Students and teachers who study history help us. It is amazing everything in my life is now history. Even the race riots in Detroit race riots of , I was there. I was just a kid during the race riots. We turned off lights at night and waved at the Army. They patrolled the Detroit streets. Was that the beginning of the end for Detroit? Hurricane Katrina was interesting. NOA predicted she would hit dead center in Boca Raton. We never lost power during her attack on Southeast Florida. My sister headed down to Homestead to provide medical assistance. I stayed north and picked up the pieces. Hurricanes are very powerful. Back to the point, we all have memories of events. It is important we preserve and share them. Also its good to know something more for the ancient culture,civilization,ways of thinking etc. How did the world become like it is today we can only find out by learning history and exploring all those territory battles,the world wars, colonies I agree that civics, government and current event classes are nice to have. Students are bombarded these days with a bunch of required courses. Our country is way behind in the sciences and math, but we continue to have history and literature teachers fighting to keep their job. Can you get a solid paying job from studying history or studying literature for that matter? Students today need skills. Even teaching literature is not vital these days, but students need to write, research and communicate in our world. You are a much better person and much more intelligent from studying history and literature, but today I would much rather get a high paying job. Seems to me that generation after generation continue to make similar mistakes, but often not recognizable by the different era. Maybe we can revitalize education. Literature teachers and history teachers think outside the box. Talk to your principals and educational board about revitalizing literature and history, so students can still keep up in science, math and real life skills as well as be educated human beings. I have benefited a lot from it. I wish everyone to benefit from this excellent topic. Every student must know the historical events, stories, personalities, in order to get awareness on the culture, attitude of the people, achievements, monuments, historical personalities, their governance, etc. Not only this, the historic developments, events that took place in the good olden days must be taught to the students. This will result in getting good awareness, development of personality, attutude, aptitude, and culture among the students. As human beings, we need to have a degree of continuity between what we do and what has been done in the past. Because history is so intimately connected with culture, it affects every aspect of our lives. Through history we also learn about other societies and what people from the past have had to say. I think history is important to study because it is our past. Man learns from his faults. When we read about an event, its consequences, its results, we learn. We understand the difference between right and wrong. You have to know where you came from and the journey to the present to understand where you are now and where you might be in the future. History is integral in understanding what citizenship means and how our government is run. To have productive citizens that actually participate i. I think teaching history is a tool to make this possible. The greatest problem with the study of history today is that it is little more than regurgitating information to pass a class. Professors today seem to be more interested in making carbon copies of themselves. History should be a study of the facts untainted, from primary and secondary sources. Student should be taught to distinguish bias and irregulaities. Unfortunately what we get at many universities are professors peddling thier books and many of them are regurgitated from some other professor, sited proper of course. The true study of history can and has granted us the ability to learn from others mistakes. Distorted history distines us to repeat mistakes of the past. History is meant not merely to learn facts but to "analyze" and "understand". Here i mean it in terms of learning from the past, and not repeating the mistakes which made us suffer. For example,the explosion of the atomic bomb at Hiroshima and Nagasaki. This dreadful

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event had caused great loss of life and destruction. Today, measures are being taken so that such events do not reoccur and we can live along with peace. For example, we notice that Alexander Flemming invented Penicillin in This is a fact, where this is a crucial invention that became a momentum for reflecting on how many people have been cure by this medication from that period until recently. But, because this is a fact that already past, in the history we are not learning about judging who is guilty and who is right. We are not learning to hate the Japanese because of the sadness those soldiers in the past caused. What we can learn here is about the moral issue, about the social value lost because of the war, and how we are right now have to be able to leave more peaceful and harmony. How conflict between country and people have to be solve more based on logic not based on emotion that can cause war. It has taken me some time to convey the message across to both parents and students the importance of History in the modern world. There is a pre-conceived idea that History is simple recalling facts and timelines which is evidently wrong. I explain to students and mis-informed parents about the advantages and pros of taking the subject. I wont go into detail as Im about to teach a class but the bottom line is that there is certainly an attitude that is ill-informed and mis-placed that needs to be rectified. Access hundreds of thousands of answers with a free trial.

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### Chapter 4 : Lewin's Change Management Model - from calendrierdelascience.com

*c) If the teacher has ELL students, he or she should ensure the students understand the context of the problem, then provide the numerical information before asking for an estimate. d) The front-end strategy has been shown to be one of the most difficult for students to learn to use.*

For example, a group of Orange County homemakers did very well at making supermarket best-buy calculations despite doing poorly on equivalent school-like paper-and-pencil mathematics problems Lave, Similarly, some Brazilian street children could perform mathematics when making sales in the street but were unable to answer similar problems presented in a school context Carraher, ; Carraher et al, How tightly learning is tied to contexts depends on how the knowledge is acquired Eich, Research has indicated that transfer across contexts is especially difficult when a subject is taught only in a single context rather than in multiple contexts Bjork and Richardson-Klavhen, One frequently used teaching technique is to get learners to elaborate on the examples used during learning in order to facilitate retrieval at a later time. The practice, however, has the potential of actually making it more difficult to retrieve the lesson material in other contexts, because knowledge tends to be especially context-bound when learners elaborate the new material with details of the context in which the material is learned Eich, When a subject is taught in multiple contexts, however, and includes examples that demonstrate wide application of what is being taught, people are more likely to abstract the relevant features of concepts and to develop a flexible representation of knowledge Gick and Holyoak, The problem of overly contextualized knowledge has been studied in instructional programs that use case-based and problem-based learning. In these programs, information is presented in a context of attempting to solve complex, realistic problems e. For example, fifth- and sixth-grade students may learn mathematical concepts of distance-rate-time in the context of solving a complex case involving planning for a boat trip. The findings indicate that if students learn only in this context, they often fail to transfer flexibly to new situations Cognition and Technology Group at Vanderbilt, The issue is how to promote wide transfer of the learning. One way to deal with lack of flexibility is to ask learners to solve a specific case and then provide them with an additional, similar case; the goal is to help them abstract general principles that lead to more flexible transfer Gick and Holyoak, ; see Box 3. They might be asked: Brain, Mind, Experience, and School: The National Academies Press. A third way is to generalize the case so that learners are asked to create a solution that applies not simply to a single problem, but to a whole class of related problems. For example, instead of planning a single boat trip, students might run a trip planning company that has to advise people on travel times for different regions of the country. Under these conditions, transfer to novel problems is enhanced e. Problem Representations Transfer is also enhanced by instruction that helps students represent problems at higher levels of abstraction. Helping students represent their solution strategies at a more general level can help them increase the probability of positive transfer and decrease the degree to which a previous solution strategy is used inappropriately negative transfer. Advantages of abstract problem representations have been studied in the context of algebra word problems involving mixtures. Some students were trained with pictures of the mixtures and other students were trained with abstract tabular representations that highlighted the underlying mathematical relationships Singley and Anderson, Students who were trained on specific task components without being provided with the principles underlying the problems could do the specific tasks well, but they could not apply their learning to new problems. By contrast, the students who received abstract training showed transfer to new problems that involved analogous mathematical relations. Research has also shown that developing a suite of representations enables learners to think flexibly about complex domains Spiro et al. Relationships Between Learning and Transfer Conditions Transfer is always a function of relationships between what is learned and what is tested. Many theorists argue that the amount of transfer will be a function of the overlap between the original domain of learning and the novel one. Measuring overlap requires a theory of how knowledge is represented and conceptually mapped across

