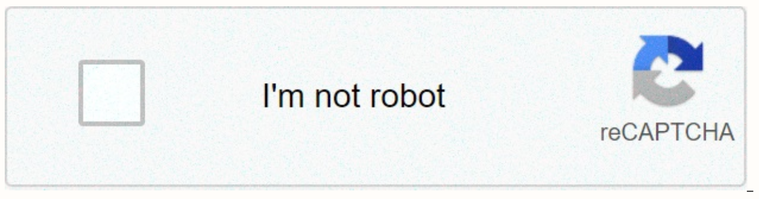

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Nbme obgyn form 1

Categories are groups or item classes with shared features. We use categories in our daily lives without realizing it! It is how we organize our pantry, find certain items in the store, and remember the names of less used words in conversation. Categories are fundamental for how we learn, hon, store, and remember the words. Categorization is important in language because it gives us ways to collect thoughts, process information, store and get ideas, and describe items! Arranging thoughts, concepts, and words into categories facilitates meaning, memory, and retribution (Roth & Troia, 2005) Categories provide a link between words based on equations and differences. Working on categories is the best way to build and grow vocabulary. Learning a new vocabulary by category allows for better understanding and retention, and helps filing it better to recall easier. Those with language disorders have a hard time arranging and remembering words, and categorization is the best way to deal with this difficulty. EXAMPLES OF CATEGORIES IN DEVELOPMENTAL ORDER: Preschool – animals, body parts, clothing, shoes, jewelry, color, letters, shapes, numbers, family members, days a week, desserts, food, names, household rooms, furniture, sounds, Early Elementary toys – snacks, drinks, dairy food, vegetables, pets, book parts, buildings, characters, coins, seasonings, containers, dinosaurs, directions, emotions, flowers, fruits, fruits, holidays, ramifications, reptiles, insects, rhythmic words, seasons, senses, kitchen utensils, sizes, solids, sounds, sports, transportation, tools, vocals, writing equipment, late Elementary school supplies - mythical creatures, adjectives, verbs, part speech, school subject, business, city, state, consonants, countries, continents, currencies, exercises, habitats, mammals, measurement units, metals, nouns, oceans, odd/even numbers, president, punctuation, punctures, symbols, textures, textures, trees, weather Middle/High School – adverbs , ancient civilizations, constellations, culinary, elements, famous landmarks, government types, gas, gems, internal organs, language, minerals, mountain ranges, types of music, religion, traditional ways TO TARGET CATEGORIES IN SPEECH THERAPY: When starting to work on categories, target more concrete concepts later Also, it should be noted easier to identify categories compared to naming items Naming converged: Name a category (Apple, orange, and banana ...) Different naming: Listing items in categories (Name 3 types of transport.) What happens together: Find 2 or more items that go along discuss why. Matches are the best way to work on these skills! What is not Listed items that don't belong and discuss why Sort tasks: There are plenty of ways to sort. I like to use tangible objects when starting; you can also use pictures. Sort by feature, function, or sort items into groups 2-3. Similarities and differences/comparisons and different: Comparing and different allows us to classify words, help with understanding, storage, and retribution. Talk about similarities and differences and use Venn tables or diagrams when appropriate. This website uses cookies to improve your experience as you navigate through the website. From these cookies, cookies that are categorized as having to be stored on your browser because it is important to work out the basic functions of the website. We also use third-party cookies that help us analyze and understand how you use this website. These cookies will be stored in your browser only with your consent. You also have the option to opt out of these cookies. But opting out of some of these cookies may have an impact on your browsing experience. 4 min reading Categorization is a process in which ideas and objects are recognized, ventilated, and understood. Categorization implies that objects are grouped into categories, usually for specific purposes. Ideally, the category ilrogged the relationship between objects. Categorization is fundamental in language, prediction, inference, decision making and in all kinds of environmental interactions. – Wikipedia We use categories to organize our world and thinking. Lane grocery stores, clothes in our closet, and books in the library are all arranged and sorted based on categories. Our ability to understand and navigate these categories makes it easy to find what we're looking for more efficiently. Similarly, we keep words in our brains using categories. Networking means the concept of links with shared features. When a network is activated, words associated along it are quicker to understand and generate. In the damaged brain, this network may be damaged, slow thinking, speech, and understanding. Categories not only help us process information, they also help us learn, remember, and integrate new information. New people we meet can be categorized in the brain according to where we meet, the role they play, or who introduces us. We learn new words by concluding parts of speech and meaning through context, then integrating words into our mental network with connections to synonyms, antonyms, and related concepts. When we come back to get these words, we may first category before honing the right concept or name. People who have difficulty talking