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| NAME: EXAM ROOM NUMBER: **Time: 60 minutes**  |

 **READING TEXT 1** (15 points)

**ANIMAL EXPERIMENTATION**

**A)** Many medical research institutions make use of non-human animals as test subjects. Animals may be subject to experimentation or modified into conditions useful for gaining knowledge about human disease or for testing potential human treatments. Because animals as distant from humans as mice and rats share many [physiological](http://web.stanford.edu/group/hopes/cgi-bin/hopes_test/glossary/physiological/) and [genetic](http://web.stanford.edu/group/hopes/cgi-bin/hopes_test/glossary/genetic/) similarities with humans, animal experimentation is thought to be tremendously helpful for furthering medical science. In this respect, throughout history many scientists, like Robert Boyle, Stephen Hales and Luigi Galvani, used animals to prove their scientific theories.

**B)** However, there is an ongoing debate about animal experimentation. It is argued by some people that *all* animal experimentation should end because it is wrong to treat animals merely as tools for furthering knowledge. According to this point of view, an animal should have as much right as a human being to live out a full life, free of pain and suffering. Proponents of continued animal experimentation, on the other hand, argue that while it is wrong to unnecessarily abuse animals, animal experimentation must continue because of the enormous scientific resource that animal models provide.

**C)** In 1959, William Russell and Rex Burch proposed their “3Rs” guidelines for making the use of animals in scientific research more humane: restrict the use of animals; refine experiments to minimize distress; and replace tests with alternative techniques. Over the course of five decades, their guidelines have become widely accepted worldwide, and while the reliability of published reports on the numbers used varies, they do at least provide a snapshot of historical trends. Around 29 million animals per year, predominantly rats and mice, are currently used in experiments in the US and European Union countries. This is less than half the total in the mid-1970s – a significant drop, but one that has stayed constant in the last decade.

**D)** On closer scrutiny, there exists a wide range of positions on the debate over animal testing. The two main views mentioned above represent two common positions at the opposing ends of the spectrum.

**The Case against Animal Experimentation**

**E)** An important part of the debate over animal rights centers on the question of the moral status of an animal. Most people agree that animals have at least some moral status – that is why it is wrong to needlessly hurt animals. This alone represents a shift from a past view where animals had no moral status and treating an animal well was more about maintaining human standards of dignity than respecting any innate rights of the animal. In modern times, the question has shifted from whether animals have moral status to how much moral status they have and what rights come with that status. The ethicists who ***endorse*** a pro-animal rights position do not mean that animals are entitled to the very same treatment as humans; arguing that animals should have the right to vote or hold office is clearly absurd. The claim is that animals should be afforded the same level of respectful treatment as humans.

**F)** One common form of this argument claims that moral status comes from the capacity to suffer or to enjoy life. In respect to this capacity, many animals are no different than humans. They can feel pain and experience pleasure. Therefore, they should have the same moral status and deserve equal treatment. Peter Singer's 1975 book, Animal liberation, brought the issue to a much wider audience. In it, he catalogued the suffering inflicted on animals in the name of science and farming and argued that such animals deserved equal consideration, based on their capacity to suffer. He adopted the principle that moral judgments should be made based on equal interests irrespective of sex,

ethnicity, or now, species. To make a distinction between humans and non‐humans is, to Singer, “speciesism”, an argument no better than sexism or racism.

**G)** Animal testing is claimed to not just be dangerous to the animals tested on, but to humans, as well. The reason may be because of the unreliable results animal testing produces. Dr. Richard Klausner, a former director of the National Cancer Institute stated, "We have cured mice of cancer for decades, and it simply didn't work in humans." The journal of Annals of Internal Medicine revealed that universities often exaggerate results from animal experiments conducted in their laboratories as well as often promote research that has uncertain relevance to human health and do not provide key facts or acknowledge important limitations. Of the drugs tested on animals, ninety-two percent of them do not make it through Phase 1 of human clinical trials.

**H)** Opposition to animal experimentation is often said to derive from lack of knowledge about science. But according to a 1994 survey led by Linda Pfeifer of the Chicago Academy of Sciences, negative attitudes toward animal experimentation in the U.S. relate only weakly with lack of knowledge about science. In Belgium, France and Italy, for instance, greater scientific literacy is connected with an increased rejection of animal experimentation.