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domains. A general wishes to capture a fortress located in the center of a country. There are many roads radiating outward from the fortress. All have been mined so that while small groups of men can pass over the roads safely, a large force will detonate the mines. A full-scale direct attack is therefore impossible. Students memorized the information in the passage and were then asked to try another task, which was to solve the following problem Gick and Holyoak, You are a doctor faced with a patient who has a malignant tumor in his stomach. It is impossible to operate on the patient, but unless the tumor is destroyed the patient will die. There is a kind of ray that may be used to destroy the tumor. If the rays reach the tumor all at once and with sufficiently high intensity, the tumor will be destroyed, but surrounding tissue may be damaged as well. At lower intensities the rays are harmless to healthy tissue, but they will not affect the tumor either. What type of procedure might be used to destroy the tumor with the rays, and at the same time avoid destroying the healthy tissue? Few college students were able to solve this problem when left to their own devices. However, over 90 percent were able to solve the tumor problem when they were explicitly told to use information about the general and the fortress to help them. These students perceived the analogy between dividing the troops into small units and using a number of small-dose rays that each converge on the same point—the cancerous tissue. Each ray is too weak to harm tissue except at the point of convergence. Despite the relevance of the fortress problem to the tumor problem, the information was not used spontaneously—the connection between the two sets of information had to be explicitly pointed out. Page 65 Share Cite Suggested Citation: Whether students will transfer across domains—such as distance formulas from physics to formally equivalent biological growth problems, for example—depends on whether they conceive of the growth as occurring continuously successful transfer or in discrete steps unsuccessful transfer Bassok and Olseth, Singley and Anderson argue that transfer between tasks is a function of the degree to which the tasks share cognitive elements. This hypothesis was also put forth very early in the development of research on transfer of identical elements, mentioned previously Thorndike and Woodworth, ; Woodworth, , but it was hard to test experimentally until there was a way to identify task components. Singley and Anderson taught students several text editors, one after another, and sought to predict transfer, defined as the savings in time of learning a new editor when it was not taught first. They found that students learned subsequent text editors more rapidly and that the number of procedural elements shared by two text editors predicted the amount of this transfer. In fact, there was large transfer across editors that were very different in surface structures but that had common abstract structures. Singley and Anderson also found that similar principles govern transfer of mathematical competence across multiple domains when they considered transfer of declarative as well as procedural knowledge. A study by Biederman and Shiffrar is a striking example of the benefits of abstract instruction. They studied a task that is typically difficult to learn in apprentice-like roles: Biederman and Shiffrar found that twenty minutes of instruction on abstract principles helped the novices improve considerably see also Anderson et al. Research studies generally provide strong support for the benefits of helping students represent their experiences at levels of abstraction that transcend the specificity of particular contexts and examples National Research Council, Examples include algebra Singley and Anderson, , computer language tasks Klahr and Carver, , motor skills e. Studies show that abstracted representations do not remain as isolated instances of events but become components of larger, related events, schemata Holyoak, ; Novick and Holyoak, Knowledge representations are built up through many opportunities for observing similarities and differences across diverse events. Memory retrieval and transfer are promoted by schemata because they derive from a broader scope of related instances than single learning experiences. Active Versus Passive Approaches to Transfer It is important to view transfer as a dynamic process that requires learners to actively choose and evaluate strategies, consider resources, and receive feedback. Studies of transfer from learning one text editor to another illustrate the importance of viewing transfer from a dynamic rather than a static perspective. Researchers have found much greater transfer to a second text editor on the second day of transfer than the first Singley and Anderson, Similarly, one educational goal for a course in calculus is how it facilitates learning of physics, but not necessarily its benefit on the first day of physics class. Ideally, an

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individual spontaneously transfers appropriate knowledge without a need for prompting. Sometimes, however, prompting is necessary. With prompting, transfer can improve quite dramatically e. This method can be used to assess the amount of help needed for transfer by counting the number and types of prompts that are necessary before students are able to transfer. Tests of transfer that use graduated prompting provide more fine-grained analysis of learning and its effects on transfer than simple one-shot assessments of whether or not transfer occurs. Page 67 Share Cite Suggested Citation:

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### Chapter 5 : Context effect - Wikipedia

*You can understand vocabulary words based on the context of the passage - the words, clauses, and phrases around the unknown vocabulary word. You don't have to memorize all the vocabulary words in the dictionary!*