often face problems with categories. They may struggle to see how items are connected, and without these connections, they have more difficulty finding the words they are looking for. Search. many aid devices that have been designed for people with aphasia rely on category-based word grids. This Augmentative & Alternative Communication (AAC) app sorts words into categories such as 'Food,' 'Feelings,' and 'Basic Needs' and then expects users to search for the right words by navigating to it. If we want someone who has aphasia to use such a communication system, we must first ensure that the person understands that 'happy' is the feeling and 'hot dog' is food. This seems intuitive, but the damaged brain doesn't work in a healthy way. Evaluating and treating the ability to find specific category members and classifying items given as belonging to certain categories is an important step in the process of speech therapy. In the processing of more advanced categories, it can be valuable to not only identify categories, but also to generate other members belonging to that category. This is called a mutated or different nomination. The ability to fluently list categories members is a common diagnostic tool of brain health. Doctors asked patients to name all the animals they could in a minute, and compared the results to the norms of the general population and were affected. This is a test of oral fury. Go enough – try it! How many animals can you name in 60 seconds? How do you do? The typical range is 15-20, but these changes are based on gender, education, and age. What strategies do you use? Do you start with cats and dogs, then perhaps name some pets before moving on to horses, cows, and other farm animals? If you do something similar, you use a sub-category of sub-categories of animals. Pets, farm animals, zoo animals, forest animals, reptiles, birds, sea animals, etc. This is a very efficient strategy, and that may need to be rescued after a stroke. The test, called semantic fluency test, is included in the Advanced Naming Therapy application. Email the decision to see the norm published for comparison. The app also includes a word phone phension test that starts with F, A and S. Here are some common speech therapy exercises that can help strengthen the category concept: Name a category. Ex: What categories does 'dog' belong? Find a member of the category. Ex: Which one animal? Dogs, stones, or apples? Name another in an unstable category. Ex: Dogs, horses, lions. What else? Search that doesn't belong to a category that doesn't belong to a non-resident category. Ex: Which one doesn't belong? Dog, horse, lion, apple? Name 5 category members. Ex: Name 5 types of fruits. Name a member which begins with certain letters. Ex: Name the fruit that begins with A. Tactus Applications can help Category Therapy, professional speech therapy applications, allow unlimited practice of 70 categories in 3 difficulty levels across 4 activities to strengthen categorization skills essential for Life. Advanced Naming Therapy also includes fun generational exercises categories. It includes more than 200 categories and constraints with count-down timers, adjustable target numbers, and onscreen audio recordings. RR &; D Brain Rehabilitation Research Center, North Florida/South Georgia Veterans Health SystemFind article by Susan A LeonUniversity of Florida, Department of Speech, Languages, and Science HearingsKetah articles by Lori JP AltmannUniversity of Florida, Department of PsychologyFind article by Lise AbramsNorth Florida / South Georgia Veterans System, University of Florida, Department of NeurologyFind article by Kenneth M HeilmanAuthor information Copyright and Information License Different thoughts require engagement, the ability to associate between words or ideas, and the production of responses. Lesion and imaging studies have shown frontal-lobe involvement for these activities, and the frontal lobe function depends heavily on the passage of white matter. Normal aging often results in deficits in functions controlled by frontal loposts as well as decrees in white matter connections. The objective of this study is to compare the unlimited tasks of verbal diversity processing in young adults (YAs) and older adults (OA) and attrigation with work memory tasks, language capabilities, and engagement/inhibition. Participants congratulations are 30 YES and 30 OA. Contrary to the priori hypothesis, the OA produced a far more unique response than the YAs, although total casualties were not much different. Analyze the correlation of checking the group together and separately reveals several differences that indicate that the groups use different basic cognitive abilities to complete these tasks. The authors suggest that the main factors resulting in higher uniqueness scores for the OA are the richness of greater experience as well as longer exposure to language use. Creativity is the ability to understand, develop and express the relationship of an orderly novel (Heilman, 2005). The production of novels and innovative ideas requires manipulation of knowledge (Nickerson, 1999); Oral linguistic creativity requires manipulation of our knowledge of words and languages. Over the course of our lifetime, humans develop semantic representation stores for objects, actions, and concepts encountered. These