**The Case for Animal Experimentation**

**I)** Defenders of animal experimentation claim that the benefits to humans from animal experimentation outweigh the harm done to animals. The first step in making that argument is to show that humans are more important than animals. Some philosophers advocate the idea of a moral community; that is a group of individuals who all share certain traits in common. By sharing these traits, they belong to a particular moral community and thus take on certain responsibilities toward each other and assume specific rights. \_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_If animals do not have the same rights as humans, it becomes permissible to use them for research purposes. Under this view, the ways in which experimentation might harm the animal are less morally significant than the potential human benefits from the research.

**J)** One problem with this type of argument is that many humans themselves do not actually meet the criteria for belonging to the human moral community. Both infants and those with mental disorders frequently lack complex [cognitive](http://web.stanford.edu/group/hopes/cgi-bin/hopes_test/glossary/cognitive/) capacities, full autonomy, or even both of these traits. Are those individuals outside the human moral community? Do they lack fundamental human rights, and should we use them for experimentation? One philosophical position actually accepts those consequences. However, most people are uncomfortable with that scenario and some philosophers have put forth a variety of reasons to include all humans in the human moral community.

**K)** Besides the moral aspect of the issue, it is also believed that without the ability to use animals in their research, scientists’ efforts would be massively ***hampered***, not only in the direct development of new treatments, but also in the fundamental research which supports all biomedical

knowledge. In fact, animal research has contributed to 70 per cent of Nobel prizes for physiology or medicine.

**L)** In an article published in 2008, the neurobiologist Collin Blakemore stated, “Where there are reliable alternatives, scientists use them, which is what the law demands. No one chooses to use animals where there is no need. It gives no one any pleasure, and it is time consuming, expensive and quite rightly subject to layers of regulation. Magnetic resonance imaging, computer models and work on isolated tissues and cell cultures can be useful, but they cannot provide the answers that animal research can.”

**M)** Obviously, discussions on the use of animals in experiments often attract extreme points of view where two opposing sides appear to be stubborn and no possibility of compromise exists. But

there are many on both sides of the argument who want to find a middle ground where useful discussions can take place. The “bottom line” for the middle ground position is that animal experimentation should be avoided whenever possible in favor of alternative research strategies.

**READING TEXT 2** (15 points)

**PROCRASTINATION**

**A** Most of us can recall a time in our lives when we have *procrastinated*, perhaps because it is a nuanced concept that appears to be understood differently by different individuals. Procrastination refers to an individual’s intentional delay of an intended course of action, despite being aware of negative outcomes. Broadly speaking, the term ‘procrastination’ seems to be commonly used to refer to an episode when an individual is ‘putting off’ or failing to complete an activity such as doing homework or filing a tax return in any given moment.

**B** *“Nothing is so fatiguing as the eternal hanging on of an uncompleted task”* said William James in an 1886 letter to fellow psychologist Carl Stumpf. Procrastination is not a new phenomenon. William James recognized the psychological cost of procrastination 120 years ago, and Psychologist Steel (2007) traces procrastination references back to 800 B.C. Contemporary psychologists are increasingly interested in conducting research that explains procrastination, but in spite of growing research attention, much has yet to be learned about the causes of procrastination, and procrastination remains one of the least understood human miseries; thus, it is a relatively unexplored psychological construct.

**C** Procrastination appears to be a significant problem especially among students. Students may intend to perform an academic activity within the expected or desired time frame yet failing to motivate themselves to carry out the intention. Academic procrastination can be described as an irrational tendency to delay in the completion of an academic task, even to the point of creating emotional discomfort and anxiety. Procrastination appears to be a problem behavior for many college students. It has been estimated that 80–95% of college students engage in procrastination. Approximately 50% procrastinate on academic tasks consistently and problematically.

**D** Procrastination can also take a toll on a student's mental health and well-being. In one 2007 study, Florida State University psychologist Dianne M. Tice examined procrastination among students in a health psychology class. She found that early in the semester, procrastinators reported lower stress and less illness than non-procrastinators, but that late in the term, procrastinators reported higher stress and more illness. Academic procrastination can be troubling to students because a range of studies have linked procrastination to negative outcomes including poor academic performance, missing or late assignments, cramming, anxiety during tests, use of self-handicapping strategies, and difficulties in following directions. Procrastination also can result in damaging mental health outcomes such as depression and lower levels of self-esteem.

**A Survey on Taiwanese Adolescents’ Academic Procrastination**

**E** Academic stress is common among Asian students due to familial and cultural demands for academic excellence. The priority goal for Taiwanese junior high students is to obtain satisfactory scores on the entrance examination for senior high schools (Grades 10–12). The pursuit of examination success has turned classrooms into settings focused largely on the preparation for examinations. Adolescents spend a large part of lives in school environment and often evaluate themselves on the basis of academic performance. Schools hence can be a stressful environment filled with fear of failure and test anxiety that may contribute to Taiwanese adolescent students’ inclination to procrastinate. Therefore, a total of 405 eighth-grade Taiwanese students completed a self-reported survey assessing their perceptions of classroom structure, parental expectations and criticism, perfectionistic tendencies, and time management to reach some findings about academic procrastination.