An Italian woman may become an intensely involved member of the ethnic and cultural community of her Nigerian husband. Whichever community defines your work, you will want to get to know it well. What do we mean by understanding and describing the community? Understanding the community entails understanding it in a number of ways. Whether or not the community is defined geographically, it still has a geographic context -- a setting that it exists in. Getting a clear sense of this setting may be key to a full understanding of it. You have to get to know its people -- their culture, their concerns, and relationships -- and to develop your own relationships with them as well. Every community has a physical presence of some sort, even if only one building. Most have a geographic area or areas they are either defined by or attached to. Also important are how various areas of the community differ from one another, and whether your impression is one of clean, well-maintained houses and streets, or one of shabbiness, dirt, and neglect. If the community is one defined by its population, then its physical properties are also defined by the population: The characteristics of those places can tell you a great deal about the people who make up the community. Their self-image, many of their attitudes, and their aspirations are often reflected in the places where they choose -- or are forced by circumstance or discrimination -- to live, work, gather, and play. Patterns of settlement, commerce, and industry. Communities reveal their character by where and how they create living and working spaces. Are heavy industries located next to residential neighborhoods? If so, who lives in those neighborhoods? Are some parts of the community dangerous, either because of high crime and violence or because of unsafe conditions in the built or natural environment? Age, gender, race and ethnicity, marital status, education, number of people in household, first language -- these and other statistics make up the demographic profile of the population. When you put them together e. The long-term history of the community can tell you about community traditions, what the community is, or has been, proud of, and what residents would prefer not to talk about. Community leaders, formal and informal. Some community leaders are elected or appointed -- mayors, city councilors, directors of public works. Community culture, formal and informal. This covers the spoken and unspoken rules and traditions by which the community lives. It can include everything from community events and slogans -- the blessing of the fishing fleet, the "Artichoke Capital of the World" -- to norms of behavior -- turning a blind eye to alcohol abuse or domestic violence -- to patterns of discrimination and exercise of power. Most communities have an array of groups and organizations of different kinds -- service clubs Lions, Rotary, etc. Knowing of the existence and importance of each of these groups can pave the way for alliances or for understanding opposition. Every community has institutions that are important to it, and that have more or less credibility with residents. Colleges and universities, libraries, religious institutions, hospitals -- all of these and many others can occupy important places in the community. Who are the major employers in the community? Who, if anyone, exercises economic power? How is wealth distributed? Would you characterize the community as poor, working, class, middle class, or affluent? Understanding the structure of community government is obviously important. Some communities may have strong mayors and weak city councils, others the opposite. Still other communities may have no mayor at all, but only a town manager, or may have a different form of government entirely. Whatever the government structure, where does political power lie? Understanding where the real power is can be the difference between a successful effort and a vain one. This area also includes perceptions and symbols of status and respect, and whether status carries entitlement or responsibility or both. Again, much of this area may be covered by investigation into others, particularly culture. What does the community care about, and what does it ignore? Is there widely accepted discrimination against one or more groups by the majority or by those in power? What are the norms for interaction among those who with different opinions or different

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backgrounds? There are obviously many more aspects of community that can be explored, such as health or education. Depending on your needs and information, this description might be anything from a two-or three-page outline to an in-depth portrait of the community that extends to tens of pages and includes charts, graphs, photographs, and other elements. The point of doing it is to have a picture of the community at a particular point in time that you can use to provide a context for your community assessment and to see the results of whatever actions you take to bring about change. It can be written as a story, can incorporate photos and commentary from community residents see Photovoice , can be done online and include audio and video, etc. The more interesting the description is, the more people are likely to actually read it. Why make the effort to understand and describe your community? Not having the proper background information on your community may not seem like a big deal until you unintentionally find yourself on one side of a bitter divide, or get involved in an issue without knowing about its long and tangled history. Some advantages to taking the time to understand the community and create a community description include: Capturing unspoken, influential rules and norms. There may be neighborhoods where staff members or participants should be accompanied by others in order to be safe, at least at night. Knowing the character of various areas and the invisible borders that exist among various groups and neighborhoods can be extremely important for the physical safety of those working and living in the community. Having enough familiarity with the community to allow you to converse intelligently with residents about community issues, personalities and geography. That can make both a community assessment and any actions and activities that result from it easier to conduct. Being able to talk convincingly with the media about the community. Providing background and justification for grant proposals. Knowing the context of the community so that you can tailor interventions and programs to its norms and culture, and increase your chances of success. When should you make an effort to understand and describe the community? Communities are complex, constantly-changing entities. Organizations have to remain dynamic in order to keep moving forward. Reexamining the community -- or perhaps examining it carefully for the first time -- can infuse an organization with new ideas and new purpose. Aside from when you first come to a community, this is probably the most vital time to do a community description. When a funder asks you to, often as part of a funding proposal. While researching and writing a community description can take time, your work can almost always benefit from the information you gather. Whom should you contact to gather information? In addition, however, there are some specific people that it might be important to talk to. In a typical community, they might include: Be prepared to learn from the community. Assume that you have a lot to learn, and approach the process with an open mind. Listen to what people have to say. Take notes -- you can use them later to generate new questions or to help answer old ones. Race relations in the U. There are a number of reasons why informants may tell you things that are inaccurate. In addition, some may intentionally exaggerate or downplay particular conditions or issues for their own purposes or for what they see as the greater good. The Chamber of Commerce or local government officials might try to make economic conditions look better than they are in the hopes of attracting new business to the community, for instance. Get information, particularly on issues, conditions, and relationships from many sources if you can. To the extent that you can, try not to do anything that will change the way people go about their daily business or express themselves. That usually means being as unobtrusive as possible -- not being obvious about taking pictures or making notes, for instance. In some circumstances, it could mean trying to gain trust and insight through participant observation. Participant observation is a technique that anthropologists use. It entails becoming part of another culture, both to keep people in it from being influenced by your presence and to understand it from the inside. Some researchers believe it addresses the problem of changing the culture by studying it , and others believe that it makes the problem worse. Take advantage of the information and facilities that help shape the world of those who have lived in the community for a long time. Read the local newspaper and the alternative paper, too, if there is one , listen to local radio, watch local TV, listen to conversation in cafes and bars, in barbershops and beauty shops. You can learn a great deal about a community by immersing yourself in its internal communication. The Chamber of

