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نيابة الكلية المكلفة بما بعد التدرج والبحث العلمي والعلاقات الخارجية

HANDOUT

Title:
Psycho-Pedagogy (Psy.Peda)
Courses for Master 1 Students of Didactics and Applied Languages

Domain: Letters and Foreign Languages

Stream: English Language

Spéciality : Didactics and Applied Languages

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Introduction

Educational psychology is a critical field that explores how individuals learn and develop in educational settings, offering valuable insights into the cognitive, emotional, and social factors that influence the learning process. As a subject of study, educational psychology equips educators, administrators, and policymakers with the tools to design more effective teaching strategies, develop learner-centred curricula, and create inclusive learning environments. By understanding the mental processes that underlie learning, such as motivation, memory, and problem-solving, educational psychology helps bridge the gap between theory and practice, enabling teachers to address the diverse needs of their students. In a rapidly changing educational landscape, this subject provides a foundation for improving student outcomes and the overall quality of education.

Educational psychology benefits educators and empowers students by promoting self-regulated learning, fostering critical thinking, and encouraging positive behaviours that support lifelong learning. Through its research-based approaches, the field continually evolves, adapting to the needs of modern learners and contributing to the development of more effective educational systems.

Objectives

- To be acquainted with different theories dealing with psycho-pedagogy.
- Be aware of the different items that contribute to personality development.
- To equip students with relevant knowledge, helping them cope with psycho-pedagogical issues and difficulties.

- To introduce evidence-based learning theories and strategies that optimise student engagement and knowledge retention.
- To explore the psychological factors influencing student motivation and engagement in the learning process.
- To encourage self-regulated learning and the development of metacognitive skills among students.

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Introduction to Psychopedagogy

1

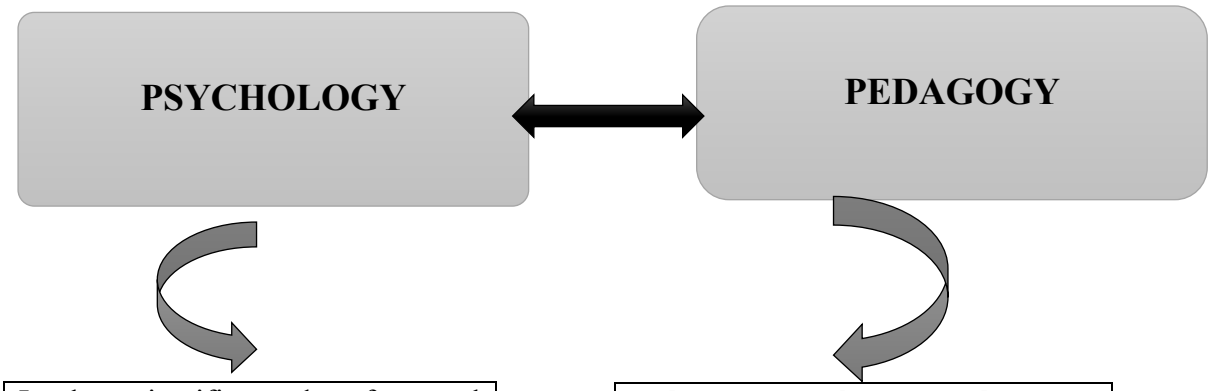
Objectives:

Students should be able to define psychopedagogy and explain its significance in understanding the relationship between psychological principles and educational practices, particularly in how it supports learners' cognitive, emotional, and social development within the learning environment.

Identify Key Figures: Students should be able to identify influential figures in the history of educational psychology, such as Plato, Aristotle, Locke, Comenius, Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Spencer, Herbart, Wundt, Titchener, Dewey, and Thorndike, along with their contributions to the field.

1.1 Definition

Psychopedagogy is the synthesis of education and psychology, two major fields of scientific inquiry. The study of education, particularly instructional theory, is known as pedagogy. On the other hand, psychopedagogy refers to integrating psychological theory with the art of teaching and learning. The main argument is that the only way to enhance the educational process significantly is for teachers to apply psychology to every aspect of their pedagogical work. Educational psychology is another name for psychopedagogy.



Is the scientific study of mental processes and the behaviour of human beings. The ability to examine the human mind and behaviour in experimental conditions began with the creation of the first laboratory in Germany in 1879 by Wilhelm Wundt, who was later considered the father of psychology.

Pedagogy is teaching art and science, encompassing methods, strategies, and theories. It addresses content, teacher-learner interaction, learning environment, critical thinking, skills, and values influenced by educational philosophies and socio-cultural context.

Psychology and Psychopedagogy
Psychological research is increasingly popularised within educational pedagogy and includes studies on learning or thinking styles, learning strategies, approaches and preferences, brain functioning and thinking skills, emotional intelligence, and multiple intelligences. • It has facilitated new understandings amongst educators about how people learn for many years, from which pedagogical implications have been derived. • Psychological research continues to develop and refine theoretical ideas about learning.

1.2 The History of Educational Psychology.

Grinder (1989) provides a detailed history of educational psychology, and the following material provides a brief overview.

- **Plato and Aristotle.**

According to Grinder, Plato is credited with creating educational psychology since he held that all knowledge is innate at birth and can be improved via experience learning as a person grows. Plato's pupil Aristotle was the first to notice that "association" among ideas aided comprehension and memory. He thought that resemblance, contrast, succession, and contiguity aided cognition.

- **Locke**

In the late 1600s, John Locke published his notion that people learn best from outside sources. In his conception, the mind is like a blank slate (tabula rasa), and a sequence of fundamental observations can become sophisticated thinking through association and reflection. Locke is credited for providing a theoretical framework for developing incremental techniques in the social and scientific disciplines by establishing "empiricism" as a criterion for assessing the veracity of knowledge.

- **Comenius**

The first person to notice age differences in children's learning capacities was a Moravian pastor named John Comenius (1592–1670). He also observed that children are better able to assimilate information and learn faster when actively involved.

- **Rousseau**

Jean Jacques Rousseau put out a revolutionary concept of pedagogy in the middle of the eighteenth century. He shared his views on the benefits of exercise and good health in his well-known work Emile, which was published in 1762. He also believed that reason and inquiry should supersede arbitrary authority and that experience makes the best teacher. He promoted training children in line with their natural inclinations, cravings, and feelings.

- **Pestalozzi**

Some credit Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi (1746–1827) as the father of applied educational psychology. He was one of the first educators to attempt to implement Rousseau's theories by encouraging children to pursue their natural interests and passions.

- **Spencer**

Herbert Spencer's concentration on the scientific study of education helped turn ideas about pedagogy into systematic theory and methodology.

- **Herbart**

Johann Friedrich Herbart is considered the "father of scientific pedagogy," according to Grinder (1989). He was the first scientist to remove the topic from the teaching process. According to Herbart, interest develops when strong, vivid, and pre-existing ideas are open to new ones; in other words, our past connections influence how we see the ideas we are experiencing now. Herbartianism, as a theory of motivation, predicted that learning arises from constructing sequences of concepts fundamental to the individual. This prediction gave instructors some knowledge.

- **Wundt**

The foundation of Wilhelm Wundt's laboratory in 1879 was brought about by Herbartian psychology. Wundt developed a theory of consciousness based on Herbart's theory of vision to make connections between various mental processes clearer.

- **Titchener**

One of Wundt's students, Edward Bradford Titchener (1867–1927), was one of the first eminent educational psychologists to operate in the US. He was the director of the psychology laboratory at Cornell University and held that understanding the generalized mind was the sole legitimate purpose of psychological research. He highlighted more complex brain functions, such as idea formation, and said that introspection is important for interpreting various feelings and experiences.

- **Dewey**

In 1896, John Dewey started challenging Titchener's beliefs. Dewey argues that the reflex arc, the smallest unit of analysis and the basis for understanding it, is formed by a stimulus and the response it elicits. Dewey argues that humans react to aspects of their environment not because they find them fascinating in and of themselves but because they perceive them as useful instruments for accomplishing a particular objective. The theory of "functionalism" was born out of this concept. Research on adaptive behaviour, individual differences, and psychological testing all advanced due to functionalism.

- **Thorndike**

Common sense psychology and what he perceived as intuitive psychology were disliked by Edward L. Thorndike (1874–1949). Despite accepting functionalism, he preferred the term "connectionist" since he tried to explain learning through stimulus-response relationships. He is recognized for developing the "Law of Effect," which explains how experiences may build or weaken relationships. In 1914, Thorndike completed the three-volume series on educational psychology. Educational psychology theory has been acknowledged within the discipline for over half a century.

1.3Practice

Table completion

Objective: Students will recapitulate the concept developed by psychologists over time

- **Activity 1**:

- Theorist	Contribution to Educational Psychology
----------	He believes that all knowledge is innate and can be enhanced through experience. Identified that "association" among ideas aids in comprehension and memory.
Aristotle	---------- ---------- ---------- ----------
----------	Proposed the idea of the mind as a blank slate (tabula rasa) that is shaped by experience. Established empiricism, which supports knowledge based on observable evidence. Provided a framework for incremental learning techniques.
John Comenius	---------- ---------- ---------- ----------
----------	Advocated for education in line with natural inclinations and experiential learning. Emphasised exercise, health, and autonomy in learning and promoted education based on children's needs and interests.
Johann Heinrich Pestalozzi	Known as the father of applied educational psychology, implemented Rousseau's ideas by encouraging children to follow their natural interests in learning.
Herbert Spencer	---------- ---------- ---------- ----------
----------	Considered the father of scientific pedagogy. Suggested that past experiences shape how we perceive new ideas. Developed Herbartianism, a theory on the role of motivation in learning.
Edward Bradford Titchener	---------- ---------- ---------- ----------
John Dewey	Challenged Titchener's views, arguing that the reflex arc is a fundamental behaviour unit. Proposed functionalism, emphasising adaptive behaviour and individual differences in learning.

- Theorist	Contribution to Educational Psychology
----------	Disliked intuitive psychology, promoted “connectionism” to explain learning through stimulus-response relationships, and formulated the “Law of Effect.” Published influential works on educational psychology that shaped the field for decades.

2. Benefits of Educational Psychology for Teachers and Learners

2

Objectives :

Students should be able to define educational psychology and explain its role in understanding and addressing key educational challenges.

Students should explain how educational psychology provides teachers with insights into student needs, strengths, and challenges, enabling tailored support.

2.1 Introduction

Educational psychology aims to comprehend individual variations and student behaviour to identify and address major issues in education. Teachers can customize solutions that support student success by using the insights it gives them about their students' needs, strengths, and challenges. Educators can improve teaching methods and design productive learning environments by utilizing psychological concepts like motivation, cognitive development, and problem-solving.

Through educational psychology, teachers are better equipped to select learning methods that match each student's unique characteristics, understand individual differences, and design conducive classroom environments. It helps educators exclude inaccurate or subjective views about learning and focus on strategies grounded in scientific evidence. This discipline also emphasises the importance of evaluating learning outcomes and guiding students through the educational process, ensuring they receive the appropriate support at various stages of their development. By integrating these principles, teachers can plan, organise, and evaluate their teaching practices to foster student achievement and growth.

2.2 The Importance of Educational Psychology in Teaching/Learning

- **Educational psychology** focuses on identifying and addressing central problems in education.
- It depends on understanding the student's behaviour and individual differences.
- **Educational psychology** helps teachers understand students' needs, strengths, and challenges.
- It helps to curate the solution according to the students.
- It helps teachers understand students' cognitive capacity and information retention abilities.
- By applying its principles, teachers can enhance their instructional strategies and promote student success.

2.2.1 Implementing Effective Strategies

It uses theories, concepts, and models from psychology that address growth and development, motivation, working memory, thinking, and problem-solving. These subjects enable them to choose how to apply psychological concepts that best fit the educational setting, the instructor's traits, and the students' characteristics. Consequently, educators can pinpoint the primary elements that impact instruction and learning, enabling them to devise and execute efficacious approaches to resolve issues.

2.2.2 Selection of Learning Methods

The needs of the student shape the methods of instruction. Educational psychology can support teachers in selecting the most appropriate and appropriate teaching and learning method, in addition to helping them connect to the unique attributes and characteristics of each student. The various methods and approaches to

learning that students use and where they are in their growth. Choosing the best teaching strategies and tactics necessitates deeply comprehending the students.

2.2.3 Understanding the Individual Differences

Comprehending personal variations is a crucial component of learning. Teachers must know their unique requirements and traits at different levels to effectively teach pupils. Additionally, by being aware of the various traits of their students, teachers may foster a learning atmosphere. It can assist current and future instructors in comprehending the unique traits of kids at different stages of development and adapting their lesson plans accordingly. Teachers can raise their pupils' marks by implementing tactics that consider their differences.

2.2.4 Building a Conducive Learning Environment

It is crucial to assist educators in creating a conducive learning environment to ensure that learning takes place effectively; teachers must establish a supportive and upbeat emotional environment in the classroom. A teacher needs to be aware of the features of the classroom setting. Instructors must know the learning environment they hope to foster in the classroom. Instructors must understand the fundamentals of education and learning and other teaching methods. It is crucial to assist teachers in creating a learning-friendly environment in the classroom.

2.2.5 Providing Proper Guidance

In order to support each student's success, teachers must be aware of their needs. Teachers ought to assist pupils in overcoming challenges as they go through the learning process. Different periods of life require different kinds of assistance for

pupils, including educational and vocational. It aids educators in determining the most effective ways to teach pupils and what they should learn. Additionally, it aids educators in recognizing and resolving any problems that can impede learning.

2.2.6 Evaluation of Learning Outcomes

A student's progress is influenced by many circumstances, making evaluation a challenging undertaking. It assists teachers in researching the connection between teacher behaviour and student achievement to assess their students' learning. It assists them in determining the most effective methods for evaluating student learning and creating exams that fairly represent the information and abilities students ought to have after finishing a course. It supports instructors in planning lessons, monitoring student development, and analyzing their efficacy.

Keep in Mind

Educational psychology is essential for understanding and addressing key issues in education by focusing on student behavior, individual differences, and cognitive abilities. It equips teachers with the tools to identify students' needs and challenges, enabling them to implement tailored strategies for effective learning. By applying psychological principles related to growth, motivation, and problem-solving, educators can create conducive learning environments and select appropriate teaching methods. Additionally, educational psychology helps teachers evaluate learning outcomes and guide students in their development, ensuring a comprehensive approach to improving educational quality and student success.

2.3 Key Areas in Educational Psychology

To improve learning, psycho-pedagogy incorporates psychological concepts into the classroom. Learning theories that influence how knowledge is gained and taught, such as constructivism, behaviourism, and cognitivism, are important components. Teachers can adapt their training to different cognitive stages by focusing on how learners—especially children and adolescents—develop their thinking ability. Learning and cognition study how people use their memory, focus, and problem-solving skills to absorb, remember, and apply information. Teaching tactics are influenced by developmental psychology, which studies psychological changes across the lifespan and aligns them with students' moral, social, and emotional growth. Motivation and self-regulation studies how students maintain motivation and control their learning practices, encouraging self-directed learning via goal-setting and self-efficacy. Last, evaluation and assessment are essential for tracking student development and improving instructional strategies to promote growth.

- **Learning theories**

Educational psychologists study learning theories like behaviourism, cognitivism, and constructivism to understand how knowledge is acquired and retained.

- **Cognitive development**

It focuses on how children and adolescents develop cognitive function to understand and achieve the effective teaching and learning process in Educational Psychology.

- **Learning cognition**

This area focuses on how individuals acquire and retain information. It explores topics and processes and retains information. It explores topics such as memory, attention, problem-solving, and decision-making.

- **Developmental psychology**

It examines the psychological changes that occur throughout a person's lifespan, from infancy to old age. It explores cognitive, social, emotional, and moral development topics.

- **Motivation and self-regulation**

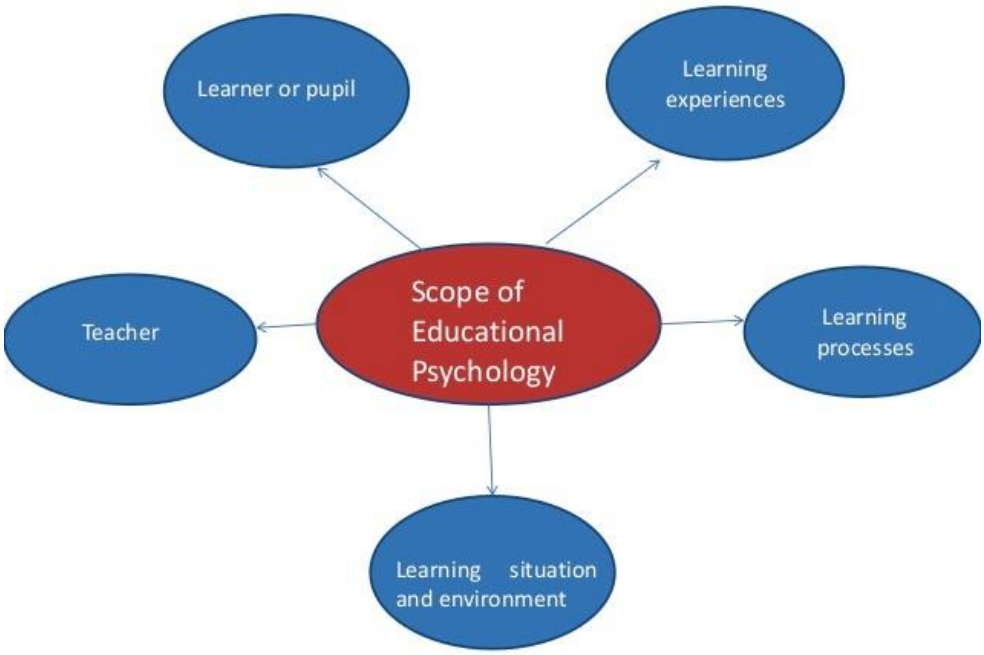
It investigates the factors influencing individuals' motivation to learn and how they regulate their learning behaviour. It explores goal-setting, self-efficacy, intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, and self-regulated learning strategies.

- **Assessment and evaluation**

It studies the development and use of assessing and evaluating every activity in education psychology to improve the learners' capacity to achieve all-round development.

What are the five scopes of educational psychology?

Educational psychology encompasses various areas, including learning theories, motivation, instructional design, assessment and evaluation, classroom management, and educational interventions. Educational psychologists may also study cognitive development, social-emotional learning, diversity and inclusion, and educational technology.



2.4 Characteristics of Educational Psychology

The study of educational psychology focuses on how people learn and change throughout their lives. It examines the social, emotional, and cognitive factors affecting learning and academic results. The educational situation is given special attention.

Educational psychologists apply psychological theories and concepts to understand better and enhance educational processes and results. They use concepts from developmental psychology, social psychology, and cognitive psychology.

Educational Psychology recognises and addresses the diverse needs and abilities of learners. It considers factors such as intelligence, learning styles, cultural background, and socio-economic status in understanding and supporting students' educational experiences. Educational psychologists are skilled in assessing and evaluating learning development. They use various methods and tools to measure and analyse educational outcomes and identify areas of strength.

2.5 Psychopedagogy and Language Education

Studying psychopedagogy is important for language learners because:

- It gives students the resources to participate in all phases and facets of the teaching and learning process.
- It is a crucial and interesting subject for teaching.
- Because it contains the majority of theories and practices that can aid in teaching and facilitate the learning process, it is significant for educators and learners.
- It can help students understand the way and style of learning and choose the appropriate one.
- It enables students to elaborate and develop counselling activities and programs to help the education community improve and renew the education process.
- Psychopedagogy teachers understand the student's internal and external needs and behaviours better than other teachers and know how to overcome all difficulties and help learners.

2.6 Practice

Think-Pair-Share: The Impact of Psychopedagogy on Education

- **Objective**: Foster critical thinking about the relevance of psychopedagogy.
- **Activity**: “In what ways can psychopedagogy improve classroom learning?”
- Give students a few minutes to think independently, then discuss their thoughts with a partner.
- **Follow-up**: Each pair shares one key point with the class. Use the responses to introduce specific areas where psychopedagogy plays a role (e.g., understanding student behaviour, optimising teaching strategies, and supporting diverse learners).

Introduction to Learning Theories

3

Objectives :

- ***To define what a learning theory is and explain its importance in designing effective educational practices.***
- ***To explore the role of learning theories in explaining how students retain, connect, and apply information in various contexts.***
- ***To identify and summarize the contributions of major figures in learning theory, such as Plato, Descartes, Dewey, Pavlov, and others.***
- ***To examine how different historical and philosophical perspectives have shaped modern learning theories.***
-

3.1 Definition

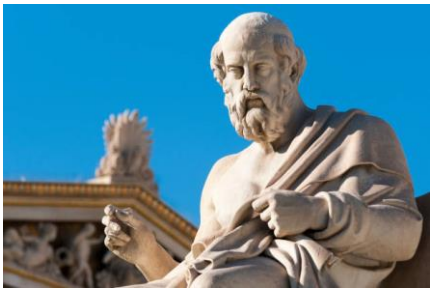
A learning theory is a collection of precepts and theories about how individuals learn. It offers direction for creating effective training programs and comprehending the elements leading to excellent learning outcomes.

Learning theories illuminate how students retain information, link new material to what they already know, and apply what they have learned to different situations. They also reveal how students use criticism from teachers or other students to reshape their conduct. Teachers can employ learning theories' many frameworks to accommodate their pupils' varied learning styles and academic needs.

Learning theories can help teachers control students' behaviour and assist students in understanding the material being taught. This allows teachers to foster a more welcoming and educational environment, which is crucial whether they instruct online or in a traditional classroom.

Notable distinctions exist among the majority of learning theories. All of them, nevertheless, aim to comprehend and clarify the learning process so that educators can take appropriate action. They are taking approaches to teaching that are appropriate, effective, and efficient.

Ultimately, these ideas aid in our understanding of why individuals learn differently based on personal characteristics like age or life experiences.



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3.2 What do the pictures above refer to?

Philosophers like Plato and Descartes were among many who thought deeply about the nature of knowledge and the process of learning throughout history. However, In the 1800s, psychologists conducted the first formal studies on learning. Learning theories have been offered over time as sciences such as psychology have grown; these range from David Kolb's Experiential Learning Theory (ELT) in 1984 to the ideas of Cognitivism created in the 1950s. In recent times, Connectivism has gained traction.

3.3 Time Line of Education Theories

Early 20th Century

1. **Ivan Pavlov (1849–1936)** – *Classical Conditioning*

    - Pavlov demonstrated learning through association with his famous dog experiment, where a neutral stimulus became associated with a conditioned response (salivation when hearing a bell).

2. **John Dewey (1859–1952)** – *Instrumentalism/Pragmatism*

    - Education is a social process and should be based on practical experiences (learning by doing).
    - Developed the **Experiential Learning Theory**: Learning through active participation and social interaction.

3. **John Watson (1878–1958)** – *Behaviorism*

    - Emphasised observable behaviours shaped by the environment, proposing that behaviour is learned through reinforcement.

Mid 20th Century

4. **B.F. Skinner (1904–1990)** – *Operant Conditioning*

    - Introduced the concept of behaviour modification through reinforcement (positive or negative) and punishment to shape learning behaviour.

5- Jean Piaget (1896–1980) – *Cognitive Development Theory*

- Proposed a stage theory of cognitive development, emphasising how children's thinking evolves through distinct stages: Sensorimotor, Preoperational, Concrete Operational, and Formal Operational.

6- Lev Vygotsky (1896–1934) – *Socio-Cultural Theory*

- Emphasised the importance of social interactions and cultural context in cognitive development, introducing concepts like the **Zone of Proximal Development** and **scaffolding**.

7- Albert Bandura (1925–2021) – *Social Learning Theory*

- Proposed that people learn through observation, imitation, and modelling. His **Bobo Doll Experiment** demonstrated the role of observational learning.

Late 20th Century

8. **Jerome Bruner (1915–2016)** – *Cognitive Learning Theory*

- Developed the **Spiral Curriculum** and promoted narrative learning, emphasising that learning is an active process that builds on previous knowledge.

9. **David Kolb (b. 1939)** – *Experiential Learning Theory*

- Proposed a learning cycle involving Concrete Experience, Reflective Observation, Abstract Conceptualization, and Active Experimentation.

10. **John Sweller (b. 1946)** – *Cognitive Load Theory (1988)*

- Introduced that learning is hindered when working memory is overloaded, suggesting instructional design strategies to reduce cognitive load.

3.4 Practice

Match each explanation with the appropriate learning theory based on your previous knowledge.

Case1:
It suggests children learn by observing others' behavior. It uses repetition and reinforcement to communicate with students, with teachers using negative or positive reinforcement to reinforce desired behaviors or discourage undesired ones. Positive reinforcement involves rewarding or praising behavior.

Case: 2

It makes effective use of technology, which is an essential tool for learning — particularly among Generation Z students and future generations. It also places a strong emphasis on the ability to find and sift through information in order to conduct reliable research. Some examples of this approach to teaching might be to have your students write a blog or launch a podcast together — activities that merge technology with group and community interaction.

Case:3

It shifts away to a heavier emphasis on the internal thoughts of the observer, as opposed to merely observing others' behavior and responding to stimuli. It holds that learning chiefly takes place while the student is working to break down and organize new information in their mind.

Case:4

It places a heavier emphasis on the learner themselves — and their untapped potential — rather than the methods of learning or the materials being taught. Built on the premise that humans are fundamentally good and will act appropriately if their basic needs are met, it prioritizes meeting the unique emotional and academic needs of each learner so that they are empowered to take greater control over their own education.

4

Learning Theories: Behaviourism

Objectives:
- To define behaviourism and explain its emphasis on observable behaviors and environmental influences over internal states like emotions.
- To identify key behaviourists, such as B.F. Skinner and John B. Watson, and describe their contributions to establishing psychology as a measurable science.

- To explain the concepts of stimulus-response (S-R) theory, conditioned responses, and how behaviorists believe environmental manipulation can alter behavior.

- To shed light on classical conditioning and identify key components, such as Neutral Stimulus, Unconditioned Stimulus, Unconditioned Response, Conditioned Stimulus, and Conditioned Response, as demonstrated in the Little Albert experiment.

