



Functional - cognitive abbreviation

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ABSTRACT

Not all new information encountered on a topic has an understandable reference system. In many cases there will be information gaps or lack of context. There, schemes play a hidden role by finding relationships between different ideas or concepts. This article is a cognitive acronym, what is it? provides information on how it is composed and structured.

Keywords:

Cognitive functioning, cognitive abbreviation, psychosocial presentation, clinical psychology, emotion OR emotional.

Cognitive functioning is another important aspect of the patient’s psychosocial presentation that is assessed during the pretransplant evaluation. It is fair to say that the concepts “cognition” and “cognitive” are pivotal in modern day psychology and that is no less true in empirical clinical psychology. To illustrate, a search on ISI Web of Science that was performed on September 19nd 2016 generated 468,850 hits when using “cognition OR cognitive” as a search term. As a (less than perfect but not trivial) comparison, consider the fact that the search term “emotion OR emotional” generated less than half that number of hits (209,087). A similar ratio was found when limiting these searches to articles dealing with clinical psychology or psychotherapy. Despite its pivotal role, it is often not entirely clear what “cognition” (and thus “cognitive” as involving cognition) exactly means. In the first two sections of this chapter, we discuss two different perspectives on the nature of cognition. First, within cognitive psychology, cognition is typically defined in terms of information processing. Second, within functional psychology, cognition is conceptualized in terms of behavior. We then point out that both perspectives are not

mutually exclusive. More specifically, they can be reconciled within a functional-cognitive framework for psychological research that recognizes two interdependent levels of explanation in psychology: a functional level that aims to explain behavior in terms of elements in the environment and a cognitive level that is directed at understanding the mental mechanisms by which elements in the environment influence behavior. We end the chapter by highlighting some of the implications of this functionalcognitive perspective on cognition for evidence-based psychotherapy. The fundamental assumption of contiguous causation becomes apparent in how cognitive psychologists deal with the phenomenon of latent learning, that is, the impact of experiences at Time 1 (e.g., a rat exploring a maze with no food in it; a person experiencing a traumatic event) on behavior during a later Time 2 (e.g., the speed of locating food when it is afterwards placed in the same maze; panic attacks that occur days, weeks, or years after the traumatic event; Tolman & Honzik, 1930; see Chiesa, 1992, and De Houwer, BarnesHolmes, & Moors, 2013, for a related discussion of latent learning). For cognitive psychologists, the change in behavior

at Time 2 must be due to information that is present at Time 2 simply because there is an assumption that each thought and behavior needs a contiguous cause, that is, something here and now that causes the thoughts and behaviors at that time. This contiguous cause cannot be the experience with the maze at Time 1 because this event has already passed at Time 2 when the behavior is observed. If one accepts the basic assumption that mental mechanisms necessarily drive behavior, then the only possible explanation for latent learning is that (a) the original experience at Time 1 produced some kind of mental representation at Time 1, (b) this representation was retained in memory until Time 2, and (c) it functioned as a contiguous cause of the thoughts and behaviors at Time 2. Hence, from a cognitive perspective (i.e., based on the assumption that all behavior is driven by mental mechanisms), latent learning can be said to demonstrate the existence of mental representations in memory.

Understanding a bit about cognitive functions and personality type will give you a framework for understanding yourself and other people. So if you want better relationships at home or at work, personality type will give you a method for understanding people and for adjusting your approach with people, especially the difficult people in your life. It takes some practice. But once you understand the basics of personality type, and you see a person behaving in a certain way, the system will tell you why they behave that way and what you might do about it. The best way to learn about personality type is to start with the cognitive functions, described below.