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Commerce will usually have a list of area businesses and organizations, along with their contact people, which should give you both points of contact and a sense of who the people are that you might want to get in touch with. Go to the library -- local librarians are often treasure troves of information, and their professional goal is to spread it around. Check out bulletin boards at supermarkets and laundromats. Even graffiti can be a valuable source of information about community issues. Every contact you make in the community has the potential to lead you to more contacts. Public records and archives. Most communities have their own websites, which often contain valuable information as well. Individual and group interviews. Interviews can range from casual conversations in a cafe to structured formal interviews in which the interviewer asks the same specific questions of a number of carefully chosen key informants. They can be conducted with individuals or groups, in all kinds of different places and circumstances. University researchers, staff and administrators of health and human service organizations, and activists may all have done considerable work to understand the character and inner workings of the community.

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## Chapter 6 : Culture and Business

*Difficulties with word choice aren't the only cause of awkwardness, vagueness, or other problems with clarity. Sometimes a sentence is hard to follow because there is a grammatical problem with it or because of the syntax (the way the words and phrases are put together).*

It involves recognizing a problem, searching for a way to change, and then beginning and sticking with that change strategy. There are, it turns out, many ways to help people move toward such recognition and action. Miller, Why do people change? Over the past 15 years, considerable research and clinical attention have focused on ways to better motivate substance users to consider, initiate, and continue substance abuse treatment, as well as to stop or reduce their excessive use of alcohol, cigarettes, and drugs, either on their own or with the help of a formal program. A related focus has been on sustaining change and avoiding a recurrence of problem behavior following treatment discharge. This shift parallels other recent developments in the addiction field, and the new motivational strategies incorporate or reflect many of these developments. Coupling a new therapeutic style--motivational interviewing--with a transtheoretical stages-of-change model offers a fresh perspective on what clinical strategies may be effective at various points in the recovery process. Motivational interventions resulting from this theoretical construct are promising clinical tools that can be incorporated into all phases of substance abuse treatment as well as many other social and health services settings. Motivation has been described as a prerequisite for treatment, without which the clinician can do little Beckman, Similarly, lack of motivation has been used to explain the failure of individuals to begin, continue, comply with, and succeed in treatment Appelbaum, ; Miller, b. Until recently, motivation was viewed as a static trait or disposition that a client either did or did not have. A client who seemed amenable to clinical advice or accepted the label of "alcoholic" or "drug addict" was considered to be motivated, whereas one who resisted a diagnosis or refused to adhere to the proffered treatment was deemed unmotivated. Although there are reasons why this view developed that will be discussed later, this guideline views motivation from a substantially different perspective. A New Definition The motivational approaches described in this TIP are based on the following assumptions about the nature of motivation: Motivation is a key to change. Motivation is dynamic and fluctuating. Motivation is influenced by social interactions. Motivation can be modified. Motivation is a key to change The study of motivation is inexorably linked to an understanding of personal change--a concept that has also been scrutinized by modern psychologists and theorists and is the focus of substance abuse treatment. The nature of change and its causes, like motivation, is a complex construct with evolving definitions. Few of us, for example, take a completely deterministic view of change as an inevitable result of biological forces, yet most of us accept the reality that physical growth and maturation do produce change--the baby begins to walk and the adolescent seems to be driven by hormonal changes. We recognize, too, that social norms and roles can change responses, influencing behaviors as diverse as selecting clothes or joining a gang, although few of us want to think of ourselves as simply conforming to what others expect. Certainly, we believe that reasoning and problem-solving as well as emotional commitment can promote change. The framework for linking individual change to a new view of motivation stems from what has been termed a phenomenological theory of psychology, most familiarly expressed in the writings of Carl Rogers. In this context, motivation is redefined as purposeful, intentional, and positive--directed toward the best interests of the self. More specifically, motivation is the probability that a person will enter into, continue, and adhere to a specific change strategy Miller and Rollnick, Motivation is multidimensional Motivation, in this new meaning, has a number of complex components that will be discussed in subsequent chapters of this TIP. It encompasses the internal urges and desires felt by the client, external pressures and goals that influence the client, perceptions about risks and benefits of behaviors to the self, and cognitive appraisals of the situation. Motivation is dynamic and fluctuating Research and experience suggest that motivation is a dynamic state that can fluctuate over time and in relation to different situations, rather than a static personal attribute. Motivation