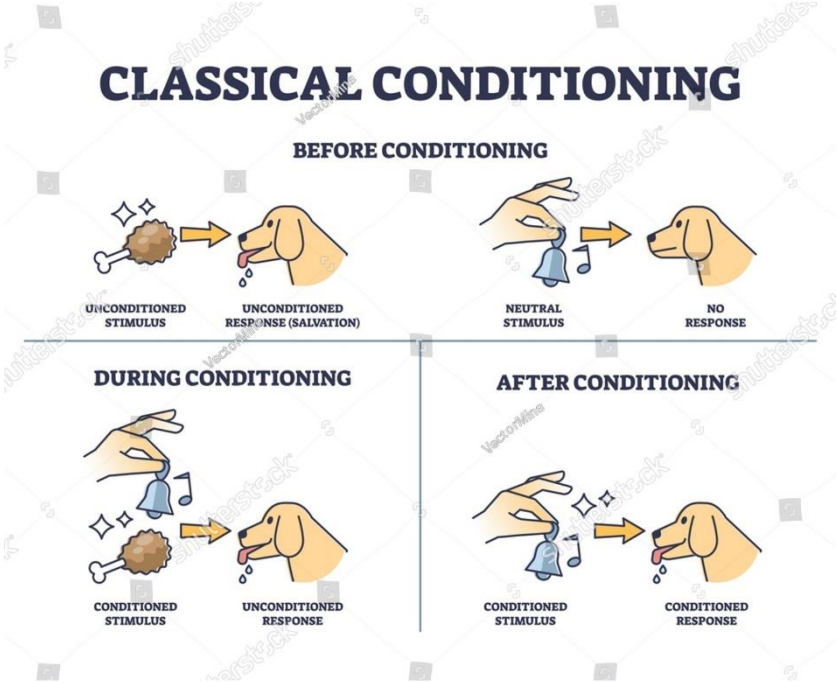
- To discuss how behaviorist theories, such as reinforcement and punishment, can be applied in educational settings to encourage positive behaviors and discourage negative ones.

4.1 Introduction

The work of B. F. Skinner and John B. Watson is a major foundation for behaviourism. In order to establish psychology as a science, behaviourists concentrated their research on acts that could be measured and evaluated or on behaviours that could be experimentally observed, as opposed to interior states like emotions (McLeod, 2015). Behaviorists contend that an individual's learning ability relies on interactions with the outside world. People change their conduct in response to the consequences of their interactions with the environment. For example, someone who burns their hand handling a hot stove will learn never to touch one again, while someone who receives praise for studying for an exam is likelier to continue studying.

4.2 . Behaviourism Experiments

Behavioural theorists contend that by conditioning people through environmental manipulation to reward some behaviours and discourage others, we can modify their behaviour (Popp, 1996). Pavlov's dog is arguably the most well-known illustration of conditioning. In his well-known experiment, Pavlov showed how a dog could be trained to identify the ring of a bell with food, leading to the eventual condition where the dog would salivate at the sound of the bell whether or not it was given food.



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Little Albert Experiment (Watson & Rayner)

Animals could benefit from classical training, as demonstrated by Ivan Pavlov. Did that apply to people as well? John B. Watson and Rosalie Rayner demonstrated this in a well-known (but morally questionable) experiment. Watson's approach emphasised the role of stimuli in producing conditioned responses. For this reason, Watson described it as S-R (Stimulus-Response) called "reflexes". He believed one's surroundings and background are much more dominant than genetics in determining human behaviour.

Conducted at Johns Hopkins University between 1919 and 1920, the Little Albert experiment aimed to provide experimental evidence for classical conditioning of emotional responses in infants.

Watson and Rayner (1920) conducted the Little Albert Experiment to answer 3 questions:

1. Can an infant be conditioned to fear an animal that appears simultaneously with a loud, fear-arousing sound?
2. Would such fear transfer to other animals or inanimate objects?
3. How long would such fears persist?

When Watson and Rayner started the study, they came across "Little Albert," a nine-month-old infant named Albert Barger. He was an incredibly brave child who was only afraid of loud noises.

The researchers chose to test the theory of classical conditioning on a human subject by giving the child another phobia after getting approval from Albert's mother.

Albert was tested for his reactions to neutral stimuli during the baseline session, which occurred when he was about nine months old.

The stimuli presented to Albert were described as “a white rat, a rabbit, a dog, a monkey, with masks with and without hair, cotton wool, burning newspapers, etc.” (Watson & Rayner, 1920, p. 2). It is said that Albert was not terrified of any of these.

Two months after the baseline session, Albert had two conditioning sessions, one week apart, consisting of seven pairings of a white rat and the unexpected sound of a steel bar being hammered.

Human stimulus conditioning was modified by Watson (Jensen, 2018).

He handed a rat to an 11-month-old infant, who appeared to like playing with it. Watson eventually made a loud, disagreeable noise whenever he removed the rat. The baby eventually connected the noise and the rat, crying when he saw it. Watson’s experiment proved that controlling environmental cues might change people’s conduct, even if considered unethical.

The white rat was handed to Little Albert when he was little over 11 months old, and a few seconds later, the hammer was tapped against the steel bar. When the rat was given without the loud noise after seven pairings of the rat and noise (during two sessions spaced one week apart), Albert reacted by sobbing and avoiding the situation.

Albert reportedly sobbed and “began to crawl away so rapidly that he was caught with difficulty before reaching the edge of the table” after the second conditioning session when he was shown the rat (p. 5). Watson and Rayner viewed these responses as proof of fear training.

Little Albert now needed to see the rat to display all dread symptoms. He would try to crawl away and weep regardless of whether the hammer struck the steel bar.

Three transfer sessions followed the two conditioning sessions. Albert saw the rat during the first transfer session to gauge his level of sustained anxiety and other furry items to gauge his level of generalization.

The second transfer session added to the experiment’s complexity by including two more conditioning trials with the rat to “freshen up the reaction” (Watson & Rayner, 1920, p. 9). Additionally, the conditioning trials involved pairing a dog and a rabbit with the loud noise for the first time.

As time went on, this worry started to lessen. However, the association might be revived a few times by going through the initial process again. This concern started to fade over time. However, repeating the same procedure may resurrect the relationship several times.

In contrast to the previous weekly sessions, the transfer session that tested maintained terror occurred one month later. Albert and his mother left the hospital right after the session, which stopped Watson and Rayner from completing their initial plan to decondition the fear they had classically conditioned.

4.3 Steps' Recapitulation of the Experiments

- Classical Conditioning

- Neutral Stimulus (NS): Prior to conditioning, this stimulus does not inherently elicit the desired reaction. The white lab rat served as the Neutral Stimulus in this instance. Little Albert was fascinated by the rat and wanted to play with it at first, so he did not feel afraid.

- Unconditioned Stimulus (US): This is a stimulus that, without any learning, spontaneously and instantly elicits a response. During the experiment, the terrifying noise served as the unconditioned stimuli. Behind Albert's back, Watson and Rayner used a hammer to strike a steel bar, making the noise.

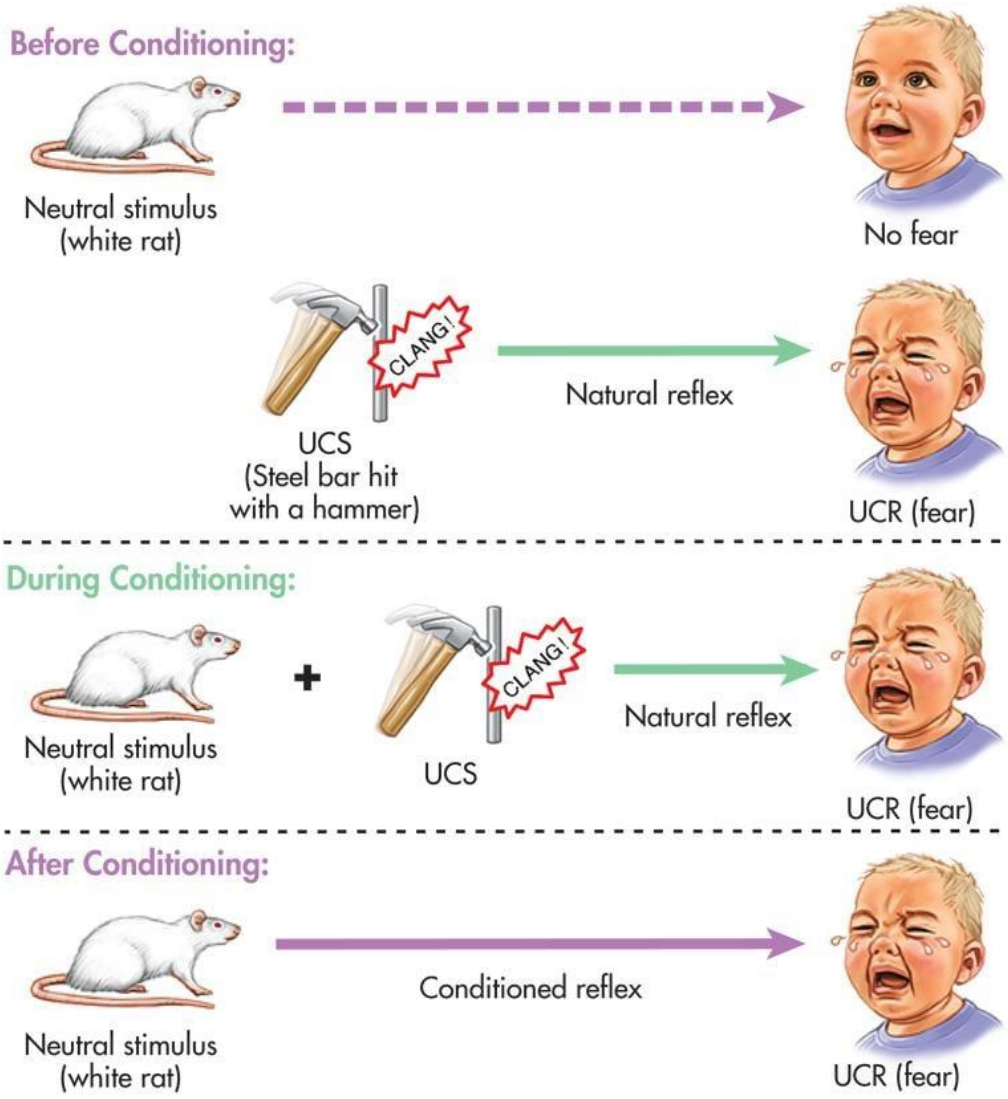
- Unconditioned Response (UR): This natural response occurs when the Unconditioned Stimulus is presented. It is unlearned and occurs without previous conditioning. In this case, the Unconditioned Response was Albert's fear response to the loud noise – crying and showing distress.

- Conditioning Process: Watson and Rayner then began the conditioning process. They presented the rat (NS) to Albert, and then, while he was interacting with the rat, they made a loud noise (US). It was done repeatedly, pairing the sight of the rat with the frightening noise. As a result, Albert started associating the rat with the fear he experienced due to the loud noise.

- Conditioned Stimulus (CS): After several pairings, the previously Neutral Stimulus (the rat) becomes the conditioned stimulus, as it now elicits the fear response even without the presence of the loud noise.

- Conditioned Response (CR): This is the learned response to the previously neutral stimulus, which is now the Conditioned Stimulus. In this case, the Conditioned Response was Albert's fear of the rat. Even without the loud noise, he became upset and showed signs of fear whenever he saw the rat.

https://www.simplypsychology.org/little-albert.html



Five days later, According to Watson and Rayner, Albert became afraid of items that had traits in common with the rat, such as the family dog, a fur coat, cotton wool, and a Sanat mask! We call this process "generalization." The Little Albert Experiment

showed how classical training might instil a phobia. A phobia is an unreasonable dread that is out of proportion to the threat.

By developing the concept of reinforcement, Skinner (1938) investigated how conditioning could change behaviour in more complicated and long-term ways. Skinner contends that whereas negative reinforcement tends to discourage conduct, positive reinforcement—such as compliments and rewards—strengthens the behaviour in question. As per Skinner, educators, parents, and other caregivers can foster and cultivate desired behaviours by meticulously managing the surroundings and instituting a reinforcement system (Jensen, 2018). A straightforward illustration of behaviourism in the classroom is a point system where pupils receive points for appropriate behaviour and lose points for inappropriate behaviour. Points may eventually be exchanged for incentives like homework passes or minor presents. This method assumes that pupils are motivated by outside factors because they will act in a certain way to receive rewards.

Behaviourism typically downplays or ignores the importance of internal factors like past knowledge and emotion as it places so much emphasis on the external environment (Popp, 1996). Behaviorists stress the teacher's role in the classroom and see students as blank slates. With this teacher-centred approach, the decision-making authority, the content to be learned, and the incentives for learning are all placed on the teachers. Learners are viewed as passive participants who are expected to merely absorb the information imparted to them by the teacher, while their experience and past knowledge are not deemed significant.

Many of behaviourism's conditioning-based teaching theories are still widely accepted, even though the notion that students are empty canvases has lost appeal. As

practically every student can attest, behavioural reinforcement techniques—like the previously mentioned point system—remain prevalent, particularly in lower grades. Behaviourism is the foundation of current trends in educational gaming, wherein specific behaviours are rewarded with points and the ability to level up.

4.4 Application of Behaviorism in the Classroom

There are many ways that teachers can apply behaviourism in the classroom to enhance student learning and behaviour. Here are some examples of behaviourist teaching strategies:

Positive Reinforcement

It comprises providing incentives or prizes in order to reinforce desired behaviours. Verbal compliments, stickers, tokens, or other material prizes can be used in place of this. Teachers can inspire pupils and make it more likely that they will repeat desired behaviours by providing positive reinforcement for those actions. For instance, a teacher can give a pupil more playtime for being cooperative, congratulate them for finishing their assignment or give them a sticker for raising their hand.

Positive reinforcement can have several benefits, such as:

- It encourages students to repeat desirable behaviours and achieve their goals.
- It boosts students' self-esteem and confidence.
- It fosters a positive and nurturing learning atmosphere.

Negative Reinforcement

Removing an unpleasant stimulus after behaviour to increase its frequency is known as negative reinforcement. A teacher might, for instance, give a student who

does well on a test less homework, let them skip a quiz if they do well on a pre-test, or not penalize them if they fix their error.

Negative reinforcement can have several benefits, such as:

- It helps students avoid or escape from unpleasant or aversive situations.
- It increases students' motivation and persistence.
- It reduces students' anxiety and stress.

Punishment

Applying negative consequences is the method of punishment used to deter unwanted behaviour. It may manifest as warnings, time-outs, or privilege reductions. For instance, if a student talks out of turn, the teacher may reprimand them, deprive them of privileges, or assign them more work if they are not paying attention. However, it is crucial to apply discipline sparingly and consider how it can affect the student's drive and self-worth.

Punishment can have several drawbacks, such as:

- It can cause students to resent or fear the teacher or the subject.
- It can damage students' self-esteem and confidence.
- **Where** did the "Little Albert" experiment take place?

4.5 Practice

- **Activity 1**

Answer the following questions considering Watson's experiment

1- **Who** experimented on Little Albert?

2- **What** was the goal of Watson's "Little Albert" experiment?

3- **Where** did the "Little Albert" experiment take place?

4- **Why** did Watson choose a baby (Little Albert) as the subject for the experiment?

5- **What** was the unconditioned stimulus (UCS) in the experiment?

6- **How** did Little Albert respond to the unconditioned stimulus (UCS)?

7- **What** was the neutral stimulus (NS) used in the experiment before conditioning?

8- **What** was the conditioned stimulus (CS) after the conditioning process?

9- **What** was the conditioned response (CR) in the experiment?

10- **What** other objects did Little Albert eventually fear as a result of generalization?

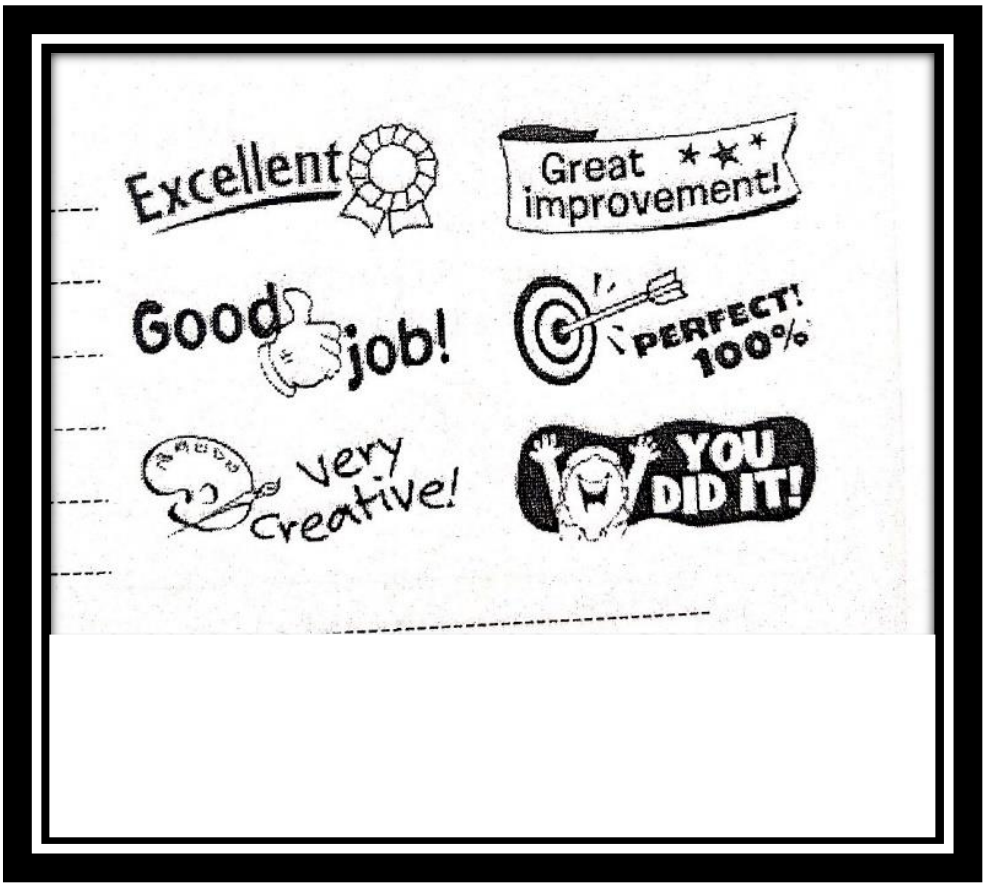
11- **What** did Watson hope to demonstrate with this experiment?

Activity 2: Reflecting on Behaviorism

Consider some of your own educational experiences, including those in conventional classrooms, during professional development courses, or from pursuits like dance or photography classes. From those encounters, try to pick out a few instances of behaviourism and consider the following queries:

- How did your instructors use behavioural practice in their classrooms?
- Did you find those practices motivating? Why or why not?
- If you can think of examples of behaviourism from several different learning experiences, were they more appropriate in some situations than others? How so?
- Have you ever used, or can you imagine using, behaviourism in your teaching practice? How so?

Activity 3: What do these utterances represent? Explain.



Learning Theories: Cognitivism (A)

5

Objectives

- To describe the cognitive approach to learning, emphasizing the importance of internal mental processes like memory, perception, and understanding over solely observable behaviors.
-To Compare and contrast cognitivism with behaviorism, particularly in how each theory views the learning process.

- To explain how Piaget's theory emphasizes the active role of learners in constructing mental models and internal representations of their world.
-To define and differentiate between cognition (basic mental processing) and metacognition (thinking about one's thinking)
- To discuss how mental behaviors contribute to effective cognitive learning.
- To explain how internal mental representations influence learning outcomes and behaviour.

5.1 Definition

Behaviourism is criticised for treating people like a black box, with known and measurable inputs and outputs, but no consideration or care is given to what goes on within the black box. Nevertheless, humans also possess the capacity for conscious thought, emotional expression, decision-making, and social discourse—all of which are extremely important for learning. Thus, if we attempt to comprehend what happens within the "black box," we will probably gain a greater knowledge of learning.

Cognitivism, therefore, has focused on identifying mental processes- internal and conscious representations of the world. Fontana (1981) summarises the cognitive approach to learning as follows:

According to the cognitive approach, understanding learning requires looking beyond observable behaviour and instead focusing on the learner's mental capacity to rearrange his psychological field—his inner world of ideas, memories, etc.—in response to experience. As a result, this latter strategy emphasises the environment and how the person understands and attempts to make sense of it. It views the person as an active participant in the learning process who consciously attempts to digest and organise the constant barrage of information thrown at him by the outside world rather than as a mechanical product of his surroundings.

Key ideas in cognitive psychology include the quest for meaning and consistency when integrating new information with prior knowledge and the search for rules, principles, or correlations while processing new information. The study of cognitive psychology aims to define and characterise the mental processes that underlie learning, reasoning, and behaviour, as well as the external factors that impact these processes.

5.2 Jean Piaget's Cognitive Learning Theory

Piaget, a developmental psychologist from Switzerland, centred his cognitive development theory on expanding human intellect. Piaget's study revealed insights into the nature of knowledge and the processes by which people acquire and use it. He contested that kids are just smaller replicas of adults, highlighting that kids have different ways of thinking and communicating.

The main contribution of Jean Piaget is his cognitive learning theory, which emphasises internal functions like memory and information. According to Jean Piaget's Cognitive Development Theory, children's intelligence evolves with age. Children's cognitive development does not simply include knowledge acquisition; they must construct or build a mental picture of their surroundings. One of Piaget's most

well-known ideas of cognitive development is the stage theory of child development. The primary learning channels for adult and child learners are visual and auditory.

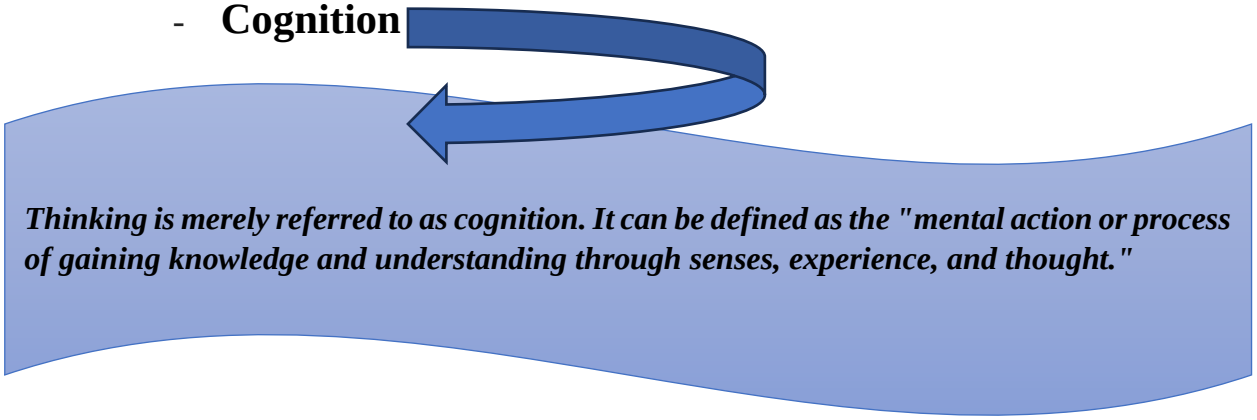
According to Piaget's Stage Theory. Kolberg's stage theory was also influenced by Piaget's stage theory of child development, which was applied in real life. According to Piaget's Cognitive Learning Theory, students move through four developmental stages when they pick up knowledge and abilities. These The main contribution of Jean Piaget is his cognitive learning theory, which emphasises internal functions like memory and information. According to Jean Piaget's Cognitive Development Theory, children's intelligence evolves with age. In order to fully grow cognitively, children must create mental models of their surroundings and acquire knowledge. One of Piaget's most well-known ideas of cognitive development is the stage theory of child development. According to Piaget's Stage Theory, young and adult learners primarily learn through visual and aural channels. Kolberg's stage theory was also influenced by Piaget's stage theory of child development, which was applied in real life.

According to Piaget's Cognitive Learning Theory, students move through four developmental stages when they pick up knowledge and abilities. The Preoperational Stage, Concrete Operational Stage, Formal Operational Stage, and Sensorimotor Stage are these stages. Before going on to the next step, learners must obtain a fundamental comprehension of each one. For example, students need to understand objects symbolically before learning to think abstractly or solve problems.

5.3 Cognition and Metacognition

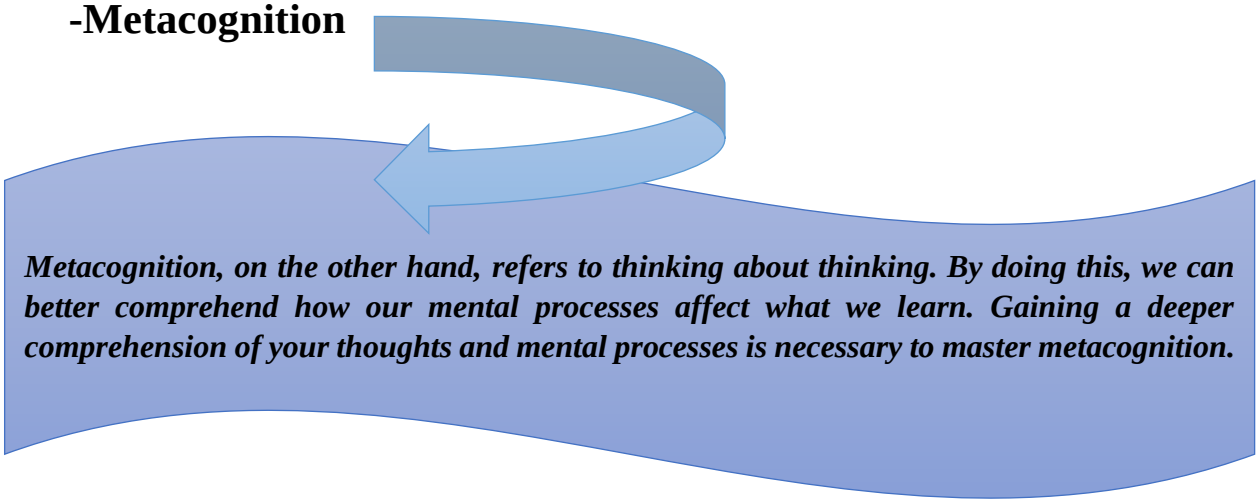
The terms cognition and metacognition are essential to comprehending cognitive learning theory.

- **Cognition**



Thinking is merely referred to as cognition. It can be defined as the "mental action or process of gaining knowledge and understanding through senses, experience, and thought."

-Metacognition



Metacognition, on the other hand, refers to thinking about thinking. By doing this, we can better comprehend how our mental processes affect what we learn. Gaining a deeper comprehension of your thoughts and mental processes is necessary to master metacognition.

Comments:

Grasp cognitive learning theory requires a grasp of metacognition. "We can guide those thoughts to help us gain knowledge more effectively by understanding the role of thought processes during learning," We can manipulate the internal and external factors that impact our thinking to improve learning in ourselves and others.