representations are stored in neuronal networks that encrypt information about how certain objects appear to be, feel, smell, tastes, and sounds (Collins & Loftus, 1975). Neuronal networks also encode and store information about associations between delegates the act of being given an object, how an object or idea makes us and others feel, as well as memories of memories objects, actions and concepts (Barsalou et al., 2003). Our brain encodes information about a series of speech sounds (phones) or letters (graphems) that represent words that represent these objects, actions and concepts as well as information about how phones or graphems are produced (Nadeau, 2001). This lexical-semantic network depends on millions or even billions of neural connectivity, and it is this network, as well as our knowledge of how structured language is fundamental to human linguistic capabilities. There have been many models proposed over the last century for how creative thinking happened. One of the earliest and most influential models was proposed by Wallas in 1926. It outlines the four main phases of creativity: Preparation, when individuals focus on problems and acquire the skills or knowledge necessary to solve them; Incubation, when the mind is concentrated away from problems in low or relaxed mind conditions and problem processing is done consciously, (Intimate, the feeling that the solution will be considered as sub-stage incubation); Lighting, or eureka moments when a solution might reach consciousness; and finally confirmation, when a solution or idea is confirmed or confirmed for completion. The model gave birth to another model trying to legalize the subconscious phase. Rossman (1931) expanded the Wallas model based on responses to questionnaires he received from hundreds of creators. He proposed seven steps including, Observation of requirements, Needs Analysis, All-information surveys, solution drafting, critical analysis of solutions, Birth of new ideas and finally an Attempt to find the best solution. Osborn (1953) developing the concept of incest also suggests a seven-step model relatively similar to Rossman and includes: Orientation to the problem, Preparation for collecting relevant data, Analysis to break down relevant material, Ideation to collect new alternatives, Incubation to allow lighting, Synthesis to put pieces together, and assessment to Guilford (1950; 1967) a psychologist known for his work in intelligence and creativity tests, introduced the concept of different thoughts and constant thoughts as an important cognitive process for creative production. The proposed models differ in some aspects but overlap more. In all of the aforementioned models there are early stages that require preparation, observation and analysis. Weisberg (1999) in research studies related to knowledge and creativity argues that knowledge in certain disciplines provides the necessary building blocks for achievement Both qualitative and quantitative studies of creative individual expenditures have shown that large numbers of required to acquire domain-specific knowledge before significant creative works were produced (Weisberg, 1999). This knowledge is required for the initial setup stage. The next stage familiar with models is the stage of ideas or innovation involving the formulation of new solutions. This level of ideas or innovation depends on the next different thoughts, consisting of several elements. The first element of different thoughts is the involvement of the concept, the ability to break away from the standard reaction or prejudice. The next element of thought is the development and production of alternative ideas or responses. The ability to associate between words, objects, images or ideas is crucial to the development of an alternative idea (Mednick 1962; Benedek, Könen, &; Neubauer, 2012). The final stage involves the thought of a convergent which is the ability to find or identify the correct or most appropriate response or answer. This stage involves synthesis and critical analysis of possible solutions, and confirmation or assessment that the results at the previous level are appropriate., while all the described levels play an important role in creative production, different thoughts have been the focus of many studies investigating creative processing and often, incorrectly, have been likened to creativity (Runco Different tasks may indicate potential or estimates of creative behavior that may but not be alone , 1991) The psychometric evaluation of creativity began in earnest in the mid-1900s and often focused on different thought tests (Plucker & Renzulli, 1999). The capabilities of different thinking have been assessed in some way and most often require the withdrawal of some responses, as opposed to traditional tests that usually require a proper response. This leads to an emphasis on the idea's ability to assess different thoughts. Some of the most famous diversity thinking tests were the Intellectual Guilford Structure (1967), and the Torrance Creative Thinking Test (1974). Another test that has been widely used is the Alternative Use test, also known as the Extraordinary Use test (Guilford, Christensen, Merrifield, & Wison, 1978). Alternative Use Test asks respondents to name all alternative or unusual uses they can imagine for ordinary objects (for