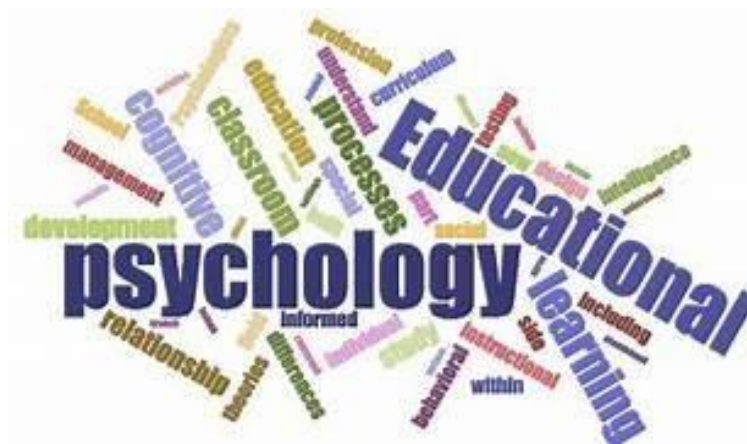


LEVEL: MASTER II (LINGUISTICS)

EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

COURSE BOOK



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Course Description

The course of Educational Psychology is designed to introduce psychological principles, theories, and methodologies to issues of teaching and learning. It is planned for future teachers who wish to reflect about the teaching and learning process. The Content includes the study of learning theories as well as cognitive, emotional, and social learning processes that underlie education and human development. It is, in fact, designed to address practical concerns of classroom teaching practice as well as theoretical issues associated with teaching, including: how to correctly interpret and describe basic notions within the field of didactics, various didactical theories, trends and models; learning how to create and analyze a syllabus; knowing how to design a lesson plan using contemporary teaching strategies.

Course Objectives

At the end of the course, students are expected to define “Educational Psychology” and discuss the importance of the psychology to the development of a student’s self- esteem, motivation, and learning styles. They are expected to be able to compare and contrast the various factors that cognitive, behavioral, and humanistic theorists believe influence the learning process. Furthermore, they should be able to apply learning theories and models to classroom situations. Also, they should be able to describe how students construct knowledge, acquire skills, and develop habits. In addition, they are expected to identify and discuss the major components and techniques of classroom planning, management and instruction and how these components and techniques address individual differences. Finally, they also are assumed to apply objective knowledge of student development factors when making instructional decisions.

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CHAPTER I: AN INTRODUCTION TO EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

1. EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY DEFINITION

As a discipline, educational psychology has been around for more than a century, as early as the 1880s. It includes two disciplines: education and psychology. Clifford (1984) argues that combining education and psychology is appropriate. He defines educational psychology as applying the methods of psychology to studying the process of education. Others define educational psychology as knowledge gained from psychology and applied to the classroom (Grinder, 1981). Therefore, educational psychologists are often defined as those who apply the principles of psychology to education and who devote their professional lives to understanding learners, the learning process, and the instructional strategies that enhance learning.

Educational psychologists perform many different roles. Some design curriculum content and evaluate the impact of curriculum changes on student behavior and academic achievement; others are involved with computer-managed and computer-assisted instruction in the classroom. Many educational psychologists teach in university and college teacher-preparation programs.

Their responsibilities are typically divided among teaching and researching the variables determining:

- the effectiveness of teaching methodologies
- how students learn
- how teachers can effectively interact and communicate with students, families, and other teachers
- how best to teach others.

The “scientific methodologies” that educational psychologists have used to answer these complex questions have been fruitful and, on many issues, answers are still being pursued.

Research in educational psychology has been ongoing for generations and, as a result, an accumulated knowledge base (or body of knowledge concerning the ‘science’ of teaching and

learning) has been established (Biddle, Good, & Goodson, 1996; Christensen, 1996). This knowledge base includes such factors as:

- the environmental and cultural influences on the learner
- the cognitive functioning of students
- managing the classroom
- how students learn, and how all of these variables relate to teachers and teaching.

There is spirited debate about how much teaching can be based on *science* versus how much of it is *art*. As a science, educational psychology's aim is to provide you with research knowledge that you can effectively apply to teaching situations. But scientific knowledge alone cannot inform you about all of the teaching situations that you will encounter, and this is where educational psychology is an art. You will need to make some important judgments in the classroom based on your personal skills and experiences as well as the accumulated wisdom of other teachers.

2. HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

The field of educational psychology was founded by several pioneers in psychology just before the start of the twentieth century.

2.1 William James (1842–1910)

One of those pioneers was William James (1842–1910). Soon after launching the first psychology textbook, *Principles of Psychology* (1890), he gave a series of lectures called *Talks to Teachers* in which he discussed the applications of psychology to educating children. James argued that laboratory psychology experiments often can't tell us how to effectively teach children. He argued for the importance of observing teaching and learning in classrooms for improving education. One of his recommendations was to start lessons at a point just beyond the child's level of knowledge and understanding, in order to stretch the child's mind.

2.2 John Dewey (1859–1952)

A second major figure in shaping the field of educational psychology was John Dewey (1859–1952), who became a driving force in the practical application of psychology. Dewey established the first major educational psychology laboratory in the United States, at the University of Chicago in 1894.

We owe many important ideas to John Dewey.

- First, we owe to him the view of the child as an active learner. Before Dewey it was believed that children should sit quietly in their seats and passively learn in a rote manner. In contrast, Dewey believed that children learn best by doing.
- Second, we owe to Dewey the idea that education should focus on the whole child and emphasize the child's adaptation to the environment. Dewey believed that children should not be narrowly educated in academic topics but should learn how to think and adapt to a world outside school. He especially thought that children should learn how to be **reflective problem solvers**.
- Third, we owe to Dewey the belief that all children deserve to have a competent education. This democratic ideal was not in place at the beginning of Dewey's career in the latter part of the nineteenth century, when education was reserved for a small portion of children, many of whom were boys from wealthy families. Dewey was one of the influential psychologist–educators who pushed for a competent education for all children—girls and boys, as well as children from different socioeconomic and ethnic groups.

3. What is the nature of teaching?

Teaching is multidimensional. It involves many different domains including cognitive/academic, social, affective, moral, and health.

- Teaching involves uncertainty. It is difficult to predict what effect a given action will have on a student. Teachers, therefore, need a tolerance for uncertainty and unpredictability.
- Teaching involves social and ethical matters.
- Teaching involves acknowledging students' diverse abilities and backgrounds.

4. What is effective teaching?

- Some of the key characteristics of effective teachers include a sense of humour, making classes interesting, subject-matter knowledge, fairness, respect, consideration of and equal treatment for all students, and the ability to explain things clearly. Ineffective teachers tend to have boring classes, don't explain things clearly, and show favoritism toward some students.

- Subject-matter competence, the use of effective instructional strategies, goal setting, planning, classroom management, motivation, and cultural sensitivity are some of the knowledge and skills required by members of the teaching profession.
- Caring about students as individuals and learners, having a positive attitude about teaching, and self-motivation are key elements for teaching.
- Effective teaching involves life-long learning and continuous professional growth. Developing a positive self-identity, seeking advice from competent and experienced teachers, and developing and maintaining a database of resources and supports are all part of professional growth in teaching.

CHAPTER II: THE LEARNING PROCESS

1. LEARNING DEFINITION

There is no one, simple definition of learning. Learning is a complex concept that is defined differently according to the context in which it is being discussed. Psychological definitions emphasize that learning involves “ a change in behaviour or potential behaviour that occurs as a result of experience” (Smith, 1993).

- Learning is a process of progressive behaviour adaptation (Skinner, 1960).
- Learning is a process by which a person becomes changed in his behaviour through self-activity (Leagans, 1961).
- Learning is the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience (Kolb, 1984).
- Van den Ban & Hawkins (1988) defined learning as the acquiring or improving the ability to perform a behavioural pattern through experience and practice.
- Learning is any relatively permanent change in behaviour that occurs as a result of experience or practice (Weiss, 1990).
- Learning is a relatively permanent change in behaviour that results from practice (Atkinson et al, 1993).
- According to Woolfolk (1995), learning occurs when experience causes a relatively permanent change in an individual’s knowledge or behaviour

2. LEARNING THEORIES

2.1. Behaviourism

The first half of the twentieth century was dominated by a view, which saw learning as a matter of habit-formation. Influenced by the work of theoreticians such as John B. Watson, or B.F. Skinner (who based their theory in experiments carried out by the Russian psychologist Ivan Pavlov),

Behaviourists saw learning as stemming from habit formation. To them, effective learning was a matter of reinforcing good habits, while errors were seen as bad habits.

B.F. Skinner, in particular, developed a radical form of Behaviourism and posited that learning happened through a three-step reinforcement cycle. This cycle started with a stimulus,

which triggered a response in the organism (in our case, humans). If the response was correct, it was to be reinforced positively. However, if the response was incorrect, it was to be punished or negatively reinforced. Skinner based his theory in his study of rats in laboratory conditions. He invented what is known as **the Operant**

Conditioning Chamber, a maze with levers where rats and pigeons were put in order to study them. The procedure involved the animals in trying to get out of the maze by going through it. At some points, there were levers, which the animals were supposed to press. If they pressed the right levers they got food (positive reinforcement), but if the lever they pressed was the wrong one they received an electric shock (negative reinforcement). With time, animals learned to press the correct levers and stay away from the ones that would give them no food or an electric shock.

The influence of behaviourism is still felt in many areas of education. For example, the use of the blackboard/whiteboard, the way classrooms are set up with chairs facing the front of the class, the use of questions and answers to review materials, multiple choice and true/false questions, and, in language teaching, repetition drills are all products of Behaviorism. Skinner understood language as a series of habits to be acquired. He denied that the mind or internal cognitive processes could have any kind of role in learning. To him, because internal mental processes could not be observed, they were rendered ineffective to analyze. Instead, he posited, we should focus on the overt, observable effect of those mental states and study them as proof of learning. Skinner's theory of learning, and particularly language learning, was laid out in a book that became the main reference for educators around the world. In 1957, he published *Verbal Behavior* through the US-based Copley Publishing Group. While this book was the peak of his research and a synthesis of his life's work, it would also be his downfall.

2.2. Chomsky's contributions

In 1959, Noam Chomsky, a linguist at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology (MIT) published a review of Skinner's *Verbal Behavior* in which he discredits behaviourist theory and advances a new understanding of how language is learned.

According to Chomsky, behaviorism cannot account for the fact that children produce original sentences they have never heard before or above and beyond any language they have been exposed to before. If, as Skinner proposed, stimuli are the reason why responses are

given, how is it possible for children to produce new language formations without ever having received that stimulus?

To Chomsky, there should be something else, beyond overt behaviour that accounts for the capacity to learn and use language. In his view, we are born with a predisposition to learn and use language. Hence, his view of language and language learning is termed “innatism.” We are innately endowed with the power of language learning. However, it should be noted that we are not born with a language. Instead, our mind has the innate capacity to hypothesize and discover rules based on the language we have received. This ability to create new language depends on an intuitive knowledge of rules. Given that children are exposed to “messy” language in use, it is notable that with some trial and error and, in a relatively short period of time, children are able to discover rules of language, which are inevitably correct. This realization led Chomsky to hypothesise about the existence of an innate Language Acquisition Device (L.A.D.) responsible for supporting the existence of a Universal Grammar (U.G.). This UG shapes all human languages in much the same way as we are born with the ability to learn to run.