5.4 Components of Mental Behaviour

The cognitive learning process, a component of cognitive approach psychology, depends on humans processing information to generate a particular behaviour. Furthermore, it has been discovered that these brain processes consist of several elements, such as:

- Organizing
- Interpreting
- Categorizing
- Attention
- Observing
- Forming generalizations

5.5 The Process of Cognitive Learning Theory

Cognitive learning encompasses several key processes fundamental to understanding and applying knowledge. Perception involves interpreting and reacting to external stimuli, often shaped by past experiences, while concept formation enables individuals to categorize and organize information for decision-making, such as recognizing patterns or directions. Memory is the foundation for storing and retrieving learned material, linking concepts to prior experiences, and enhancing understanding. Finally, applying knowledge in real-world scenarios fosters problem-solving abilities, enabling learners to use acquired skills in practical situations. Together, these elements play a crucial role in the cognitive learning process.

5.5.1 Perception

Understanding the external stimuli and the action while reacting to them is called perception. Processing information during simple or complicated situations is an important cognitive learning process. Furthermore, one's perception is also influenced by past experiences.

5.5.2 Concept Formation

Information can be categorised and arranged appropriately with the aid of concept development. For example, it assists in determining the best course of action after seeing a road sign indicating a certain direction.

5.5.3 Memory

Since memory aids in storing and retrieving previously learned material, it is the cornerstone of cognitive learning. Furthermore, it does not emphasise either long-term or short-term memory. Rather, it emphasises fostering an environment where learning a concept is mastered and can be related to past experiences.

5.5.4 Application

The application component of the cognitive learning technique fosters the use of acquired information or abilities in real-life settings. Thus aiding in the development of problem-solving abilities.

5.6 Practice

Activity one:

Objective: To enhance understanding of how external stimuli and past experiences shape perception.

- **Instructions:**
    1. Present a series of images or short video clips of different situations (e.g., traffic signs, classroom scenes, emergency scenarios).

2. Ask students to describe what they see and how they would react to each scenario.
3. Then, have them discuss how their past experiences (e.g., learning to drive while attending classes) influenced their interpretations.

- **Reflection Questions:**

    - How did your perception differ from others in the class?
    - How did your past experiences shape the way you perceived the stimuli?

Activity two:

Scenario: Organizing a School Event with Limited Resources

You have a small budget and little time to organize a school event. Your venue options are:

- **Large hall:** Spacious and attractive but expensive.
- **Park:** Free, but dependent on good weather.
- **School gym:** Available and free, but not as appealing.

Step 1: Listing Possible Actions

- **Option 1:** Rent the large hall and exceed the budget.
- **Option 2:** Use the park, hoping for good weather.
- **Option 3:** Use the school gym, which is available but less attractive.

Step 2: Evaluating Each Option

1. **Large Hall:**

    - **Pros:** Large enough to host many people, aesthetically pleasing.

- **Cons:** Expensive; spending most of the budget on the venue leaves little for other needs.

2. **Park:**

   - **Pros:** Free; allows spending the budget on other aspects like decorations and refreshments.
   - **Cons:** Unreliable due to weather; event might get cancelled if it rains.

3. **School Gym:**

   - **Pros:** Free and reliable in any weather; available without extra costs.
   - **Cons:** It is not as visually appealing and could affect attendance or enthusiasm.

Step 3: Making a Decision

"I decided to go with the **school gym** because it is the most practical option. It is free and available regardless of weather, so there is no risk of cancellation. I can use the entire budget for decorations, refreshments, and activities to make the gym more appealing. Although it is not as attractive as the large hall, I believe good event planning and decorations can create a positive experience for the attendees.

Reflection Questions:

- **Criteria used to evaluate each option:**

  "I prioritized budget, reliability, and feasibility. Although aesthetics are important, I needed to ensure the event could happen without risking the weather or overspending."

- **Decision-making process:**

  "I focused on balancing minimizing risk and maximizing the event experience. The gym was the safest option, and the extra budget could be used to enhance other aspects of the event."

Comments

The Cognitive Learning Theory is central to the reasoning process in Activity 3 because it emphasizes understanding, organizing, and applying knowledge, which are key elements in making thoughtful decisions.

- **Activity Three: Identify the study method suggested in the following case. Justify your answer**

Case Study: Perception and Learning

Sara and John's Study Methods:

Sara's preference for studying in a quiet environment and using printed notes aligns with a more solitary and tactile learning style. She likely benefits from the sensory experience of writing and the lack of distraction.
John's preference for group study, verbal discussion, and digital aids indicate a more social auditory learning style. He might benefit from interaction and verbalization of concepts.

Learning Theories: Cognitivism (B)

6

Objectives :

- ***To define and explain the components of the learner-centered approach: accommodation, assimilation, and equilibrium.***
- ***To describe the principles of learning through discovery and its role in developing analytical skills through problem-solving.***
- ***To describe the principles of learning through discovery and its role in developing analytical skills through problem-solving.***
- ***To guide students in creating personalized learning plans that include specific action steps and time management for achieving their goals***.

6.1 The Strategies of Cognitive Learning

Learner-centered strategies shift the focus from teacher-led instruction to a more student-centered approach, recognizing that each learner brings unique prior knowledge, ideas, and experiences to the classroom. Connecting new information with existing knowledge encourages students to actively participate in learning. Techniques like the learner-centred approach and discovery-based learning help students integrate new ideas and develop problem-solving skills by engaging with real-world issues. Personalized learning plans further individualize this process, allowing students to set goals, manage their time, and use resources that cater to their strengths and areas for growth. This approach ultimately fosters autonomy, critical thinking, and meaningful learning experiences.

6.1.1 Learner-Centred Strategy

As the name implies, this approach is student-centred and draws from their prior learning, ideas, experience, and cumulative knowledge. This method, therefore, focuses on connecting new information to previously acquired knowledge. Students are, therefore, free to express their ideas and opinions whenever a new chapter or topic is introduced in class.

Three significant components of the learner-centered approach:

- **Accommodation** – incorporating new information by modifying what the individuals already know.
- **Assimilation** – Organizing the new knowledge in the brain apart from what is already known.
- **Equilibrium** – striking a balance between the person's current knowledge and the new material they are attempting to learn.
- **6.1.1.1 practice**

Activity one:

Concept Mapping Activity: Integrating prior knowledge with new concepts

- **Objective:** Help students accommodate and assimilate new information by organizing their existing knowledge and the new content visually.
- **Components:** Accommodation, Assimilation, Equilibrium.

Instructions:

1. Introduce a new topic or chapter, such as "Cognitive Learning Theory."
2. Ask students to work in pairs or small groups. Provide them with large sheets of paper or digital tools to create a concept map.

3. **Step 1:** Write the new topic in the centre of the map. Instruct students to brainstorm and list everything they already know about the topic, connecting related ideas to the centre.
4. **Step 2:** As the lesson progresses, introduce key new terms or ideas (e.g., cognitive schemas, stages of learning). Have students add these new ideas to their concept map and draw connections to their prior knowledge.
5. **Step 3:** Discuss as a class how new ideas can be accommodated (modified understanding) and assimilated (structured alongside what is already known). Ask students to explain how they balanced this new information with their existing knowledge (equilibrium).

Activity two:

Prior knowledge debate: encouraging existing knowledge with new information

- **Objective:** Encourage students to express their prior knowledge and experiences, accommodating new information while balancing it with what they already know.
- **Components:** Accommodation, Equilibrium.

Instructions:

- Divide the class into two groups at the start of a new lesson.
- Present a statement related to the new topic that may challenge students' existing ideas (e.g., "Traditional teaching methods are more effective than modern, tech-based approaches for cognitive learning").

- Ask each group to discuss their beliefs and experiences related to the statement.
- After each group shares their prior knowledge, new research or information on cognitive learning theories will be introduced.

Step 1: Each group must accommodate this new information by adjusting their initial position. They should prepare counterarguments that balance their prior knowledge with the new insights (equilibrium).

Step 2: Hold a class debate where students argue their adapted perspectives, illustrating how their views have evolved after integrating the new content.

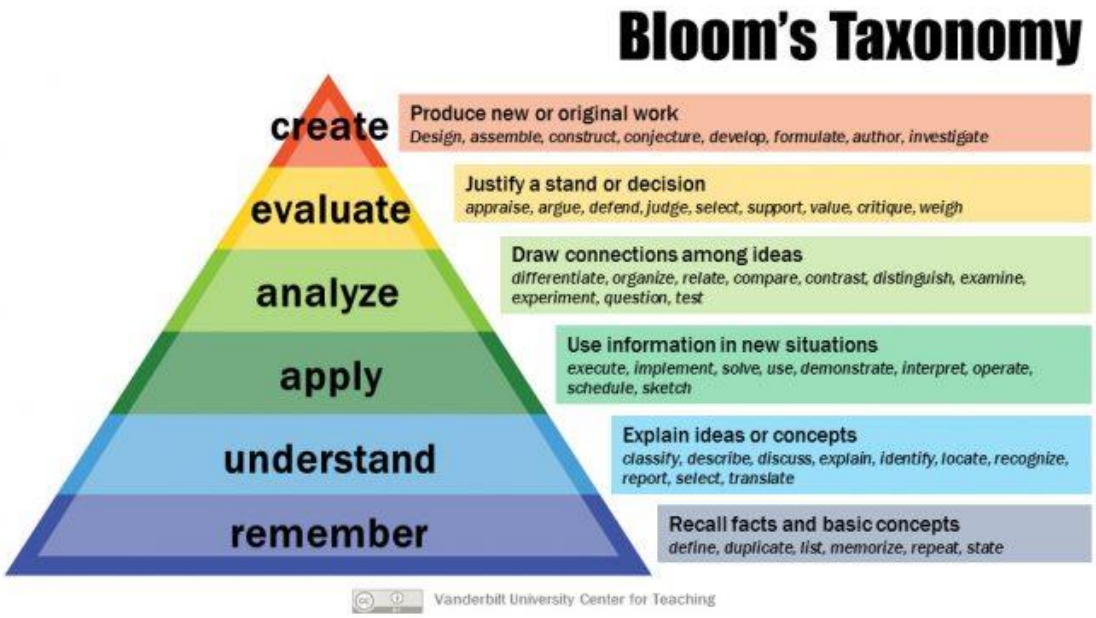
6.1.2 Learning through Discovery Strategy

As learning is an endless process, people can expand their knowledge by investigating novel concepts according to this approach. Additionally, this tactic aids in developing analytical abilities since it facilitates problem analysis and optimal solution generation. It confronts people with real-world problems and encourages them to find solutions independently. This tactic is also frequently applied in one of Bloom's taxonomy's tiers.

The most popular ideas of cognitivism in education are based on Bloom's taxonomy of learning objectives (Bloom et al., 1956), which are connected to developing various learning abilities or learning methods. According to Bloom and his associates, learning occurs in three key domains:

- Cognitive (thinking)
- Affective (feeling)
- Psychomotor (doing)

The “thinking” realm is the centre of cognitivism. Bloom et al.’s initial taxonomy was slightly updated in more recent years by Anderson and Krathwohl (2000), who included “creating” new information.



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6.1.2.1 practice

Problem: Addressing Language Barriers in Multilingual Classrooms

- **Scenario:** Schools are becoming increasingly multilingual in many regions, with students from diverse linguistic backgrounds. Teachers often face the challenge of effectively instructing students who speak different native languages while ensuring that no one is left behind in the learning process.

Problem Statement:

"How can teachers in multilingual classrooms implement inclusive teaching strategies that promote equal language learning opportunities for all students while maintaining academic progress?"

Guiding Questions for Analysis:

- What are the main challenges faced by students and teachers in multilingual classrooms?
- How can teachers create an inclusive environment that accommodates different languages and cultures?
- What strategies or tools (e.g., technology, peer learning, differentiated instruction) could bridge language gaps without sacrificing curriculum goals?
- How can the classroom environment promote language development for both minority and majority language speakers?

Possible Solutions for Students to Explore:

- Implementing bilingual or multilingual teaching methods.
- Using digital tools (language learning apps, translation devices) to support language learning.
- Encouraging peer support or tutoring programs where students help each other with language differences.
- Differentiating instruction to cater to varying levels of language proficiency.

Bloom's Taxonomy Focus:

- **Analysis:** Students will break down the complexities of multilingual classrooms, including cultural and linguistic barriers.
- **Evaluation:** Students will assess strategies to determine the most feasible and effective solutions for ensuring equitable language learning in diverse settings.

6.1.3 Personalize Learning Strategy

Since every student is an individual, they have different issues and worldviews. Therefore, it is only proper that educators design a course that each student can complete based on their level of understanding. Teachers can create a plan of action for pupils that maximises their strengths and improves their weaknesses using a personalised learning strategy. Additionally, learning management systems are frequently used by institutions to carry out the plan in the classroom.

6.1.3.1 practice

Personalized Learning Plan Development

- **Objective:** Guide students in developing their personalized learning plan (PLP) that addresses their strengths, weaknesses, and learning goals

Instructions:

1. **Self-Assessment and Reflection:**

   - Begin by asking students to reflect on their current learning progress, identifying both their strengths and areas where they struggle.

- Provide a self-assessment questionnaire to guide their reflection. Questions could include:

    - What subjects or skills do you feel most confident in?
    - Where do you think you need more practice or support?
    - What learning activities (videos, readings, group discussions) are most helpful?

2. **Set Learning Goals:**

    - After the reflection, ask each student to set 2-3 personalized learning goals based on their self-assessment. These objectives ought to be SMART—specific, measurable, achievable, relevant, and time-bound.

    - Example goals could include:

        - *Improve vocabulary in English by learning 5 new words every week.*
        - *Increase listening comprehension in French by watching one French-language video with subtitles per week.*

3. **Create a Personalized Learning Plan (PLP):**

- Guide students in designing a personalized learning plan that outlines how they will achieve their goals. The plan should include:

    - **Action Steps:** Specific actions they will take to reach each goal (e.g., “Use an online vocabulary-building app,” or “Watch educational videos on YouTube in the target language”).
    - **Time Management:** A weekly schedule that allocates time for each learning activity.

Learning Theories: Constructivism (A)

7

Objectives

- ***To explain the foundation of constructivist learning theory (CLT) and its emphasis on active, inquiry-based learning.***
- ***To reveal that constructivism is a response to behaviorism and identify key influences from various fields, including Jean Piaget's contributions to cognitive constructivism.***
- ***To identify the guiding principles of constructivism, including the active creation of knowledge, the role of social and personal experiences, and the significance of motivation in learning.***

7.1 What is constructivism?

The foundation of constructivism learning theory (CLT) is the idea that students actively engage in inquiry-based learning, expanding on prior knowledge to acquire new ideas. According to constructivism, existing information serves as a foundation for creating new knowledge, and learning is seen as both an act of building and a building itself.

By using this strategy, educators and teachers can assist students in making sense of new lessons by helping them relate concepts they have already learned to real-world situations.

Constructivism emerged as an intellectual movement to investigate the mind and its activities during the cognitive revolution of the 1950s. Constructivism is a response to behaviourism, the preeminent method at the time that only examined outward behaviour and ignored "hidden" cognitive processes.

Thinkers and theorists from a wide range of fields, including computer science, philosophy, linguistics, psychology, anthropology, and neuroscience, were included in

constructivism. The psychologist Jean Piaget from Switzerland pioneered cognitive constructivism in education. According to Piaget's theory, people pick up new information by relating what they have experienced to what has been taught. His studies concentrated mainly on children's cognitive development and how they learn, as opposed to what affects their learning.

7.2 The Principles of Constructivism

(CLT) is a learning theory with several guiding principles that provide the theory with structural support.

7.2.1 Knowledge is created, not acquired naturally or passively

Students build on their prior knowledge to acquire new concepts. Students can receive information differently due to various factors, including their learning styles, past experiences, social and cultural attitudes, and information-processing skills. These variables can cause students to have distinct insights from one another, resulting in diverse lessons learned from a course. Students may also have different experiences and beliefs.

7.2.2 learning is an active process

According to this theory, learning is an active process instead of a passive one. Since learning is a dynamic process, students must be involved and actively participate in it rather than just being told what to learn and expected to retain it. For students to learn, they must ask thoughtful questions, participate in class discussions, and demonstrate their ability to apply knowledge in meaningful ways to increase their comprehension.

7.2.3 All knowledge is socially constructed

This idea comes full circle to social-emotional learning (SEL), which can begin as early as Pre-knowledge. Social-emotional learning aids in students' growth in self-

awareness and empathy for others, both those with similar experiences and those with different ones. It also helps them comprehend their ideas and feelings. Knowledge as a social construct, one of the tenets of CLT, includes roundtable discussions, chats, and group activities to assist students in comprehending not only the lesson at hand but also how classmates with varying experiences perceive the content. Students' comprehension of the subject is not limited to what they already know; they are also exposed to perspectives from peers that may extend their understanding.

7.2.4 All Knowledge is personal

According to constructivism in education, every student uniquely engages with information and materials depending on their experiences and emotions. Different viewpoints from each student may be applied to the same lesson. Each student's understanding of a subject becomes personal, even when students in the same classroom have different perspectives on the same content.

7.2.5 learning exists in the mind

While debate, collaboration with others, and project-based learning are valuable, constructivism asserts that students' ability to think critically about their lessons is the most significant contribution to their knowledge development. Effective learning requires the mind to be actively engaged. A student's recall capacity is improved when actively engaging with the content.

7.2.6 motivation drives learning

Students who are eager and driven to learn will absorb more information. Constructivism demands that students participate actively in their education, but for the new material to truly stick, teachers must figure out how to assist students in drawing from their existing knowledge bases.

7.3 Practice

Activity: *Group Reflection and Peer Dialogue*

- **Objective**: Promote social-emotional learning (SEL) and understanding through group discussion.
- **Instructions**:
    1. Arrange students into small groups and assign each group a topic or scenario related to the lesson.
    2. Ask each student to reflect on how their background, culture, and experiences shape their perspective.
    3. Facilitate a roundtable discussion where students share their reflections with their group, focusing on how their perspectives differ or align.
    4. Have groups create a visual representation (e.g., a poster or digital presentation) showing the range of perspectives within the group.

Debrief: Guide the class in discussing how social interaction and diverse perspectives helped them gain new insights about the lesson.

Learning Theories: Constructivism (B)

8

Objectives :

- To describe how cognitive constructivism aligns learning processes with a student's current stage of cognitive development and how this impacts their understanding of new information.

- To identify and explain the processes of assimilation and accommodation, illustrating how students incorporate or adapt to new knowledge within their existing cognitive frameworks.

- To discuss the concept of schemas as cognitive structures developed from prior experiences and explain how they support the construction of new knowledge.

8.1 Types of Constructivism

Although constructivism is a more extensive theoretical concept in education, there are three different types.

8.1.1 Cognitive

Cognitive constructivism functions on the premise that students actively construct knowledge following their current stage of cognitive development. According to this idea, which was largely influenced by Jean Piaget's work, learning is not a passive process in which information is merely absorbed; rather, students actively interpret new knowledge and incorporate it into their pre-existing cognitive frameworks or schemas. These schemas serve as the basis for constructing new knowledge and are developed from their past experiences, knowledge, and perception of the environment.

When students come upon new material, they do not just take it at face value. Rather, individuals use their existing cognitive development to affect how they understand and assimilate the new material, processing and organizing it in ways that

make sense to them. For instance, a young toddler may learn fundamental math using concrete things like counting bricks, while an older student may be able to understand abstract mathematical ideas without the use of physical representations due to their more advanced cognitive level; this demonstrates how a learner's tactics and level of understanding are determined by their cognitive growth.

The ideas of assimilation and accommodation are central to cognitive constructivism. Students assimilate new information into their pre-existing schemas without changing their mental framework. However, when the new information contradicts what they already know, they must make adjustments or construct new schemas to consider it. Students' ongoing assimilation and accommodation processes allow them to gradually extend and improve their cognitive architecture.

According to cognitive constructivism, educators should provide knowledge to pupils in ways that correspond with their existing cognitive stages, progressively pushing them to learn more difficult concepts as they advance. Learning should be scaffolded, allowing students to actively engage with and digest new information independently while providing guidance when necessary. Students can examine theories, challenge assumptions, and actively create knowledge through inquiry-based learning, problem-solving, and exploration.

Cognitive constructivism ultimately acknowledges that learning is a personal, continuous process. Students make meaning of what they have learned by integrating new information into what individuals already know about the world and themselves. In order to promote a more profound and long-lasting knowledge of topics, this theory highlights the significance of allowing students to interact thoroughly with the content, reflect on their understanding, and adjust their understanding in response to new information.

8.1.1.1 Practice

Topic: *The Role of Technology in Modern Education*

Context:

Students likely have prior knowledge and personal experiences with technology in educational settings (e.g., online learning platforms, digital textbooks, educational apps). However, many may not have critically examined how technology impacts teaching methods, learning processes, or classroom dynamics. This topic challenges them to reflect on and expand their understanding of the integration of technology in education, focusing on its benefits, limitations, and the cognitive processes involved.

Steps Specific to this Topic:

1. **Step 1 – Initial Reflection**:

   - Ask students to write down their current understanding and experiences with technology in education. They could include online learning, smartboards, educational games, or digital collaboration tools (Google Classroom, Zoom, etc.).

   - Have them reflect on both positive and negative aspects of using technology in learning environments. For example: “What impact do you think technology has on your learning? How does it help or hinder your understanding of new material?”

2. **Step 2 – Exploration and Discovery**:

- Provide students with new perspectives on how technology changes learning and teaching. For example, introduce research on:

    - **Blended learning** and its effects on engagement and learning outcomes.
    - The role of **AI** in personalized learning (e.g., adaptive learning platforms).
    - How **technology overload** or **digital distraction** can hinder learning processes.

- Give students a task like: *"How do you think technology has transformed education in the last decade, and what do you see as the future role of technology in classrooms?"*

3. **Step 3 – Schema Mapping**:

-In their schema maps, students can start by outlining their prior knowledge about how technology has been used in their educational experiences (e.g., using laptops for research, educational apps, or online classes).

-They should then add new knowledge about more advanced or lesser-known aspects, such as AI in adaptive learning, virtual reality (VR) classrooms, or research on digital distractions.

-They can visually link how traditional learning (textbooks, face-to-face learning) compares and integrates with tech-based education.

4. **Step 4 – Group Discussion**:

-Groups present their schema maps and discuss questions like:

- What new insights did you gain about technology's positive or negative aspects in education?
- How did your understanding of technology in the classroom evolve after learning about its broader impact?
- Did you have to adjust or accommodate any pre-existing ideas about the role of technology in learning?

5. **Step 5 – Reflection**:

-Students individually reflect on how their thinking has changed. Prompts could include:

- "How has technology shaped your own learning experiences?"
- "Do you think technology enhances or limits deeper cognitive engagement with material?"
- "What new questions do you have about the role of technology in education after this activity?"

8.1.2 Social

Social constructivism stresses social interaction as the foundation for education. Individual interactions, one's surroundings and culture, and one's place in broader

communities are all sources of knowledge for people. Social constructivism is predicated on the idea that “it takes a village to raise a child” and that pupils develop their knowledge via interactions with others.

8.1.2.1 Practice

Activity :

Topic: *The Influence of Social Interaction on Language Acquisition*

Objective: to reveal the role of social engagement

Context:

This topic explores how language learning is shaped by social interaction, cultural context, and community involvement. It connects to **social constructivism** by emphasizing that language is learned in isolation and through communication with others, making the environment and social engagement essential to acquiring new languages.

Step 1 – Initial Group Formation:

- Divide students into small, diverse groups (3-5 students). Aim to include students who speak different languages or have experience learning a second or third language.
- Each group will explore the role of social interaction in language learning. They will discuss their own language learning experiences, highlighting how social factors (conversations, immersion, cultural norms) impacted their learning.
- Step 2 – Group Exploration
- **Collaborative Brainstorming**: Students discuss their experiences with language learning. For example:

- How did interacting with native speakers help or hinder your language acquisition?

-Did learning in a group or through social interaction make the process easier?

- What role did cultural context play in your understanding of the language?

- **Exchange of Perspectives**: Encourage students to reflect on how learning a language in different environments (school, travel, home, online communities) influenced their fluency or confidence in using the language.

- For example, students might compare learning a language in a classroom vs. living in a country where the language is spoken.

- **Social Interaction and Language Learning**: Through group discussion, students explore how social interactions, such as conversations, peer feedback, and immersion, shaped their understanding of language rules, pronunciation, and cultural nuances. They should also consider the role of **language communities** (both online and offline) in this process.

Step 3 – Whole-Class Reflection (15-20 minutes):

Lead a class discussion in which students consider how social interaction affects language learning.

- How did communicating with others impact your language learning experience?

-In what ways do social or cultural contexts affect how you learn and use language?

-How does learning in isolation compare to learning through social interaction or immersion?

8.1.3 Radical

The educational theory of radical constructivism radically reinterprets the nature of knowledge and the learning process. It claims that knowledge is something that each student actively develops based on their unique experiences, perceptions, and interactions with the world around them rather than a set substance that can be communicated from teacher to student. This viewpoint sharply contrasts conventional educational approaches, which portray students as passive information consumers and teachers as the main sources of authority and knowledge.

The foundation of radical constructivism is the notion that knowledge is inherently subjective. Every learner has a different background that influences how they perceive an idea. These backgrounds include cultural context, past experiences, emotional reactions, and personal views. For instance, two students learning about climate change may understand the material differently depending on their prior exposure to environmental issues, cultural values around nature, or personal experiences with extreme weather occurrences. Because of this subjectivity, learning is not a uniform process but rather highly individualized, with each learner creating a unique understanding that may differ greatly from their peers.

Active participation is how knowledge is constructed. When students are actively involved in the learning process, they learn best—by investigating concepts, asking questions, and solving problems in circumstances that are important to them, according to radical constructivism. For example, a student could participate in a hands-on science experiment that enables them to learn physics principles by trial and error and build their understanding of how these ideas apply in practical situations. In this sense, knowledge is constructed via interaction with the real world and social settings, where group discussion and cooperation are crucial elements of the educational process.

Moreover, radical constructivism acknowledges the role of **social interactions** in shaping knowledge. While knowledge is subjective and personal, it is also influenced by the dynamics of social discourse. When students discuss ideas, challenge each other's viewpoints, and negotiate meanings in a collaborative environment, they articulate their understandings and refine and expand their perspectives. This communal aspect of knowledge construction allows students to engage with diverse viewpoints, fostering a richer learning experience informed by many experiences and backgrounds.

Radical constructivism also recognizes the influence of social interactions on knowledge formation. Although knowledge is individualized and subjective, social discourse dynamics can impact it. Students develop and broaden their perspectives in addition to articulating their understandings when they debate concepts, confront one another's opinions, and negotiate meanings in a group setting. Students can interact with various perspectives thanks to this collaborative aspect of knowledge building, which creates a more varied learning environment influenced by various experiences and backgrounds.