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can vacillate between conflicting objectives. Motivation also varies in intensity, faltering in response to doubts and increasing as these are resolved and goals are more clearly envisioned. In this sense, motivation can be an ambivalent, equivocating state or a resolute readiness to act--or not to act. Motivation is influenced by social interactions Motivation belongs to one person, yet it can be understood to result from the interactions between the individual and other people or environmental factors Miller, b. Although internal factors are the basis for change, external factors are the conditions of change. Motivation can be modified Motivation pervades all activities, operating in multiple contexts and at all times. Consequently, motivation is accessible and can be modified or enhanced at many points in the change process. Clients may not have to "hit bottom" or experience terrible, irreparable consequences of their behaviors to become aware of the need for change. Experiences such as the following often prompt people to begin thinking about making changes and to consider what steps are needed: Distress levels may have a role in increasing the motivation to change or search for a change strategy Leventhal, ; Rogers et al. For example, many individuals are prompted to change and seek help during or following episodes of severe anxiety or depression. Critical life events often stimulate the motivation to change. Milestones that prompt change range from spiritual inspiration or religious conversion through traumatic accidents or severe illnesses to deaths of loved ones, being fired, becoming pregnant, or getting married Sobell et al. Cognitive evaluation or appraisal, in which an individual evaluates the impact of substances in his life, can lead to change. This weighing of the pros and cons of substance use accounts for 30 to 60 percent of the changes reported in natural recovery studies Sobell et al. Recognizing negative consequences and the harm or hurt one has inflicted on others or oneself helps motivate some people to change Varney et al. Helping clients see the connection between substance use and adverse consequences to themselves or others is an important motivational strategy. Positive and negative external incentives also can influence motivation. Supportive and empathic friends, rewards, or coercion of various types may stimulate motivation for change. Researchers have found dramatic differences in rates of client dropout or completion among counselors in the same program who are ostensibly using the same techniques Luborsky et al. Counselor style may be one of the most important, and most often ignored, variables for predicting client response to an intervention, accounting for more of the variance than client characteristics Miller and Baca, ; Miller et al. In a review of the literature on counselor characteristics associated with treatment effectiveness for substance users, researchers found that establishing a helping alliance and good interpersonal skills were more important than professional training or experience Najavits and Weiss, The most desirable attributes for the counselor mirror those recommended in the general psychological literature and include nonpossessive warmth, friendliness, genuineness, respect, affirmation, and empathy. A direct comparison of counselor styles suggested that a confrontational and directive approach may precipitate more immediate client resistance and, ultimately, poorer outcomes than a client-centered, supportive, and empathic style that uses reflective listening and gentle persuasion Miller et al. In this study, the more a client was confronted, the more alcohol the client drank. Confrontational counseling in this study included challenging the client, disputing, refuting, and using sarcasm. Your task is not, however, one of simply teaching, instructing, or dispensing advice. Rather, the clinician assists and encourages clients to recognize a problem behavior e. Research has shown that motivation-enhancing approaches are associated with greater participation in treatment and positive treatment outcomes. Such outcomes include reductions in consumption, increased abstinence rates, social adjustment, and successful referrals to treatment Landry, ; Miller et al. A positive attitude toward change and a commitment to change are also associated with positive treatment outcomes Miller and Tonigan, ; Prochaska and DiClemente, The benefits of employing motivational enhancement techniques include Inspiring motivation to change Preparing clients to enter treatment Engaging and retaining clients in treatment Increasing participation and involvement Encouraging a rapid return to treatment if symptoms recur Changing Perspectives on Addiction and Treatment Americans have often shown ambivalence toward excessive drug and alcohol use. They have vacillated between viewing offenders as morally corrupt sinners who are the concern of the clergy and the law and seeing them as victims of compulsive craving who should receive

medical treatment. After the passage of the Harrison Narcotics Act in 1914, physicians were imprisoned for treating addicts. In the 1920s, compassionate treatment of opiate dependence and withdrawal was available in medical clinics, yet at the same time, equally passionate support of the temperance movement and Prohibition was gaining momentum. These conflicting views were further manifested in public notions of who deserved treatment. e. Different views about the nature and etiology of addiction have more recently influenced the development and practice of current treatments for substance abuse. Differing theoretical perspectives have guided the structure and organization of treatment and the services delivered Institute of Medicine, b. Comparing substance abuse treatment to a swinging pendulum, one writer noted, Notions of moral turpitude and incurability have been linked with problems of drug dependence for at least a century. Even now, public and professional attitudes toward alcoholism are an amalgam of contrasting, sometimes seemingly irreconcilable views: The alcoholic is both sick and morally weak. The attitudes toward those who are dependent on opiates are a similar amalgam, with the element of moral defect in somewhat greater proportion Jaffee, , p. Evolving Models of Treatment The development of a modern treatment system for substance abuse dates only from the late 1950s, with the decriminalization of public drunkenness and the escalation of fears about crime associated with increasing heroin addiction. Nonetheless, the system has rapidly evolved in response to new technologies, research, and changing theories of addiction with associated therapeutic interventions. The six models of addiction described below have competed for attention and guided the application of treatment strategies over the last 30 years. Moral model Addiction is viewed by some as a set of behaviors that violate religious, moral, or legal codes of conduct. From this perspective, addiction results from a freely chosen behavior that is immoral, perhaps sinful, and sometimes illegal. It assumes that individuals who choose to misuse substances create suffering for themselves and others and lack self-discipline and self-restraint. Substance misuse and abuse are irresponsible and intentional actions that deserve punishment Wilbanks, , including arrest and incarceration Thombs, Because excessive substance use is seen as the result of a moral choice, change can only come about by an exercise of will power IOM, b , external punishment, or incarceration. Medical model A contrasting view of addiction as a chronic and progressive disease inspired what has come to be called the medical model of treatment, which evolved from earlier forms of disease models that stressed the need for humane treatment and hypothesized a dichotomy between "normals" and "addicts" or "alcoholics. More recent medical models take a broader "biopsychosocial" view, consonant with a modern understanding of chronic diseases as multiply determined. Nevertheless, emphasis continues to be placed on physical causes. In this view, genetic factors increase the likelihood for an individual to misuse psychoactive substances or to lose control when using them. Neurochemical changes in the brain resulting from substance use then induce continuing consumption, as does the development of physiological dependence. Treatment in this model is typically delivered in a hospital or medical setting and includes various pharmacological therapies to assist detoxification, symptom reduction, aversion, or maintenance on suitable alternatives. Responsibility for resolving the problem does not rest with the client, and change can come about only through acknowledging loss of control, adhering to medical prescriptions, and participating in a self-help group IOM, b. This model is often confused with the moral and medical models, but its emphasis is quite distinct from these Miller and Kurtz, In the original writings of AA, there is discussion of "defects of character" as central to understanding alcoholism, with particular emphasis on issues such as pride versus humility and resentment versus acceptance. In this view, substances are used in an attempt to fill a spiritual emptiness and meaninglessness. Spiritual models give much less weight to etiology than to the importance of a spiritual path to recovery. Twelve-Step programs are not wholly "self-help" programs but rather "Higher Power-help" programs. Instead, the path back to health is spiritual, involving surrender of the will to a Higher Power. Twelve-Step programs are rooted in American Protestantism, but other distinctly spiritual models do not rely on Christian or even theistic thought. Transcendental meditation, based on Eastern spiritual practice, has been widely practiced as a method for preventing and recovering from substance abuse problems Marlatt and Kristeller, Native American spirituality has been integrated into treatment programs serving Native