example, bricks). Responses can be analyzed for versatility (number of responses generated), flexibility (number of response categories falling into), and its arrogance (or uniqueness). Flexibility has proven to be related to its agriculture for this test (Reese, Lee, Cohen & Puckett, 2001) therefore may be an excessive result measure. Lesion studies as well as functional imaging studies show that frontal loose is essential for different processing (Damasio & Anderson, 2003; 2003; Wendt, & Risberg, 2000). Several future executive processes have been posed to engage in different thinking including the ability to disappear from common responses or strategies previously used (also commonly referred to as set-shifting), inhibition, and the development of alternative strategies to produce reactions (Heilman, Nadeau & Beversdorf, 2003). The ability to relieve depends mainly on frontal lobs function, the idea first submitted by Denny-Brown and Chambers (1958). They state that all animals, from one-cell animals are simple to humans, capable of two types of actions, approaches and avoidance. The posterior section of the brain sting cortex (such as temporary areas of posterior and parietal) is essential for approach and attachment, while more anterior areas, such as front lockers, are essential to avoid and engagement. Tests such as the Wisconsin Card Sorting Test (WCST), which require the ability to switch from one response set to another, are commonly used to assess involvement in the visuospatial domain (Craik et al., 1990). The evidence for frontal involvement in the test comes from a regional blood flow study showing increased blood flow in the front lobus when ordinary adults perform this test (Weinberger, Berman, & Zec, 1986), and from individual studies with frontal lobble injuries that showed a decrease in performance (Milner, 1963). There are many test versions of Stroop (Ridely, 1935), in which respondents are asked to name the colored font colors used to print color words, when these words do not correspond to the color of the font (for example, red words written in blue ink), and this can also be used to assess the ability to dissuish productive aspects of different thoughts often measured by constraints Associtive imperative tasks, as described by Christensen and Guilford (1957), require the spread of activation in the semantic-lexical network from one word to another related to the conceptuality (Collins & Loftus, 1975). In the event of constrast the participants' association was given a series of words and after each word presented the participant was told to list other words that could be linked (related) to this target word. Performance on this type of task is considered to depend heavily on cortical connections and the extent of excitement spreads in the semantic concept network (Vandenberghe et al., 2012). Closely related lexical-semantic entities have strong connectivity and further relevant ones have weaker connections (Collins & Quillian, 1972). Therefore, the main postulate underlying the task is that a wider intracortical connection will allow for greater spread and should result in the issuance of an extraordinary response or novel. In a study studying the relationship between the integrity of white matter and creative processing using tense imaging of divers, anisotropy measures broke down in passages involving association cortics and callosum corpus found that the integrity of the larger white matter structure was related to the performance of different tasks in healthy adults (Takeuchi et al., 2010). Creative processing capabilities are usually reported to deteriorate with advanced age (Simonton, 1999) and this decline has been thought to be related to the decline in different thought capabilities. As mentioned, the frontal loops are critically involved in different thinking and show the steepest atrophy rate in normal aging (Resnick, Pham, Kraut, Zonderman, & Davatzikos, 2003). There was also a decrease in the connectivity of white matters in normal aging (Guttman, et al., 1998; Pfefferbaum et al., 2000) and the usual frontal loe function rely heavily on the passage of white matter including both cortical subcorticals (for example, ganglia front base, front circuit, front circuit), and cortico-cortical connections from parts of the limbic system and cortex while anatomical changes occurred in aging were associated with a decline in media assignments ahead (Craik, Morris, Morris, & Loewen, 1990; Moscovitch &; Winocur, 1995; Bryan &; Luscz, 2000). Cognitively, older adults have been shown to be more prone to rigidity, that is, they are more likely to produce responses from a set (even when changing sets are shown), and are more likely to produce a persistent response (that is, the reaction that has been produced) (Craik, Morris, Morris, & Loewen, 1990). This deficit indicates a decrease in the flexibility of thought, intrinsic capacity for different processing. In the field of linguistic ability, older adults have strengths and weaknesses. Older adults have been shown to have more difficulty naming objects (Bowles & Poon, 1985), a task that requires access to semantic and lexical representations stored. Instead, they have been shown to generate richer narrative samples in some situations (James, Burke, Austin, & Hulme, 1998; Pratt & Robbins, 1991) and has