Of course, Neisser's definition is not the only definition of cognition within the cognitive psychology literature, nor has it gone uncontested (see Moors, 2007, for an excellent analysis of the various definitions that have been put forward in that literature). Some researchers specified criteria that single out some instances of information processing as "true" instances of cognition (e.g., criteria regarding the type of representations on which information processes operate or regarding the output of the processes; see Moors, 2007). Other cognitive psychologists use the term

cognition also to refer to a subset of mental states. For instance, when contrasting cognition and emotion, cognitive researchers sometimes imply that cognitive states are non-emotional in that they involve "cold" beliefs rather than "hot" emotional experiences. Still others even exclude all phenomenological, conscious experience from the realm of cognitive states (see Moors, 2007). Finally, whereas Neisser's reference to Cognition 7 cognition as the operation of a computer program implies disembodied serial information processing, others proposed that humans process information in a parallel manner using subsymbolic representations (e.g., McClelland & Rumelhart, 1985) or in ways that are closely tied into the biological nature of the human body (i.e., "embodied"; e.g., Barsalou, 2008). Despite these important differences in opinion, most if not all cognitive psychologists retained both the assumption that humans (and nonhuman animals) process information and the goal to try to uncover how humans process information. Hence, we can safely conclude that, from the perspective of cognitive psychology, information processing lies at the heart of cognition. Cognitive work in psychotherapy is often not formally based on specific theories in cognitive science, but most of these perspectives retain an information processing focus as specific types of schemas, core beliefs, irrational cognitions, and the list are examined.

During the past fifty years, cognitive psychology has been so dominant that many psychologists will be surprised to discover that one can also think of cognition in a way that does not involve information processing. This is particularly important for the current volume, because some of the psychotherapy work in acceptance and mindfulness is based on a functional-analytic approach that adopts a non-informational perspective on language and thinking. This approach describes relations between environment and behavior in a way that serve to predict-and-influence behavior (see Chiesa 1994; Hayes & Brownstein, 1986). We are not arguing that the functional approach is inherently better or superior to the traditional or "mainstream" approach, rather

that psychology, and clinical psychology in particular, should not be presented with an “either-or” choice in this regard. behavior (see the section on functional contextualism in Chapter 2, or Zettle, Hayes, BarnesHolmes, & Biglan, 2016, for a recent book-length treatment). In a functional-contextual approach, functional relations can be “spread out” between and among events across both time and space. Let us return to the example of latent learning. For a functional psychologist, it suffices to say that a change in behavior at Time 2 is a function of an experience at Time 1. While what Skinner called “the physiologist of the future” (1974, p. 236) may one day provide additional information about that gap, the concept of the functional relation itself is in no way incomplete merely because it is spread out across time and space. For functional contextualists, descriptions of this kind are considered adequate because they generate scientific verbal analyses that permit basic and applied researchers, and practitioners, to predict and influence the behavior of individuals and groups. The functional approach extends well beyond a brute form of empiricism, without collapsing into a collection of techniques for behavioral change, by holding fast to analyses with precision, scope, and depth as scientific goals (Hayes, Barnes-Holmes, & Roche, 2001; see also Chapters 2 and 6). Precision requires that behavior analysis seeks to identify or generate a limited or parsimonious set of principles and theories of behavioral change. Scope requires that these principles and theories should apply across a wide range of behaviors or psychological events. And depth requires that such scientific analyses should not contradict or disagree with well-established scientific evidence and analyses in other scientific domains (e.g., a behavioral “fact” should be broadly consistent with facts established in neuroscience or anthropology). A classic example of a functional analytic concept is the three-term contingency (described in the previous chapter) that defines operant behavior (or the four-term contingency, if motivational factors are added). Nothing in the concept of an operant requires immediate contiguity – the focus is on the

functional relation among classes of events. Rules as relational networks. According to RFT, understanding and following verbal rules or instructions is a result of frames of coordination and temporal relations that contain contextual cues and that transform specific behavioral functions. Consider the simple instruction, “If the light is green, then go.” It involves frames of coordination among the words “light”, “green” and “go” and the actual events to which they refer. In addition, the words “if” and “then” serve as contextual cues for establishing a temporal or contingency relation between the actual light and the act of actually going (i.e., first light then go). And the relational network as a whole involves a transformation of the functions of the light itself, such that it now controls the act of “going” whenever an individual who has been presented Cognition 13 with the rule observes the light being switched on. Although the foregoing example is a relatively simple one, the basic concept may be elaborated to provide a functional-analytic treatment of increasingly complex rules and instructions (e.g., O’Hora, Barnes-Holmes, Roche, & Smeets, 2004; O’Hora, Barnes-Holmes, & Stewart, 2014).