Radical constructivism acknowledges that knowledge formation is not always simple or linear. Confusion, contradiction, and the rewriting of preconceived notions are all common aspects of learning that can be messy. Radical constructivism embraces this complexity and favours the notion that obstacles and setbacks are necessary for learning. Students gain resilience and adaptability as they work through challenging ideas and reassess their understandings, giving them skills beyond academic knowledge.

To sum up, radical constructivism provides an insightful viewpoint on the nature of learning and knowledge. According to this perspective, knowledge is a

dynamic, subjective construct that students actively develop via their experiences and relationships. Radical constructivism enriches the educational experience and changes how knowledge is understood by valuing each learner's uniqueness, emphasizing social and experiential learning, and encouraging a learner-centred approach. It helps students prepare for a world that is becoming more complex and interconnected.

8.1.3.1 Practice

Activity**: *Constructing Knowledge: A Personal Experience Workshop***

Objective:

Students will explore the principles of **Radical Constructivism** by reflecting on their personal experiences, sharing insights with peers, and collaboratively constructing knowledge around a common theme. This activity emphasizes the subjective nature of knowledge and the importance of individual perspectives in the learning process.

Instructions:

Step 1 – Introduction to Radical Constructivism:

1. **Discussion**: Begin with a brief overview of radical constructivism, highlighting the following points:

- People actively create knowledge by drawing from their experiences

- Their unique background and perspective shape each student’s understanding.

- Learning is a subjective process influenced by personal interpretation and social interaction.

2. **Examples**: Provide examples illustrating how two people can interpret the same experience differently based on their backgrounds.

Step 2 – Individual Reflection :

Prompt: Ask students to think of a personal experience that significantly shaped their understanding of a concept, idea, or value. It could relate to any subject area (e.g., science, history, social issues, personal growth).

1. **Guiding Questions**:

    - What was the experience?

    - How did it influence your understanding of a specific concept?

    - What background factors (cultural, social, emotional) contributed to your interpretation of this experience?

2. **Journaling**: Have students write a short reflection (5-7 sentences) about their experience, focusing on how it shaped their understanding.

Step 3 – Small Group Sharing

Group Formation: Divide the class into small groups of 4-5 students. Encourage diversity within groups to ensure a range of perspectives.

1. **Sharing**: In their groups, students take turns sharing their reflections. Encourage them to discuss:

    - How did their unique backgrounds influence their understanding of the experience?

    -Any similarities or differences they notice in each other's stories.

    - Insights gained from listening to their peers.

2. **Active Listening**: Remind students to listen actively and consider how each shared experience contributes to their understanding of the topic discussed.

Learning Theories: Constructivism (C)

9

Objectives :

- To describe the purpose of each constructivist stage, including how each phase contributes to the cumulative learning process and supports students' active engagement with the material.

- To identify specific teacher responsibilities and support strategies at each stage, such as guiding discussions, addressing misconceptions, and facilitating reflective thinking.

- To reveal how each stage enables students to demonstrate and refine their understanding, encouraging them to articulate and justify their ideas as they build toward deeper comprehension.

9.1 stages of constructivism

Constructivism theory divides CLT into five stages. These cumulative phases create a logical foundation for building on a student's prior knowledge. Constructivism has five stages: ideation, investigation, proposal, justification and resolution, and implementation.

9.1.1 Inviting ideas

During the engagement phase, a teacher presents a scenario or query to the class and invites them to draw from their knowledge bases. After that, the learner starts to come up with a viewpoint or concept based on fresh data.

9.1.2 Exploration

During the exploration phase, students actively engage with the taught subject, gaining new knowledge. In order to do this, teachers and students may discuss the scenario or question presented during the engagement stage.

9.1.3 Proposition

In the proposition stage, students discuss what they learned or any observations made based on their initial engagement and new ideas that cropped up during discussions. The teacher supports them, helping them articulate their thoughts if needed. However, this stage is critical for students to demonstrate their understanding of the concept.

9.1.4 Explanation and Solution

The elaboration stage is another name for the explanation step. Pupils and teachers can engage in conversation as they work through their ideas. Based on what they have learned, the instructor can address any misunderstandings or misconceptions and adjust the session so that the student understands the content more thoroughly.

9.1.5 Taking action

Teachers invite students to summarize their thought process during the evaluation phase and discuss any changes they may have made to their ideas since the inviting ideas phase. It enables students to apply newly acquired knowledge while analyzing how their initial impressions changed due to fresh conversations, interactions, and problem-solving throughout the five stages.

9.2 Practice

Activity: Here are five scenarios designed to represent each stage of constructivism. Students can guess which stage is being described based on the context provided:

Scenario 1:

Description: The teacher starts the class with a short video about climate change. After the clip, the teacher asks, "What factors contribute to climate change, and how do they affect our environment?" Students are encouraged to share their thoughts based on what they already know and any experiences they may have had related to the topic.

Scenario 2:

Description: After discussing climate change, the teacher sets up various stations around the classroom. Each station contains different materials, such as articles, graphs, and interactive models related to climate change impacts. Students rotate through the stations, engaging with the materials and discussing their findings with peers, asking questions, and making observations about the data.

Guess the Stage: Which stage of constructivism does this scenario illustrate?

Scenario 3:

Description: Following the exploration activities, the teacher asks the students to gather in small groups to discuss what they learned from the stations. Each group shares their observations and insights about climate change, proposing potential solutions or ways to raise awareness. The teacher circulates among the groups, facilitating discussions and helping students articulate their thoughts more clearly.

Guess the Stage: Which stage of constructivism does this scenario illustrate?

Scenario 4:

Description: After the group discussions, the teacher leads a whole-class discussion where students present their proposals. As students share, the teacher asks probing

questions to encourage deeper thinking and clarification. The teacher also addresses misconceptions, providing additional context or examples to enhance the students' understanding of climate change and its complexities.

Guess the Stage: Which stage of constructivism does this scenario illustrate?

Scenario 5:

Description: The instructor asks the class to reflect on their learning process for the entire unit during the last phase.

Students write a short essay summarizing how their understanding of climate change has evolved. They discuss the proposed solutions, any changes to their initial thoughts, and how they plan to take action in their community to raise awareness about climate change.

Guess the Stage: Which stage of constructivism does this scenario illustrate?

9.3 Classroom Environment

9.3.1 Advantages of a Constructivist Classroom

A constructivist approach in the classroom can benefit students in several ways. For starters, it fosters greater engagement among students in several ways. For starters, it fosters greater engagement among students, prompting them to ask questions and formulate their opinions, enhancing their critical thinking skills. By having the ability to chime in with questions of their own instead of passively listening to a lecture and echoing back what they have memorized, the argument for a constructivist approach is that students have more significant outcomes when they are more actively engaged.

A constructivist classroom also places a greater emphasis on tailoring the curriculum to focus on students' interests. Teachers formulate lessons to make them more relatable to students based on their prior knowledge and experiences. The onus is on the teacher to focus on topics of interest to students.

Another advantage of a constructivist approach is that it calls for more significant social interaction between students and their teachers. Students may often work in groups, which helps them engage with new concepts and hear others' thoughts, which may not necessarily be similar to their perspectives or life experiences. Students better appreciate their peers' opinions and observe and deepen their social skills.

9.3.2 Disadvantages of a constructivist classroom

While constructivism has many advantages, there are some disadvantages to this approach. For instance, teachers may need help creating lesson plans and personalizing instructions with an eye on constructivism if they deal with large class sizes. There is a correlation between overcrowded classrooms, reduced attention among students, and students' misbehaviour.

Social Learning Theories

10

Objectives :

- To explain the foundations of Social Learning Theory
- to identify examples of cognitive tools, such as language and social customs, and explain how they influence thinking and problem-solving according to Vygotsky's perspective.
- to identify examples of cognitive tools, such as language and social customs, and explain how they influence thinking and problem-solving according to Vygotsky's perspective.

Vygotsky's Social Learning Theory

The individual learner is at the centre of behaviourist and cognitive learning theories. According to proponents of social learning theory, learning is the process of assimilating cultural and communal thinking. As a result, social interaction plays a critical role in education. Lev Vygotsky and Albert Bandura were two major intellectuals of the classic social learning tradition.

10.1 Facts about the theory

Though Lev Vygotsky created and published his theory in Russia in the 1920s, American education experts did not become familiar with his work until the 1960s and early 1970s. His research focused on how social contact may be used to learn. According to Vygotsky, our culture gives us cognitive resources that influence our thinking. For instance, language is a cognitive tool. Although language has a similar purpose in every society, a language's distinctive characteristics might affect our

thinking. If you speak a language that, for instance, distinguishes between different forms of address based on social position (vous versus tu in French), you most likely think about status and social position in a slightly different way than a speaker of a language (like English) that does not. Similarly, kids who learn arithmetic with an abacus could approach the concept of numbers differently than kids who study it with other tools or just a pencil and paper.

Vygotsky believed children learn these cognitive skills through interaction with adults who help and model how to use the tools. Youngsters mimic the actions of adults at first, but eventually, they internalise them. The adult performs the role of a more experienced person, offering the scaffolding necessary for the youngster to operate within his or her zone of proximal development (ZPD). The difference between what a child can accomplish independently and with assistance is known as the ZPD. Because it is meant to help the child momentarily and be gradually removed as the youngster learns expertise, the assistance is referred to as scaffolding. (More experienced peers can also offer assistance.)

10.2 Vygotsky's Concept of More Knowledgable Other (MKO)

According to Vygotsky's theory, it is critical to assist kids in learning via their interactions with an adult who possesses greater knowledge (MKO). Anyone with a deeper comprehension of the idea or task the child is attempting to acquire or accomplish can be considered the more informed person. It would often be a teacher, parent, or other adult carer, but it might also be a peer or mentor.

This approach can be used for recreational learning activities like using technology or playing games, in addition to academic or educational learning. A peer

or older child is likelier to have greater information. According to Vygotsky's theory, it is critical to assist kids in learning via their interactions with an adult who possesses greater knowledge (MKO).

10.3 Practice

Activity: Identify the MKO in Different Contexts

Example Scenarios:

- A child learning to ride a bike with the help of an older sibling.
- A student receiving guidance from a peer on how to use a new software program.
- A parent or teacher teaches a child how to solve a puzzle.

Group Work

- Divide the students into small groups.
- Each group will analyze the scenarios and identify the MKO, how learning occurs, and whether scaffolding (the gradual transfer of responsibility) is used.

- Scenario 1: Learning to Ride a Bicycle

Context: Sarah is a 6-year-old girl who has never ridden a bike. Her older brother, James, who is 12 years old, offers to teach her. James holds the back of Sarah's bike and explains how to pedal and balance simultaneously. After a few tries, James lets go of the bike but stays close to catch her if she falls. Over time, Sarah becomes more confident and starts riding without James holding on.

Task: Identify the MKO and discuss James's strategies to support Sarah's learning process. How does James gradually withdraw support as Sarah improves?

Scenario 2: Mastering a Math Problem

Context: In a 5th-grade classroom, Carlos struggles to understand how to solve multi-step word problems in math. His teacher, Mrs. Lopez, sits with him and demonstrates how to break the problem into smaller steps. She guides him through identifying the key numbers, operations, and steps needed to solve the problem. After solving a few problems together, Mrs. Lopez gives Carlos a new problem to solve independently but stays nearby to offer help if needed.

Task: Who is the MKO in this scenario? What methods does Mrs. Lopez use to scaffold Carlos's learning? How does she encourage his independence?

Scenario 3: Learning to Play a Video Game

Context: Alex, a 10-year-old, is playing a new video game for the first time. His older cousin, Liam, who has played the game before, sits with him to explain the controls and objectives of the game. Liam shows Alex how to move the character and use actions like jumping and attacking enemies. After a few rounds, Liam lets Alex play independently, offering tips only when Alex seems stuck.

Task: Identify the MKO in this scenario. How does Liam's support help Alex learn the game? How does Liam decide when to step back and let Alex figure things out independently?

- More Practice

Scenario 1: Peer Tutoring in a Language Class

Description: In a language learning class, students are working in pairs. One student, who has a higher level of proficiency in speaking the target language, is helping the other student by guiding them through sentence construction and pronunciation exercises.

Scenario 2: Teacher-Led Math Problem-Solving

Description: A teacher leads a group of students through a challenging math problem. The students cannot solve the problem independently, but the teacher breaks down the problem step by step, prompting students to contribute ideas and guiding them to the solution.

Scenario 3: Online Collaborative Learning Platform

Description: A group of students uses an online collaborative learning platform to work on a project. One student with more experience with the platform's tools demonstrates how to use certain features to organize their project, sharing tips and troubleshooting issues.

Scenario 4: Apprentice in a Workshop

Description: In a hands-on workshop, an apprentice is learning to craft wooden furniture under the guidance of a master craftsman. The master demonstrates techniques, corrects mistakes, and provides advice on improving the apprentice’s skills.

Scenario 5: Group Work in Science Class

Description: In a science class, students are divided into small groups to conduct a lab experiment. One student has prior experience with the equipment and procedure, so

they take the lead in explaining how to handle the materials and set up the experiment properly.

Scenario 6: Parent-Child Learning Interaction

Description: A young child is learning how to tie their shoes, and their parent demonstrates the process step-by-step, providing guidance and encouragement as the child attempts to replicate the actions.

Social Learning Theories

Albert Bandura's Social Learning Theory

11

Objectives :

- ***To explain the Foundations of Bandura's Social Learning Theory.***
- ***To identify and Describe Observational Learning and Modeling.***
- ***To explore Mediational Processes in Social Learning.***
- ***To understand reinforcement and its types in Social Learning***
- ***To discuss the advantages of Social Learning Theory in explaining complex social behaviours and its limitations, including its focus on environmental factors and the challenges in explaining behaviours without clear role models***

11.1 Environment and Cognitive Factors

Albert Bandura's Social Learning Theory places a strong emphasis on the value of witnessing, modelling, and copying the actions, attitudes, and emotional responses of others in order to learn theories. The interaction between cognitive and environmental elements and how they affect human behaviour and learning is examined by social learning theory. Albert Bandura (1977) concurs with behaviourists who study classical and operant conditioning in the context of social learning theory. He does, however, offer two crucial concepts.

10.2 **Observational Learning**

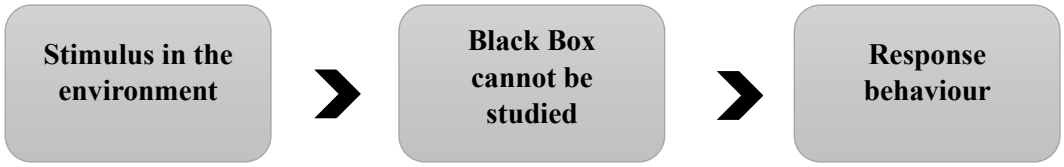
People who are observed are referred to as models. Children are surrounded by various powerful role models in society, including their parents, siblings, peers, teachers, and fictional characters on children's television. These role models offer behaviour examples that can be seen and emulated.

Children are surrounded by powerful role models in society, including their parents, siblings, teachers at school, and fictional characters on children's television. These models offer behaviour examples that can be seen and emulated. Youngsters watch how those around them behave, as demonstrated by the well-known Bobo doll experiment (Bandura, 1961). Indeed, kids see and learn from some of these individuals (role models). They might later mimic what they have seen or replicate it. They might act this way whether or not the behaviour is considered "gender appropriate," but a variety of factors increase the likelihood that a child will mimic actions that their community views as proper for their gender.

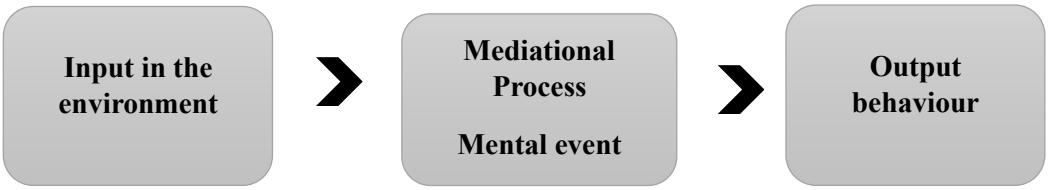
When a youngster imitates their behaviour, those in their immediate vicinity will reward or penalize them. When a youngster observes an adult modelling behaviour and experiences positive outcomes, they are more inclined to persist in that behaviour. When a parent observes a young kid comforting her stuffed animal and remarks, "What a kind girl you are," the child receives reinforcement for her behaviour, which increases the likelihood that she will repeat it (Strengthened).

Positive or negative reinforcement can come from either internal or external sources. Internal reinforcement occurs when a youngster feels joyful about receiving praise from classmates or parents, whereas external reinforcement occurs when a child seeks approval from others. A youngster will act in a way to gain acceptance.

<u>Behavourist Model</u> (Only study observable/external behaviour)



<u>Cognitive Model</u> (can scientifically study internal behaviour)



Comments:

SLT is often described as the 'bridge' between traditional learning theory (i.e., behaviourism) and the cognitive approach. This is because it focuses on how mental (cognitive) factors are involved in learning.

Unlike Skinner, Bandura (1977) believes tha humans are active information processors and think about the relationship between their behaviour and its consequen ces. Observational learning could not occur unless cognitive processs were at work. These mental factors (i.e., intervene) in the learning process to determine whether a new response is acquired. Therefor, individuals do not automatically observe the behaviour of a model and imitate it. There is some thought prior to imitation, and this consideration is called mediational processes. This occurs between observing the behaviour (stimulus) and imitating it or not (response)

10.2.1 Mediational Processes

Albert Bandura has proposed four mediational processes:

- Attention: The person must focus on the behaviour, consider its effects, and create a mental image of the behaviour. A behavior needs to catch our attention in order to be imitated. Every day, we witness a great deal of behaviour, most of which are not very notable. Therefore, paying attention is crucial to determining whether a behaviour encourages others to copy it.

- **Retention:** How vividly the behaviour is recalled. Although the behaviour may be observed, imitation is prevented because it is not usually recalled. A memory must be created so the observer can repeat the behaviour later.

- **Reproduction:** This is the capacity to exhibit the behaviour recently shown by the model. We witness many behaviours we wish to mimic daily, but they are not always feasible. Because of our physical limitations, we cannot replicate the behaviour, even if we want to.

- **Motivation:** The observer will consider the consequences of a behaviour, including reward and punishment. The likelihood of the observer copying the behaviour increases if the perceived benefits exceed the perceived costs. The observer will not copy the behaviour if they do not think the vicarious reinforcement is significant enough.

10.2.2 Critical Evaluation

The social learning method recognizes the importance of mental processes in determining whether or not a behaviour is appropriate to mimic. Because SLT recognizes the importance of mediational processes, it offers a more thorough explanation of human learning. For instance, compared to learning models based solely on reinforcement, Social Learning Theory can explain a far wider range of complicated social behaviours (such as gender roles and moral behaviour). While it can explain certain very sophisticated behaviours, it is insufficient to explain how we create various behaviours, including ideas and feelings. We possess great cognitive control over our actions, so just because we have witnessed violent acts in the past does not mean we must repeat them. Because of this, Bandura revised his theory in 1986 and called it Social Cognitive Theory (SCT), which better explains how humans pick up knowledge from our social experiences.

The Social Learning Theory has been criticised for emphasising the environment as the primary determinant of behaviour. Understanding the complexity of human behaviour is hampered by the narrow definition of behaviour that focuses only on nature or nurture. Behaviour is most likely the result of interaction between nature (biology) and nurture (environment). Not every behaviour can be fully explained by the Social Learning Theory. This is especially true when there is no clear role model for certain behaviours in a person's life.

Conversely, discovering mirror neurons has provided biological evidence favouring the Social Learning theory. The "mirror neurons" finding in monkeys suggests that imitation may have a biological foundation. These neurons activate when the animal performs an activity independently and witnesses another animal acting.

10.3 Practice

Read the following scenario and provide suitable comments about the results.

Context:

A teacher introduces the present perfect tense to a group of language learners in a classroom setting. The teacher models correct usage, engages students in interactive practice, and provides feedback to reinforce learning.

Modelling Process:

1. **Attention:** *(Observational Learning)*
    - The teacher captures students' attention by showing a short video where speakers use the present perfect tense in real-life conversations.
    - The teacher then writes an example on the board:
        - *"I have visited Spain."*

- The teacher explains the structure (*have/has + past participle*) and its meaning.
- Students listen attentively, focusing on pronunciation and usage.

2. **Retention:** *(Cognitive Processing and Memory)*
   - The teacher highlights key time expressions (*already, yet, ever, never, just, recently*).
   - Using gestures and pictures, the teacher reinforces meaning:
     - *"I have just eaten."* (Points to an empty plate)
   - Students repeat the sentence and discuss examples in pairs to solidify their understanding.
3. **Reproduction:** *(Imitation and Practice)*
   - The teacher asks students to complete sentence prompts using the present perfect tense:
     - *"I have never _____."*
     - *"Have you ever _____?"*
   - Students practice speaking in pairs, mirroring the teacher's model.
   - Some students share their sentences with the class, reinforcing peer learning.
4. **Motivation:** *(Reinforcement and Encouragement)*
   - The teacher praises correct usage:
     - *"Great job! You're using the present perfectly, just like native speakers!"*
   - Errors are corrected gently:
     - *"Good try! Remember, we use 'has' for he/she/it."*

- To further motivate, the teacher organizes a class challenge where students compete in teams to form as many correct, present-perfect sentences as possible.

5. **Outcome:** *(Learning and Confidence Building)*
    - By the end of the lesson, students demonstrate **increased confidence** in using the present perfect tense.
    - They engage actively in discussions, showing they have **internalized** the structure.
    - They are eager to use the tense in real-life conversations, indicating **successful learning through social interaction**.

Task:

Read the scenario above and provide suitable comments about:

- The effectiveness of using **social learning principles** in this lesson.
- The level of **student engagement and interaction**.
- Any areas for **improvement** to enhance learning outcomes.

Social Learning Theories

Albert Bandura's Social Learning Theory

11

Objectives :

- To explain the Purpose and Significance of the Bobo Doll Experiment
-To define and differentiate between direct imitation of aggressive behaviour and generalization of aggression, and explain how these behaviours were assessed.
- To explain the experiment's findings, including the impact of aggressive role models, gender differences in aggression, and the concept of learned behaviour through observation.
- To discuss the experiment's implications regarding the influence of media and adult behaviour on children, particularly in relation to exposure to aggressive or violent behaviour.

11.1 Bobo doll experiement

The **Bobo Doll experiment**, conducted by psychologist **Albert Bandura** in the early 1960s, is a pivotal study in understanding social learning theory, which emphasizes that individuals can learn behaviours through observation and imitation of others rather than solely through direct experience.

Overview of the Experiment

Objective: Bandura aimed to investigate whether aggression is learned through observation and whether children would imitate aggressive behaviour exhibited by adults.

Methodology

Participants: The study involved 72 children

Procedure:

Stage 1: Modeling Phase**:**

The children were exposed to an adult model who interacted with a **Bobo Doll** (an inflatable clown toy) in two different ways:

- **Aggressive Group**: The model behaved aggressively towards the doll, punching it, kicking it, and shouting phrases like "Sock him in the nose!".
- **Non-Aggressive Group**: The model displayed non-aggressive behaviour, playing with other toys and ignoring the Bobo Doll.

2. **Observation Phase**:
    - After observing the model, the children were taken to a separate room to play with toys, including the Bobo Doll. This phase was intended to measure the extent to which they would imitate the behaviour they had just observed.
3. **Behaviour Assessment**:
    - The children's behaviour was then recorded and analyzed. Researchers looked for signs of both imitation of the aggressive behaviour (direct imitation) and any other forms of aggression that were not directly modelled (generalization).

Findings

- **Imitation of Aggressive Behavior**: Children who observed the aggressive model were significantly more likely to exhibit aggressive behaviours towards the Bobo Doll compared to those who saw the non-aggressive model or no model at all.
- **Gender Differences**: Boys were more likely to imitate physical aggression than girls. However, girls were more likely to imitate verbal aggression.
- **Learned Behavior**: The study demonstrated that children could learn and adopt aggressive behaviours merely by observing others, reinforcing Bandura's idea that learning occurs through social observation.

11.2 Comments

The Bobo Doll experiment had several important implications:

1. **Social Learning Theory**: It provided substantial evidence for Bandura's social learning theory, highlighting the role of observational learning in behaviour acquisition.
2. **Impact of Role Models**: The findings suggested that media and adult behaviours can influence children's actions, raising concerns about the impact of violent behaviour in media.
3. **Behavioural Conditioning**: It emphasized the importance of modelling in social development and the potential for behaviour to be learned in social contexts, not just through direct reinforcement.

- Legacy

The Bobo Doll experiment remains a classic study in psychology, influencing fields such as developmental psychology, education, and media studies. It underlines the significance of role models in children's learning processes and the necessity for positive influences in their environments.

For more details, watch the video on this link

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=XHIhkM1cAv4&t=7s

Social Learning Theories (C)

Vygotsky's theory and Bandura's Theory

13

Objectives :

- To Explain how both theories emphasize the role of environmental factors in development.

- To identify the unique features of each theory, including Bandura's focus on self-efficacy and Vygotsky's focus on social interaction within cultural contexts.

13.1 Comparing Social Learning Theories

According to Bandura's representation of social learning theory, an individual's socio-emotional development results from the interplay of behavioural, contextual, and personal variables and the individual as an agent (Personal Determinants, 2018). Social learning theory departs from classic behaviourism by emphasizing how personal and environmental factors influence an individual's function as a change agent. In particular, a person's capacity for thoughtfulness, self-reactivity, and self-reflection is a sign of motivation (Bandura, 2018, p. 130).

Individual's history of reinforcement or punishment, observational learning, motivation and self-efficacy all contribute to social-emotional development (Berk, 2020).

However, Vygotsky's sociocultural theory holds that social-emotional development results from social interaction within particular contexts of constantly shifting culture, values, customs, and beliefs and that learners' development is facilitated by more knowledgeable members passing on skills and knowledge within

particular cultural contexts (Berk, 2020). Vygotsky emphasizes the significance of education in promoting growth within each person's "zone of proximal development" as a result.

Put another way, education can help people go beyond what they can accomplish on their own to what they can accomplish with the assistance of more seasoned community members through intellectual discussions (Van Der Veer, 2020). The socio-cultural and Bandura social learning theories of Vygotsky are discussed.

Both the traditional social learning theory and the more recent sociocultural theory stress how susceptible people are to environmental factors and how important it is for developing people to take an active part in their personal development. According to both theories, motivation, self-efficacy, and self-reflection are a few personality traits that might affect how "nature" and "nurture" interact. The social learning theory developed by Bandura examines how learning occurs and how the environment influences the learner—such as media and modelling—and vice versa. On the other hand, the sociocultural view asserts that language use begins as a means of communication, becomes internalized as inner speech, and ultimately serves as a behavioural regulator (Mahn, 1999).