larger and more diverse vocabularies (Verhaeghen, 2003), shows more lexical-semantic representations saved. Declining oral phension performance was reported (Brickman et al., 2005; and Van der Elst, et al., 2006) with a larger drop seen for categories than phone tasks (Brickman et al., 2005). Study on imaging of tasks of constradiction shows that older adults recruit more front areas, while and parietal to perform these tasks than do younger adults (Brown et al., 2005: Soros et al., 2011) that may be related to compensation for age-related declines. Study investigates oral fluency in aging has examined the number of reactions as well as the frequency or religion of the response. Howard (1980) examined the diversity of reactions when older adults generated word properties of stimulation and found that older adults produced less unusual or unique reactions. Hirsh and Tree (2001) in a study that tried to provide the wording of the association's norms reported similar findings; Younger adults produce a wider range of responses, more unusual or unique responses, and more examples provide a non-dominant response. These findings could indicate that the spread of allied activation is narrowed in normal aging, so that fewer remote associates for the given word are available. However, with aging there is also a slow well-documented response time (Salthouse, 1985) and the aforementioned studies are either time or checked only a few limited answers to each word stimulation. Therefore, it is not known how slow response times can affect performance for older adults in this task. Previous studies have also reported declines in the performance of older subjects on different processing tasks (McRae, Arenberg & Costa, 1987, Ruth & Birren, 1985); However, recent studies have cloiled this picture. In a retrospective study of different processing tasks, Reese and colleagues (2001) examined performance differences on word associations and alternatives using tasks among four age groups. They found that the groups did not differ significantly in the fantasy of timely associations, but did not examine the originality or uniqueness of the response to the association's administrative duties. There are also no significant age group differences in scores of breathlessness on alternative use tests. Originality is scored on this task and found to be much lower only to the oldest participants (aged over 75). Another study that eliminated the speed of processing effects by giving different versions of processing tests commonly reported no significant age difference in potency, but did not check the originality or peakness of the reaction between younger and older adults (Foos & Boone, 2008). The main goal of the current study is to examine age differences in the functionality and uniqueness of originality in oral-based tasks using non-time constraints versions. It is a hypothesis that older adults will produce less unique responses about different tasks because of the decrees in front function as well as the integrity of white matter. Secondary goals are examine how cognitive and oral abilities tested in this study relate to the performance of different tasks and whether correlations differ from age groups. Participants of 30 healthy adults (YES) aged 18–30 years old (min 20.21, SD 1.88) and 30 older adults (OA) aged 65–80 years old (min 72.93, SD 4.99). OA has a mean of several years education of 17.23 (SD 3.56) and YAs have mean 14.27 (SD 1.17). Healthy adult participants were recruited from undergraduate and graduate classes at the University of Florida as well as from the community in general. Healthy older adult participants were recruited through performances at community social events and local retirement communities as well as responses from flyer posts. Participants were all right hand, (rated using Benton Handedness Questionnaire), a native English speaker with at least 12 years of education, who were willing to participate and provide informed consent. The study was submitted and approved by the University of Florida Gainesville University's Institute of Health Sciences Institution (IRB-01). Individuals with a history of traumatic brain injury, stroke, neurological diseases or chronic medical diseases that can lead to the failure of vital organs or any history of developmental disorders (e.g. dyslexia) are not included in the study due to potential differences in cognitive and language functions. Individuals who scored 11 or upwards on the Beck Depression Inventory (Beck, 1987) and older adults with scores (</= 25) on the Mini Mental Status Exam (MMSE, Cockrell & Folstein, 1988) were also excluded. THE WAIS-R Vocabulary (Wechsler, 1981) and a measure of 40 naming items to the definition based on normative data found in hammeke and colleagues (2005) work. Work memory was assessed using operational sponge (OSPAN) tasks (Turner & Engle, 1989). Involvement/inhibition was assessed in oral-based assignments, Stroop Neuropsychological Screening Test (SNST) (Treasury, Crosson, DeBoe, & Leber, 1989). SNST requires participants to read aloud a list of color nouns printed in different colors than names (e.g. blue words written in red ink.) Participants were then given a second list of words and asked to say aloud the color in which the word was printed (i.e. the font color). A distraction score is the