Alongside these concepts, Chomsky also marked a clear difference between knowledge of the language (which he calls “competence”) and the actual use of that knowledge for communication (which he calls “performance”). To Chomsky, UG is primarily concerned with competence; hence the deep structure of any language is made up of very few elements that can be combined in various forms to express different meanings at the performance level. By putting the intentional element in his theory, Chomsky managed to override behaviorist theory completely. Our linguistic competence allows us to create completely original sentences we have never heard before such as “The small pink elephant spread its wing and dove into the heights of the ocean.”

While the sentence is completely grammatical, it is totally meaningless. Unless we are intentionally using these words to create poetical images, it is clear that language use is much more than just responding to outside stimuli.

Chomsky's ideas took the world of language learning by storm, and although he based his research only on L1 acquisition and explicitly claimed that he was “frankly, rather skeptical about the significance, for teaching languages, of such insights and understandings, as have

been attained in linguistics” (Chomsky, 1966: 152), his ideas also had an impact on L2 learning and teaching.

Accepting the theory of UG implies, for L2 learning, that learners have their own transitional form of their language, which is internally developing and follows an in-built learning path. This is called “interlanguage.” Interlanguage is a theory created by S.P. Corder (1967), which regards the learner's L2 as a system in its own right – a system with its own grammar, lexis and pronunciation. One difference is that the learner's system has a much smaller lexicon (vocabulary) than the native speaker's – not only of words, but crucially of multi-word lexical items such as collocations and fixed expressions. Perhaps more interesting and complex are the differences in grammatical systems. The learner's system has simpler and fewer rules. For example, the grammatical system of a beginner student of English may contain the rule 'all verbs for all persons and all time references use the base form'. Of course this rule is never explicitly expressed but can be inferred from the student's output.

The learner's grammatical system may also be influenced by rules from their L1, a theory generally known as “L1 interference” and which affects all language systems: syntax, lexis, phonology and pragmatics.

One way of looking at Interlanguage is as a kind of learner dialect. At lower levels this dialect is simple, with a restricted lexicon, few grammatical rules and a pronunciation system borrowed from their L1. At higher levels, this dialect is more similar to the target language with a large lexicon, a grammatical system similar to that of native speakers and native-like pronunciation. Interlanguage is therefore a continuum with the learners' language gradually moving towards that of a native speaker.

Chomsky's ideas have given rise to many pervasive influences felt today in language teaching. One such influence is the marked emphasis on the explicit teaching of grammar present in many textbooks and classes. Also, the whole area of feedback to students has been affected, with many proponents suggesting that indirect correction is better than direct correction since we are dealing with students' interlanguage.

2.3. Constructivism

Chomsky's ideas need to be understood within the frame of a **theory of learning**, which challenged Behaviorism and proposed a radically different view of learning and teaching. This

theory is called Constructivism and it originated in the work of epistemologist Jean Piaget. Piaget was interested in **discovering the origin of knowledge** or, in other words, **how we come to know the world**.

Piaget's theory relies heavily on a cognitive view of the processes involved in learning. He posited that the development of cognitive structures is a matter of biological regulation. He carried out his studies with children and adolescents and concluded that learning is a matter of two interrelated processes: **assimilation and accommodation**. Assimilation is the taking of new information or experiences and incorporating them into our existing “knowledge bank” or schemata. Encountering this new information causes an imbalance in our schemata. Hence, through an experiential process we progressively accommodate this new knowledge or experience so as to reestablish balance in our cognition through a process called accommodation. This process entails changing our existing schemata or ideas, as a consequence of new knowledge or experience.

Piaget views these processes as occurring throughout an individual's lives with individuals being in a constant search for equilibration. However, he considers that there needs to exist a certain biological predisposition for an individual to be able to engage in the process of assimilation.

However, the best-known part of Piaget's theory is that of the stages of development. He distinguished the following stages with their respective characteristics:

2.3.1. Sensorimotor stage (birth to 2 years of age)

Children experience the world through their five senses. During this stage children are very egocentric, i.e. they cannot perceive the world through others' points of view. During this stage, children move from simple reflexes to progressively developing control over their senses.

2.3.2. Preoperational stage (2 to 7 years of age)

During this stage, motor skills are developed. Children are still egocentric, but this tendency decreases as they become older and begin to take perspective. Children's **imagination is at its peak** during this period but **they cannot think logically**, yet.

2.3.3. Concrete operational stage (7 to 11 years of age)

During this stage, children **begin to think logically** if presented with practical, concrete aids. They are also **able to “decenter,”** that is to say, to perceive the world from others' point of view. **The egocentric phase disappears.**

2.3.4. Formal operational stage (11 to 16 years of age and onwards)

It is during this stage that **children develop their abstract thinking** and are fully capable of using logical thinking. Egocentrism has disappeared and is replaced by a feeling of belonging to groups.

Piaget's ideas about learning and development have left an important imprint in education. Methodologies, such as **Active Learning and Discovery Learning**, stem from his conceptualization of development as a precursor of learning. His ideas became really potent during the second half of the twentieth century and spurred the “student centered” movement in Pedagogy.

We should bear in mind that Piaget's education came mostly from the natural sciences. Hence, his thinking is highly typological. The description of human development in stages is a clear example of this. Although he did not directly address the process of language acquisition, he did consider it a fundamental cognitive process, which aids both development and learning. In the field of linguistics, his ideas were used as the basis for models of language acquisition such as Krashen's Input Hypothesis.

3. STEPHEN KRASHEN

Stephen Krashen is a linguist and researcher. During the late 1970s and early 1980s he developed a model of language acquisition, which borrows heavily from the work of Chomsky and Piaget and is also influenced by the work of the Russian psychologist Lev S. Vygotsky. Krashen's work posits that language is acquired in a natural way. He makes a parallelism between the learning of the first language and the learning of the second language. His theory of language acquisition is built around a series of hypotheses. These hypotheses speculate about the process of language development taking examples from the interaction between children and their caretakers and how this interaction affects the way in which children develop their language. His five hypotheses are the following:

3.1. Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis

Krashen sustains that there are two ways in which we develop language skills. We can do it in a natural way, through sustained exposure to the language and an emphasis on comprehension or through conscious focus on language features. He calls the first process “language acquisition” and in his theory, it is the stronger of the two in that it has supposedly more lasting effect than the second process. The second process involves the learner consciously working, studying the different systems and committing that information to memory. Krashen calls this process “language learning” and he claims that it is less effective than language acquisition.

3.2. Monitor hypothesis

When we acquire language we are able to do so because we possess an internal mechanism, which allows us, as our process of acquisition develops, to identify correct and incorrect statements. This can be equated with Chomsky's L.A.D. in that it is an innate capacity inherent to all humans. However, there are different kinds of “monitor users.” Krashen describes **monitor over users** as those speakers who are constantly assessing and planning what they are going to say. In this scenario, their expression is slow and cumbersome.

In contrast, there can be **monitor under users**, who are very fluent but who are very inaccurate in their use of the language. Krashen assumes that both these situations can be remedied if we focus on acquisition more than learning, since acquisition is supposed to foster **optimal monitor use: subconscious intuitive knowledge of correctness.**

3.3. Input hypothesis

According to Krashen, we understand input, which is comprehensible, that is to say, input which is only slightly above our current level of understanding. He posits the formula $i+1$ to represent comprehensible input. In this formula, “i” stands for input, or language the learner is exposed to. The “+1” element in the formula refers to the difference between what learners actually know and what they can understand but do not yet know. This relates heavily to the next hypothesis: Natural Order.

3.4. NATURAL ORDER HYPOTHESIS

In Krashen's model, language acquisition occurs through predictable stages and following a predictable path, which is not affected by direct instruction. In other words, teachers may teach students a new grammar item but, if it is not the one specified in the sequence of acquisition, it will not be learned. In this sense, he considers that all humans go through the same predictable path in acquiring new syntactic features of the target language and he offers a list of these features for English. In his elaboration of the

“i+1” formula, the “+1” refers to the next syntactic feature in his path to acquisition. This conceptualization borrows heavily from Piaget's idea of readiness for learning.

3.5. Affective filter hypothesis

In this final hypothesis, Krashen attempts to explain why different learners exposed to the same comprehensible input show different levels of acquisition of that input. The affective filter is a kind of barrier to acquisition, which goes up when the student is tense, angry, threatened, over-faced or just has a negative attitude to the language. The filter stays down when the learner is relaxed and well motivated. When the filter is “up” the learner cannot pay attention to the learning because he or she is uncomfortable. However, when the filter is “down” the learner is able to focus on meaning and the language learning experience at hand.

4. Lev S. Vygotsky

No analysis of learning theory or language learning would be complete without addressing the contributions of Lev S. Vygotsky. Working at the same time as Piaget, and also adopting the view that language acquisition was driven by external factors rather than being led by an innate acquisition device, Lev Vygotsky believed both first and second languages are learned via social interaction. Learning a language requires *mediation* by a more able party (such as a parent, teacher or more knowledgeable peer) who provides a supportive framework (or 'a mediated learning experience') for the learner until the new knowledge is *appropriated*, at which point learning has occurred and the mediation can be removed.

Learning is therefore seen as a 'joint enterprise' involving two or more people, so that whereas learners are unable to function independently, they can function successfully if given assistance. In devising this 'sociocultural learning' theory, Vygotsky referred to a learner's

Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), this being the difference between what learners can do by themselves and what they can do with the help of others.

Vygotsky's theory of learning has also other important ramifications. He explained that all forms of human cognition happen first as external forms of social mediation and become internalized through interaction with others and the use of psychological tools. To him, language is one of the most important of these tools. To him, language and thought start as two separate processes in the child. However, through **socialization**, the child progressively acquires control over the language (through interaction with parents, caretakers and other speakers) so that it becomes a tool for thinking. Once the child is able to “think in words” his thinking develops in such a way that the more he thinks, the more his language also develops. **So, language is both a tool for and a product of thinking.**

Contrary to Piaget's view, Vygotsky emphasized that in order for development to occur, learning must precede it. He cites examples of children of different ages playing together in which a child who is not supposedly “organically ready” to do something learns how to do it through the mediation of a play partner who can.

Unfortunately, Vygotsky died very young in 1936 and left few writings (mostly transcripts from his lectures). Also, his ideas were not brought to the Western world until the late 1970s and that is why we have only recently begun exploring his theory and its influence for language learning.