Later research by Bandura showed the generality of modelling effects, and the media and education sectors broadly embraced his social learning theory. In education, sociocultural theory is frequently debated, and numerous initiatives have been made to support development in the zone of proximal development and scaffolding. It could be challenging to operationalize, test, and measure many sociocultural theory constructs.

Aspect	Bandura's Social Learning Theory	Vygotsky's Sociocultural Theory
Key Focus	Interaction between personal, environmental, and behavioural determinants in shaping social-emotional development.	Social interaction and cultural context are central to development, focusing on learning through interaction with more knowledgeable others.
Role of the Individual	Individuals are active agents in their development, influencing and being influenced by environmental factors.	Learners are shaped through interaction with society and culture, with development facilitated by more knowledgeable others (MKO).
Determinants of Learning	Personal determinants (self-efficacy, motivation, forethought), environmental factors (modelling, reinforcement), and behaviour.	Social and cultural context, especially knowledge transfer through social interaction within the "zone of proximal development."
Key Concepts	- Observational learning - Reinforcement and punishment - Self-efficacy - Motivation (forethought, self-reactiveness, self-reflection)	- Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) - Scaffolding - Role of language in development - Social interaction as a tool for learning
Learning Process	Learning occurs through observing others (modelling) and the feedback (reinforcement/punishment) the environment receives.	Learning happens through social interaction, with language being key in facilitating cognitive development and internalization.
Role of Motivation	Motivation comes from internal self-regulatory mechanisms (forethought, self-reactiveness, self-reflection) and external reinforcement.	Motivation arises from interaction with more knowledgeable members and the cultural context that shapes what is valued or desired.
Role of Environment	The environment influences the individual through models, media, and social norms, but the individual also shapes the environment through behaviour.	The environment provides the cultural and social context, with interaction central to development through the transmission of skills.
Self-Efficacy	Self-efficacy is a key determinant of behaviour and motivation, influencing	It is not explicitly discussed but can be inferred as part of development through guided

Aspect	Bandura’s Social Learning Theory	Vygotsky’s Sociocultural Theory
	individuals' belief in their capacity to learn and perform tasks.	interaction and achieving tasks in the ZPD.
Role of Language	It is not central to Bandura’s theory, although communication can play a role in observational learning.	Language is essential in sociocultural theory, beginning as a communication tool and later becoming internalized as inner speech.
Developmental Process	Development is shaped through personal experiences of reinforcement, observation, and the individual’s self-reflection on behaviour.	Development is scaffolded through social interaction within cultural contexts, where more knowledgeable others mediate learning.
Application in Education	They are widely applied in education, especially in modelling appropriate behaviours and using media and reinforcement to shape learning.	Emphasizes the importance of scaffolding, the ZPD, and culturally relevant education to support learners’ development.
Strengths	- Emphasizes active agency of learners - Explains the role of media and modelling in learning - Applicable to various fields, including media	- Highlights the importance of cultural and social contexts in learning - Emphasizes the importance of social interaction and scaffolding
Limitations	There is less focus on the influence of culture and context in learning.	It is difficult to operationalize and measure constructs like the ZPD; there is less focus on individual agency compared to Bandura's theory.

13.2 How can we apply it in class?

According to Vygotsky, learning occurs more effectively in a social setting for kids. Because of this, teaching your students to apply social development theory in the classroom can aid in their understanding of concepts faster.

Moreover, Lev believes that social connection fosters a reciprocal teaching approach and is essential to learning. We want to share some tips with you today on using this idea in the classroom because of this.

Our primary recommendation is to let the kids take the lead in their education: Create activities where you are not constantly in front of the class; in other words, pose more questions than you can answer.

- Create games and activities that encourage the student's zone of proximal development.
- Organize the learning activities based on skill levels; • Opt for group projects instead of solitary ones; • Incorporate entertaining activities that promote social contact.

13.3 Practice

Mixed Statements: Identify the Theorist

1. **Statement 1**:

   Learning is primarily shaped by interactions with more experienced members of society who guide within the learner's zone of proximal development, helping them move from what they can do independently to what they can achieve with assistance.

   - *Theory:* _____

2. **Statement 2**:

   People learn new behaviours by observing and imitating others, especially models who receive reinforcement for their actions. Environmental factors like media, social norms, and direct observation influence this process.

   - *Theory:* _____

3. **Statement 3**:

Motivation to learn comes from the individual's ability to set goals and reflect on their progress, and this self-regulation plays a key role in how they shape their development in response to the environment.

   - *Theory:* _____

4. **Statement 4**:

   Cognitive development is mediated through language, starting as a social tool for communication and later transforming into internalized thought, which regulates behaviour and reasoning.

   - *Theory:* _____

5. **Statement 5**:

   Individuals are active agents in their learning process, but their behaviour is shaped by both personal characteristics (like self-efficacy) and the external rewards or punishments they observe in their environment.

   - *Theory:* _____

6. **Statement 6**:

   Social interaction within a cultural context is the primary driver of learning and development. Knowledge and skills are passed down through meaningful intellectual dialogue and collaboration.

   - *Theory:* _____

7. **Statement 7**:

   A person's behaviour results from a dynamic interplay between personal factors (like beliefs and attitudes), environmental influences, and behaviour, forming a continuous feedback loop that shapes development.

   - *Theory:* _____

8. **Statement 8**:

   The development of higher mental functions depends on the social environment, where learners internalize the tools of culture, such as language, through social interactions with more knowledgeable members.

   - *Theory:* _____

9. **Statement 9**:

   Modelling is a central mechanism of learning, where learners observe others and adopt behaviours, especially if they see those behaviours being rewarded or if the model has a high status or is perceived as competent.

   - *Theory:* _____

10. **Statement 10**:

The development of an individual is not only determined by their history of reinforcement or punishment but also by how they observe others being reinforced or punished for specific behaviours.

- *Theory:* _____

Attachment theory

14

Objectives :
- ***To define the core concepts of Attachment Theory***
- ***To identify and distinguish between the four primary attachment styles***
- ***To discuss the importance of secure attachment in fostering healthier relationships throughout life.***
- ***To explore the practical applications of Attachment Theory in different fields***

14.1 Definition

Attachment Theory is a psychological framework that describes long-term human relationships, particularly focusing on the bonds between children and their caregivers. Developed by British psychologist **John Bowlby** in the mid-20th century and later expanded by **Mary Ainsworth**, attachment theory has become a foundational concept in developmental psychology, influencing fields such as child psychology, social work, and family therapy.

14.2 Key Concepts of Attachment Theory

1. **Attachment Bonds**:
    - Attachment refers to the emotional bond that develops between a child and their primary caregiver. Bowlby proposed that this bond is crucial for the child's survival and emotional well-being.

- The quality of the attachment can impact a child's emotional and social development.

2. **Secure Base**:
    - The caregiver is a "secure base" from which the child can explore the world. A secure attachment allows children to feel safe and confident to explore their environment, knowing they can return to their caregiver for comfort and support.
3. **Types of Attachment**: Mary Ainsworth identified four primary attachment styles through her **Strange Situation** experiment:
    - **Secure Attachment**: Children feel safe and supported. They are upset when the caregiver leaves but are quickly comforted upon their return.
    - **Anxious-Ambivalent Attachment**: Children exhibit clingy behaviour and are highly distressed when the caregiver leaves. They may be ambivalent upon return, seeking closeness but also showing resistance.
    - **Avoidant Attachment**: Children appear indifferent to the caregiver's presence and may avoid or ignore them. They do not show distress when the caregiver leaves and avoid interaction upon their return.
    - **Disorganized Attachment**: This style is characterized by a lack of clear attachment behaviour. Children may exhibit confusing behaviours and appear disoriented in the presence of the caregiver, often a result of trauma or inconsistent caregiving.
4. **Internal Working Models**:
    - Bowlby proposed that children develop internal working models of themselves and their caregivers based on their attachment experiences. These models shape their expectations and interactions in future

relationships. Children with secure attachments are likely to view themselves as worthy of love and their caregiver as dependable, while those with insecure attachments may develop negative self-concepts and expect rejection or inconsistency in relationships.

5. **Lifelong Impact**:
    - Attachment patterns established in childhood can influence behaviours, relationships, and emotional health throughout life. For example, securely attached individuals tend to have healthier relationships, while those with insecure attachment styles may struggle with intimacy, trust, and emotional regulation.

14.3Applications of Attachment Theory

- **Parenting**: Understanding attachment theory can guide caregivers in fostering secure attachments through responsive and consistent parenting practices.
- **Therapeutic Settings**: Attachment theory often addresses relationship issues and emotional difficulties by exploring clients' attachment styles and experiences.
- **Child Development**: Educators and childcare providers can use attachment principles to create supportive environments that promote children's healthy social and emotional development.
- **Critiques and Developments**

While attachment theory has been influential, it has also faced critiques:

- Some researchers argue that it may overly emphasize the mother-child bond, neglecting the roles of fathers and other caregivers.

- There are calls for more attention to cultural differences in attachment behaviours and practices.

Despite these critiques, attachment theory continues to evolve, incorporating new research findings and broadening its applications to better understand human relationships across the lifespan.

14.4 A sample case

Attachment in Action

Context: A 3-year-old child named Emma is at a daycare for the first time. Her mother, Sarah, has brought her to the centre and is preparing to leave.

Attachment Behaviors Observed

1. **Secure Base**:
    - As Sarah and Emma enter the daycare, Emma clings to her mother's leg, showing signs of anxiety. However, when Sarah encourages her to explore the play area and assures her she will return, Emma feels confident enough to let go and venture towards a group of children playing with blocks.
    - This illustrates the concept of a secure base; Sarah's presence allows Emma to explore her new environment.
2. **Separation Distress**:
    - After a few minutes of exploring, Emma notices that her mother is preparing to leave. She quickly returns to Sarah, expressing distress: "Mommy, do not go!"

- Emma’s reaction highlights her emotional reliance on her mother, indicative of a secure attachment, where she feels safe yet is upset by the impending separation.

3. **Response to Reunion**:
    - Later in the day, when Sarah returns to pick up Emma, the caregiver reports that Emma had difficulty initially adjusting but eventually played with other children.
    - Upon seeing her mother, Emma runs into her arms, smiles, and says, “I missed you!” This reaction shows a secure attachment style, as Emma seeks comfort from her caregiver and quickly recovers from her earlier distress.
4. **Internal Working Model**:
    - Emma's interactions with her mother have led her to develop a positive internal working model. She believes she is worthy of love and her mother will return to support her. As she grows, this positive model will influence her relationships with peers and future caregivers, allowing her to form healthy attachments.
5. **Lifelong Impact**:
    - As Emma grows older, she continues to show signs of secure attachment. In social situations, she confidently approaches peers, demonstrates empathy, and engages in cooperative play. This pattern reflects the long-term benefits of secure attachment, as she feels comfortable navigating social relationships.

14.5 Recapitulation

In this scenario, Emma's behaviour illustrates key concepts of attachment theory, including the secure base provided by her mother, the emotional responses during separation and reunion, and the development of an internal working model that positively shapes her future relationships. This example highlights how early attachment experiences can influence a child's emotional and social development.

14.6 Practice

Sample Scenario: Observing Attachment in a Playground Setting

Context: Five-year-old Lucas plays at a playground with his father, Mike. They engage in various activities, such as climbing the jungle gym, swinging, and playing tag.

Attachment Behaviors Observed

1. **Exploration**:
    - Lucas climbs to the top of the jungle gym, looking down with excitement. He shouts to his father, “Look at me, Daddy!” This shows that Lucas feels secure enough to explore his environment, demonstrating a healthy attachment.
2. **Seeking Comfort**:
    - After a few minutes of play, Lucas slips and falls, scraping his knee. He immediately looks for his father and runs over to him, tears in his eyes, saying, “Daddy, I hurt my knee!”
    - Mike kneels, checks Lucas's knee, and reassures him with a gentle hug, saying, “It is okay, buddy. You are all right. Let us clean it up.”

3. **Reassurance and Support**:
    - After comforting Lucas, Mike encourages him to return to play, saying, “You can do it! Just be more careful this time.” Lucas nods and smiles, feeling encouraged to continue playing.
4. **Response to Interaction**:
    - Lucas goes back to playing, climbing the jungle gym again with a little caution but still enjoying himself. He occasionally looks back at his father, who watches him with a smile, reinforcing his sense of security.
    - Student Prompt

Comment Prompt: Based on the abovementioned situation, comment on Lucas and his father's attachment behaviours. Consider how their interaction reflects the principles of attachment theory.

15

Identity Status Theory

Objectives :

- To Understand the foundational concepts of James Marcia's Identity Status Theory
- To identify and describe the four identity statuses

- To Analyze how Marcia's Identity Status Theory applies to adolescent development:

- To Investigate how Marcia's theory is used in career counseling, parenting, and education to support identity exploration and development.

15.1 Definition

James Marcia's most well-known contributions to psychology are probably his numerous studies and articles on the subject, with a concentration on the psychosocial development of adolescents and the formation of lifetime identities. According to Erik H. Erikson, the contradiction between identity success and role confusion, which represents Erikson's fifth stage of psychological development, causes the normative conflict that arises in adolescence. In a citation classic, Marcia expanded on Erikson's idea, arguing that this stage is better understood as the degree to which one has investigated and dedicated to identity throughout a range of life domains such as politics, occupation, religion, intimate relationships, friendships, and gender roles, rather than consisting of identity resolution or confusion as Erikson claimed that

Ideology and occupation are two crucial areas in which the adolescent must make such commitments. (1968)

According to his theory of identity attainment, adolescent identity development is influenced by two phases: a period of decision-making, crisis, and commitment. According to his definition, a crisis is "a period of upheaval during adolescence when the individual seems to be actively involved in choosing among alternative occupations and beliefs," when previously held views or values are being reexamined, and new options are being investigated.

During an identity crisis, the two processes that affect how things turn out are exploration and commitment. In other words, whether or not (and to what degree) one investigates alternative identities and whether or not one commits to selected alternatives.

James Marcia's **Identity Status Theory** is a framework within developmental psychology that expands on **Erik Erikson's** concept of identity formation, particularly during adolescence. Marcia's theory focuses on how young people explore and commit to aspects of their identity, such as careers, beliefs, and values, through exploration and commitment.

15.2Key Concepts

Marcia identified **four identity statuses** that adolescents can experience based on two dimensions:

1. **Exploration**: The extent to which an individual actively explores different options and alternatives.

2. **Commitment**: The degree to which an individual makes decisions and commits to specific roles, values, or goals.

The Four Identity Statuses

1. **Identity Diffusion**:
    - **Low exploration, low commitment**: Individuals in this status have not yet explored or committed to any particular identity. They may show little interest in developing a clear direction for their future or in defining their values and beliefs. These individuals might feel aimless or indifferent about forming an identity.
    - **Example**: A teenager who does not actively think about their future career, has no strong opinions on their values or goals, and has not explored these aspects yet.
2. **Identity Foreclosure**:

- Low exploration, high commitment: Individuals in this status have committed to certain values, roles, or goals without going through a process of personal exploration. Often, these commitments are based on the expectations of others, such as parents or society, rather than personal choice.

- Example: A young person who chooses to follow in their parent's footsteps to become a doctor without considering other career options or exploring their interests.

- Identity Moratorium:

- High exploration, low commitment: Individuals actively explore different identities and roles in this status but have not yet made definitive commitments. It is often a period

of questioning and experimentation, where individuals search for answers and figure out who they are.

-Example: A college student taking different classes, participating in various activities, and considering different majors but not yet deciding on a career path or specific goals.

- Identity Achievement:

- High exploration, high commitment: Individuals in this status have gone through a period of exploration and have made firm commitments to certain values, goals, or roles. They have a clear sense of identity, know what they want, and have formed a stable and well-considered view of themselves.

Example: A person who has explored various career options, weighed their values, and ultimately decided to pursue a profession that aligns with their goals and beliefs.

15.3 Process of Identity Formation

Marcia's theory suggests that identity formation is a dynamic process and that individuals may move between these statuses at different points. For example, someone who has achieved a certain identity may enter a moratorium later in life if their circumstances change, requiring them to reassess their commitments.

15.4 Applications of Identity Status Theory

- **Adolescence**: The theory is primarily applied to the adolescent stage of development, where forming an identity is a central task.

- **Career Counseling**: Marcia's status can help counsellors understand where a client is regarding career decision-making and personal development.
- **Parenting and Education**: Understanding these statuses can help educators and parents support young people in their identity exploration without pushing them into premature commitments.

15.5 -Criticism and Developments

Some critics argue that Marcia's model emphasises career and occupational identity too much, while others point out that identity development is a lifelong process and not confined to adolescence. Later, theorists extended identity status theory to incorporate different life stages and cultural contexts.

Marcia's identity status theory is useful for understanding how individuals form their sense of self through the dual exploration and commitment processes.

15.6 Practice

Activity: Identifying the Components of Marcia's Identity Status Theory

Objective:

Students will analyze real-life or hypothetical scenarios to identify the four identity statuses (Identity Diffusion, Identity Foreclosure, Identity Moratorium, and Identity Achievement) and understand the concepts of **exploration** and **commitment** in identity development.

Instructions:

1. **Introduction**: Introduce the four identity statuses: Identity Diffusion, Identity Foreclosure, Identity Moratorium, and Identity Achievement. Provide examples of each.
2. **Group Activity**: Divide students into small groups of 3-4. Provide each group with several scenario cards. Each scenario should describe a person at different stages of identity formation (see sample scenarios below).
3. **Task**:
    - Students will read each scenario and discuss it within their group.
    - They must identify which **identity status** the person in the scenario represents.
    - They must also indicate whether the individual is high or low in **exploration** and **commitment**.
    - For each scenario, students should explain their reasoning using Marcia's theory.
4. **Class Discussion**: After each group completes their work, bring the class together for a group discussion. Ask each group to present one of their scenarios, explain their analysis, and share which identity status they identified. Discuss the group's reasoning and provide feedback.
5. **Reflection**: Ask students to reflect individually on their identity status (optional for sensitive topics). They can write a short paragraph on how they see themselves concerning exploration and commitment in career choices, values, or plans.

Practice (Sample analysis)

Identity Diffusion

Scenario Recap: Sarah is 17 and has just started her last year of high school. When asked what she wants to do after graduation, she says, “I have not thought about it.” She does not feel particularly worried about her future and has not explored different career options.

Analysis: In this scenario, Sarah exhibits characteristics of identity d**iffusion**. She shows **low exploration** because she has not actively considered her options for life after high school or explored different career paths. Sarah’s response indicates that she has not thought deeply about her future, which suggests a lack of motivation to investigate various possibilities.

Additionally, Sarah demonstrates **low commitment** because she has not made decisions regarding her career or future direction. Her indifference and lack of concern about her future indicate that she has not committed to any specific identity, role, or plan.

This combination of low exploration and commitment aligns perfectly with Marcia's definition of Identity Diffusion, where individuals may feel aimless or indifferent about forming a coherent identity.

Overall, Sarah's situation reflects a common adolescent phase where individuals may struggle to define themselves or establish goals, often resulting in uncertainty about their future.

Discussion Points:

- **Connection to Identity Status Theory**: Sarah’s situation exemplifies how some adolescents might drift through their teenage years without actively engaging in the identity formation process. It also highlights the importance of

support from parents, teachers, or mentors in helping students explore their interests and options.

- **Possible Interventions**: To assist Sarah, educators or counsellors could encourage her to participate in career exploration activities, internships, or workshops to help her discover her interests and guide her towards potential commitments

15.6 Practice

Objective: This scenario allows students to apply their knowledge of Marcia's Identity Status Theory and use critical thinking to determine which status David is in while also considering the impact of societal and family expectations on identity formation.

Identity Foreclosure

Scenario:

David is 16 and comes from a family of doctors. His parents have always expected him to follow in their footsteps and become a doctor. Without considering any other options, David decided to study medicine after high school. He has not explored other career paths or considered what interests him personally. When asked about his choice, he says, “I am going to be a doctor, just like my parents. It is what everyone expects from me.”

Instructions:

1. **Analyze the scenario**: Based on David’s situation, identify which of Marcia’s identity statuses he is in.
2. **Consider exploration and commitment**: Is David high or low in exploration? Is he high or low in commitment?

3. **Justify your analysis**: Provide reasons for your conclusion by explaining how David's situation fits into Marcia's theory.

Motivation and Learning (A)

16

Objectives :

- ***To Understand the concept of motivation and its definitions according to various scholars.***
- ***To differentiate between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.***
- ***To explore subtypes of extrinsic motivation.***
- ***To analyze the concept of amotivation.***
- ***To apply motivation theories to practical teaching strategies.***

16.1 Definition of motivation by different scholars

- **John Dewey (1916)**: Dewey's views on motivation through experience in education are discussed in his work *Democracy and Education*. He emphasizes the importance of real-world relevance to motivate learners.

- **Lev Vygotsky (1934)**: Vygotsky's socio-cultural theory, including his ideas on motivation through social interactions, is found in *Thought and Language*. He highlights the role of collaboration and cultural context in learning motivation.

- **Abraham Maslow (1943)**: Maslow's theory of motivation, including his hierarchy of needs, was first presented in *A Theory of Human Motivation*. He suggests that basic needs must be met for learners to be motivated toward higher goals.

- **B.F. Skinner (1953)**: Skinner's views on reinforcement and behaviourist motivation are primarily discussed in *Science and Human Behavior*. He focuses on external factors and rewards that drive learning behaviour.

- **Albert Bandura (1986)**: Social Foundations of Thought and Action: A Social Cognitive Theory outlines Bandura's key work on self-efficacy and motivation. He defines motivation as the belief in one's ability to succeed, which drives effort in learning.

- **Edward Deci and Richard Ryan (1985)**: Their Self-Determination Theory is elaborated in *Intrinsic Motivation and Self-Determination in Human Behavior*. They discuss intrinsic and extrinsic forms of motivation, emphasizing personal autonomy and satisfaction.

Carol Dweck (2006): Dweck's concept of "mindset" is outlined in her book *Mindset: The New Psychology of Success*. She defines motivation as influenced by whether a learner holds a fixed or growth mindset, affecting their persistence and resilience.

16.2 Types of Motivation

Motivation in learning is generally divided into two broad types: **intrinsic and extrinsic**. These types are often discussed concerning various educational and psychological theories.

16.2.1. Intrinsic Motivation

- **Definition**: Intrinsic motivation refers to engaging in a task or activity for its own sake, driven by personal interest, enjoyment, or internal satisfaction. The inherent pleasure fuels it or the challenge that an activity provides.
- **Key Characteristics**:
    - They are driven by curiosity, personal interest, and desire for self-improvement.

- Learners are motivated by the enjoyment or satisfaction of learning rather than external rewards.
- Typically, it results in deeper engagement and better long-term learning outcomes.

- **Example**: A student reads a book because they are genuinely interested in the subject, not because they have to for an assignment.
- **Scholars Associated**:

- Edward Deci and Richard Ryan's *Self-Determination Theory* emphasizes the importance of intrinsic motivation, especially when learners feel autonomy, competence, and relatedness.

- Carol Dweck's *Growth Mindset* theory also connects to intrinsic motivation, where students are motivated by the desire to learn and grow rather than perform.

16.2.2. Extrinsic Motivation

- **Definition**: Extrinsic motivation refers to engaging in a task or activity due to external factors such as rewards, grades, praise, or avoiding punishment. The motivation comes from external sources rather than the inherent enjoyment of the activity.
- **Key Characteristics**:

- Actions are performed to achieve specific outcomes, like gaining a reward or meeting an external goal.

- Can be effective in the short term but may not lead to deep or sustained learning.

- Often necessary in structured environments (e.g., schools), where grades or rewards can provide direction and purpose.

- **Example**: A student studies hard for a test to earn a high grade or avoid failing.
- **Scholars Associated**:

- B.F. Skinner's *Behaviorist Theory* emphasizes the role of external reinforcement (rewards and punishments) in shaping behaviour and motivation.

- The *Expectancy-Value Theory* (John Atkinson, 1957) suggests that motivation depends on the expectation of success and the value placed on the outcome, which are often extrinsic factors.

16.2.2.1 Integrated Regulation (a type of extrinsic motivation)

- **Definition**: Integrated regulation is the most autonomous form of extrinsic motivation. It occurs when external goals or rewards align with an individual's values and sense of self, even though the behaviour is still motivated by external rewards.
- **Key Characteristics**:

  - The behaviour is fully integrated with the individual's sense of identity and goals, though it is still externally driven.

- **Example**: A student chooses to study hard because they believe that success in school aligns with their long-term career goals.
- **Scholars Associated**: Deci and Ryan's *Self-Determination Theory* identifies this as a bridge between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation.

16.2.2.2 Identified Regulation (a type of extrinsic motivation)

- **Definition**: Identified regulation occurs when a person accepts the value or importance of a behaviour and engages in it willingly, even if they do not enjoy the activity.
- **Key Characteristics**:

- The learner recognizes the personal importance of the task and internalizes it as necessary for achieving their goals.

- **Example**: A student may not enjoy math but studies it because they know it is necessary for their future career in engineering.

16.2.2.3 Introjected Regulation (a type of extrinsic motivation)

- **Definition**: Introjected regulation is a form of external motivation that is partially internalized. The learner performs a task to avoid guilt anxiety or to gain self-worth, but not because they find it inherently valuable.
- **Key Characteristics**:

    - Actions are driven by internal pressures rather than true self-determination.

- **Example**: A student does their homework not because they enjoy learning but because they feel guilty or fear disappointment if they do not.

16.2.2.4 External Regulation

- **Definition**: External regulation is the most controlled form of extrinsic motivation, where behaviour is driven purely by external rewards or punishments.
- **Key Characteristics**:

- Learners act solely to meet external demands, such as obtaining a reward (grades, money) or avoiding negative outcomes (detention, failing).

- **Example**: A student participates in a project solely to receive extra credit points

16.3. Amotivation

- **Definition**: Amotivation is the absence of motivation. It occurs when a person lacks the intent or desire to engage in an activity, often because they feel incompetent or see no connection between their actions and outcomes.
- **Key Characteristics**:

- Learners may feel disengaged, apathetic, or indifferent to learning tasks.

- Often a result of negative learning experiences or a sense of helplessness.

- **Example**: A student who sees no point in studying because they believe they will fail no matter what.
- ***Comments***

> ***Intrinsic motivation often leads to higher-quality learning and deeper engagement, while extrinsic motivation can be useful in providing structure and direction, especially in formal education systems.***

16.4 Practice *Case 1:* What type of motivation is Sarah demonstrating?

Sarah enjoys reading historical novels. She spends her free time at the library, not because her teacher assigns it, but because she genuinely loves learning about different cultures and periods in history. She often shares interesting facts with her friends simply because it excites her.