**F** As expected, adolescents’ perceptions of classroom structure positively predict their tendency to procrastinate. Structure refers to the amount and clarity of information that teachers provide to students about how to effectively achieve desired educational outcomes. The provision of classroom structure helps to nurture students’ perceived competence in terms of managing academic tasks .When teachers guide students learning by conveying clear direction, scheduling academic activities, and offering feedback on their personal development, students are motivated to manage time effectively to carry out the learning task. Teachers can increase students’ ability to plan their study by instructing them to set proximal goals for academic tasks. Setting specific proximal goals may elevate students’ motivation to complete the work and thus alleviate their procrastination. In turn, those who hold high standards of performance and have a strong sense of orderliness are more likely to employ planning and other techniques

to manage time while pursuing their academic goals. Teachers can provide mastery-oriented motivational support through explicitly conveying to students that making mistakes is a natural part of learning. In an environment where students feel free to take risks, make mistakes, and try again on their way to success without worrying about putting their self-worth in jeopardy, their concerns about negative evaluation are supposed to be greatly eased.

 **G** Likewise, in the family environment, parental expectations are thought to engender students’ time management behaviors that may help to meet the high standards set by parents. Parental criticism, nevertheless, may be detrimental to students’ engagement in time management. Students’ fear of being punished for not meeting parent-set standards is likely to generate avoidance motivation that may undermine their desire to use time effectively in order to achieve academic excellence. When it comes to adolescents’ academic procrastination, parents appear to have much greater influence than teachers do. When students perceive parents’ critical attitudes toward their failure to meet the standard, such perceptions may result in fear of failure that eventually leads to procrastination. Parents’ expectations of excellence without criticism about children’s less than perfect performance may reduce their children’s tendencies to put off starting homework and preparing for the examination. Parental expectations may encourage students to manage time effectively and therefore help to **mitigate** their academic procrastination. Parental criticism, by contrast, may be deleterious to students’ time management and in turn, heighten their proclivity to procrastinate when engaging in schoolwork.

**H** In addition to parental influences, individuals’ perfectionistic tendencies also function as predictors of their procrastination on homework and preparing for the examination. Perfectionism has been generally conceptualized as a an individual’s dispositional tendency to set excessively high standards for performance and to define worth by the accomplishments of those standards. Simply setting high standards and striving for excellence without worrying about failure is likely to motivate students to approach success. This approach may enable students to actively pursue challenging tasks. Such engagement behaviors, apparently, are beneficial for alleviating academic procrastination. Nevertheless, over the past two decades, theorists and researchers have begun to distinguish between maladaptive and adaptive perfectionism based on cumulative evidence. Adaptive perfectionism involves setting high personal standards and striving for success without psychological distress. Maladaptive perfectionism, in contrast, is linked to the concern over making mistakes. Individuals with maladaptive perfectionism tend to equate mistakes with failures and to worry that failure will lead to the loss of respect of others **\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_\_.**

**I** Final implication that can be drawn from the present findings is that the training of time management skills for adolescents may be particularly useful to diminish their academic procrastination. Time management refers to achievement behaviors aiming at using time effectively while engaging in goal-directed activities. Adolescents who are able to use time effectively while engaging in academic tasks are less likely to procrastinate. Nonetheless, not all the procrastinators are the same.In a 2005 study in *The Journal of Social Psychology*, Jin Nam Choi, a business professor at Seoul National University in South Korea, differentiated between two types of procrastinators: passive procrastinators, who postpone tasks until the last minute because of an inability to act in a timely manner, and active procrastinators, who prefer the time pressure and purposely decide to delay a task but are still able to complete tasks before deadlines and achieve satisfactory outcomes. He found that although active procrastinators reported the same level of procrastination as their passive counterparts, they demonstrated a productive use of time, adaptive coping styles and academic performance outcomes that were nearly identical to—and in some cases even better than—those of non-procrastinators.

**J** Academic procrastination may sometimes be discussed in a lighthearted and trivializing fashion and receive only a fraction of the research attention devoted to other common psychological problems like depression, but the consequences are not trivial for the minority of people for whom procrastination is a serious problem. It is highly significant that procrastination research should be pursued universally to help explain the mystery of why people choose to delay a course of action even when there can be serious negative consequences.