difference in the moment between the time it takes to read the first set of words, and the time it takes to name the font color in the second task. Higher scores showed greater levels of disruption than prejudice reactions. This task scoring method is selected to evaluate the number of read words or colors named within a certain time (for example, 60 seconds) to limit the speed of performance effects. Diversity Thinking Tasks Two different verbal tasks of thought were used in the study. The first is an Alternative Use Test (AU) (Guilford, et al., 1978) designed to assess the flexibility, incision, explanation and passion. Participants list as many uses at least or usual because it can imagine five common objects: brick, penclip, paperclip, paperclip, and paper sheets. The object's name was presented to the participant one time. No time limit applies; all participants are encouraged to give all responses that came across their thoughts. All participants were given a prompt (for example Can you think of any other use?) for each item when they stopped responding the first time, and given the next word when they verbally showed the second time that they were done responding. The AU test was scored on two variables, total responses (i.e., conspiracy) and uniqueness (i.e. originality) per response. The second task used the Associative Fluency (AF) as described by Christensen and Guilford (1957); However, there is no time limit incurred in this study. Each participant was given five words (tables, runs, doors, freedom and hands), one at a time, and was told to list all the words he could think of linked to the target word. They are instructed not to limit themselves, but to list all possible associates who come to mind. All participants were given the same prompt as on one occasion, and the trial was finalised as above. AF is also scored on two variables, total responses and uniqueness of each response. Both tasks were recorded audio and then transmitted. All feedback was then reviewed by a group of four rates. Suitability is an important aspect of whether a response should be considered completely unique or original or simply unusual. Unusual behavior and reactions are often encountered in individuals with mental illnesses such as schizophrenia, and unusual reactions, if inappropriate with the given question, can be irrelevant. Any item that might be inappropriate (for example, lists the use of alternatives for paperwork as something to eat) has been discussed. If all payers agree that the response is inappropriate it has been removed. The number of responses issued was small, accounting for less than 1 percent of the total response. After all the responses to all participants have been decriminalised, the uniqueness of each response is calculated. Uniqueness is calculated by determining the frequency of reactions given occurring across all response corpuses from all 60 participants. The reaction with the relatively high number of incidents in the list of all responses therefore has a lower value (for example, using a brick to break the window has a .055 frequency score), while a more unique response has a higher value (for example, using bricks as anchors have a .25 frequency score). The answer occurs only once has a value of 1 (for example, using a brick to rotate the spices). Therefore, the score higher indicates the peel of a larger response in the corpus as a whole. Older and younger adult participants mean the standard score and deviation for the performance of this task are shown in Table 1. OA done significantly better than YAs on both of them exams; Vocabulary WAIS-R [F (1, 59) = 5.48, p = .02] and auditory naming [F (1, 59) = 16.90, p = <.001]. OA is much worse than YAs on engagement/reassessment exams, Stroop Neuropsychological Screening Test (SNST) [F (1, 59) = 33.76, p = <.001], but no significant difference was found between the groups on the working memory task, Operation Span (OSPAN), [F (1, 59) = 1.42, p = .24]. Collection of Standard Ways and Measures (SD) for Lexical-Semantic and Cognitive MeasuresMeasureOlder Young Adults Means Vocab49.50 RSDMeanSWAIS-R6.6244.73 8.98Auditory naming38.80** 1.9636.50 2.74OSPAN29.7311.. 4033.4012.38SNST96.8942.9347.67**17.07 The use of Various Hala (AU) Ana multivariate abnormalities (MANOVA) with age groups (young vs. old) as a change between subject and eloquent amount and meaningful uniqueness as a dependent change is used to compare achievements in AU and AF tasks. Given that our OA participants were highly educated as a group and performed much better on both lexical-semantic exams, multivariate covariance (MANCOVA) analysis was also carried out with age groups (young vs. old) as a change between subjects and eloquenation of numbers and meaningful uniqueness as a change in dependents with lexical-semantic exams as covariates to compare achievements while controlling oral proficiency levels. Lexical-semantic tests are very similar in terms of the basic ability tested by each, thus increasing the likelihood of colliniariti. Thus, markers have been presented on the lexical-semantic test to the analysis of the main components with the Varimax rotation. Factor analysis shows that both tests are loaded on a single lexical semantic factor. This lexical semantic factor is then used as a covariate in multivariate covariance