***Case 2:* What type of motivation is Michael showing?**

Michael doesn't particularly like math, but he works hard on his assignments because he knows that getting good grades will help him get into the university he wants. He understands that his efforts now will pay off later, even if the subject itself doesn't interest him.

***Case 3:* What type of motivation (or lack of motivation) does Jessica demonstrate?**

Jessica is a bright student, but lately, she has stopped studying altogether. She says, "No matter how hard I try, I always fail. There's no point in doing anything because I just can't succeed." As a result, she is not putting effort into any of her school tasks.

***Case 4*: What type of motivation is Ahmed demonstrating?**

Ahmed works really hard on his science project because his parents promised to buy him a new video game if he gets a good grade. He is focused on getting the reward and is less interested in the actual science he's learning.

***Case 5*: What type of motivation is Leila showing?**

Leila loves playing the piano, but she feels pressure to practice because her parents expect her to perform at family gatherings. Even though she doesn't want to let them down, she finds little joy in practicing and often feels anxious when she plays.

Case 6: **What type of motivation does David exhibit?**

David doesn't enjoy doing group presentations, but he puts in extra effort because he doesn't want his teammates to think he's not contributing. He feels an obligation to work hard, driven more by a sense of guilt than personal interest.

Case 7: **What motivates Emily to work on math problems?**

Emily loves solving puzzles and often spends her free time working on challenging math problems. Even though her teacher hasn't assigned any extra work, Emily enjoys figuring out the solutions just for the fun and satisfaction of solving them.

Case 8: **What drives John's interest in learning about climate change?**

John is passionate about environmental conservation. He frequently reads articles and watches documentaries about climate change, not because he has to for school, but because he genuinely cares about the environment and wants to learn more.

Motivation and Learning (B)

17

Objectives :

- To define self-efficacy and explain its significance in student motivation.

- To discuss how self-efficacy, as proposed by Albert Bandura (1977, 1986, 1997), influences students' beliefs about their ability to achieve specific tasks or goals.

-To discuss the role of teachers in guiding students to accurately assess their abilities to encourage task engagement.

17.1 Motivation as Self-efficacy

Drive as self-assurance Students' motives are influenced by their objectives, passions, attributions and certain assumptions about their abilities. According to self-efficacy theory, motivation is mostly explained by the beliefs in an explicit manner (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997). The conviction that you can complete a task or accomplish a goal is known as self-efficacy. Take note of the specificity of the action or objective and the belief. The conviction that one can, for instance, fix a car, write a term paper that passes, or make friends with a new student in class is known as self-efficacy. Drive as assurance: Besides their goals, interests, and attributions, students' motivations are shaped by specific self-perceptions. Self-efficacy theory states that beliefs primarily explain motivation clearly and concisely (Bandura, 1977, 1986, 1997). Self-efficacy is the belief in your ability to finish a task or achieve a goal. Note the degree of detail in the activity or goal and the belief. Self-efficacy is the belief that one can, for example, fix a car, write a term paper that gets accepted, or make friends with a new student in class. For example, you may think that you can write a strong term paper but not be able to, or you may think that you cannot write a paper but find that

you can produce one. Self-efficacy is similar to the common concept of confidence in this sense, although it has a more exact definition. It is also possible to have too much or too little self-efficacy, just like with confidence. According to Bandura (1997), the optimal level is at or above real capacity. Significant differences between ability and self-efficacy can lead to an individual's motivation issues, as shown below.

17.2 Effects of self-efficacy on students' behaviour

Although research and instructors' experiences indicate that self-efficacy is generally a good trait, its impacts are more nuanced than that. There are three primary impacts of self-efficacy, each with a positive and a negative aspect. Selection of tasks Students with higher levels of self-efficacy are more inclined to select assignments they already have faith in their ability to accomplish. Given the notion of self-efficacy, this effect is practically inescapable, and research on self-efficacy beliefs has confirmed it (Pajares & Schunk, 2001). Depending on the situation, teachers may or may not welcome the effect of choice. Students are more inclined to undertake the math homework their teachers offer if they have confidence in their ability to solve mathematical issues. Regretfully, the opposite is also accurate. Regardless of the student's aptitude for arithmetic, if they feel they are not good at it, they are less likely to try their math assignments (maybe thinking to themselves, "What is the use of trying?"). Furthermore, because self-efficacy is a construct that students create for themselves, it is conceivable for students to misjudge or misperceive their actual level of ability, and those misperceptions can have complicated repercussions on students' incentives. From the teacher's perspective, it makes no difference if pupils overestimate their ability yet manage to succeed at a meaningful task or underestimate their ability but learn that they can succeed and grow in confidence. However, things might not look

good if pupils do not think they can succeed and do not even try or if they overestimate their abilities but are unpleasantly surprised by failure and lose faith in their abilities.

17.2.1Persistence at tasks

Enhanced persistence in pertinent tasks is a secondary consequence of elevated self-efficacy. If you think you can solve crossword puzzles and come across one that's taking longer than usual, you will probably stick with it longer until you (ideally) figure it out. Generally speaking, this is good behaviour until perseverance gets in the way of other, more crucial duties (what if you should solve your schoolwork instead of crossword puzzles?). Conversely, you are more likely to give up on a challenging crossword problem early if you have poor self-efficacy. It is usually not a good idea to give up too soon because you will miss opportunities to improve your skills.

On the other hand, though, quitting up and experiencing the ensuing lack of achievement could serve as a helpful motivator to sharpen your crossword puzzle abilities. And once more, false impressions of one's ability matter. Excessively high self-efficacy can cause you to overestimate your abilities, hindering your ability to focus and prepare for tasks. Like task selection, self-efficacy's effects differ depending on the person and the circumstance. It means that the teacher's job is twofold: first, to identify the differences, and second, to promote positive self-efficacy beliefs. Some further guidance on accomplishing this can be found in the following Table.

Table 17.1 Ways of encouraging self-efficacy beliefs

Strategy	Example of what the teacher might say
Ways of encouraging self-efficacy beliefs Strategy	Example of what the teacher might say
1. Set goals with students and get a commitment from them to reach the goals	"By the end of the month, I want you to know all the times table up to 25 x 25. Can I count on you to do that?"
2- Encourage students to compare their performance with their previous performance, not with other students.	Compare that drawing against the one that you made last semester. I think you will find improvements!"
3. Point out links between effort and improvement.	"I saw you studying for this test more this week. No wonder you did better this time!"
4- When giving feedback about performance, focus on information, not evaluative judgments.	"Part 1 of the lab write-up was very detailed, just as the assignment asked. Part 2 has a lot of good ideas, but it needs to be more detailed and stated more explicitly."
5- Point out that knowledge or skill increases gradually through sustained effort, not because of inborn ability.	"Every time I read another one of your essays, I see more good ideas than the last time. They are so much more complete than when you started the year."

Comments

The table outlines effective strategies for fostering self-efficacy in students through goal-setting, self-comparison, effort-based feedback, and informative guidance. Each strategy emphasizes personal growth, encouraging students to focus on their progress, link their efforts to success, and view improvement as a gradual process. This approach reduces the pressure of social comparison, promotes a growth mindset, and builds confidence in their ability to achieve through sustained effort. Informative feedback is particularly key in offering constructive steps for further development.

17.2.2 Sources of self-efficacy beliefs

Psychologists who study self-efficacy have identified four main origins of self-efficacy beliefs (Pajares & Schunk, 2001, 2002). They are as follows, in priority order: (1) past experiences with task mastery; (2) observing others accomplish tasks; (3) messages or "persuasion" from others; and (4) stress- and discomfort-related emotions. Fortunately, teachers can directly impact the first three, and occasionally, they can even indirectly impact the fourth through pertinent interpretive remarks made by the teacher or others.

17.2.3 Prior experiences of mastery

It should come as no surprise that students believe they will succeed in the future more when they have previously succeeded at a task. This fundamental truth implies that educators must assist pupils in creating a record of accomplishments. Whether they involve reading assignments, math problems, or physical activities, tasks must result in success more often than failure. However, remember that accomplishments must demonstrate true mastery or authentic competence. Praise for perceived accomplishments does not increase a student's self-efficacy views, nor does success at unimportant or trivial tasks (Erikson, 1968/1994).

Presenting a true history of achievement is most persuasive when educators simultaneously attempt to expand their students' perspectives on "the past." When formulating opinions about their chances of success in the future, younger students—those in elementary school, in particular—may only refer to a limited number of prior experiences since their definitions of " experience" are more constrained (Eccles et al., 1998). Due to increases in memory and accumulating a longer personal history, older

secondary school students eventually have longer perspectives on their "pasts." However, working with children of any age presents difficulty ensuring that their opinions about their abilities are based on all relevant past experiences, not just a select few or recent ones.

17.2.4 Watching others' experiences of mastery

Seeing other people succeed or having a vicarious feeling of mastery is a second source of efficacy beliefs (Schunk & Zimmerman, 1997). Put differently, witnessing someone else succeed in a task can help you believe you can succeed, too. The effect is more pronounced when the observer is inexperienced with the task and doubts their abilities. Additionally, it is more powerful when the model is someone the viewer respects, like a peer with usually similar competence or a teacher. However, even in these circumstances, direct experience has a greater influence than vicarious experience. The causes are easily envisioned.

Let us say, for instance, that you are not sure if you are a good singer, but you see your teacher and a trusted friend perform a favourite song. Your abilities might inspire you in that instance, but you probably still doubt your effectiveness. It is a different situation if you have a history of singing well but do not observe others singing. If that is the case, you probably think highly of yourself, regardless of how others behave. All of this implies that teachers might be able to increase students' self-efficacy to a limited degree by demonstrating success on a task or by highlighting successful peers. These tactics are effective because they convey a more fundamental message—namely, that the activity is indeed doable—and demonstrate how to complete it. You can assist pupils in learning a challenging arithmetic technique, for instance, by showing them how to perform it or by identifying classmates who are

executing it. However, remember that vicarious mastery is only beneficial if the pupils' accomplishments support it. Additionally, it is only beneficial if the "model classmates" are considered equivalent in skill.

Overusing vicarious models can lead to learners discounting a model's achievement; they can conclude that the model is "out of their league" in terms of abilities and that, thus, it does not matter when evaluating their potential. It is especially true when learners do not see real success from the model.

17.2.5 Social messages and persuasion

Convincing someone of their ability to do a task through expressed and inferred encouragements constitutes a third source of efficacy beliefs. While persuasion alone does not always result in high efficacy, it frequently does when combined with direct or indirect experience, particularly when the persuasion originates from several sources (Goddard, Hoy, & Hoy, 2004). It indicates two things for educators. The first is that encouragement can motivate students, particularly when directed toward clear, attainable goals. Sayings like "I think you can do it" or "I have seen you do this before, so I know you can do it again" can be encouraging. However, the second inference is that professors ought to make every effort to assist their encouragement by creating assignments that are, in reality, doable by the students. It may seem simple to balance work difficulty and encouragement, but it can occasionally be difficult because students can interpret assignments and teachers' remarks differently than teachers mean. For example, offering a student too much in-depth assistance may be meant as support, but it could be interpreted as a lack of faith in the student's capacity to do the work independently.

17.2.6 A caution: motivation as content versus motivation as a process

One thing to be wary of with self-efficacy theory is that it places much attention on the method of motivation alone, neglecting the content of motivation. The fundamental self-efficacy model explains how beliefs influence action but says very little about which beliefs and activities are particularly fulfilling or contribute most to students' overall well-being. Knowing the answer to this question is crucial because it will allow teachers to choose assignments that are genuinely fulfilling rather than just attainable. Asking, "Is it possible to feel high self-efficacy about a task that you do not enjoy?" is another method to raise this issue. It does appear that the possibility of such a gap exists. When we were younger, Kelvin Seifert and I, for instance, worked very hard on our algebra homework projects in high school and were quite successful at solving mathematical problems. He soon gained a great degree of confidence in his ability to solve these kinds of issues. To the dismay of his professors and family, Kelvin never truly loved solving algebra problems and eventually decided not to pursue a career in math or science. In this instance, self-efficacy theory provided a clear explanation of Kelvin's motivational process: his persistence at the tasks was driven by his confidence in his abilities. However, it did not address the core of his motive, which was his developing distaste for the tasks. A fresh theory of motivation is needed to explain this discrepancy, considering both explicit beliefs and "deeper" human needs. Self-determination theory serves as an illustration of this strategy.

17.3 Practice

- Considering the case below, find a resolution that makes Ahmed more confident and motivated

Case: Learning English as a Second Language with a Focus on Self-Efficacy

Context: A high school student named Ahmed, a non-native English speaker, has moved to an English-speaking country and is struggling to improve his English skills. Although he has made some progress, he often feels anxious and lacks confidence when speaking in class and engaging with his peers.

Self-Efficacy Challenges

The Problem: Despite setting achievable goals with his teacher, Ms Johnson, and experiencing some improvement in his reading and writing skills, Ahmed still feels that he is not progressing as quickly as he would like in speaking. He has high self-efficacy in understanding written English but struggles with verbal communication. When he tries to participate in class discussions, he often freezes up, fearing he will make mistakes and be judged by his classmates. This fear leads him to avoid speaking altogether, which creates a cycle of low confidence and limited practice.

Ahmed's Reflection and Self-Discovery

One day, Ms. Johnson notices Ahmed's hesitance and decides to have a one-on-one conversation with him. She asks, "What do you think is holding you back from speaking up in class?" Ahmed expresses his concerns about making errors and feeling embarrassed.

Motivation and Learning (C)

18

Objectives :

- To explain the concept of needs in human motivation, drawing on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs and how they shape human behavior and decision-making.
- To explain Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs and Its Implications for Motivation.
- To explore Self-Determination Theory (SDT) and its role in motivation.
- To explore how teachers can apply SDT to foster a more motivated and engaged learning environment by meeting students' needs for autonomy, competence, and relatedness.

18 .1 Motivation as Self-determination

It makes sense to assume that human drives stem from an underlying "need." Everybody believes that they have different "needs," such as a need for food or company, which shapes their decisions and pursuits. While the demands that each theory emphasizes or recognizes vary, this same principle is included in some theoretical descriptions of motivation. Maslow's hierarchy of requirements, for instance, is an illustration of motives that operate similarly to needs and have an impact on long-term human development. Maslow argues that people's basic needs for survival must be met before they can look to fulfil their needs for belonging and that needs for belonging must be met before wants for esteem. Theoretically, people have requirements for growth and deficits; before growth needs can affect behaviour, deficit needs must be met (Maslow, 1970). A need is a generally persistent state or emotion that needs release or satisfaction and tends to impact behaviour over time in Maslow's theory and other theories that employ the idea. Certain wants, like hunger, may go away when met, while other needs, like curiosity, might not. In any case, needs are distinct from the previously stated self-efficacy beliefs, which are more precise and cognitive and directly impact specific activities and behaviours.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs

https://www.google.com/search?q=maslow%27s+hierarchy+of+needs+images

17.1.1 Comments on Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs is a psychological theory proposed by Abraham Maslow in 1943, outlining a five-tier model of human motivation. This model is often depicted as a pyramid, each level representing different human needs, arranged from the most basic to the most complex. Here is a breakdown of each level and its significance:

1. Physiological Needs

- **Description**: These are the most basic human survival needs, including air, water, food, sleep, clothing, and shelter.
- **Comment**: Until these needs are met, individuals will unlikely focus on higher-level needs. For example, a student who is hungry or lacks sleep may struggle to concentrate in class.

2. Safety Needs

- **Description**: The next layer focuses on safety and security once physiological needs are satisfied. It includes personal safety, financial security, health, and well-being.
- **Comment**: Students need to feel safe from physical and emotional harm in educational settings. If a student feels threatened or insecure in their environment, it can hinder their ability to learn and engage.

3. **Love/Belonging Needs**

- **Description**: This tier encompasses emotional needs, including relationships, friendships, family, and social connections.
- **Comment**: A sense of belonging is crucial for personal development. Fostering a supportive community can enhance students' motivation and engagement in schools. Students who feel connected to their peers and teachers are more likely to succeed.

4. Esteem Needs

- **Description**: Esteem needs to involve the desire for respect, self-esteem, confidence, achievement, and recognition from others.
- **Comment**: Students need to feel valued and acknowledged for their efforts and accomplishments in an educational context. Positive reinforcement from teachers and peers can bolster self-esteem and encourage further achievements.

5. **Self-Actualization Needs**

- **Description**: At the top of the hierarchy, self-actualization refers to realising one's potential, creativity, problem-solving, and personal growth.

- **Comment**: This is where individuals strive to achieve their fullest potential and pursue personal goals. Providing opportunities for creative expression, critical thinking, and personal projects in education can help students reach this level.

Overall Implications

Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs emphasizes that individuals are motivated to fulfil their needs in a specific order. Understanding this hierarchy in educational settings can help educators create supportive environments that holistically address students' needs. For instance, ensuring students feel safe and connected can lay the foundation for higher motivation and engagement in learning activities. Recognizing and addressing these needs can lead to better academic performance, increased well-being, and overall personal development.

17.2 Self-determination theory

Self-determination theory is a modern theory of motivation based on the concept of needs. It was put forth, among others, by psychologists Edward Deci and Richard Ryan (2000). According to the theory, comprehending motivation necessitates considering three fundamental human needs:

• Autonomy: the wish to be unrestricted by outside forces when it comes to actions

• competence— The need to feel competent or skilled

• Relatedness—

The desire to be involved or linked to other people Take note that none of these requirements are bodily—sex or hunger, for example—but rather psychological. Additionally, they are not about deficiencies that a person strives to minimize or eradicate but rather about personal progress or development. In contrast to behaviourism's view of food or Maslow's hierarchy of needs, you can never have too

much relatedness, competence, or autonomy. Throughout your life, you (and your pupils) will work to improve these continuously.

The main tenet of self-determination theory is that people tend to view their decisions and behaviours as being purely motivated or "self-determined" when they—like you or one of your students—feel that these fundamental needs are being somewhat satisfied. Then, individuals can focus on a range of pursuits that appeal to or hold significance for them but do not immediately address their basic needs. For instance, some of your students may read the books you have recommended, while others may pay close attention when you clarify important ideas from the unit you are now teaching.

The basic premise of self-determination theory is that when people, such as you or one of your students, believe these basic requirements are being partially met, they are more likely to see their actions and decisions as solely motivated or "self-determined". After that, people can concentrate on various activities that interest them or are important to them but do not instantly take care of their basic requirements. For example, although some of your students might read the recommended materials, others could listen intently when you elucidate key concepts from your teaching topic.

17.3 Self-determination and intrinsic motivation

Considering needs, self-determination theory reiterates the significance of intrinsic motivation—a notion already discussed concerning learning theory. However, the self-determination interpretation of intrinsic drive places more emphasis on an individual's sense of freedom than on whether or not there are "actual" limitations on behaviour. When people have self-determination, they experience freedom, even though they are also subject to external limitations. In theory, students can still feel in

control of their destiny even if they have to follow externally set guidelines for proper conduct in the classroom.

However, the student's basic needs—autonomy, competence, and relatedness—must be satisfied before developing a sense of self-determination. In order to motivate students, instructors must first and foremost support them in meeting their basic requirements. They must also ensure that students' basic needs are met without interference from school policies or their leadership styles. Of course, "pure" self-determination is desirable for most educators and learners, but the situation is typically different. Most of the time, classroom teachers are not required to meet every student's basic needs for various reasons. One issue is the large number of pupils, which makes it hard to provide every student with the best care possible. Another reason is that curriculum development is the duty of teachers, who may need to set expectations for their students' work that may infringe on their autonomy or cause them to feel (temporarily) inadequate. The personal histories of the students, which can range from poverty to divorce, are still another factor. These experiences may leave certain kids with demands that teachers cannot meet.

Students typically see the outcome as a combination of extrinsic and intrinsic drives, with only a partial sense of self-determination. In recognition, self-determination theory proposes that the degree of "intrinsic-ness" in motivation varies, ranging from extremely extrinsic to highly intrinsic, via different combinations of intrinsic and extrinsic factors (Koestner & Losier, 2004). Learning mostly controlled by outside incentives and restrictions is called extrinsic learning, whereas learning primarily controlled ‘by learners themselves’ is called intrinsic learning. The levels and their impacts on motivation are outlined and shown in the table below. The teacher's task becomes more realistic when one assumes that motivation is frequently a

combination of intrinsic and extrinsic factors. Rather than expecting students always to be motivated solely by intrinsic factors, teachers should instead organize and support their students' motivations to the greatest extent feasible. The teacher must meet each student's fundamental demands for relatedness, competence, and autonomy to accomplish this.

Source of regulation of action	Description	Example
“Pure” extrinsic motivation	motivation from outside sources. The individual does not intend to respond in response to incentives or pressures.	Students never finish their assignments under duress or when rewards are provided.
It is very external to the person	actions that are solely subject to external incentives, pressures, and controls	Students only finish assignments when they are specifically informed of the importance of grades and/or the negative effects of failing.
Somewhat external	Particular behaviours are controlled internally but without consideration for or concerning individual requirements.	The student finishes the project independently, but only out of guilt or fear of humiliation for not finishing the assignment.
Somewhat internal	actions that a person values highly as a way of achieving a more essential goal	Students typically do their schoolwork independently, but only because it is necessary to get admitted to college.
Very internal	Behaviors that a person adopts because they are essential to their self-concept and core beliefs	Since a student's self-concept includes being well-educated, they typically finish their schoolwork independently.
“Pure” intrinsic regulation	acts that are performed only for their own pleasure and intrinsic value	Every topic, idea, and task a teacher has ever assigned is enjoyable for the student, who completes his coursework purely out of enjoyment.

17.4 Combination of Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation

Comments

This table outlines the extrinsic and intrinsic motivation spectrum, highlighting how external and internal factors influence actions.

At one extreme is **pure extrinsic motivation**, where an individual lacks the intention to act, even with external pressures or incentives. For example, a student might not complete any work, even when offered rewards or facing penalties. Moving up the scale, when motivation is **very external**, actions are driven solely by external factors like rewards or punishments, such as a student completing an assignment to avoid failing or earning a grade. As motivation becomes **somewhat external**, individuals regulate their actions internally but without a genuine personal connection to the task. In this case, a student may work independently but only out of fear of shame or guilt for not completing the work.

At the **somewhat internal** level, actions are viewed as important but primarily as a means to an end, like a student who values completing assignments to gain college admission. **Very internal** motivation occurs when actions align closely with personal values and self-concept. A student working hard because being well-educated is part of their self-identity exemplifies this. Finally, at the **pure intrinsic regulation** end, actions are driven by genuine enjoyment and interest. The student completes tasks purely because they find them enjoyable, without concern for external rewards.

The progression from extrinsic to intrinsic motivation highlights the importance of personal engagement in tasks. Ideally, teachers should aim to foster intrinsic

motivation by creating learning environments that resonate with students' interests, values, and personal growth rather than relying solely on external incentives.

17.5 Practice

Activity 1

- **Situation 1**: **Question**: Which level of Maslow's needs is Sarah struggling with?
- Sarah often comes to school without breakfast and feels tired throughout the day. She has trouble focusing on her lessons because she is hungry and often asks to go to the nurse because she feels dizzy.

- **Situation 2**: **Question**: What level of need is Michael lacking?

  Michael recently moved to a new school. He does not feel he fits in with the other students and has difficulty making friends. He often sits alone during lunch and seems disconnected from group activities in class.

- **Situation 3**: **Question**: What type of need prevents Jenny from focusing on her studies?

  Jenny is doing well academically but feels very nervous about her safety while walking home from school. She often asks to leave early because she worries about passing through certain neighbourhoods. This constant worry distracts her from fully engaging in her lessons.

- **Situation 4**: **Question**: Which level of Maslow's hierarchy is Chris experiencing?

Chris is a talented artist, and after much hard work, his artwork was featured in the school's annual art show. When his teachers and friends complimented his work, he felt great pride and accomplishment.

- **Situation 5**: **Question**: What level of Maslow's needs is Anna fulfilling?

Anna has been passionate about environmental issues for years. Recently, she started a student club to raise awareness about climate change and organized a community clean-up day. She finds deep fulfilment in leading these activities and feels she is making a difference.

Activity 2: Reflect on the question below and write a response considering theoretical and practical aspects of educational motivation. Discuss how fostering autonomy, competence, and relatedness in students could influence their learning experience. In your response, provide examples from your teaching or learning experiences (if applicable) and suggest strategies teachers can use to promote intrinsic motivation in the classroom.

How can understanding the balance between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation help teachers create learning environments that foster students' autonomy, competence, and relatedness, and how might this impact students' long-term engagement and success in their educational journey?

Personalized Learning

18

Objectives :

- To understand the foundational principles of personalized learning and motivation, including key theories such as self-determination theory, growth mindset, and the zone of proximal development.

- To *develop* ***personalized learning plans for diverse learners, incorporating flexible pacing, targeted feedback, and real-world connections to maximize motivation and achievement.***

Personalized learning is closely related to learners' motivation, as it tailors the educational experience to individual needs, interests, and goals, which can significantly enhance intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Here is how personalized learning connects to motivation:

18.1Autonomy and Ownership

Self-determination theory emphasizes the importance of autonomy in motivation. Personalized learning gives students more control over their learning process by allowing them to choose what, how, and when to learn, which fosters a sense of ownership. When students feel they have a choice, their intrinsic motivation increases as they perceive their learning as self-directed rather than externally imposed.

18.1.1 Relevance and Interest

Personalized learning allows students to engage with content relevant to their interests, strengths, and goals. When learning material is aligned with a student’s

interests, it increases intrinsic motivation, as students are more likely to engage deeply with tasks they find personally meaningful or enjoyable.

18.1.2 Competence and Mastery

Personalized learning helps students work at their own pace, providing opportunities to experience success and develop a sense of competence. When students can progress based on their abilities, it boosts their self-efficacy, which is closely tied to motivation. Achieving small, personalized goals reinforces their belief in their capability, increasing motivation to tackle more challenging tasks.

18.1.3 Targeted Feedback and Support

In personalized learning environments, feedback is tailored to individual progress and learning styles. It helps students understand their strengths and areas for improvement, promoting a growth mindset. Positive feedback linked to effort and improvement strengthens extrinsic and intrinsic motivation by showing learners that their progress is valued and achievable.

18.1.4 Flexibility and Adaptability

Personalized learning adapts to students' needs, including learning preferences, pace, and goals. This flexibility allows for differentiation, where students can work on tasks that are neither easy nor difficult, keeping them in their “zone of proximal development.” When students feel challenged but not overwhelmed, their motivation to learn remains high.

18.1.5 Connection to Real-World Goals:

Personalized learning can incorporate students' long-term academic and career aspirations into the curriculum. This connection to real-world goals provides extrinsic

motivation, as students see a direct link between their learning and future success. At the same time, when students see personal value in the tasks, intrinsic motivation also increases.