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American populations through the use of sweat lodges and other traditional rituals, such as singing and healing ceremonies. Spiritual models all share a recognition of the limitations of the self and a desire to achieve health through a connection with that which transcends the individual. Psychological model In the psychological model of addiction, problematic substance use results from deficits in learning, emotional dysfunction, or psychopathology that can be treated by behaviorally or psychoanalytically oriented dynamic therapies. He originated the notion of defense mechanisms e. Early psychoanalysis viewed substance abuse disorders as originating from unconscious death wishes and self-destructive tendencies of the id Thombs,

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## Chapter 7 : BBC - GCSE Bitesize: Understanding different contexts

*Understanding different contexts. Identifying the features of different kinds of speech is the first step in understanding spoken language. The second is hearing how speech changes to fit.*

Next Understanding different contexts Identifying the features of different kinds of speech is the first step in understanding spoken language. The second is hearing how speech changes to fit different contexts. Key to each context is purpose - why we are having the conversation in the first place. Are we sharing gossip with friends in order to bond more tightly with our social group? Or boasting of some achievement in order to raise our status within that group? Are we giving or asking for important information? Are we persuading someone we are trustworthy so they will give us a job? Changing the way we speak is an important way of building bridges in different social situations. Not responding to new contexts or people can cause problems. In the hands of comedians that means laughter. Here is a clip from a well-known comedy series called *Fawlty Towers*. It features the fantastically rude hotel-owner Basil Fawlty. When watching the clip, notice first how the way he speaks does not change according to the situation. He is rude and superior to everyone he speaks to. Then notice when it finally does. Again, the humour comes from a number of sources. Secondly, the only change in the way Fawlty speaks to the guest and the person on the phone is in degrees of rudeness. He orders the guest around without looking at him "Yes? Thirdly, the way he behaves does not change according to outside influences - until the guest mentions his name: Short, rude and so different from the standard language routines people traditionally employ at the end of phone calls where verbal politeness is very important because we cannot, of course, use body language to deepen the meaning of our words. He starts to apologise, smiles and even starts to bow. He sees Lord Melbury as his socially superior and the embodiment of everything he likes about traditional Britain. Later in the episode Fawlty pays heavily for his simple, snap judgements about people! This clip offers a vital truth about social language. We all change the way we speak depending on who we are talking to - but here we laugh at someone making those changes for reasons we are encouraged to see as wrong and ridiculous. The working class builder, who claims he has the flu, is rudely dismissed. Your speech in context One question you might be asked to think about is: You should use the techniques above to think about your word choice and accent in contexts such as:

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## Chapter 8 : Communication Tools for Understanding Cultural Differences | Beyond Intractability

*Communities reinvent themselves constantly, as new buildings and developments are put up and old ones torn down, as businesses move in and out, as populations shift -- both within the community and as people and groups move in and out -- and as economic, social, and political conditions change.*

For reasons to be discussed later, limitations in their mathematical framework initially made the theory applicable only under special and limited conditions. This situation has dramatically changed, in ways we will examine as we go along, over the past six decades, as the framework has been deepened and generalized. Refinements are still being made, and we will review a few outstanding problems that lie along the advancing front edge of these developments towards the end of the article. Despite the fact that game theory has been rendered mathematically and logically systematic only since , game-theoretic insights can be found among commentators going back to ancient times. Consider a soldier at the front, waiting with his comrades to repulse an enemy attack. But if he stays, he runs the risk of being killed or woundedâ€”apparently for no point. On the other hand, if the enemy is going to win the battle, then his chances of death or injury are higher still, and now quite clearly to no point, since the line will be overwhelmed anyway. Based on this reasoning, it would appear that the soldier is better off running away regardless of who is going to win the battle. Of course, this point, since it has occurred to us as analysts, can occur to the soldiers too. Does this give them a reason for staying at their posts? If each soldier anticipates this sort of reasoning on the part of the others, all will quickly reason themselves into a panic, and their horrified commander will have a rout on his hands before the enemy has fired a shot. Long before game theory had come along to show analysts how to think about this sort of problem systematically, it had occurred to some actual military leaders and influenced their strategies. Thus the Spanish conqueror Cortez, when landing in Mexico with a small force who had good reason to fear their capacity to repel attack from the far more numerous Aztecs, removed the risk that his troops might think their way into a retreat by burning the ships on which they had landed. With retreat having thus been rendered physically impossible, the Spanish soldiers had no better course of action but to stand and fightâ€”and, furthermore, to fight with as much determination as they could muster. He took care to burn his ships very visibly, so that the Aztecs would be sure to see what he had done. They then reasoned as follows: Any commander who could be so confident as to willfully destroy his own option to be prudent if the battle went badly for him must have good reasons for such extreme optimism. The Aztecs therefore retreated into the surrounding hills, and Cortez had his victory bloodlessly. These two situations, at Delium and as manipulated by Cortez, have a common and interesting underlying logic. Notice that the soldiers are not motivated to retreat just, or even mainly, by their rational assessment of the dangers of battle and by their self-interest. Rather, they discover a sound reason to run away by realizing that what it makes sense for them to do depends on what it will make sense for others to do, and that all of the others can notice this too. Even a quite brave soldier may prefer to run rather than heroically, but pointlessly, die trying to stem the oncoming tide all by himself. Thus we could imagine, without contradiction, a circumstance in which an army, all of whose members are brave, flees at top speed before the enemy makes a move. What we have here, then, is a case in which the interaction of many individually rational decision-making processesâ€”one process per soldierâ€”produces an outcome intended by no one. Most armies try to avoid this problem just as Cortez did. During the Battle of Agincourt Henry decided to slaughter his French prisoners, in full view of the enemy and to the surprise of his subordinates, who describe the action as being out of moral character. The reasons Henry gives allude to non-strategic considerations: However, a game theorist might have furnished him with supplementary strategic and similarly prudential, though perhaps not moral justification. His own troops observe that the prisoners have been killed, and observe that the enemy has observed this. Metaphorically, but very effectively, their boats have been burnt. The slaughter of the prisoners plausibly sent a signal to the soldiers of both sides, thereby changing their incentives in ways that favoured English prospects for victory.