Activity

Think of something you have learnt which involved previous learning, developing, extending and applying your learning in new ways. Try to break the skill down into the steps you followed to achieve your learning. Eg: learning a second language, learning a craft, learning to cook.-

CHAPTER III: THEORIES OF DEVELOPMENT

1. PIAGETIAN THEORY OF DEVELOPMENT

The term development refers to how people grow, adapt, and change over the course of their lifetimes, through physical development, personality development, socioemotional development, cognitive development (thinking), and language development. This chapter presents four major theories of human development that are widely accepted: Jean Piaget's theories of cognitive and moral development, Lev Vygotsky's theory of cognitive development, Erik Erikson's theory of personal and social development

1.1. Issues of Development

Two central issues have been debated for decades among developmental psychologists. One relates to the degree to which development is affected by experience, and the other to the question of whether development proceeds in stages.

Nature-Nurture Controversy Is development predetermined at birth, by heredity and biological factors, or is it affected by experience and other environmental factors? Today, most developmental psychologists (e.g., Berk, 2003; Berlz, Bee, & Boyd, 2003; Cook & Cook, 2005; Fabes & Martin, 2000) believe that nature and nurture combine to influence development, with biological factors playing a stronger role, some aspects, such as physical development, and environmental factors playing a stronger role in others, such as moral development.

1.2. Piaget view of cognitive development

Piaget explored both why and how mental abilities change over time. For Piaget, development depends in large part on the child's manipulation of and active interaction with the environment. In Piaget's view, knowledge comes from action (see Langer & IWlen, 1998; Wadsworth, 1996). Piaget's theory of **cognitive development** proposes that a child's intellect, or cognitive abilities, progresses through four distinct stages. Each stage is characterized by the emergence of new abilities and ways of processing information.

1.2.1. How development occurs

1.2.1.1. *Schemes*

Piaget believed that all children are born with an innate tendency to interact with and make sense of their environments. He referred to the basic ways of organizing and processing information as cognitive structures. Young children demonstrate patterns of behavior or thinking, called schemes, which older children and adults also use in dealing with objects in the world.

- **Adaptation** The process of adjusting schemes in response to the environment by means of assimilation and accommodation.
- **Assimilation** , Understanding new experiences in terms of existing schemes.
- **Accommodation** Modifying existing schemes to fit new situations.
- **Equilibration** The process of restoring balance between present understanding and new experiences.

1.2.1.2. *Piaget's Stages of Development*

Piaget divided the cognitive development of children and adolescents into four stages:

'Sensorimotor, preoperational, concrete operational, and formal operational. He believed that all children pass through these stages in this order and that no child can skip a stage, although different children pass through the stages at somewhat different rates.

Table 2.1 Piaget's Stages of Cognitive Development		
People progress through four stages of cognitive development between birth and adulthood, according to Jean Piaget. Each stage is marked by the emergence of new intellectual abilities that allow people to understand the world in increasingly complex ways.		
Stage	Approximate Ages	Major Accomplishments
Sensorimotor	Birth to 2 years	Formation of concept of "object permanence" and gradual progression from reflexive behavior to goal-directed behavior.
Preoperational	2 to 7 years	Development of the ability to use symbols to represent objects in the world. Thinking remains egocentric and centered.
Concrete operational	7 to 11 years	Improvement in ability to think logically. New abilities include the use of operations that are reversible. Thinking is decentered, and problem solving is less restricted by egocentrism. Abstract thinking is not possible.
Formal operational	11 years to adulthood	Abstract and purely symbolic thinking possible. Problems can be solved through the use of systematic experimentation.

- **Sensorimotor stage (birth to 2 years of age)**

Children experience the world through their five senses. During this stage children are very egocentric, i.e. they cannot perceive the world through others' points of view. During this stage, children move from simple reflexes to progressively developing control over their senses.

- **Preoperational stage (2 to 7 years of age)**

During this stage, motor skills are developed. Children are still egocentric, but this tendency decreases as they become older and begin to take perspective. Children's imagination is at its peak during this period but they cannot think logically, yet.

- **Concrete operational stage (7 to 11 years of age)**

During this stage, children begin to think logically if presented with practical, concrete aids. They are also able to “decenter,” that is to say, to perceive the world from others' point of view. The egocentric phase disappears.

- **Formal operational stage (11 to 16 years of age and onwards)**

It is during this stage that children develop their abstract thinking and are fully capable of using logical thinking. Egocentrism has disappeared and is replaced by a feeling of belonging to groups.

1.2.1.3. Educational implications of Piaget theory

Piaget's ideas about learning and development have left an important imprint in education. Methodologies, such as Active Learning and Discovery Learning, stem from his conceptualization of development as a precursor of learning. His ideas became really potent during the second half of the twentieth century and spurred the “student centered” movement in Pedagogy.

Piaget's theories have had a major impact on the theory and practice of education (Case, 1998). First, the theories focused attention on the idea of **developmentally appropriate education- an** education with environments, curriculum, materials, and instruction that are suitable for students in terms of their physical and cognitive abilities and their social and emotional needs. Piagetian theory has been influential in constructivist models of learning.

A focus on the process of children's thinking, not just its products

In addition to checking the correctness of children's answers, teachers must understand the processes children use to get to the answer. Appropriate learning experiences build on children's current level of cognitive functioning, and only when teachers appreciate children's methods of arriving at particular conclusions are they in a position to provide such **e x p e r i e n c e s**.

a) Recognition of the crucial role of children's self-initiated, active involvement in learning activities.

In a Piagetian classroom the presentation of ready-made knowledge is deemphasized, and children are encouraged to discover for themselves through spontaneous interaction with the environment. Therefore, instead of teaching didactically, teachers provide a rich variety of activities that permit children to act directly on the physical world.

b) A de-emphasis on practices aimed at making children adult like in their thinking.

Piaget referred to the question "How can we speed up development?" as "the American question." Among the many countries he visited, psychologists and educators in the United States seemed most interested in what techniques could be used to accelerate children's progress through the stages. piagetian-based educational programs accept his firm belief that premature teaching could be worse than no teaching at **all**, because it leads to superficial

c) Acceptance of individual differences in developmental progress.

Piaget's theory assumes that all children go through the same developmental sequence but that they do so at different rates. Therefore, teachers must make a special effort to arrange classroom activities for individuals and small groups of children rather than for the total class group. In addition, because individual differences are expected, assessment of children's educational progress should be made in terms of each child's own previous course of development, not in terms of normative standards provided by the performances of same-age peers.

2. VYGOTSKY'S SOCIOCULTURAL THEORY

Lev Semionovich Vygotsky was a Russian psychologist who, though a contemporary of Piaget, died in 1934. His work was not widely read in English until the 1970s. Vygotsky's work is based on two key ideas. First, he proposed that intellectual development can be understood only in terms of the historical and cultural contexts children experience. Second, he believed that development depends on the **sign systems** that individuals grow up with: the symbols that cultures create to help people think, communicate, and solve problems—for example, a culture's language, writing system, or counting system. In contrast to Piaget, Vygotsky proposed that cognitive development is strongly linked to input from others. Like Piaget, however, Vygotsky believed that the acquisition of sign systems occurs in an invariant sequence of steps that is the same for all children.

2.1 How Development Occurs

Recall that Piaget's theory suggests that development precedes learning. In other words, specific cognitive structures need to develop before certain types of learning can take place. Vygotsky's theory implies that cognitive development and the ability to use thought to control

our own actions require first mastering cultural communication systems and then learning to use these systems to regulate our own thought processes. He suggested the following steps:

2.1.1. Self-regulation

At this point, children become self-regulating, and the sign system is internalized.

- The first step in the development of self-regulation and independent thinking is learning that actions and sounds have a meaning. For example, children learn to associate certain sounds with meaning.
- The second step in developing internal structures and self-regulation involves practice. The preschooler will enter into conversations with others to master language.
- The final step involves using signs to think and solve problems without the help of others.

2.1.2. Private Speech

Private speech is a mechanism that Vygotsky emphasized for turning shared knowledge into personal knowledge. Vygotsky proposed that children incorporate the speech of others and then use that speech to help themselves solve problems. Private speech is easy to see in young children, who frequently talk to themselves, especially when faced with difficult tasks. Later, private speech becomes silent but is still very important.

2.1.3. The Zone of Proximal Development:

He believed that learning takes place when children are working within their **zone of proximal development**. Tasks within the zone of proximal development are ones that a child cannot yet do alone but could do with the assistance of more competent peers or adults. That is, the zone of proximal development describes tasks that a child has not yet learned but is capable of learning at a given time.

2.1.4. Scaffolding

- Typically, scaffolding means providing a child with a great deal of support during the early stages of learning and then diminishing support and having the child take on

increasing responsibility as soon as she or he is able. Parents use scaffolding when they teach their children to play a new game or to tie their shoes. A related concept is cognitive apprenticeship, which describes the entire process of modeling, coaching, scaffolding, and evaluation that is typically seen whenever one-to-one instruction takes place.

2.1.5. Cooperative Learning

- Vygotsky's theories support the use of cooperative learning strategies in which children work together to help one another learn. Because peers are usually operating within each others' zones of proximal development, they provide models for each other of slightly more advanced thinking. In addition, cooperative learning makes children's inner speech available to others, so they can gain insight into one another's reasoning process. Vygotsky (1978) himself recognized the value of peer interaction in moving children forward their thinking.

2.3 Classroom Applications of Vygotsky's Theory

Vygotsky's concept of the zone of proximal development is based on the idea that development is defined both by what a child can do independently what the child can do when assisted by **an** adult or more competent **peer**.

- knowing both levels of Vygotsky's zone is useful for teachers, for these levels indicate where the child is at a given moment as well as where the child is going. The zone of proximal development has several implications for teaching in the classroom.
- According to Vygotsky, for the curriculum to be developmentally appropriate, the teacher must plan activities that encompass not only what children are capable of doing on their own but what they can learn with the help of others.
- Vygotsky's theory does not mean that anything can be taught to any child. Only instruction and activities that fall within the zone promote development. Teachers can use information about both levels of Vygotsky's zone of proximal development in organizing classroom activities in the following ways:

- Instruction can be planned to provide practice in the zone of proximal development for individual children or for groups of children. For example, hints and prompts that helped children during the assessment could form the basis of instructional activities.
- Cooperative learning activities can be planned with groups of children at different levels who can help each other learn.
- Scaffolding provides hints and prompts at different levels. In scaffolding, the adult does not simplify the task, but the learner is simplified "through the graduated intervention of the teacher".

3. PSYCHOSOCIAL THEORY

As children improve their cognitive skills, they are also developing self-concepts, ways of interacting with others, and attitudes toward the world. Understanding of these personal and social developments is critical to the teacher's ability to motivate, teach, and successfully interact with students at various ages. This section focuses on a theory of personal and social development proposed by Erik Erikson, which is an adaptation of the developmental theories of the great psychiatrist Sigmund Freud. Erikson's work is often called a psychosocial theory, because it relates principles of psychological and social development.

3.1. Psychosocial theory definition

A set of principles that relates social environment to psychological development.

3.2. Stages of Psychosocial Development

Like Piaget, Erikson had no formal training in psychology, but as a young man he was trained by Freud as a psychoanalyst. Erikson hypothesized that people pass through eight psychosocial stages in their lifetimes. At each stage, there are crises or critical issues to be resolved. Most people resolve each psychosocial crisis satisfactorily and put it behind them to take on new challenges, but some people do not completely resolve these crises and must continue to deal with them later in life (Miller, 1993). For example, many adults have yet to resolve the "identity crisis" of adolescence. Table below summarizes the eight stages of life according to Erikson's theory. Each is identified by the central crisis that must be resolved.