analysis. The standard ways and sides for both different and convergent processing tasks are shown in Schedule 2. MANOVA for THE AU exam shows only the trend towards the importance of the main impression set [F (1, 58) = 2.90, p= .06, part of η2 = .092]. However, the test of the universe shows a significant group effect for uniqueness [F (1, 58) = 5026, p= .02, partly η2 = .080] d = .610, CI.95 = .585, .635, but not for overall fluency [F (1, 58) = .03, p= .862, part η2 = .001]. In MANCOVA, lexical semantic factors showed no significant multivariate effect on overall performance [F(1.53) = .30, p= .74, some η2 = .011] or on individual dependents, meaning uniqueness [F(1,53) = .09, p= .77, some η2 = .002] or overall eloquen [F(1,53) = .38, p= .54, a few η2 = .07]. Set of Standard Ways and Inserts (SD) for Divergent and Convergent TasksMeasureOlder AdultsYounger AdultsYounger AdultsYounger Adults MeanSDMeanSDAlternate using Min Uniqueness .10 .34 .10 Jumlah kefasihan26.4311.3626.9712.29Associative fluency Mean Mean fluency63.4337.6683.9074.78Associative Fluency (AF) MANOVA shows a very significant major impression for the group [F (1, 58) = 8.90, p< .001, partly η2 = .238]. The test of the universe once again reveals a significant group effect for the uniqueness of min [F (1, 58) = 6.03, p= .017, half η2 = .094] d = .702, CI.95 = .673, .730, but not for overall fluency [F (1, 58) = 1.79, p= .186, partial η2 = .30]. In MANCOVA, the multivariate test showed no significant multivariate effect of lexical-semantic exams on overall achievement [F(1.58) = 2.05, p= .14, some η2 = .072] or on individual dependents, meaning uniqueness [F(1,58) = 2.45, p= .12, a few η2 = .123] or overall fluency [F(1.58) = .02, p= .88, a few η2 = .00]. YAs and OAS Reviewed Together Pearson correlations pearson peefisien has been used to show association with alpha for statistical purposes set at p< .05. Several important correlations are found when looking at both groups together on processing measures and tests of lexical-semantic diversity, engagement/en-usation (SNST), and working memory (OSPAN). Regarding different processing, the amount of fluency in AU tasks has been associated with achievements in OSPAN and the amount of fluency in AF tasks is significant and negative with regard to achievements in SNST. (See Schedule 3 for all correlations to different tasks). Correlation by Group for Various Associative Eloquent Tasks (AF) and Alternative Uses (AU)WAIS-R VocabAuditory NamingSNSTOSPANYAs and OASAF-Total fluencyPearson−.012 correlation .036−.276* .194. (2-tail) .925 .788 .036 .137AF-Min unique correlationPearson .099 .054 .123 .179Sig. (2 tails) .453 .680 .358 .171AU-Total fluencyPearson korelation .144 .120−.215 .332**Sig. (2-tail) .274 .361 .104 .010AU-Min unique correlationPearson .156 .117 .039 .061Sig. 233 .375 .771 .644YAsAF-Total correlation fluencyPearson−.123 .106−.307−.011Sig. (2 tails) .518 .577 .099 .955AF-Min unique correlationPearson−.162−.256−.016 .146Sig. (2 tails) .393 .172 .933 .441AU-Total fluencyPearson correlation−.062 .100−.247 .326Sig. (2-tail) .746 .599 .188 .079AU-Min unique correlationPearson−.063 .025−.018−.122Sig. (2-tail) .742 .895 .924 .521OAsAF-Total fluencyPearson correlation .483** .253−.292 .587**Sig. (2-tail) .007 .176 .132 .001AF-Min unique correlationPearson .301−.215−.157 .372*Sig. (2-tail) .106 .254 .425 .043AU-Total fluencyPearson korelation .481** .273−.312 .340Sig. (2-tail) .007 .145 .106 .066AU-Min unique correlationPearson .277−.116−.252 .364*Sig. and OA Groups Individually When ads are run separately by groups, the correlation changes. YAs does not indicate any significant correlating link between different tasks and measures of lexical-semantic capabilities, engagement/inhibition (SNST), or work memory (OSPAN). However, the OA showed a significant corridor between potency for both measures (AF and AU) and the WAIS-R vocabulary, and AF's score of ffency was linked to a work memory measure, OSPAN. For the OA, meaning uniqueness on both AU and AF tasks has been significantly linked to working memory. In the group's correlation, the SNST score is significant and negatively related to the irony on AF duties, however, this effect is invisible when both groups are individually examined, despite a trend towards interest in the YAs. Similarly, a significant correlation between total casualties on AU tasks and work memory also does not achieve the importance of either group individually but both indicate a trend towards interest. The difference in correlation may be due to the high level of diversity in both samples for these tasks as the sample size decreases, the effects of diversity increase. Since these tasks are unconscionable, there is a high level of natural diversity in the number of responses given. When using unresided measures, it is best to allow individuals to respond at their own pace, but then use the window (e.g. 2 minutes) response time to compare responses to limit high diversity in responding completely. The first goal of this study was to examine age differences in phase and pegness responses to two oral-based thinking tasks, when no time limits were imposed. Several previous studies have reported that older adults were less likely to produce a unique response in different tasks (McRae, Arenberg & Costa, 1987, Ruth & Birren, 1985), however, the