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These examples might seem to be relevant only for those who find themselves in sordid situations of cut-throat competition. Perhaps, one might think, it is important for generals, politicians, mafiosi, sports coaches and others whose jobs involve strategic manipulation of others, but the philosopher should only deplore its amorality. Such a conclusion would be highly premature, however. The study of the logic that governs the interrelationships amongst incentives, strategic interactions and outcomes has been fundamental in modern political philosophy, since centuries before anyone had an explicit name for this sort of logic. Philosophers share with social scientists the need to be able to represent and systematically model not only what they think people normatively ought to do, but what they often actually do in interactive situations. The best situation for all people is one in which each is free to do as she pleases. Often, such free people will wish to cooperate with one another in order to carry out projects that would be impossible for an individual acting alone. But if there are any immoral or amoral agents around, they will notice that their interests might at least sometimes be best served by getting the benefits from cooperation and not returning them. Suppose, for example, that you agree to help me build my house in return for my promise to help you build yours. After my house is finished, I can make your labour free to me simply by renegeing on my promise. I then realize, however, that if this leaves you with no house, you will have an incentive to take mine. This will put me in constant fear of you, and force me to spend valuable time and resources guarding myself against you. I can best minimize these costs by striking first and killing you at the first opportunity. Of course, you can anticipate all of this reasoning by me, and so have good reason to try to beat me to the punch. Since I can anticipate this reasoning by you, my original fear of you was not paranoid; nor was yours of me. In fact, neither of us actually needs to be immoral to get this chain of mutual reasoning going; we need only think that there is some possibility that the other might try to cheat on bargains. Once a small wedge of doubt enters any one mind, the incentive induced by fear of the consequences of being preempted—“hit before hitting first”—quickly becomes overwhelming on both sides. If either of us has any resources of our own that the other might want, this murderous logic will take hold long before we are so silly as to imagine that we could ever actually get as far as making deals to help one another build houses in the first place. The people can hire an agent—a government—whose job is to punish anyone who breaks any promise. So long as the threatened punishment is sufficiently dire then the cost of renegeing on promises will exceed the cost of keeping them. The logic here is identical to that used by an army when it threatens to shoot deserters. If all people know that these incentives hold for most others, then cooperation will not only be possible, but will be the expected norm, and the war of all against all becomes a general peace. Few contemporary political theorists think that the particular steps by which Hobbes reasons his way to this conclusion are both sound and valid. Working through these issues here, however, would carry us away from our topic into details of contractarian political philosophy. What is important in the present context is that these details, as they are in fact pursued in the contemporary debates, all involve sophisticated interpretation of the issues using the resources of modern game theory. Notice that Hobbes has not argued that tyranny is a desirable thing in itself. The structure of his argument is that the logic of strategic interaction leaves only two general political outcomes possible: Sensible agents then choose tyranny as the lesser of two evils. The distinction between acting parametrically on a passive world and acting non-parametrically on a world that tries to act in anticipation of these actions is fundamental. The values of all of these variables are independent of your plans and intentions, since the rock has no interests of its own and takes no actions to attempt to assist or thwart you. Furthermore, his probable responses should be expected to visit costs upon you, which you would be wise to consider. Finally, the relative probabilities of his responses will depend on his expectations about your probable responses to his responses. The logical issues associated with the second sort of situation kicking the person as opposed to the rock are typically much more complicated, as a simple hypothetical example will illustrate. Suppose first that you wish to cross a river that is spanned by three bridges. Assume that swimming, wading or boating across are impossible. The first bridge is known to be safe and free of obstacles; if you try to cross there, you will succeed. The second bridge lies beneath a cliff from which large rocks sometimes fall. The third is inhabited

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by deadly cobras. Now suppose you wish to rank-order the three bridges with respect to their preferability as crossing-points. The first bridge is obviously best, since it is safest. To rank-order the other two bridges, you require information about their relative levels of danger. Your reasoning here is strictly parametric because neither the rocks nor the cobras are trying to influence your actions, by, for example, concealing their typical patterns of behaviour because they know you are studying them. It is obvious what you should do here: Now let us complicate the situation a bit. Your decision-making situation here is slightly more complicated, but it is still strictly parametric. However, this is all you must decide, and your probability of a successful crossing is entirely up to you; the environment is not interested in your plans. However, if we now complicate the situation by adding a non-parametric element, it becomes more challenging. Suppose that you are a fugitive of some sort, and waiting on the other side of the river with a gun is your pursuer. She will catch and shoot you, let us suppose, only if she waits at the bridge you try to cross; otherwise, you will escape. As you reason through your choice of bridge, it occurs to you that she is over there trying to anticipate your reasoning. It will seem that, surely, choosing the safe bridge straight away would be a mistake, since that is just where she will expect you, and your chances of death rise to certainty. So perhaps you should risk the rocks, since these odds are much better. But wait – if you can reach this conclusion, your pursuer, who is just as rational and well-informed as you are, can anticipate that you will reach it, and will be waiting for you if you evade the rocks. So perhaps you must take your chances with the cobras; that is what she must least expect. But, then, no – if she expects that you will expect that she will least expect this, then she will most expect it. This dilemma, you realize with dread, is general: You appear to be trapped in indecision. All that might console you a bit here is that, on the other side of the river, your pursuer is trapped in exactly the same quandary, unable to decide which bridge to wait at because as soon as she imagines committing to one, she will notice that if she can find a best reason to pick a bridge, you can anticipate that same reason and then avoid her. We know from experience that, in situations such as this, people do not usually stand and dither in circles forever. However, until the 19th century neither philosophers nor economists knew how to find it mathematically. As a result, economists were forced to treat non-parametric influences as if they were complications on parametric ones. This is likely to strike the reader as odd, since, as our example of the bridge-crossing problem was meant to show, non-parametric features are often fundamental features of decision-making problems. Classical economists, such as Adam Smith and David Ricardo, were mainly interested in the question of how agents in very large markets – “whole nations” – could interact so as to bring about maximum monetary wealth for themselves. Economists always recognized that this set of assumptions is purely an idealization for purposes of analysis, not a possible state of affairs anyone could try or should want to try to attain. But until the mathematics of game theory matured near the end of the 19th century, economists had to hope that the more closely a market approximates perfect competition, the more efficient it will be. No such hope, however, can be mathematically or logically justified in general; indeed, as a strict generalization the assumption was shown to be false as far back as the 18th century. This article is not about the foundations of economics, but it is important for understanding the origins and scope of game theory to know that perfectly competitive markets have built into them a feature that renders them susceptible to parametric analysis. Because agents face no entry costs to markets, they will open shop in any given market until competition drives all profits to zero.