3.2.1. Stage I: Trust versus Mistrust (Birth i 18 Months)

The goal of infancy is to develop a basic trust in the world. Erikson (1968, p. 96) defined basic trust as "an essential trustfulness of others as well as a fundamental sense of one's own trustworthiness."

This crisis has a dud nature: Infants not only have their needs met, but they also help in meeting the mother's needs. The mother or maternal figure is usually the first important person in the child's world. She is the one who must satisfy the infant's need for food and affection. If the mother is inconsistent or rejecting, she becomes a source of frustration for the infant rather than a source of pleasure.

3.2.2. Stage II: Autonomy versus Doubt (18 Months to 3 Years)

By the age of 2, most babies can walk and have learned enough about language to communicate with other people. Children no longer want to depend totally on others. Instead, they strive toward autonomy, the ability to do things for themselves. The child's desires for power and independence often clash with the desires of the parent. Erikson believes that children at this stage have the dual desire to hold on and to let go. Parents who are flexible enough to permit their children to explore freely and do things for themselves, while at the same time providing an ever-present guiding hand, encourage the establishment of a sense of autonomy. Parents who are overly restrictive and harsh give their children a sense of powerlessness and incompetence, which can lead to shame and doubt in one's abilities.

3.2.3. Stage III: Initiative versus Guilt (3 to 6 Years)

During this period, children's continually maturing motor and language skills permit them to be increasingly aggressive and vigorous in the exploration of both their social and their physical environment. Three-year-olds have a growing sense of initiative, which can be encouraged by parents, other family members, and other caregivers who permit children to run, jump, play, slide, and throw. "Being firmly convinced that he is a person on his own, the child must now find out what kind of person he may become" (Erikson, 1968, p. 115). Parents who severely punish children's attempts at initiative will make the children feel guilty about their natural urges both during this stage and later in life.

3.2.4. Stage IV: Industry versus Inferiority (6 to 12 Years)

Entry into school brings with it a huge expansion in the child's social world. Teachers and peers take on increasing importance for the child, while the influence of parents decreases. Children now want to make things. Success brings with it a sense of industry, a good feeling about oneself and one's abilities. Failure creates a negative self-image, a sense of inadequacy that may hinder future learning. And "failure" need not be real; it may be merely an inability to measure up to one's own standards or those of parents, teachers, or brothers and sisters.

3.2.5. Stage V: Identity versus Role Confusion (12 to 18 Years)

The question "Who am I?" becomes important during adolescence. To answer it, adolescents increasingly turn, away from parents and toward peer groups. Erikson believed that during adolescence the individual's rapidly changing physiology, coupled with pressures to make decisions about future education and career, creates the need to question and redefine the psychosocial identity established during the earlier stages. Adolescence is a time of change. Teenagers various experiments as they try to find out who they are and who they can be. This new sense of self, or "ego identity," is not simply the sum of the prior identifications. Rather, it is a reassembly or "an alignment of the individual's basic drives (ego) with his or her endowment (resolutions of the previous crises) and his or her opportunities (needs, skills, goals, during adolescence and approaching adulthood)" (Erikson, 1980- p.94).

3.2.6. Stage VI: Intimacy versus Isolation (Young Adulthood)

Once young people know who they are and where they are going, the stage is **set for the** sharing of their life with another. The young adult is now ready to form a new relationship of trust and intimacy with another individual, a "partner in friendship, competition, and cooperation." This relationship should enhance the identity of both partners without stifling the growth of either. The young adult who does not seek out such partnership or whose repeated tries fail may retreat into isolation.

3.2.7. Stage VII: Generativity versus Self-Absorption (Middle Adulthood)

Generativity is "the interest in establishing and guiding the next generation" (Erikson, 1980, p. 103). Typically, people attain generativity through raising their own children. However, the

crisis of this stage can also be successfully resolved through other forms of productivity and creativity, such as teaching. During this stage, people should continue to grow; if they don't, a sense of "stagnation and interpersonal impoverishment" develops, leading to self-absorption and neglecting (Erikson, 1980, p. 103).

3.2.8. Stage VIII: Integrity versus Despair (Late Adulthood)

In the final stage of psychosocial development, people look back over their lifetime and resolve their final identity crisis. Acceptance of accomplishments, failures, and ultimate limitations brings with it a sense of integrity, or wholeness; a realization that one's life has been one's own responsibility. The finality of death must also be faced and accepted. Despair can occur in those who regret the way they have led their lives or how their lives have turned out.

3.3. Implications and Criticisms of Erikson's Theory

As with Piaget's stages, not all people experience Erikson's crises to the same degree or at the same time. The age ranges stated here may represent the best times for a crisis to be resolved, but they are not the only possible times. For example, children who were born into chaotic homes that failed to give them adequate security may develop trust after being adopted or otherwise brought into a more stable environment. People whose negative school experiences gave them a sense of inferiority may find as they enter the work world that they can learn and that they do have valuable skills, a realization that may help them finally to resolve the industry versus inferiority crisis that others resolved in their elementary school years. Erikson's theory emphasizes the role of the environment, both in causing the crises and in determining how they will be resolved. The stages of personal and social development are played out in constant interactions with others and with society as a whole. During the first three stages the interactions are primarily with parents and other family members, but the school plays a central role for most children in Stage IV (industry versus inferiority) and Stage V (identity versus role confusion).

Erikson's theory describes the basic issues that people confront as they go through life. However, his theory has been criticized because it does not explain how or why individuals

progress from one stage to another, and because it is difficult to confirm through research (Green, 1989; Miller, 1993)

CHAPTER IV. LEARNERS' DIVERSITY

We are all different. Like snowflakes, no two human beings are exactly alike. How we recognize and relate to those differences depends on the prevailing culture, how individuals choose to make their needs known, and the technologies available to accommodate differences. Educators must recognize that every student is unique. Differences among our students may be small or large. Some differences are considered advantageous (the “gifted” student) and give the student an advantage in the classroom. Other differences can be a challenge to the individual (the “disadvantaged” or “differently abled” student), especially in situations that highlight the challenge because of the emphasis on certain information-processing strategies. In the following, a set of diversity indicators will set forth.

1. GENDER

Certainly one difference that can be measured among any human population is gender. Gender becomes a factor in classroom instruction when the teacher creates a learning environment that favors the success of either boys or girls. Most of the time the teacher's favoritism is subtle and unintentional. Historically, certain subject areas have tended to be problematic in terms of gender favoritism. Two curricular areas where gender is problematic are science and technology. Gender differences are both similar to and different from cultural differences. Certainly there are physiological differences between the sexes, but these do not extend to inherent differences in the ability to succeed at school or work. The effect of gender on learning and achievement is constructed by culture.

2. CULTURAL DIVERSITY AND INDIVIDUAL IDENTITY

Cultural differences are very real, but for the most part they have been constructed by society. That is to say, the differences we perceive are largely based on factors such as upbringing, training, and socioeconomic circumstance. Cultural differences can also be problematic because they are “in the eye of the beholder.” Each individual identifies more with some aspects of his or her heritage than with other aspects.

3. NEURO-LINGUISTIC PROGRAMMING – REVELL AND NORMAN (1997)

Some people are better at some things than others – better at analyzing or at remembering

faces than others. This fact would indicate that there are differences in the ways individual brains work. It also suggests that people respond differently to the same stimuli. There are two

well-known theories which teachers have attempted to use for the benefit of their learners. One of them is Neuro-linguistic programming. According to this we use a number of “primary representational systems” to experience the world. These systems are described in the acronym

“VAKOG” which stands for:

- Visual (we look and see) – visual learners tend to prefer reading and studying charts, drawings and graphic information;
- Auditory (we hear and listen) – these learners are characterised by a preference for listening to lectures and audiotapes;
- Kinaesthetic (we feel externally, internally or through movement) – these learners are right-brain dominant, they use both hemispheres of their brains simultaneously that is why they are acquiring the structures through actions;
- Olfactory (we smell things),
- Gustatory (we taste things) – in case of the latter two nose and mouth are involved in the presentation of certain topics, it must be added that they have not been explored in language teaching so far. (Harmer 2003: 41)

4. MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES THEORY – GARDNER (1983)

The other one is Multiple intelligences theory which is a concept introduced by Howard Gardner. In his book *Frames of Mind* he suggested that as humans we do not possess a single intelligence, but a range of intelligences (Gardner: 1983). He listed seven of these:

- **Musical/Rhythmic** – learners like singing, listening to music; they are good at remembering melodies, picking up sounds; they can learn language best by music, rhythm and melody;
- **Verbal/Linguistic** – (left-brain dominant) learners like reading, writing and telling stories; they are good at memorizing names, places, dates; they learn best by saying, hearing and seeing words;
- **Visual/Spatial** – learners are the same as visual learners in the previous system, they like drawing, looking at pictures, movies and drawings; they are good at imagining things, reading maps, charts; they learn best by dreaming, visualizing, working with colours and pictures;

5. LEARNERS' STYLE

A preoccupation with learner personalities and styles has been a major factor in psycholinguistic research. Researchers have tried to identify learning styles in their own words, describing individual behavior they have observed. Brown (2000) attempts to define the term style by saying:

Style is a term that refers to consistent and rather enduring tendencies or preferences within an individual. Styles are those general characteristics of intellectual functioning that pertain to you as an individual and that differentiate you from someone else. For example, you might be visually oriented, more tolerant of ambiguity, or more reflective than someone else. These would be styles that characterize a general pattern in your thinking or feeling. (pp. 114 -122)

In his description, Brown distinguishes a number of “cognitive, affective, and physiological traits” which are stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment. Brown (2000) focuses the study on Field Dependent/Field Independent, Ambiguity Tolerance/ Intolerance, Reflectivity and Impulsivity, left-and Right-Brain Functioning, and Visual and Auditory styles.

5.1. Field Independence

Is the ability to perceive a particular, relevant factor or item in a field of distracting items. It enables the learner to distinguish parts from a whole, to concentrate on something, to analyze separate variables without the contamination of neighbouring variables. **Field Dependence**, on the other hand, is the tendency to be “dependent” on the total field so that the parts embedded within the field are not easily perceived, although that total field is perceived more clearly as a unified whole. It is the ability to perceive the whole picture, the larger view, the general configuration of a problem, an idea or an event.

Brown (2000) states that research in the field of learning has established that both styles can be beneficial and useful for the learners according to the contexts in which they learn. While Field Independent styles are more frequently used in classroom-organised learning, Field Dependent styles are much more practised in communicative language learning contexts where the purpose is not in conformity with language rules but rather achieving communicative goals. As a consequence of this dilemma and a compensation of learning

styles, Brown suggests that language learning within the classroom requires more Field Independent implementation, and “natural” communicative language learning needs more Field Dependent support (2000).