In summary, personalized learning enhances learners' motivation by fostering autonomy, providing relevant and engaging content, promoting a sense of competence, offering individualized feedback, and aligning learning with personal goals. When students feel that learning is tailored to their needs, they are more likely to be motivated and engaged, both intrinsically and extrinsically.

18.2 Kind of Activities Integrated in Personalized Learning

The purpose of personalized learning activities is to meet each student's specific needs, interests, and learning preferences. Here are some types of activities that can be integrated into personalized learning environments:

18.2.1 Choice Boards

- **Description**: Provide students with various activities or tasks, allowing them to choose those that interest them most.
- **Example**: A reading comprehension choice board that lets students select from activities like writing a summary, creating a comic strip, or recording a podcast.

18.2.2Project-Based Learning (PBL)

- **Description**: Students work on real-world projects that align with their interests, allowing them to explore subjects in depth.
- **Example**: Students researching environmental issues in their community and proposing solutions, with guidance tailored to their abilities and interests.

18.2.3 Flipped Classroom Activities

- **Description**: Students learn new content at home (e.g., through videos or readings) and use class time for interactive, personalized activities.
- **Example**: After watching a video on grammar rules, students work in small groups to apply what they have learned through personalized worksheets or games.

18.2.4 Self-Paced Learning Subjects

- **Description**: Students move through course content at their own speed, allowing for differentiation in pacing.
- **Example**: A series of online quizzes and lessons on language skills where students can revisit difficult sections or move ahead if they are confident.

18.2.5 Learning Stations

- **Description**: Set up different stations in the classroom where students can engage in various activities tailored to different learning styles or levels.
- **Example**: One station for vocabulary games, another for reading comprehension, and a third for creative writing, with students rotating based on their needs and preferences.

18.2.6 Peer Teaching

- **Description**: Students collaborate and teach each other based on their strengths and learning preferences.

- **Example**: More advanced students mentor peers on a specific topic, allowing both to solidify their understanding.

18.2.7 Gamification

- **Description**: Integrating game elements like points, badges, and challenges into learning activities to engage students in a personalized way.
- **Example**: Language learning apps like Duolingo, which adapt to the learner's pace and skill level, rewarding progress with points and streaks.

18.2.8 Interest-Based Research Projects

- **Description**: Students choose a topic of personal interest within the curriculum and conduct research to create a final product (e.g., a report, presentation, or video).
- **Example**: A student interested in history might research and present on a historical event of their choosing, tailoring the depth of research to their skill level.

18.2.9 Goal-Setting and Progress Tracking

- **Description**: Students set their own learning goals and regularly review their progress, with the teacher providing individualized feedback and support.
- **Example**: A personal learning dashboard where students track their completion of tasks and projects, setting weekly or monthly academic goals.

18.3 Sample activity

Activity: Vocabulary Quest

Objective: Students will improve their vocabulary and grammar skills through a fun, interactive quest that involves completing challenges, earning points, and competing in teams.

Materials Needed:

- Vocabulary cards (with words and definitions)
- Challenge cards (with different tasks or questions)
- A scoreboard or tracking system (could be digital or on a whiteboard)
- Badges or rewards for achievements (can be digital or physical)

Setup:

- Divide the Class into Teams: Create small groups of 3-5 students.

- Prepare Vocabulary Cards: Each card should have a word, definition, and an example sentence.

- Create Challenge Cards: Design cards with different tasks related to the vocabulary (e.g., use the word in a sentence, find synonyms/antonyms, complete a grammar exercise using the word).

Game Mechanics:

- Quest Stages: The activity consists of several rounds or stages. Each stage represents a different challenge related to vocabulary learning.

- Earning Points:

- Teams earn points by completing challenges. For example:

  - It correctly uses a vocabulary word in a sentence: 10 points.
  - They are identifying synonyms/antonyms: 5 points.
  - Completing a grammar exercise: 15 points.

- Bonus Challenges: Include a few bonus challenges that can earn teams extra points (e.g., a quick quiz on vocabulary from previous lessons).

2. **Time Limit**: Set a time limit for each round (e.g., 10 minutes) to encourage quick thinking and teamwork.

- **Sample Challenges:**

- **Word Usage**: Use a vocabulary word in a creative sentence. (10 points)
- **Synonyms and Antonyms**: Provide a synonym and an antonym for a given word. (5 points each)
- **Grammar Challenge**: Fill in the blanks using the correct vocabulary word form in a sentence. (15 points)
- **Story Creation**: Collaboratively write a short story using at least five vocabulary words. (20 points)

- **Reflection:**

At the end of the activity, have a brief reflection session:

- Discuss what vocabulary words were challenging.
- Share strategies used by different teams.

- Award prizes or badges to the teams with the highest scores or for specific achievements (e.g., most creative sentences).

Adaptations:

- **Different Levels**: Adjust the difficulty of challenges based on the student's proficiency level.
- **Digital Integration**: Online platforms like Kahoot or Quizlet can be used to create a digital version of the game.

18.4 Practice

- Task: Design Your Personalized Learning Activity

Objective: To show that they understand how to make learning experiences more successful and interesting, students will design a tailored learning activity that meets the requirements and styles of various learners.

Instructions:

1. **Research and Inspiration**:
    - Have students research existing personalized learning activities and strategies. They can explore resources online, review case studies, or discuss examples from their learning experiences.
2. **Activity Design Framework**:
    - Provide a framework or template for students to use while designing their activity. This framework can include:
        - **Title**: What is the name of your activity?
        - **Objective**: What learning goal does your activity aim to achieve?

- **Target Audience**: Who is this activity designed for? (age group, skill level, etc.)
- **Materials Needed**: What resources or materials are required for the activity?
- **Instructions**: Step-by-step instructions on how to conduct the activity.
- **Personalization Elements**: Explain how the activity caters to different learning styles, interests, or abilities. For example, will it allow for choice, flexibility, or multiple ways to demonstrate understanding?
- **Assessment**: How will students' learning be assessed? Will there be a rubric, peer feedback, or self-reflection involved?

3. **Activity Creation**:

- Students will create a custom learning activity that satisfies the needs and preferences of a range of learners to demonstrate that they understand how to make learning experiences more successful and engaging.

- Presentation:

Each student or pair will present their designed activity to the class. They should explain the rationale behind their choices and how their activity promotes personalized learning.

- Feedback Session:

- After the presentations, conduct a feedback session where peers can ask questions and offer constructive feedback on each activity. It can encourage collaborative thinking and improvement.

- Reflection:

- Request that students write a brief reflection on the customized learning concepts they gained from this assignment and how they might use them in future classes or learning experiences.

Activity: Personalized Storytelling Adventure

Objective: Students will create and share their stories using specific vocabulary and grammar structures, enhancing their English language skills while allowing for personal expression and creativity.

Target Audience:

Intermediate English language learners (ages 12-16).

Materials Needed:

- Vocabulary lists (tailored to the current lesson topic)
- Story structure templates (beginning, middle, end)
- Art supplies (optional for illustrations)
- Digital tools (like Google Slides or Canva) for digital storytelling
- A rubric for assessment

Instructions:

1. **Introduce the Activity**:

- Explain the importance of storytelling in language learning and how it helps with vocabulary acquisition, grammar practice, and creative expression.

- Discuss the elements of a good story: characters, setting, plot, conflict, and resolution.

2. **Vocabulary Selection**:

- Provide students with vocabulary words relevant to the current lesson or unit. For example, if the theme is "adventure," include words like "explore," "discover," "challenge," etc.

- Allow students to choose a set number of words (e.g., 5-10) from the list to incorporate into their stories.

3. **Story Structure Template**:

- Provide a simple story structure template to help students organize their thoughts. It should include sections for:

- **Characters**: Who is in the story?
- **Setting**: Where and when does the story take place?
- **Plot**: What happens in the story? (Beginning, middle, end)
- **Conflict**: What challenges do the characters face?
- **Resolution**: How is the conflict resolved?

4. **Drafting the Story**:

- Students will draft their stories based on the structure provided. Encourage them to be creative and personalise the story by drawing from their experiences or interests.

- Remind them to use the selected vocabulary words and appropriate grammar structures.

5. **Peer Review**:

- Students will pair up for peer review once the stories are drafted. Each student will read their story to their partner and receive feedback on content, vocabulary use, and grammar.

6. **Finalizing and Illustrating**:

- After incorporating feedback, students will finalize their stories. They can create a digital presentation (like a slideshow) or illustrate their story on paper.

- Encourage creativity in presenting their stories, allowing for visual elements, audio recordings, or video storytelling.

Personalization Elements:

- **Choice of Vocabulary**: Students choose which words to include based on their interests.
- **Creative Expression**: Students can express themselves through various storytelling formats (written, digital, illustrated).
- **Peer Collaboration**: Students collaborate and learn from each other during the peer review.

- Assessment:

- Use a rubric that includes criteria for:

  - Use of vocabulary

  - Grammar and sentence structure

  - Creativity and originality

  - Clarity of presentation

  - Engagement during storytelling

Palmer Parker's Educational Perspective

19

Objectives :
- To understand the Joy and Struggles of Teaching
- To explore the Sources of Complexity in Teaching
- To understand how a teacher's internal state (intellectual, emotional, and spiritual) influences their interactions with students and the subject matter.
- To apply Insights from Self-Knowledge to Build Stronger Teacher-Student Connections

19.1 About the scholar

Writer, educator, and activist Parker J. Palmer focuses on social change, leadership, community, education, and spirituality on an individual basis. Both domestically and internationally, he conducts seminars, retreats, and workshops. He is the creator of Fetzer's Teacher Formation Program for K–12 teachers, a Senior Associate of the American Association for Higher Education, and a Senior Advisor to the Fetzer Institute. The Company of Strangers, To Know As We Are Known, The Active Life, and The Courage to Teach are some of his books. Parker J. Palmer is a writer, educator, and activist specialising in individual spirituality, education, community, leadership, and social change. He performs workshops, retreats, and seminars both locally and abroad. In addition to being a Senior Advisor to the Fetzer Institute and Senior Associate of the American Association for Higher Education, he authorises Fetzer's Teacher Formation Program for K–12 teachers. His publications include The Company of Strangers, To Know As We Are Known, The Active Life, and The Courage to Teach.

WE TEACH WHO WE ARE

Since I am a teacher at heart, there are times when I cannot contain my happiness in the classroom. Teaching is the best job I know when my students and I find new ground to explore, when the way out of a thicket becomes clear, and when the lightning-life of the intellect illuminates our experience.

However, sometimes the classroom feels so dead, uncomfortable, or disorganized that my claim to be a teacher appears to be a complete lie since I am helpless to address it. Then the enemy is everywhere: in those alien-looking students, in that subject, I thought I understood, and in my pathology that keeps me dependent on this source of income. What a fool I was to think I had mastered this magical craft—it is difficult for mortals to even somewhat succeed, and it is harder to divine than tea leaves!

There are three key origins of the instructional tangles. The first two are well-known, but the third—the most important—is hardly ever given enough credit. First, our understanding of the subjects we teach is always incomplete and faulty since they are as vast and complex as life itself. Regardless of our reading level and dedication to study, teaching necessitates a command of a subject perpetually outside our reach. Secondly, our pupils are even more intricate and larger than life. Few of us can combine the ideas of Freud and Solomon to see them whole, perceive them clearly, and react to them correctly in the present.

If teaching complexity were only the result of students and subjects, then our typical coping mechanisms—keeping up with our disciplines and picking up enough skills to stay ahead of the student psyche—would suffice. We educate who we are, which is another cause for these complexities.

For better or ill, teaching comes from within, just like any human endeavour. I transmit my soul's state to my students, my subject, and our shared way of being when I teach. My inner life's intricacies are often no different from the entanglements I encounter in the classroom. Education is like a mirror to the soul when seen in this light. I can learn about myself if I am willing to look in the mirror and not turn away from what I see. A successful teacher must be as knowledgeable about herself as she is about her students and her subject.

Self-awareness plays a major role in understanding my students and my subject. I cannot know who my students are if I do not know myself. I shall view them dimly, in the shadows of my uncritical existence, and I will be unable to effectively instruct them if I cannot see them clearly. I cannot truly understand my subject at the most profound levels of embodied, subjective meaning if I do not know myself. I will only be able to know it in an abstract sense, from a distance, as a collection of ideas that are as disconnected from reality as I am from my truth.

In order to fully understand effective teaching, we must venture into uncharted territory: the interior world of the teacher's mind. To map that terrain completely, three crucial paths—intellectual, emotional, and spiritual—must be followed; none of them may be disregarded. If education is reduced to intellect alone, it becomes a lifeless abstraction; if it is reduced to feelings alone, it becomes egotistical; if it is reduced to spirituality, it loses its connection to reality. To be entire, intellect, emotion, and spirit must cooperate. They are deeply ingrained in both the best forms of education and the human self, and we must also incorporate them into our pedagogical discourse.

By intellectual, I mean how we approach teaching and learning: the structure and content of our conceptions of knowledge and learning, the characteristics of our pupils and the things we study. Emotional refers to our shared experiences as teachers

and learners, which can either enhance or decrease our communication. By spiritual, I mean the various ways we respond to the inner need of our hearts to feel a part of the vastness of life—a yearning that inspires love and labour, particularly the labour known as teaching.

19.2 Concept Elaboration

1. The Joy and Struggles of Teaching

- **Joy in Discovery**: The author describes moments in teaching as joyous, particularly when both teacher and students explore new ideas together. This sense of discovery is portrayed as the pinnacle of teaching, where learning feels alive and enlightening.
- **Struggles with Lifelessness**: Conversely, the text acknowledges moments when the classroom environment feels uninspired, painful, or confusing. During these times, the author grapples with feelings of powerlessness and questions their effectiveness as a teacher. This duality highlights the emotional rollercoaster teachers often experience.

19.3 Sources of Complexity in Teaching

- **Content Knowledge**: The text asserts that the subjects teachers handle are vast and intricate, making it impossible for teachers to claim complete mastery. This acknowledgement of the limits of one's knowledge is crucial, as it recognizes the ongoing journey of learning that teachers must undertake.
- **Understanding Students**: The complexity of students is emphasized as they are described as multifaceted individuals, necessitating a deep understanding that combines psychological insight and wisdom. The author suggests connecting with students on this level is essential but challenging.

- **Self-Reflection**: The most profound source of complexity is the teacher's inner life. The author argues that teaching is deeply personal and that teachers project their internal states onto their students and the learning environment. This connection reveals the importance of self-awareness in effective teaching.

3. **Self-Knowledge as Central to Teaching**

- **Reflection and Insight**: The text posits that self-knowledge is vital for understanding students and content. A teacher who lacks self-awareness cannot perceive their students accurately or engage deeply with their subject matter.
- **Impact on Teaching**: Without self-knowledge, a teacher views students through a distorted lens, which can hinder effective teaching. The text encourages teachers to reflect on their inner lives to enhance their understanding and, consequently, their teaching effectiveness.

4. The Triadic Nature of Teaching

- **Intellectual Dimension**: This involves teachers' understanding of pedagogy, learning theories, and the subject matter itself. Intellectual engagement is crucial but must not be isolated from other dimensions.
- **Emotional Dimension**: Emotions play a significant role in teaching and learning, influencing how teachers and students connect. Positive emotional interactions can foster a conducive learning environment.
- **Spiritual Dimension**: This aspect refers to the deeper connections and meanings that teaching can evoke. It speaks to a teacher's desire for purpose and fulfilment in their work, emphasizing that teaching is not merely a job but a calling.

5. **Interconnection of Dimensions**

- The author argues that intellect, emotion, and spirit are interconnected and must be integrated into teaching practices. Focusing solely on one dimension at the expense of others leads to an incomplete approach. True effectiveness in teaching arises from harmonizing these elements.
- **Recapitulation**

The text invites educators to engage in a profound exploration of their internal landscapes, advocating for self-reflection as a path to becoming more effective teachers. By acknowledging the complexities of teaching—rooted in content, student dynamics, and personal introspection—teachers can foster a richer educational experience that honors the multifaceted nature of learning. This holistic approach to teaching encourages the development of a more nuanced, empathetic, and engaged classroom environment.

19.4 Practice

- **Joy and Struggles**:
  - What specific moments in teaching bring the author joy, and how do these moments contrast with the feelings of lifelessness or confusion in the classroom?
  - How do the author's emotional experiences in the classroom influence their perception of their effectiveness as a teacher?

- **Complexity of Teaching**:
  - According to the author, what are the three sources of complexity in teaching, and how does each source contribute to the challenges educators face?

- Why does the author believe the subjects taught are "as large and complex as life"? How does this complexity affect a teacher’s ability to convey content?

- **Self-Knowledge**:
  - How does the author define the relationship between self-knowledge and effective teaching? How can a teacher’s self-awareness impact their understanding of students and content?
  - What does the author mean by teaching holding “a mirror to the soul,” and how can this perspective change how educators view their role?
- **Interconnection of Dimensions**:
  - What are the three important paths the author suggests for exploring good teaching, and how do they relate to one another?
  - How might an intellectual, emotional, and spiritual imbalance affect the teaching and learning process?

Practical Implications:

- What strategies might teachers implement to enhance their self-knowledge, and how could this improve student outcomes?
- How can educators create a classroom environment that integrates learning's intellectual, emotional, and spiritual aspects?

- **Personal Reflection**:
  - How can teachers reflect on their inner lives to better understand their students and subjects?
  - What challenges might teachers face when exploring their inner landscape, and how can they overcome them to become more effective educators?

Educational Implications of Carl Rogers' Theory (A)

20

Objectives :

- To understand Carl Rogers' Philosophy of Education.

- To explore the foundational principles of Carl Rogers' educational approach, focusing on his belief in the importance of creating a student-centered learning environment.

- To define Student-Centered Learning (SCL) and understand its application at various educational levels, from elementary to higher education.

- To understand the role of openness, freedom, and creativity in education.

- To explore how Rogers' theory encourages both teachers and students to reflect on their thoughts, feelings, and behaviors in order to better understand themselves and their interactions with others.

Fast Facts: Carl Rogers

- **Full Name:** Carl Ransom Rogers
- **Known For:** Developing client-centred therapy and helping to found humanistic psychology
- **Born:** January 8, 1902 in Oak Park, Illinois
- **Died:** February 4, 1987 in La Jolla, California
- **Parents:** Walter Rogers, a civil engineer, and Julia Cushing, a homemaker
- **Education:** M.A. and PhD, Columbia University Teachers College
- **Key Accomplishments:** President of the American Psychological Association in 1946; Nominated for the Nobel Peace Prize in 1987

"Experience is, for me, the highest authority. The touchstone of validity is my own experience. No other person's ideas and none of my ideas are as authoritative as my experience. It is to experience that I must return again and again, to discover a closer approximation to truth as it is in the process of becoming in me." – Carl Rogers, *On Becoming a Person*, 1954

20.1- Introduction

Carl Rogers, a prominent figure in psychology, not only revolutionized therapy with his Client-Centered approach but also left an indelible mark on the realm of education. In his seminal work, "Freedom to Learn," published in 1969, Rogers expounded his progressive approach to education, emphasizing student-centred learning. This pedagogical philosophy empowers students to control their educational journey, fostering independence, critical thinking, and adaptability. Let us delve into Rogers' educational philosophy and its implications for teachers and learners.

20.2What is Carl Rogers' approach to education?

Carl Rogers expounded on the approach to education in Client-Centered Therapy and wrote Freedom to Learn in 1969. Rogers' educational philosophy supports student-centered learning. His teaching method holds that creating an environment in the classroom where students may solve real-life problems and develop critical thinking skills can prepare kids for the future.

Teachers must grasp and use the SCL concepts in their teaching to succeed. It gives students many chances to discuss concepts, voice their viewpoints, and work in groups. SCL is not limited to students in elementary school. It is utilized in classrooms at colleges and throughout the whole educational system.

With student-centred learning (SCL), the students manage the learning process. Pupils work individually, learn at their own speed, and solve issues creatively. SCL encourages critical thinking abilities and self-directed learning.

This kind of education is based on the premise that students who engage in SCL can develop into autonomous learners who can solve complicated problems and adjust to changing circumstances. They grow more assured of their capacity for success.

Fig:20.1 https://notesfromnina.com/2020/03/01/the-power-of-positive-regard/

Learner-centered practices adopted from person-centered therapy	
Genuineness	**Being a real person** • Kind (friendly and caring) instead nice (pleasing and agreeable) • Open-minded and approachable **Asking real questions** • How are you today? How have you been? • What can I do to help you in your studies today?
Unconditional Positive Regard **Students do not have to achieve to feel accepted!**	**Welcoming questions and worries** • Struggles are very common in this class/subject/course. • I'd be happy to answer your questions! **Trying to see the world through other people's eyes** • What do you think about this? • What is on your mind? **Help for voicing out worries and struggles** • You seem to be xxx about this. What can I do to help you?
Empathetic Understanding	**Acknowledging struggle:** • This must be hard to talk about, thanks for telling me this. • That sounds really challenging. **Expressing gratitude that they shared their struggle:** • Thank you for sharing this with me. • Thank you for trusting me with this. **Supporting and encouraging:** • What can I do to help you? • What do you need right now?

20.3 Who is the fully functioning person?

Rogers describes a fully functioning person as someone with the following criteria:

- a growing openness to experience,
- an increasing existential lifestyle,
- increasing organismic trust,
- freedom of choice,
- creativity,
- reliability and constructiveness, and
- living a rich, full life.
- According to Rogers, living "the good life" under the above criteria would be a humanistic way to become a fully functional individual. Let us investigate his meaning:
- **a. A growing openness to experience**
- Rogers defined this as embracing a person for who they are without becoming defensive or experiencing psychological pain at being emotionally or psychologically attacked.
- **b. An increasingly existential lifestyle**

  - It suggests that one should not allow past experiences to influence one's reaction. In psychology, living an increasingly existential lifestyle suggests savouring the present. For example, someone who enjoys driving might not be deterred from doing it by an automobile accident. The individual will keep enjoying driving by putting the idea of an increasingly existential lifestyle into practice.

- **c. Increasing organismic trust**
- Carl Rogers claims that organismic trust increases when clients are self-confident to make the right decisions in various social circumstances. According to Rogers' theory, the client would make these decisions using a code of ethics and an appropriate moral compass.

- **d. Freedom of choice**
- Carl Rogers' humanistic notion of freedom of choice postulated that his clients could comprehend appropriate behaviour in various circumstances. The ability to choose shows that people are in charge of their responses and are developing the necessary emotional intelligence. The client's moral ethic also governs freedom of choice. Giving the client freedom of choice also implies accepting accountability for his actions.
- **e. Creativity**
- According to Carl Rogers, creativity is the ability to change course when necessary. Rogers uses the example of an introverted instructor who adopts an outgoing instructing style. The teacher's personality would not change significantly due to his inventiveness and adaptability, but it enables him to respond imaginatively to the circumstances.
- **f. Reliability and constructiveness**
- According to Carl Rogers' theory of personality reliability and constructiveness, people might achieve a balance between their real self and ideal self. Self-worth is an additional element of this balance. An increased level of congruence is needed between the self-worth, real self, and ideal self. A person with an increased self-worth values himself and can be gracious while getting a

compliment. This person may also accept and relish the compliment with greater self-worth. To achieve congruence between the real self and the ideal self, a person needs to practice with the real self daily to collide with the ideal self in the future. An example of an ideal self would be a person who enjoys driving a car in the snow and uses promising all-weather tyres that give more grip in the future. However, to achieve congruence with the real self, the real self will buy all-weather tyres before the first snowfall. Hence, the real self will ultimately collide with the ideal self during the first heavy snowfall.

g- Living a rich, full life

Carl Rogers suggests that a fully functioning person experiences pain and joy, heartbreak and love, courage and fear more intensely. In other words, a rich, full life includes intense experiences of negative and positive aspects of everyday life. For instance, a person who performs better at work while living a rich, full life with sufficient conditions might be more inclined to receive praise from the boss. The same employee with sufficient conditions in life would also feel more psychological distress at the time of losing his employment or breaking up with a friend than a person who has never experienced a rich, full life.

Educational Implications of Carl Rogers' Theory (B)

21

Objectives :

- To define the characteristics of a fully functioning person as outlined by Carl Rogers, including growing openness to experience, an increasing existential lifestyle, organismic trust, freedom of choice, creativity, reliability, constructiveness, and living a rich, full life.

- To understand how Carl Rogers' humanistic psychology can be applied to practical aspects of personal development, such as emotional intelligence, self-reflection, and interpersonal relationships.

- To reveal how reliability and constructiveness help individuals achieve balance between their real self and ideal self, fostering self-worth and congruence.

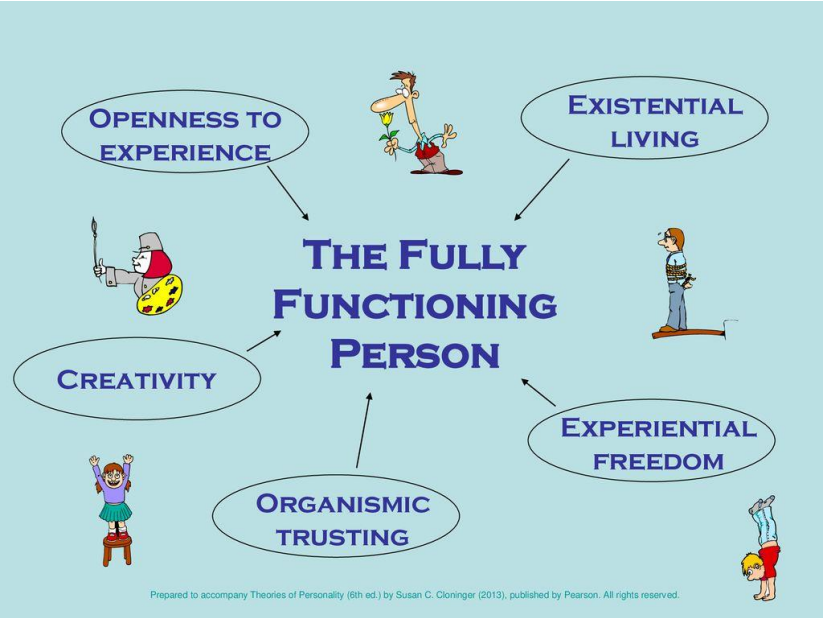
21.1 A fully functioning person

In humanistic psychology, Carl Rogers presents a compelling vision of being a fully functioning person. This ideal encompasses a range of qualities that contribute to a rich, meaningful life. According to Rogers, individuals embody this state demonstrate a growing openness to experience, an increasing existential lifestyle, and a deep-seated trust in their instincts. They navigate life with freedom of choice, creativity, and reliability, all while striving for a balance between their real and ideal selves. Most importantly, these individuals profoundly engage with the world, experiencing the full spectrum of human emotions—from joy and love to pain and fear. This exploration delves into the characteristics that define a fully functioning person and illustrates how Rogers' humanistic approach guides individuals toward living "the good life" through self-awareness, personal growth, and emotional intelligence.