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## Chapter 9 : Game Theory (Stanford Encyclopedia of Philosophy)

*CHAPTER 2 The Cultural Context 47 We often think of a culture in terms of its geography; for example, we think of Saudi Arabia as a hot, desert culture and of Siberia as a cold, mountainous one.*

From misdemeanors to violent felonies, some individuals step in to the criminal justice system and learn their lesson to never commit a crime again. Others unfortunately become repeat offenders with a never ending rap sheet. Environment obviously plays a huge role but it is only one of many factors. Particularly, the study of criminology targets why individuals commit crimes and why they behave in certain situations. By understanding why a person commits a crime, one can develop ways to control crime or rehabilitate the criminal. There are many theories in criminology. Some attribute crime to the individual; they believe that an individual weighs the pros and cons and makes a conscious choice whether or not to commit a crime. Some argue that some individuals have specific traits that will determine how they will react when put in certain negative conditions. Although varied in thought, everyone can agree that justice needs to be secured in a civilized society. Challenge your perception of crime with *Criminology Made Easy: A Simple Introduction to Criminology Theories*. Choice Theory – Choice theory is the belief that individuals choose to commit a crime, looking at the opportunities before them, weighing the benefit versus the punishment, and deciding whether to proceed or not. This cost-benefit analysis primarily focuses on the idea that we all have the choice to proceed with our actions. Because of the punishment involved, we are deterred from committing the crime. Classical Theory – Similar to the choice theory, this theory suggests that people think before they proceed with criminal actions; that when one commits a crime, it is because the individual decided that it was advantageous to commit the crime. The individual commits the crime from his own free will being well aware of the punishment. Conflict Theory – On a different spin, conflict theory holds that crime results from the conflicts in society among the different social classes, and that laws actually arise from necessity as a result of conflict, rather than a general consensus. The fundamental causes of crime are the social and economic forces operating within society. The criminal justice system and criminal law are thought to be operating on behalf of rich and powerful social elites, with resulting policies aimed at controlling the poor. The criminal justice establishment aims at imposing standards of morality and good behavior created by the powerful on the whole of society. Focus is on separating the powerful from the have-nots who would steal from others and protecting themselves from physical attacks. In the process the legal rights of poor folks might be ignored. The middle class are also co-opted; they side with the elites rather the poor, thinking they might themselves rise to the top by supporting the status quo. Thus, street crimes, even minor monetary ones are routinely punished quite severely, while large scale financial and business crimes are treated much more leniently. Theft of a television might receive a longer sentence than stealing millions through illegal business practices. Critical theory upholds the belief that a small few, the elite of the society, decide laws and the definition of crime; those who commit crimes disagree with the laws that were created to keep control of them. Critical criminology sees crime as a product of oppression of workers, particularly, the poorer sections and less advantaged groups within society, such as women and ethnic minorities, are seen to be the most likely to suffer oppressive social relations based upon class division, sexism and racism. More simply, critical criminology may be defined as any criminological topic area that takes into account the contextual factors of crime or critiques topics covered in mainstream criminology. Those who follow the labeling theory of criminology ascribe to the fact that an individual will become what he is labeled or what others expect him to become; the danger comes from calling a crime a crime and a criminal a criminal. Labeling theory holds that deviance is not inherent to an act, but instead focuses on the tendency of majorities to negatively label minorities or those seen as deviant from standard cultural norms. The theory was prominent during the 60s and 70s, and some modified versions of the theory have developed and are still currently popular. According to Wikipedia, life course theory focuses directly on the connection between individual lives and the historical and socioeconomic context in which

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these lives unfold. Positivist Theory –” On the other side of the spectrum, the positivist rejects the idea that each individual makes a conscious, rational choice to commit a crime but rather, some individuals are low in intelligence, social acceptance, or some other way, and that causes them to commit crime. This theory acts on the proposition that one who commits a crime cannot morally comprehend the wrongfulness of his actions in the same way individuals of average intelligence or who are socially accepted, etc are able to do so. The mind of these individuals has been affected in a particular way and therefore does not have the capability to make a conscious, rational choice to obey the law. Unfortunately a case can be made based on this theory regarding shootings on school campuses where students have murdered fellow students usually because of some type of bullying involved. Routine Activity theory –” Followers of the routine activity theory believe that crime is inevitable, and that if the target is attractive enough, crime will happen; effective measures must be in place to deter crime from happening. Drawing on the tenets of Routine Activity theory, Social Control theory is especially important when analyzing crime in impoverished areas. The effects of poverty on the likelihood of crime is no secret nor is it a new phenomenon. Various methods to provide children with social activities when their parents are unable to are very important in low-income neighborhoods. Giving children an alternative to a life of crime is necessary under this theory of criminology. A Common Goal Each theory has its own basis to explain why individuals commit crimes but as you can see, some overlap. Whatever the theory may be, the end goal of lessening the occurrence of all crimes is commonly shared. Criminology theory assists us in understanding why people commit crimes and enables us to attempt various courses of action in an effort to achieve that goal.