5.2. Tolerance and Intolerance

Of Ambiguity is a matter of accepting or rejecting contradictory, conflicting ideas with one’s beliefs, principles or structure of knowledge. Some learners are open-minded and can easily cope with different ideologies or events which contradict their own views. Others are close-minded simply reject whatever idea that is incongruent with their own system of cognitive organization. Both styles have their advantages and drawbacks. Successful language learning requires foreign language learners’ tolerance of different language structure and culture and it also requires intolerance of meaningless chunks learned by rote.

5.3. Reflectivity and Impulsivity

Are personality tendencies of making either a slow, calculated decision as an answer to a question – a solution to a problem, or a quick, gambling guess. Brown (2000, pp. 121-122) argues that it has been found that reflective learners make fewer reading errors than impulsive learners but as far as the reading –psycholinguistic guessing game-progresses, impulsive learners tend to be faster than reflective ones. Teacher-learner interaction, however, can be seriously affected by the reflective or impulsive style of the learners. Reflective learners need much more time to react and require, hence, more patience from the teacher while impulsive learners, who take the risk of responding quickly, may face harsh judgment from an impatient teacher.

On **Left – and Right-Brain Functioning**, Brown (2000) considers that though neurological bimodality studies (of neurological activity in left and right hemispheres of the brain) established characteristic features of this distinction, it remains unsatisfactory to say that a learner would use one or the other distinctively; learners use more or less one of them or both simultaneously in almost all types of learning activities. The various studies that Brown mentions characterize Left-Brain and Right-Brain dominance in terms of opposite mental operations that can be best summarised in the table below:

Table 1. Left – and Right-Brain Characteristics. (Table 5.1.in Brown, 2000, p. 125)

Left-Brain Dominance	Right-Brain Dominance
Intellectual	Intuitive
Remembers names	Remembers faces
Responds to verbal instruction and explanations	Responds to demonstrated, illustrated, or symbolic instruction
Experiments systematically and with control	Experiments randomly and with less restraints
Makes objective judgements	Makes subjective judgement
Planned and structured	Fluid and spontaneous
Prefers established, certain information	Prefers elusive, uncertain information
Analytic reader	Synthesizing reader
Reliance on language in thinking and remembering	Reliance on images in thinking and remembering
Prefers talking and writing	Prefers drawing and manipulating objects
Prefers multiple choice tests	Prefers open-ended questions
Controls feelings	More free with feelings
Not good at interpreting body language	Good at interpreting body language
Rarely uses metaphors	Frequently uses metaphors
Favours logical problem solving	Favours intuitive problem solving

5.4. Visual and Auditory styles

are elementary input recognition. Some learners prefer reading and studying charts, drawings, maps and other graphically represented information. Other learners prefer listening to lectures and audiotapes. Most of the studies mentioned in Brown (2000) distinguish the prominence of visual or auditory styles according to cultural and educational factors and all the studies admit that even if learners favour one of the styles this does not necessarily exclude the use of the other style. In an attempt to define what a learning style is, Lightbrown and Spada (1999, p. 58) say, “Learning style has been used to describe an individual’s natural, habitual, and preferred way of absorbing, processing, and retaining new information and skills.”

The methodologist Wright describes different learner styles within a group (1987, pp. 117-118). ‘The enthusiast’ looks to the teacher as a point of reference and is concerned with the goals of the learning group. ‘The oracular’ also focuses on the teacher but is more oriented towards the satisfaction of personal goals. ‘The participator’ tends to concentrate on group goals and group solidarity, whereas ‘the rebel’ while referring to the learning group for his or her points of reference, is mainly concerned with the satisfaction of his or her own goals.

Working with adult students in Australia, Willing (1987) provides the following classification:

- **Convergers:** these are students who are by nature solitary; prefer to avoid groups, and who are independent and confident in their own abilities. Most importantly they are analytic and can impose their own structures on learning. They tend to be cool and pragmatic.
- **Conformists:** these are students who prefer to emphasize learning ‘about language’ over learning to use it. They tend to be dependent on those in authority and are perfectly happy to work in non-communicative classrooms, doing what they are told.
- **Concrete learners:** though they are like conformists, they also enjoy the social aspect of learning and like to learn from direct experience. They are interested in language use and language as communication rather than language as a system. They enjoy games and group work in class.
- **Communicative learners:** they are language use oriented. They are much more interested in social interaction with other speakers of the language than they are with analysis of how language works. They prefer not to be guided by the teacher.

Research findings on learning styles underscore the importance of recognizing learners’ varying preferences. However, teachers must take a cautious approach measurement of style preferences (Ehrman & Leaver, 2003). The fact that learners’ styles represent preferred approaches rather than immutable stable traits means that learners can adapt to varying contexts and situations. And styles can be a reflection if not a direct product of one’s cultural background (Wintergerst, DeCapua, & Itzen, 2001; Oxford & Anderson, 1995). That is why research on learning styles prods teachers to help learners first of all to take care of their language learning, to become autonomous learners, and then to become aware of their styles, preferences, strengths, and weaknesses, and finally to take appropriate action on their second language learning challenges (Brown, 2007).

6. LEARNING STRATEGIES

In the literature concerning cognitive science in general or language learning in particular, the term ‘strategy’ has been referred to a small range of synonyms such as ‘technique’, ‘tactic’

and ‘skills’, by which individual researchers describe their understanding in this particular area in slightly differential ways. Mc Donough (1995), for example, sees a number of terms as overlapping with the concept of strategies. He identifies language skills, language processes, mechanisms to compensate for lack of language, action plans, all as terms used at various times to discuss learner strategies.

In fact, one of the tasks of researchers and writers has been to try to come up with clear definitions of what strategies are. There is little in the literature concerning the definition or the identification of language learning strategies. Inevitably these definitions are linked to the researcher’s or author’s main sphere of interest. Some relate to a psycholinguistic domain (the link between the way the brain functions and the language it encounters, some to a more pedagogical one (the way that students appear to learn in general and learn languages in particular).

There are some views triggering the discussion about whether language learning strategies are behavioral (observable), mental (unobservable) or both. For example, Oxford (1990, p. 8) defines learning strategies as specific actions taken by the learner to make learning easier, faster, more self-directed, more effective and more transferable to new situations. Whereas Weinstein & Mayer (1986) argue that they are the behaviors and thought that a learner engages in during learning that are intended to influence the learner’s encoding process.

In addition, the disagreement is about the nature of the behaviors, on the presupposition the language learning strategies are behaviors. Chamot (1987, p.71) claims that “ they are techniques, approaches or deliberate actions that students take in order to facilitate the learning and recall of both linguistic and content area information.” Stern (1983, as cited in Ellis, 1994, p. 531) adds that “strategy is best reserved for general tendencies or overall characteristics of the approach employed by the language learner, leaving techniques as the term to refer to particular forms of observable learning behavior”. Here Stern describes the nature of strategy as general and overall. While Wenden (1987a, p. 7) blurs the distinction between these two by referring to ‘strategies’ as ‘specific actions or techniques, adding that they are not about general approach of learners like reflecting and risk-taking.

Another major dispute deals with the learners’ awareness of strategy use issue. Wenden (1987, p. 6) claims that:

Learner strategies refers to language learning behaviors learners actually engage in to learn and regulate the learning of a second language ...what they know about the strategies they use....what they know about aspect of their language learning other than the strategies they use.

In the same perspective, Cohen views that:

Second language learner strategies encompass both second language learning and second language use strategies. Taken together they constitute the steps or actions consciously selected by learners either for the learning of a second language, the use of it, or both. (1998, p. 5)

For Seliger (1984, as cited in Ellis, 1994, p. 531), he refers to the abstract cognitive categories of processing information subconsciously or unconsciously as ‘strategies’, while he defines another term ‘tactics’ as learners’ deliberate respond to the learning circumstances. However, many researchers avoid making clear distinction on the issue of consciousness, and some suggest that learners cope with new information by deploying strategies consciously and these strategies would gradually become conscious with repeated application and self-adaptation.

From the above definitions, we notice that some authors have used ‘language learning strategies’ while others used ‘learner strategies’. Both terms appear in the literature to be synonymous and interchangeable. But Maccaro (2001), in his valuable work entitled ‘learning strategies in second language acquisition’, proposes his own distinction between these two terms by considering ‘language learning strategies’ as the process of language learning, and ‘learner strategies’ as techniques in the learning of any subject. The latter term seems to capture more effectively the emphasis placed on the learner as the active participant in the process of learning. According to this distinction, learner strategies often subsumes learning strategies.

Oxford (1989) divides strategies into two major classes: direct and indirect. Direct strategies deal with the new language, which consists of three classes: memory, cognitive and compensation strategies. Indirect strategies are strategies that support and manage language learning without directly involving the target language. They are divided into metacognitive, affective, and social strategies.

Direct strategies are divided into: memory strategies, such as, grouping or using imagery, have a specific function: helping students store and retrieve new information. Memory strategies fall into four sets:

1. Creating mental linkages: grouping, associating/elaborating, and placing new words into a context.
2. Applying images and sounds: using imagery, semantic mapping, using keyword and representing sounds in memory.
3. Reviewing well: structured reviewing.
4. Employing action: using physical response or sensation, and using mechanical technical techniques.

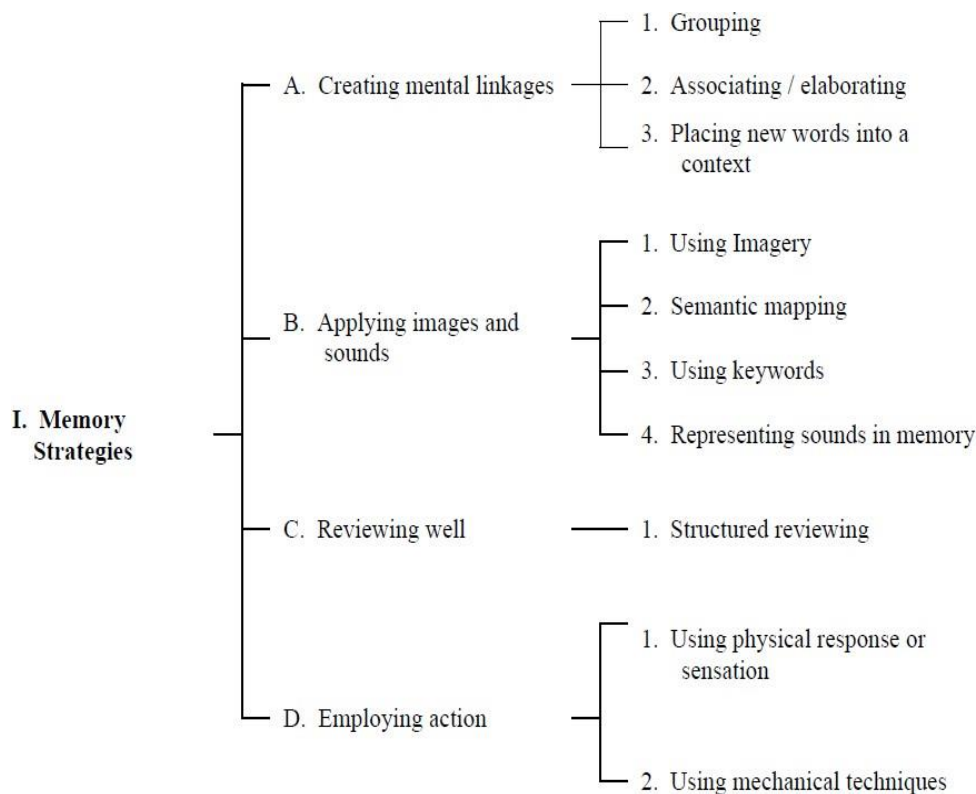


Figure 1. Diagram of the strategy system showing the memory strategies. (Figure 1.4, in Oxford.R,L. 1990, pp. 18-21)

Secondly, cognitive strategies which, according to Oxford, involve hypothesis testing like searching for clues in the material studied or in one's own knowledge by hypothesizing

the meaning of the unknown item. Mnemonic strategies relate one thing to another in a simple stimulus response manner but do not reinforce associations. Cognitive strategies operate directly on incoming information, manipulating it in ways that enhance learning.