Abbreviations and acronyms are shorter versions of existing words and phrases. They’re designed to save time and take up less space (whether you’re typing or writing by hand), and can even make your writing easier to read. Abbreviations are all around us, from common titles like Dr. and Prof. to the abbreviations you see on street signs. Specifically, abbreviations are shorter spellings of words and expressions we use every day. You might already know some acronyms, like NASA (National Aeronautics and Space Administration) and ATM (automated teller machine). An acronym is a - for a string of words, usually an organization name, slogan, or something else equally wordy. Unlike abbreviations, they aren’t shorter spellings of words—they’re made up of the words’ initials. Abbreviations are usually formed using the most recognizable letters from the word or expression. This makes them easier to remember, and easy for others to read. It’s almost like the letters are clues that point to the original word or

expression. Now that you know how abbreviations are formed, you may be wondering how they're pronounced. Most of the time, they're pronounced the same as the original word—whether you're reading it aloud or in your head.

For example, Prof. Snape would be pronounced Professor Snape (not Prof Snape). The abbreviation etc. would be pronounced et cetera (not e-t-c). The important thing to remember is that abbreviations aren't words in the true sense—they're more like shorthand.

There are some exceptions that are pronounced differently. For instance, AM, PM, i.e., and PhD are pronounced exactly the way they're spelled. This happens when the abbreviation becomes more popular than the original term—usually because the original is too long or outdated. For example, AM stands for Ante Meridiem. (That's Latin for before noon. Who knew?)

Luckily, there aren't many exceptions like this, so you don't have to worry too much about making a mistake. Most abbreviations are pronounced the same as the word they're based on, like hr, min, and sec (that's hour, minute, and second).

Period vs. no period

This is one of the most common questions people have about abbreviations: Do you have to use a period at the end when writing it out? There's no strict rule that says you do—it's kind of up to you.

Sometimes adding a period is expected and can make the abbreviation easier to read. Take the example below. Pop. is the abbreviation for the word population—without a period, it might just look like pop (as in pop goes the weasel).

On the other hand, some abbreviations never use a period; for example, state postal abbreviations like NY, CA, and TX. The abbreviation for United States of America can be written with a period between each letter, but it's much more common without. The same goes for measurement abbreviations like ft, in, and cm.

Is it OK to use abbreviations?

Look closely at the heading above, and you may find your answer. Believe it or not, OK is an

abbreviation too, and we use it on the site all the time.

A good rule for abbreviations is to put the reader first. Ask yourself: Will the abbreviation make the sentence easier to read, or will it confuse the reader (for example, if the abbreviation is too obscure)? If an abbreviation still sounds like a good idea, next consider the context. Abbreviations are perfectly OK in personal and casual writing—they're often OK in formal writing too. You might want to ask your boss or your teacher if you're unsure.

Using acronyms

As you read earlier, acronyms are used in place of a phrase or string of words. They're almost always made up of the words' initials and are spelled in all caps. They can represent all kinds of things, from organizations to mnemonics to sandwiches.

Sometimes you may need to explain the acronym when using it in writing. Style guides suggest that you write the acronym first, followed by the full name or phrase in parentheses. You can also write them in the opposite order—whatever makes more sense. In short, if the acronym is more widely known, list it first; if it's more obscure, you may want to start with the entire phrase. A lot of contemporary acronyms might need to be explained for different reasons (this also applies to the chat abbreviations that we discussed earlier). Not everyone will be familiar with slang like NIMBY (not in my back yard) and TGIF (thank goodness it's Friday). As always, this type of slang can be OK in certain contexts, but it might leave some readers feeling confused.

Conclusion

It is imperative to understand the patient's current level of cognitive functioning and the likely contributor(s) to it for a number of reasons, including the patient's ability to provide informed consent, the patient's ability to adhere to posttransplant requirements, and the likely course of decline or improvement in cognitive functioning. Patients must be able to provide informed consent for transplantation, which means they must be able to reasonably understand the risks and benefits of

transplantation for them. It is also important that patients have an understanding of what will be required of them after transplantation, including clinic visits, regular laboratory evaluations, and lifelong medication adherence.

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