Rogers describes a fully functioning person as someone with the following criteria:

- a growing openness to experience,
- an increasing existential lifestyle,
- increasing organismic trust,
- freedom of choice,
- creativity,
- reliability and constructiveness, and
- living a rich, full life.

Fig: 21.1 https://www.structural-learning.com/post/carl-rogers-theory



- According to Rogers, a **humanistic** approach to becoming a fully functioning person would be living "**the good life**" according to the above criteria. Let us explore what he meant:

21.1.1 A growing openness to experience

- Rogers described this as accepting someone's life experiences without getting defensive or feeling psychological distress for being psychologically or emotionally attacked.

21.1.2 An Increasingly Existential Lifestyle

It indicates that past experiences are not enabling a person's response to change. An increasingly existential lifestyle in the field of Psychology indicates relishing the moment. For instance, if a person enjoys driving, a car accident would not stop him from driving. The person will continue to enjoy driving through implementing the principle of an increasingly existential lifestyle.

21.1.3 Increasing Organismic Trust

Carl Rogers states that increasing organismic trust occurs when the client demonstrates the self-trust to make correct choices in various social situations. **Rogers' theory** also suggested that the client should take up a suitable moral compass and have a code of ethics to make these decisions.

21.1.4 Freedom of choice

Carl Roger's humanistic theory about freedom of choice proposed that Roger's clients could understand how to respond to situations. Freedom of choice indicates that people's reactions are in control, practising the appropriate emotional intelligence. The client's moral code also governs freedom of choice. Freedom of choice also means that the client takes responsibility for his conduct.

21.1.5 Creativity

Carl Rogers described creativity as the knowledge to adapt to a situation appropriately. **Rogers** gives the example of an introverted teacher who decides to become extroverted in her instructions. This creativity and adaptation would not substantially change the teacher's personality but allow him to adapt creatively.

21.1.6 Reliability and Constructiveness

According to Carl Rogers' theory of personality reliability and constructiveness, people might achieve a balance between their real self and ideal self. Self-worth is an additional element of this balance. An increased level of congruence is needed between the self-worth, real self, and ideal self. A person with increased self-worth values himself and can be gracious while getting a compliment. This person may also accept and relish the compliment with greater self-worth. To achieve congruence between the real self and the ideal self, a person needs to practice with the real self daily to collide with the ideal self in the future. An example of an ideal self would be a person who enjoys driving a car in the snow and uses promising all-weather tyres that give more grip in the future. However, to achieve congruence with the real self, the real self will buy all-weather tyres before the first snowfall. Hence, the real self will ultimately collide with the ideal self during the first heavy snowfall.

21.1.7 Living a rich, full life

Carl Rogers suggests that a fully functioning person experiences pain and joy, heartbreak and love, courage and fear more intensely. In other words, a rich, full life includes intense experiences of negative and positive aspects of everyday life. For instance, a person who performs better at work while living a rich, full life with sufficient conditions might be more inclined to receive praise from the boss. The same

employee with sufficient conditions in life would also feel more psychological distress at the time of losing his employment or breaking up with a friend than a person who has never experienced a rich, full life.

21.2 Practice

Read the following scenarios and identify the characteristics of a fully functioning person.

- **Scenario 1**: "After receiving criticism on a project, a student reflects on the feedback without becoming defensive. Instead, they see it as an opportunity to grow and improve in future assignments."

- **Scenario 2**: "A person who has faced a setback in their career decides to take a leap and pursue their passion for art, embracing each day as it comes without being weighed down by past failures."

- **Scenario 3**: "During a group project, a student confidently suggests a new approach, trusting their instincts and encouraging their peers to share their ideas openly."

- **Scenario 4**: "A teacher allows students to choose their topics for a research project, encouraging them to explore their interests and take responsibility for their learning."

- **Scenario 5**: "An introverted student surprises everyone by leading a class discussion, using creative methods to engage their classmates, and adapting their usual style to the situation."

- **Scenario 6**: "After a compliment from a friend, a student graciously accepts it, reflecting a sense of self-worth and confidence in their abilities."

- **Scenario 7**: "A person faces life's highs and lows with equal intensity, celebrating their successes while allowing themselves to grieve losses deeply, making their experiences richer and more meaningful.

Objectives :

- To define and explain Carl Rogers' humanistic theory of personality, emphasizing the concept of the "phenomenal field" as a combination of an individual's external experiences and internal emotions and thoughts.

- To discuss the central themes of teaching in Rogers' philosophy, including the importance of allowing students to explore and nourish their curiosity rather than simply memorizing facts.

- To understand the teacher's role in facilitating learning by creating an environment where students are empowered to learn how to learn, not just acquire information.

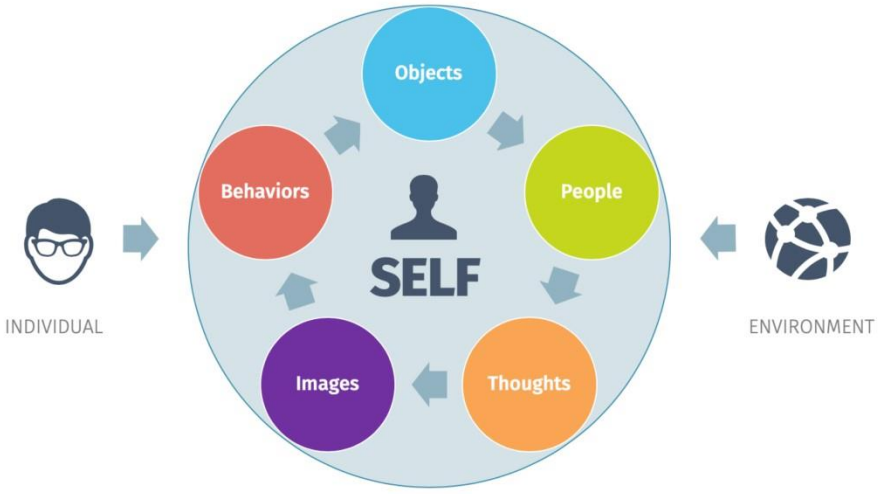
- To explore how meaningful, experiential learning engages the whole person (cognitive, emotional, and experiential dimensions) and leads to personal growth

22.1 Carl Rogers' humanistic theory of personality

According to Carl Rogers' humanistic theory of personality development, all humans exist in a world loaded with experiences. Their life experiences create their reactions involving external people and objects. Also, internal emotions and thoughts. It is referred to as their phenomenal field.

Fig 22.1

https://courses.lumenlearning.com/suny-fm- intropsych/chapter/introduction-explaining-personality/



22.2 What is teaching according to Carl Rogers

Rogers (1983) believes that teaching should involve the following central themes:

a- The primary task of the teacher is to permit the student to learn. Students need to explore and nourish their curiosity instead of simply regurgitating facts.

b- As Rogers (1983) said, "Learning how to learn is the element that is always of value, now and in the future. Thus, the teacher's task is delicate, demanding, and a truly exalted calling. In true teaching, there is no place for an authoritarian or a person on an ego trip."

c- "Teaching is more difficult than learning because teaching calls for this: to let learn. The real teacher lets nothing else be learned than - learning. His or her conduct, therefore, often produces the impression that we properly learn nothing from him or her if, by learning, we now suddenly understand merely the procurement of useful information. The teacher is ahead of his or her students in this alone, that he or she still has far more to learn than they - he or she has to learn to let them learn" (Martin Heidegger, What is Called Thinking, 1968).

22.3 Learning Concept

Rogers (1983) views learning as an insatiable curiosity that can be divided into two general types along a continuum of meaning. These two types of learning are nonsense syllable learning and meaningful, experiential learning.

22.3.1 Nonsense syllable learning:

This type of learning entails rote memorization of facts and information. Rogers sees this as a difficult task, as learners are not truly learning; they merely memorise "stuff" for a test. Therefore, stuff learned from this type of learning is often forgotten quickly. Furthermore, students often fail to see the larger picture when they are required

to learn facts. Subsequently, the information is perceived as meaningless. "Thus, education becomes a futile attempt to learn material without personal meaning. Such learning involves the mind only. It is learning that takes place from the neck up. It does not involve feelings or personal meanings; it is irrelevant to the whole person" (Rogers, 1983).

22.3.2 Meaningful, experiential learning

Although this may be a rather egregious example, Rogers (1983) uses the example of a toddler touching a warm radiator to illustrate the essence of this learning type. When the toddler touches the warm radiator, he or she learns the true meaning of the word "hot." As a result, he or she has learned a future caution regarding all similar radiators. He or she has absorbed these learnings in a meaningful and experiential manner so that they will not be forgotten soon.

In short, Rogers (1983) emphasized that learning required this experiential component. Rogers argued that to learn truly, an individual must engage in whole-person learning. Traditionally, learning has only focused on the cognitive or left-brain learning dimension. Thus, Rogers believed a person must also utilise the right brain to learn.

22.3.3 Facilitator's Role

To Rogers, experiential learning is equivalent to personal change and growth. Rogers feels that all human beings have a natural propensity to learn; the role of the teacher is to facilitate such learning. It includes:

- Setting a positive climate for learning.
- Clarifying the purpose of the learner(s),
- Organizing and making available learning resources,
- Balancing intellectual and emotional components of learning and

- Sharing feelings and thoughts with learners but not dominating.

According to Rogers, learning is facilitated when:

1. The student participates completely in the learning process and has control over its nature and direction,
2. It is primarily based upon confrontation with practical, social, personal or research problems and
3. Self-evaluation is the principal method of assessing progress or success.

Rogers also emphasizes the importance of learning and openness to change.

How can teachers be real in the classroom?

Becoming Real in the Classroom Starts Outside of the Classroom:

Most people, including teachers, have asked themselves anyone, or perhaps more than one of the following questions:

- Who am I, really?
- Will I ever really know who I am?
- How can I find my real self?

With increasing demands and pressures, these questions may be more relevant in today's society than in the past. As a result, most of us are on a quest for our identity. Most of us are asking, "Who am I?"

Rogers (1983) provides a loosely structured framework to guide teachers in making their tasks real in the classroom.

First and foremost, Rogers (1983) states that self-discovery is a lifelong task.

- **Being Real in the Classroom:**

Since self-discovery is a lifetime task, it can be expected that being "real" in the classroom is also a lifelong commitment that reflects the continuous discovery process. Thus, Roger's (1983) advice to teachers on being real in the classroom is as follows:

- "Be alive in the classroom.
- Do not close your experiential door because you are in the classroom...Of course, some things are inappropriate for students to disclose, but most experiences are.
- Allow the students to know you. If you hold up a facade, the students will sense it, and optimal learning will not occur."

Qualities That Will Facilitate Freedom in the Classroom

In his book Freedom to Learn (1983), Rogers addressed three qualities needed to facilitate classroom freedom.

The three qualities are as follows:

- **Realness in the learning facilitator**: Rogers believes this is the most crucial and needed quality. When the teacher, the facilitator, is a real person, being what he or she truly is, and engaging in a "personal" relationship with the learner without a facade, the teacher will be increasingly more effective in providing an environment conducive to optimal learning.

- **Prizing, acceptance, and trust**: When a teacher practices the true meaning of "prizing," the teacher promotes and encourages whole-person learning. This quality emphasizes trust and belief that students (s) can learn and teach.

- **Empathic understanding** refers to the teacher's ability to accurately understand the student's phenomenal field. That is, the teacher understands the student's internal

reactions and is sensitive to how the education and learning process appears and feels to the student.

22.4 - Conclusion

Carl Rogers' vision for education transcends traditional paradigms, advocating for a dynamic and student-centric approach. By embracing student-centred learning, educators can nurture independent thinkers capable of addressing real-world challenges. Rogers' principles of a fully functioning person further underscore the holistic nature of learning, emphasizing openness, freedom of choice, creativity, and a rich, full life. As we explore Rogers' insights into teaching, learning, and the facilitator's role, it becomes evident that his humanistic ideals provide a transformative blueprint for creating meaningful educational experiences. In pursuing self-discovery, lifelong learning, and genuine human connection, Rogers' teachings inspire educators to foster environments that truly empower and prepare students for a future of unknown possibilities.

Distant Learning (A)

23

Objectives :

- To explain the concept of distance learning and its key components, including the physical separation of teachers and students, and the use of technology to facilitate communication.

- To discuss the role of distance learning in catering to nontraditional students, such as full-time workers, military personnel, and individuals in remote areas.

- To describe the influence of behaviorism and constructivism on the development of educational technology, focusing on the work of John B. Watson, B.F. Skinner, John Dewey, and Jean Piaget.

-To explore the evolution of computer networking and how the Internet revolutionized distance education by enabling the development of online courses and digital communication tools

23.1 Definition

Distance learning is a form of education in which the main elements include the **physical separation** of teachers and students during instruction and the use of various technologies to facilitate student-teacher and student-student communication. Distance learning traditionally has focused on nontraditional students, such as full-time workers, military personnel, and nonresidents or individuals in remote regions who cannot attend classroom lectures. However, distance learning has become an established part of the educational world, with trends pointing to ongoing growth. In U.S. higher education alone, more than 5.6 million university students were enrolled in at least one online course in the autumn of 2009, up from 1.6 million in 2002. Students of all ages worldwide were forced into distance learning in early 2020 once the

global coronavirus pandemic resulted in the widespread closure of many schools. Videoconferencing software such as Zoom gained greatly from this development. Zoom became one of the most popular services, one of the most downloaded applications worldwide, and a household word. The relationship between teaching and the student-teacher was fundamentally changed.

23.2 Early educational theories and technologies

23.2.1Behaviourism and constructivism

During the first half of the 20th century, educational technology in the United States was heavily influenced by two developing schools of educational philosophy. Behaviourism, led by the American psychologist John B. Watson and later by B.F. Skinner discounted all subjective mental phenomena (e.g., emotions and mental images) in favour of objective and measurable behaviour. The constructive approach arose from ideas on progressive education advanced by the American philosopher John Dewey and others, who emphasized the education of the "whole child" to achieve intellectual, physical, and emotional growth and argued that learning is best accomplished by having children perform tasks rather than memorize facts. Constructivism, whose leading figure was the French developmental psychologist Jean Piaget, asserted that learning arises from building mental models based on experience. These theories led to different classroom media techniques, with behaviourism concentrating on altering student behaviour and constructivism focusing on process- and experience-based learning.

23.3 Technological aides to education

One of the first technological aids to education was the lantern slide (e.g., the Linnebach lantern), which was used in the 19th century in chautauqua classes and lyceum schools for adults and travelling public-lecture tent shows throughout the

world to project images on any convenient surface; such visual aides proved particularly useful in educating semiliterate audiences. By the start of the 20th century, learning theories had begun concentrating on visual approaches to instruction, in contrast to the oral recitation practices that still dominated traditional classrooms.

The first significant technological innovation was made by the American inventor Thomas Edison, who devised the tinfoil phonograph in 1877. This device was made possible for first-language laboratories (with audio or audiovisual devices for language learning). After World War I, university-owned radio stations became commonplace in the United States, with more than 200 broadcasting recorded educational programs by 1936.

Edison was also one of the first to produce films for the classroom. Many colleges and universities experimented with educational film production before World War I, and training films were used extensively during the war to educate a diverse and often illiterate population of soldiers on various topics, from fighting techniques to personal hygiene. Improvements in filmmaking, particularly the ability to produce "talkies," were used just before and during World War II for technical training and propaganda purposes. While the most artistically acclaimed propaganda production may have been *Triumph of the Will* (1935), one of a series of films made by Leni Riefenstahl during the 1930s for the German Nazi government, similar films were produced by all the major belligerents. In the United States, the army commissioned Hollywood film director Frank Capra to produce seven films, the widely acclaimed series *Why We Fight* (1942–45), to educate American soldiers on what was at stake.

Instructional television courses began to be developed in the 1950s, first at the University of Iowa. By the 1970s, communities and colleges all across the United States had created courses for broadcast on local television stations. Various experiments in computer-based education also began in the 1950s, such as programmed or computer-assisted instruction, in which computers present learning materials consisting of text, audio, and video and evaluate students' progress. Much of the early research was conducted at IBM, where the latest theories in cognitive science were incorporated into the application of educational technology. The next major advancement in educational technology came with the linking of computers through the Internet, which enabled the development of modern distance learning.

23.4 Practice

Group work (Based on the previous text)

Divide the class into 5 groups

Comprehension Questions:

1. What role did the lantern slide play in developing educational technology in the 19th century?
2. How did Thomas Edison contribute to the development of language laboratories?
3. How did World War I and World War II influence the use of films for educational purposes?
4. What were some early experiments with educational television, and where did they occur?

5. How did IBM contribute to the advancement of computer-based education in the 1950s?

Analytical Questions:

1. How did the shift from oral recitation to visual approaches in the 20th century impact traditional classroom teaching methods?
2. Compare and contrast the use of radio stations and films in education during the early 20th century. Which medium do you think had a greater influence, and why?
3. Analyze how advancements in filmmaking technology, such as the introduction of “talkies,” changed the role of films in education and propaganda.
4. How did early educational technology experiments shape modern distance learning through the Internet?

Critical Thinking Questions:

1. Why do you think visual aids, like the Linnebach lantern, were particularly useful for educating semi-literate audiences in the 19th century?
2. What might have been the educational and social impacts of using films like "Why We Fight" and "Triumph of the Will" during times of war?
3. How do you think integrating computers and the Internet transformed education, compared to earlier technological innovations such as radio and film?

Reflection Questions:

1. What was education's most significant technological advancement during the 20th century, and why?

2. How do you see the role of educational technology evolving in the future based on the historical trends discussed?

Distant Learning (B)

24

Objectives :

- To analyze the development of distance learning from its origins to the widespread adoption of web-based courses.
- To define web-based courses and understand their structure and function in distance education.

- To examine Different Types of Distance Learning Platforms and Tools

- To differentiate Between Synchronous and Asynchronous Learning

24.1Modern distance learning

24.1.1 Web-based courses

By the beginning of the 21st century, more than half of all two-year and four-year degree-granting institutions of higher education in the United States offered distance education courses, primarily through the Internet. With more than 100,000 different online courses, about one-quarter of American students took at least one such course each term. Common target populations for distance learning include professionals seeking recertification, workers updating employment skills, individuals with disabilities, and active military personnel. Although the theoretical trend beginning in the 1990s seemed to be toward a stronger reliance on video, audio, and other multimedia, in practice, most successful programs have predominately utilized electronic texts and simple text-based communications. The reasons for this are partly practical—individual instructors often bear the burden of producing multimedia—but also reflect an evolving understanding of the central benefits of distance learning. It is now seen as a way of facilitating communication between teachers and students, as well as between students, by removing the time constraints associated with sharing

information in traditional classrooms or during instructors' office hours. Similarly, self-paced software educational systems, though still used for certain narrow types of training, have limited flexibility in responding and adapting to individual students, who typically demand some interaction with other humans in formal educational settings.

Modern distance learning courses employ Web-based course-management systems that incorporate digital reading materials, podcasts (recorded sessions for electronic listening or viewing at the student's leisure), e-mail, threaded (linked) discussion forums, chat rooms, and test-taking functionality in virtual (computer-simulated) classrooms. Both proprietary and open-source systems are common. Although most systems are generally asynchronous, allowing students access to most features whenever they wish, synchronous technologies involving live video, audio, and shared access to electronic documents at scheduled times are also used. Shared social spaces in the form of blogs, wikis (Web sites that all classroom participants can modify), and collaboratively edited documents are also used in educational settings but to a lesser degree than similar spaces available on the Internet for socializing.

24.2 Means of Distant Learning

Distance learning, also known as online or remote education, involves various means and methods that allow students to access educational content and engage in learning without being physically present in a traditional classroom. Below are some of the most common and effective means of distance learning:

24.2.1 Learning Management Systems (LMS)

- **Examples:** Moodle, Blackboard, Canvas, Google Classroom

- **Description:** LMS platforms provide a central hub where educators can upload course materials, assignments, and quizzes and facilitate discussions. These systems also enable communication between students and instructors through forums and announcements.
- **Advantages:** Centralized learning platform, easy access to content, grading tools, and communication channels.

24.2.2. Video Conferencing Tools

- **Examples:** Zoom, Microsoft Teams, Google Meet
- **Description:** Video conferencing tools allow for real-time virtual classes where instructors and students can interact face-to-face through video. This method replicates the traditional classroom setting, offering live lectures, group discussions, and presentations.
- **Advantages:** Real-time interaction, immediate feedback, and collaborative learning.

24.2.3. Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs)

- **Examples:** Coursera, edX, Udacity, FutureLearn
- **Description:** MOOCs offer various free or low-cost online courses from universities and institutions worldwide. These platforms usually provide video lectures, reading materials, and assessments that students can complete independently.
- **Advantages:** Open access, flexibility, a wide variety of subjects, often self-paced learning.

24.2.4 E-Learning Platforms

- **Examples:** Udemy, Khan Academy, LinkedIn Learning
- **Description:** These platforms provide pre-recorded lessons, video tutorials, quizzes, and assignments across various subjects and skill sets. They often cater to both academic and professional development needs.
- **Advantages:** Flexible schedules, self-paced learning, and a broad selection of topics.

24.2.5 Open Educational Resources (OERs)

- **Examples:** MIT OpenCourseWare, OpenStax, Khan Academy
- **Description:** OERs include freely accessible, openly licensed teaching and learning materials. These can range from textbooks to full course modules available online.
- **Advantages:** Free or low-cost, widely accessible, and adaptable for different contexts.

24.2.6 Educational Podcasts and Webinars

- **Examples:** TED Talks, Harvard Extension School Webinars
- **Description:** Podcasts and webinars are often used to deliver lectures or conduct discussions on specific educational topics. They can be live or pre-recorded and typically feature experts in the field.
- **Advantages:** Flexible learning, often available on-demand and accessible via mobile devices.

24.2.7 Synchronous and Asynchronous Courses

- **Synchronous Learning:**
    - It involves real-time online classes with set schedules where students attend live sessions via video conferencing or other platforms.
    - **Advantages:** Real-time engagement and immediate interaction with peers and instructors.
- **Asynchronous Learning:**
    - In this method, students access pre-recorded lectures and materials at their convenience and submit assignments within deadlines.
    - **Advantages:** Flexibility, allowing students to work at their own pace and on their schedule.

24.2.8 Virtual Classrooms and Simulations

- **Examples:** AltspaceVR, Second Life, Google Expeditions
- **Description:** Virtual environments allow students to interact in a simulated online classroom, where they can attend lessons, collaborate with peers, and engage in interactive activities. It is especially useful for practical subjects like science and engineering.
- **Advantages:** Immersive learning experience simulations provide practical hands-on experience in a virtual environment.

24.2.9 Mobile Learning (M-Learning)

- **Examples:** Duolingo, BYJU's, Google Classroom mobile app

- **Description:** mLearning refers to education through smartphones, tablets, or other mobile devices. Apps and mobile-optimized platforms allow students to learn on the go, access content, and complete assignments via their phones.
- **Advantages:** On-the-go learning is accessible anytime and anywhere and is ideal for informal and formal learning.

24.2.10 Social Media Platforms for Learning

- **Examples:** Facebook Groups, WhatsApp, Telegram, YouTube
- **Description:** Social media platforms can be used for group discussions, collaborative projects, and content sharing. Instructors often use Facebook Groups or WhatsApp to maintain engagement, while YouTube channels provide tutorials and educational videos.
- **Advantages:** Easy communication, wide accessibility, and informal learning networks.

24.2.11Email and Discussion Forums

- **Description:** Email and forums allow for text-based communication between students and instructors. Students can ask questions, engage in discussions, and submit assignments through these channels.
- **Advantages:** Asynchronous interaction, clear record of communication, and widespread accessibility.

24.2.12. Cloud-Based File Sharing and Collaboration

- **Examples:** Google Drive, Dropbox, OneDrive

- **Description:** Cloud storage services enable students and instructors to share files, collaborate on projects, and submit assignments in a remote learning environment.

24.3 Practice

Here is a list of synchronous learning- Identify the irrelevant items.

1. **Real-time interaction** between students and instructors.
2. **I scheduled classes or sessions** at specific times.
3. **Immediate feedback** from instructors during class.
4. **Collaborative learning** through live discussions, group work, and activities.
5. **Use video conferencing tools** (e.g., Zoom, Microsoft Teams, Google Meet).
6. **Live participation** in polls, quizzes, and breakout room discussions.
7. **Attendance tracking** is often required to ensure participation.
8. **Real-time screen sharing** and presentations by instructors.
9. **It has enhanced social learning** through peer-to-peer interaction.
10. **Requires a stable internet connection** to participate in live sessions.
11. **Immediate grading of assignments** by AI tools.
12. **Live lectures are typically unrecorded**, so students cannot access them later.
13. **Instructors can change lesson content dynamically** based on student feedback and participation.
14. **Group projects are not possible** in this format.
15. **Higher engagement and motivation** due to the live nature of the sessions.
16. **Must be present in a physical classroom to attend**.
17. **Allows students to ask questions and receive answers in real-time**.

Conclusion

This handout on Educational Psychology provides a comprehensive and structured exploration of the key psychological theories and principles that shape teaching and learning processes**.** Designed for Master 1 students in Didactics and Applied Languages**,** it serves as both a theoretical foundation and **a** practical guide **to** understanding how students acquire knowledge, develop skills, and interact within educational settings**.**

By covering major learning theories—such as behaviourism, cognitivism, constructivism, social learning, and attachment theory—this resource enables future educators to analyze, compare, and apply different psychological perspectives to real-world classroom scenarios. Integrating practical applications, reflective activities, and case studies further ensures students can translate theory into effective teaching practices**.**

The document highlights the importance of:
- Student-Centered Learning – Encouraging active participation and engagement.
- Cognitive and Emotional Development – Understanding how memory, motivation, and self-regulation influence learning.
- Classroom Management and Pedagogical Strategies – Applying psychology to create inclusive and effective learning environments.
- Teacher-Student Interaction – Recognizing the role of social and emotional factors in academic success.

This handout equips students with the tools to become reflective, adaptive, and research-informed educators by bridging the gap between psychological research and

educational practice. It fosters critical thinking, self-regulated learning, and evidence-based decision-making, ultimately contributing to developing a more dynamic, inclusive, and effective educational system.

As education continues to evolve with technological advancements, neuroscience, and pedagogy advancements, educational psychology remains an essential discipline for understanding and improving learning outcomes. By mastering the concepts in this handout, students will be better prepared to adapt to modern educational challenges, support diverse learners, and enhance the overall teaching and learning experience in various educational contexts.

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