Cognitive strategies, such as summarizing or reasoning deductively, would enable learners to understand and produce the target language by many different means. They have four sets:

1. Practicing: repeating; formally practicing with sounds and writing system, recognizing and using formulas and patterns, recombining, and practicing.
2. Receiving and sending messages: getting the idea quickly, using resources for receiving and sending messages.
3. Analyzing and reasoning: reasoning deductively, analyzing expressions, analyzing contrastively, translating, and transferring.
4. Creating structure for input and output: taking notes, summarizing, and highlighting.

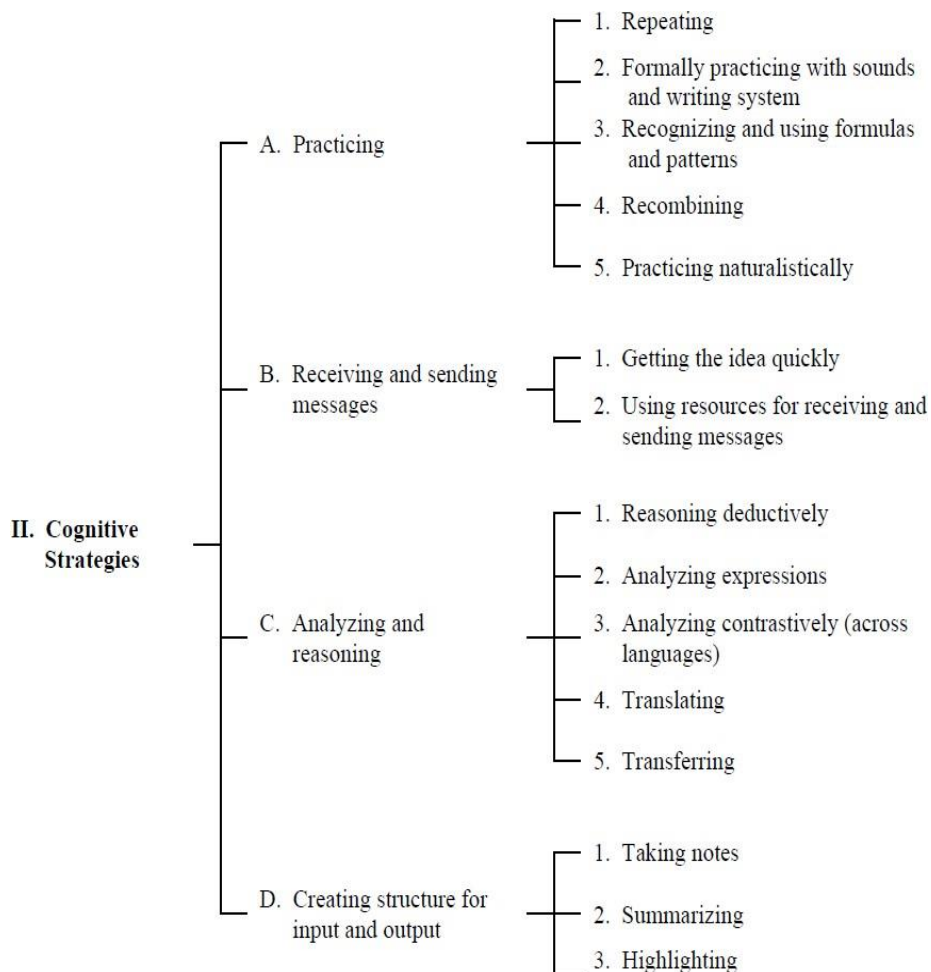


Figure 2. Diagram of the strategy system showing the cognitive strategies. (Figure 1.4, in Oxford.R,L. 1990, pp. 18-21)

Thirdly, the compensation strategies, like guessing or using synonyms, allow learners to use the language despite their often large gaps in knowledge. Compensation strategies consist of:

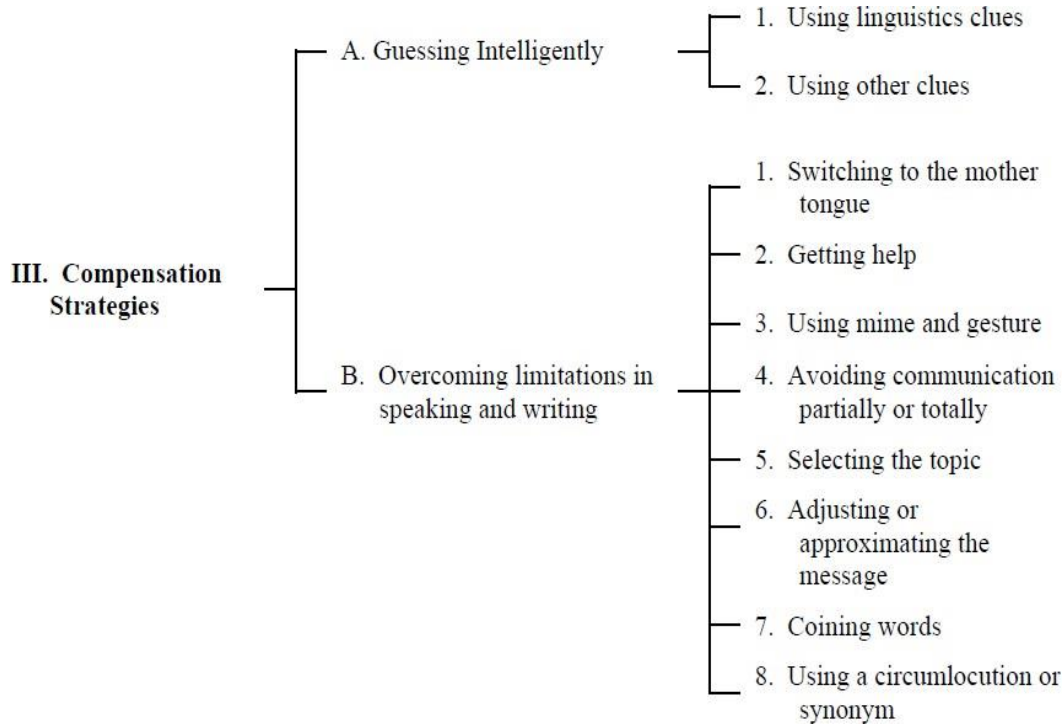


Figure 3. Diagram of the strategy system showing the compensation strategies. (Figure 1.4, in Oxford.R,L. 1990, pp. 18-21)

The indirect strategies entail the metacognitive strategies which are higher order executive skills that may entail planning for, monitoring, or evaluating the success of a learning activity (Brown et al. 1983). They are applicable to a variety of learning tasks (Nisbet & Shucksmith, 1986). The processes that would be included as metacognitive strategies for receptive or productive language tasks are presented in the following:

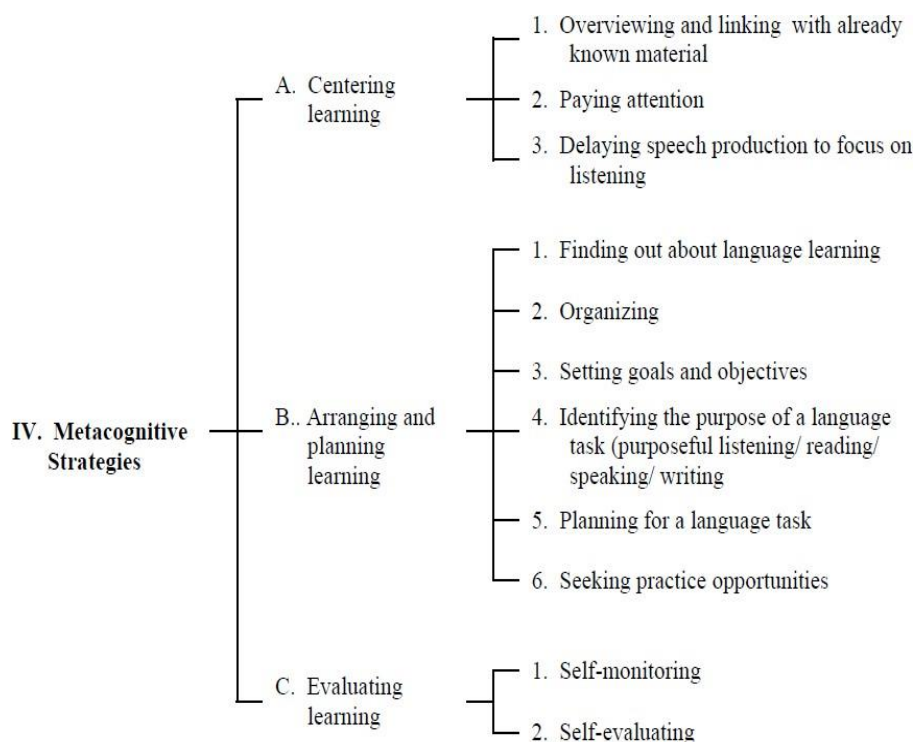


Figure 4. Diagram of the strategy system showing the metacognitive strategies.

(Figure 1.4, in Oxford.R,L. 1990:18-21)

Affective strategies help to regulate emotions, motivations, and attitudes. They fall into three sets:

- Lowering anxiety: using progressive relaxation, deep breathing or meditation, using music, and using jokes.
- Self encouraging: giving positive statements, taking risks wisely, giving reward to students.
- Taking emotional temperature: paying attention to responses, using a checklist, writing a language learning diary, discussing feelings with peers.