OA in the study produced a more unique response. Different processing is considered highly dependent on the functions of the media ahead such as engagement and fuss. Deficits in frontal lobster structures and functions are common in normal aging and because of the decline associated with the age of front executive function, it has predicted that the OA will have more difficulty producing unique reactions in different processing tasks. In addition, although OA usually has larger vocabularies showing more lexical semantic representations (as did older adults in our study), they are also known the decline in connection between and intra-hemisphere that could affect the ability to access associations across a wide network of semantic relations. Despite changes associated with age in brain connectivity, older participants in our study were found to have produced more unique responses in both and AF tasks. The number of mean responses (i.e. total fuss) did not differ significantly between groups for either measurement, which may be due to a lack of time limits in this study that eliminates the speed of processing effects that are usually seen when testing for passion in older adults. As OA participants were more educated as a group and scored higher on lexical-semantic capabilities (WAIS-R vocabulary and auditory naming) of kvariation analysis were carried out with lexical semantic capabilities as a coccination on different processing tasks. Significant lexical-semantic effects on different processing tasks cannot be found. The second goal of the study was to examine how memory work, engagement/inhibition, and lexical-semantic capabilities associated with the performance of different tasks and whether correlations differed by age groups. Correlational production inspects the group together and separately reveals some interesting differences. For different tasks, when the correlations are inspected on YES and the OA as a whole, there are only two significant correlations, between AF's ability and engagement/inhibition (SNST), and between AU's total ability and work memory (OSPAN). However, when correlational analysis on groups is carried out separately to check whether lexical-semantic capabilities or cognitive abilities may differently affect performance on these tasks by age, no above correlations are found in any group (although there is a trend toward interest in both groups for work memory and AU's total addiction). No significant correlation was found for YAs between our lexical semantic measures or different cognitive and task measures. However, the OA showed some significant correlations, between AF and AU total casualties and the

performance of the WAIS-R vocabulary, and af total work moderation and memory. Most interestingly, the OA shows a significant correlation for unique scores on both AF and AU tasks with work memory measures. Taken together, this suggests that older adults rely more on work memory and lexical access to produce responses in these different tasks. Unique scores are not related to our measure of engagement/inhibition in any correlational annation, collected or separate, suggesting that this is not a critical factor mediation capacity to produce a unique response in young adults or usually aging. To explain these results, the authors posted that the OA longer life expectancy, which would result in a greater accumulation of experience, could be a key factor that higher uniqueness scores in AU and AF tasks. This is in line with the findings in previous studies (Runco, Dow, & Smith, 2006; Runco & Alcar, 2010) shows that experience can be related to performance in paratroopers Task. The OA is more likely to be exposed to a large number of associates for words and more uses for ordinary objects. AU tests are designed to get an innovative response, but transcripts of the response reveal that the OA may have been able to produce more unique responses by using their larger life experience store. OA verbally memory search strategies that mean more often than YAs do. In fact, many of the estimated uses produced by the OA involve the stated replacement of experienced use (for example, using teeth to stir to replace stirring hay). Our results show that the OA may be able to excel at different thinking tasks of this standard by relying on longer life memory and exposure to the experience and use of languages. In addition, the fact that the OA in our study could produce a more unique response under unsustainable conditions may be a valuable indicator of the resilience of lexical-semantic capabilities in normal aging. Creativity, by definition, requires art or innovation and it is possible that this usual thinking task does not constitute an adequate measure of a person or group's ability to innovate. It has also been suggested that measuring uniqueness uses the frequency of occurrences, as is commonly done in the study using these different tasks, not adequately measuring the oreability of the response. A task that requires the formation of a completely new association or novel response, as opposed to the tasks used in this study that can be resolved using declarative memory, can provide a better understanding of whether the ability to innovate, and therefore completely creative, affected by normal aging. 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