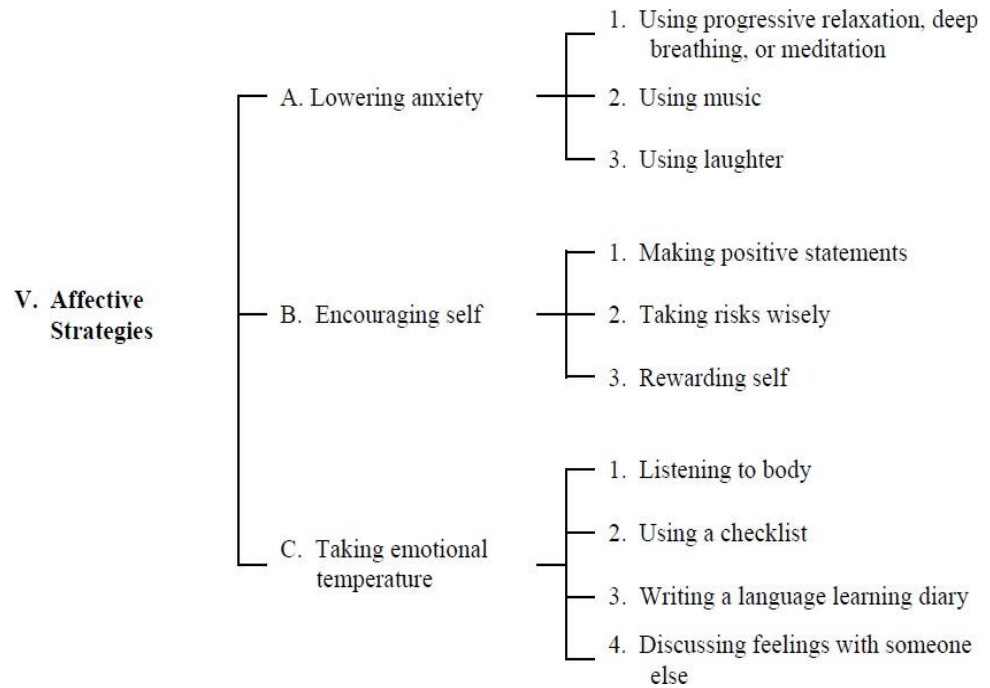


Figure 5. Diagram of the strategy system showing the affective strategies. (Figure 1.4, in Oxford.R,L. 1990, pp. 18-21)

Social strategies represent a broad grouping that involves interaction with another person. Generally they are applicable to a wide variety of tasks, and they help students learn through interaction with others. Social strategies fall into three sets:

1. Giving questions: asking for clarification or verification, asking for correction.
2. Cooperating with others: with peers, with proficient users of the new language.
3. Empathizing with others: developing cultural understanding, becoming aware of other' s thoughts and feelings.

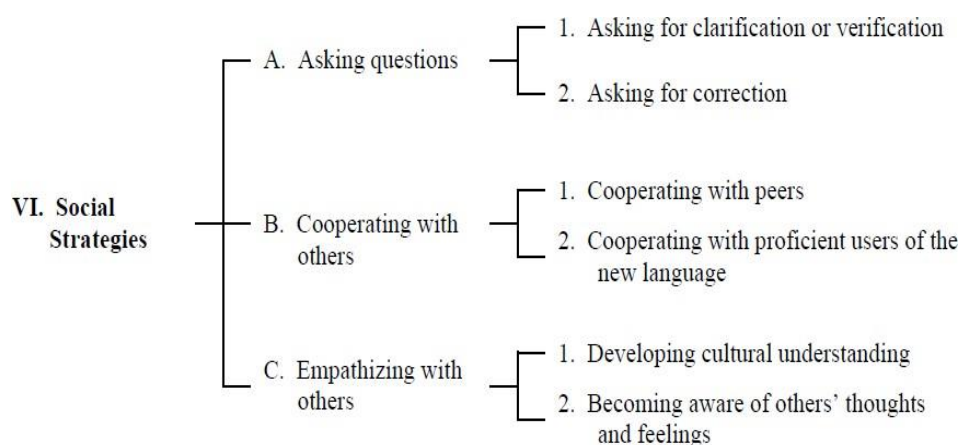


Figure 5. Diagram of the strategy system showing the social strategies. (Figure 1.4, in Oxford.R,L. 1990, pp. 18-21)

Basically, learning strategies are steps taken by students to enhance their own learning.

Strategies are especially important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence. Appropriate language learning strategies result in improved proficiency and greater self-confidence. How language learning strategies stimulate the growth of communicative competence in general can be summed up as follows: metacognitive strategies help learners regulate their own cognition to focus, plan and evaluate their progress as they move toward communicative competence. Affective strategies develop the self-confidence and perseverance needed for learners to involve themselves actively in language learning. Social strategies provide increased interaction and more emphatic comprehension toward the lesson.

While learning strategies deal with the receptive domain of intake, memory, storage, and recall, communication strategies pertain to the employment of verbal or non-verbal mechanisms for the productive communication of information. Faerch and Kasper (1983a, p. 36) defined communication strategies as “potentially conscious plans for solving what to an individual presents itself as a problem in reaching a particular communicative goal.” Dornyei’ (1995, p. 58) offered a taxonomy that reflects accepted categories over several decades of research. According to his categorization, communication strategies are set into avoidance strategies and compensatory strategies.

Avoidance is a common communication strategy that can be broken down into several subcategories: syntactic or lexical avoidance within a semantic category; the phonological avoidance and the topic avoidance. The compensatory strategies, on the other hand, involve compensation for missing knowledge. The communication strategies are detailed in the following table:

Table . 2. *Communication Strategies (Table: 5.3 in Brown, 2000, p. 127)*

Avoidance Strategies
<p>1. Message abandonment: leaving a message unfinished because of language difficulties.</p> <p>2. Topic avoidance: Avoiding topic areas or concepts that cause language difficulties.</p>
Compensatory Strategies
<p>3. Circumlocution: Describing or exemplifying the target object of action (e.g., the thing you open bottles with for corkscrew)</p> <p>4. Approximation: Using an alternative term which expresses the meaning of the target lexical item as closely as possible (e.g., ship for sailboat)</p> <p>5. Use of all-purpose words: Extending a general, empty lexical item to contexts where specific words are lacking (e.g., the overuse of thing, stuff, what-do-you-call-it, thingie)</p> <p>6. Word coinage: Creating a non existing L2 word based on a supposed rule (e.g., vegetarianist for vegetarian)</p> <p>7. Prefabricated patterns: Using memorized stock phrases, usually for “survival” purposes (e.g., Where is the _____or Comment allez – vous? Where the morphological components are not known to the learner)</p> <p>8. Non linguistic signals: Mime, gesture, facial expression, or sound imitation.</p> <p>9. Literal translation: Translating literally a lexical item, idiom, compound word, or structure from L1 to L2.</p>

10. Foreignizing: Using a L1 word by adjusting it to L2 phonology (i.e., with a L2 pronunciation) and/or morphology (e.g., adding to it a L2 suffix)
11. Code-switching: Using a L1 word with L1 pronunciation or a L3 pronunciation while speaking in L2.
12. Appeal for help: asking for aid from the interlocutor either directly (e.g., What do you call....?) or indirectly (e.g., rising intonation, pause, eye contact, puzzled expression)
13. Stalling or time-gaining strategies: Using fillers or hesitation devices. to fill pauses and to gain time to think (e.g., well, now let's see, uh, as a matter of fact)

Activity1

Complete the following activity to determine your preferred learning style. Suppose you have just received a brand new, latest model stereo, with CD and tape facilities. You have a choice of ways to learn about it. Rank the following learning alternatives by giving your first choice a rank of one, down to your last choice, which would receive a rank of nine.

1. Reading a book about stereos
2. Watching a videotape which shows the stereo's functions and operations
3. Listening to an audiotape which tells about the stereo's functions and operations.
4. Reading the owners manual containing detailed pictures and diagrams of how to use it
5. Viewing a live demonstration
6. Participating in the live demonstration
7. Working one-on-one with another person who is familiar with the stereo
8. Working in a group of four people with a person who is familiar with the stereo.
9. Teaching what you have learned to another person

After ranking the nine ways to learn about your new CD / tape player, study your top five selections to see if you can recognise a pattern regarding your individual learning style. You may prefer to rely on auditory, visual, tactile or kinaesthetic modes. You may find that you like a combination of all four modalities in which you involve ears, eyes, hands and participatory activities in your learning.

Activity 2

From your diagnosis of your own personal learning style, write a short note to your lecturer describing how your class should be organised to accommodate your learning style. In other words, how much of the class should be 'tell me', 'show me' and /or 'let me do it?'². Look at the diagram below. Decide where your learning style fits on this model. Why is the diagram cone shaped?

CHAPTER V: MOTIVATION

1. DEFINITION

At its most basic level, motivation is some kind of internal drive which pushes someone to do things in order to achieve something. It is noteworthy that motivation is among the important psychological factors leading to success or failure in learning a language and those learners need to be motivated to be successful. Empirical studies indicate that highly motivated pupils learn faster and better than the ones who find the study of language distasteful.

2. THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

Various theories of motivation have been proposed over the course of decades of research, among them three different perspectives emerge:

1. From a behaviourist perspective, motivation is quite simply the anticipation of reward. Skinner, Pavlov, and Thorndike put motivation at the centre of their theories of human behaviour. In a behavioural view, performance in tasks – and motivation to do so – is likely to be at the mercy of external forces: parents, teachers, peers, educational requirements, job specifications, and so forth (Brown, 2007).
2. In cognitive terms, motivation places much more emphasis on the individual's decisions, 'the choice people make as to what experiences or goals they will approach or avoid and the degree of effort they will exert in that respect' (Keller, 1983, p.389). Some cognitive psychologists see underlying needs or drives as the compelling force behind our decisions. Ausubel (1968, pp. 368-379), identifies six types of needs: the need for exploration, the need for manipulation, for movement and activity, for stimulation, for new knowledge, and finally for ego enhancement.
3. A constructivist view of motivation places even further emphasis on social contexts as well as individual personal choices (Williams & Burden, 1997, p.120). That is each person is motivated differently, and will therefore act on his or her environment in ways that are unique (Brown, 2007).

Marion Williams and Richard Burden suggest that motivation is a 'state of cognitive arousal' which provokes a 'decision to act' as a result of which there is 'sustained intellectual

and / previously set goal' (Williams & Burden, 1997, p. 120). They go on to point out that the strength of that motivation will depend on how much value the individual places on the outcome he or she wishes to achieve.

3. MOTIVATION TYPES

In discussions of motivation, an accepted distinction is made between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. The former is caused by outside factors, for example, the need to pass an exam, the hope of financial reward, or the possibility of future travel. The latter, by contrast, comes from within the individual. Thus a person might be motivated by the enjoyment of the learning itself or by a desire to make himself feel better. Deci (1975), quoted in Brown says that:

Intrinsically motivated activities are those for which there is more apparent reward except the activity itself. People seem to engage in the activities for their own sake and not because they lead to an extrinsic reward.....intrinsically motivated behaviours are aimed at bringing about certain internally rewarding consequences namely, feelings of competence and self-motivation. (2000, p. 164)

Yule (2006) identifies two types of motivation for language learning; these are: 'instrumental', where the learners' goals are linked to utilitarian values such as achievement or vocational advantage; and 'integrative', where the learners' attitudes to the target language community extend to wishing to become accepted as members. The two concepts are a more specific restatement of the notions of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. He says:

Many learners have an instrumental motivation. That is, they want to learn the second language in order to achieve some other goal, such as completing a school graduation requirement or being able to read scientific publications, but not really for any social purpose. In contrast, those learners with an integrative motivation want to learn the second language for a social purpose, in order to take part in the social life of a community using the language and to become an accepted member of that community. (Yule 2006, pp. 167-168)

Learners are said to be *integratively motivated* if they intend to integrate themselves with not only the people who speak that language but with its culture as well. In other words, the learners' attitudes to the target language community extend to become accepted as members. Learners are said to be instrumentally motivated if they feel the desire to learn a language to

achieve a specific goal such as gaining social prestige, meeting an educational or business requirement, searching for a career... etc.

4. EFFECTS ON STUDENTS' MOTIVATION: EXPECTANCY X VALUE

As we have explained in this chapter, motivation is affected by several factors, including reinforcement for behavior, but especially also students' goals, interests, and sense of self-efficacy and self-determination. The factors combine to create two general sources of motivation:

- 1) students' expectation of success and;
- 2) the value that students place on a goal.

Viewing motivation in this way is often called **the expectancy-value model of motivation** (Wigfield & Eccles, 2002; Wigfield, Tonk, & Eccles, 2004), and sometimes written with a **multiplicative formula: expectancy x value = motivation**. The relationship between expectation and value is “multiplicative” rather than additive because in order to be motivated, it is necessary for a person to have at least a modest expectation of success and to assign a task at least some positive value. If you have high expectations of success but do not value a task at all (mentally assign it a “0” value), then you will not feel motivated at all. Likewise, if you value a task highly but have no expectation of success about completing it (assign it a “0” expectancy), then you also will not feel motivated at all.

Expectancies are the result of various factors, but particularly the goals held by a student, and the student's self-efficacy, which we discussed earlier in this chapter. A student with mastery goals and strong self-efficacy for a task, for example, is likely to hold high expectations for success—almost by definition. Values are also the result of various factors, but especially students' interests and feelings of self-determination. A student who has a lasting personal interest in a task or topic and is allowed to choose it freely is especially likely to value the task—and therefore to feel motivated.

Ideally both expectancies and values are high in students on any key learning task. The reality, however, is that students sometimes do not expect success, nor do they necessarily value it when success is possible. How can a teacher respond to low expectations and low valuing? We have offered a number of suggestions to meet this challenge throughout this chapter. In brief, raising low expectations depends on adjusting task difficulty so that success

becomes a reasonable prospect: a teacher must make tasks neither too hard nor too easy.

Reaching this

general goal depends in turn on thoughtful, appropriate planning—selecting reasonable objectives, adjusting them on the basis of experience, finding supportive materials, and providing students with help when needed.

Raising the value of academic tasks is equally important, but the general strategies for doing so are different than for raising expectations. Increasing value requires linking the task to students' personal interests and prior knowledge, showing the utility of the task to students' future goals, and showing that the task is valuable to other people whom students' respect.

5. TARGET: A MODEL FOR INTEGRATING IDEAS ABOUT MOTIVATION

A model of motivation that integrates many ideas about motivation, including those in this chapter, has been developed by Carole Ames (1990, 1992). The acronym or abbreviated name for the program is TARGET, which stands for six elements of effective motivation:

- **T**ask
- **A**uthority
- **R**ecognition
- **G**rouping
- **E**valuating
- **T**ime

Each of the elements contributes to students' motivation either directly or indirectly.

5.1. Task

As explained earlier, students experience tasks in terms of their value, their expectation of success, and their authenticity. The value of a task is assessed by its importance, interest to the student, usefulness or utility, and the cost in terms of effort and time to achieve it. Expectation of success is assessed by a student's perception of the difficulty of a task. Generally a middling level of difficulty is optimal for students; too easy, and the task seems trivial (not valuable or meaningful), and too hard, and the task seems unlikely to succeed and in this sense useless. Authenticity refers to how much a task relates to real-life experiences of

students; the more it does so, the more it can build on students' interests and goals, and the more meaningful and motivating it becomes.

5.2. Autonomy

Motivation is enhanced if students feel a degree of autonomy or responsibility for a learning task. Autonomy strengthens self-efficacy and self-determination.

Where possible, teachers can enhance autonomy by offering students' choices about assignments and by encouraging them to take initiative about their own learning.

5.3. Recognition

Teachers can support students' motivation by recognizing their achievements appropriately. Much depends, however, on how this is done; as discussed earlier, praise sometimes undermines performance. It is not especially effective if praise is very general and lacking in detailed reasons for the praise; or if praise is for qualities which a student cannot influence (like intelligence instead of effort); or if praise is offered so widely that it loses meaning or even becomes a signal that performance has been substandard.

5.4. Grouping

Motivation is affected by how students are grouped together for their work (“Instructional Strategies”). There are many ways to group students, but they tend to fall into three types: cooperative, competitive, and individualistic (Johnson & Johnson, 1999).

In cooperative learning, a set of students work together to achieve a common goal (for example, producing a group presentation for the class); often they receive a final grade, or part of a final grade, in common.

In competitive learning, students work individually, and their grades reflect comparisons among the students (for example, their performances are ranked relative to each other, or they are “graded on a curve”).

In individualistic learning, students work by themselves, but their grades are unrelated to the performance of classmates.

5.5. Evaluation

Grouping structures obviously affect how students' efforts are evaluated. A focus on comparing students, as happens with competitive structures, can distract students from thinking about the material to be learned, and to focus instead on how they appear to external

authorities; the question shifts from “What am I learning?” to “What will the teacher think about my performance?” A focus on cooperative learning, on the other hand, can have doubleedged effects: students are encouraged to help their group mates, but may also be tempted to rely excessively on others' efforts or alternatively to ignore each other's contributions and overspecialize their own contributions. Some compromise between cooperative and individualistic structures seems to create optimal motivation for learning (Slavin, 1995).

5.6. Time

As every teacher knows, students vary in the amount of time needed to learn almost any material or task. Accommodating the differences can be challenging, but also important for maximizing students' motivation. School days are often filled with interruptions and fixed intervals of time devoted to non-academic activities—facts that make it difficult to be flexible about granting individuals different amounts of time to complete academic tasks.

Nonetheless a degree of flexibility is usually possible: larger blocks of time can sometimes be created for important activities (for example, writing an essay), and sometimes enrichment activities can be arranged for some students while others receive extra attention from the teacher on core or basic tasks.

CHAPTER VI: THE PARTICIPANTS OF THE TEACHING/LEARNING PROCESS

1. WHAT IS LEARNING SITUATION?

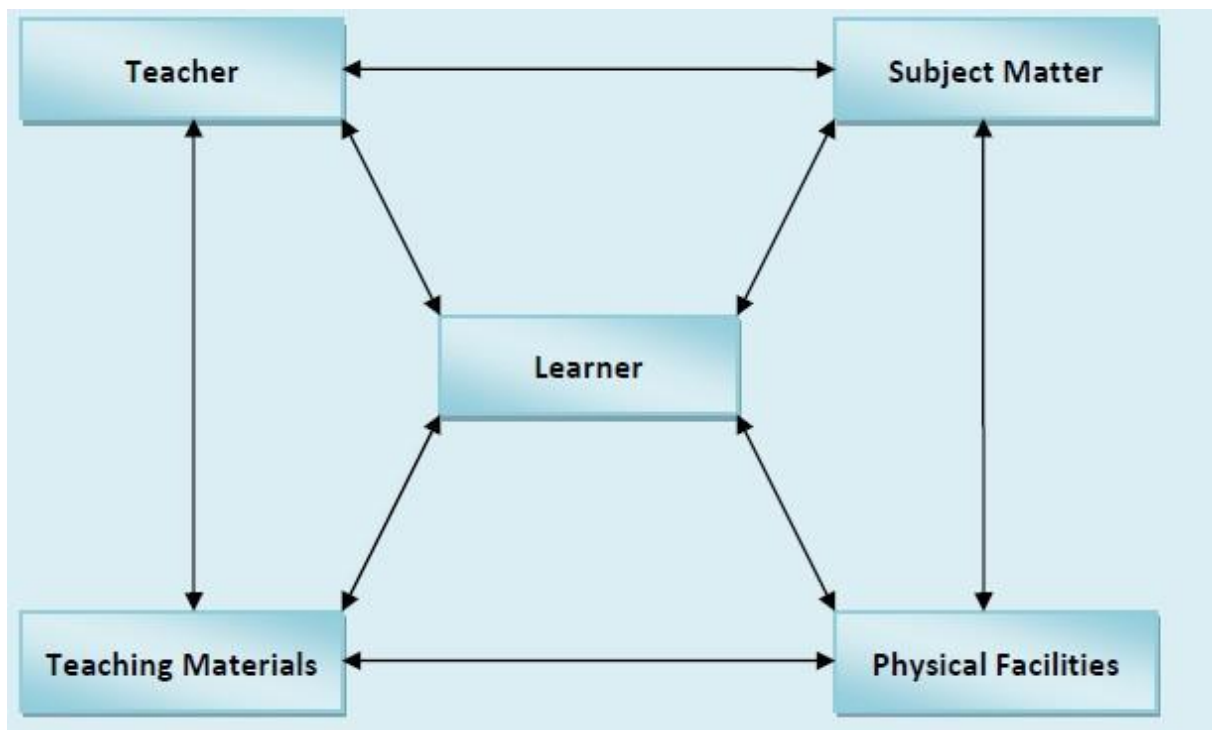
An effective learning experience can only be had in a well-structured and skilfully executed learning situation. The essential role of the extension agent is to create learning situations that stimulate and guide learning activity. A good extension agent is one who can create and manage learning situations in which learners have effective learning experiences.

2. ELEMENTS OF LEARNING SITUATION AND THEIR CHARACTERISTICS

Extension teaching requires learning situations that includes five major elements. The five elements necessary to constitute an effective learning situation and important characteristics about each are presented below.

2.1. Learner

Person who wants and needs to learn is the learner. In an effective learning situation, a learner occupies the most important central position and all efforts are directed towards him/her. Learners should :



Diagrammatic Representation of the Elements of a Learning Situation
(Woolfolk, 1995)

- i) be capable of learning
- ii) have interest in the subject
- iii) have need for the information offered, and
- iv) be able to use the information once it is gained.

In the extension education, the farmer, farmwoman, and rural youth comprise the learner. To explain the learning situation, we take an example in which dairy farmers who need to increase milk production are learners.

2.2. Teacher

Many trainers are fond of quoting from the work called the prophet by Khalil Gibran (1991: 76):” if the teacher is indeed wise, he does not bid you enter the house of his wisdom, but rather leads you to the threshold of your own mind”. This issue created a dilemma in the minds of educators. Is teaching about the transmission of knowledge from teachers to student, or is it about creating conditions in which, somehow, students learn for themselves?

In recent years, under the influence of humanistic and communicative theories a great emphasis has been placed on ‘learner-centered’ teaching, that is the teaching which makes the learners’ needs and experiences central to the educational process. In this framework, it is the students’ needs and learning experiences which drive the syllabus and should be at the heart of a language course.

However, this learner-centeredness was not accepted uncritically. For instance, Robert O’Neill (1991), a trainer and materials’ designer, wrote an article whose title expressed his disquiet since he called it “the plausible myth of learner-centeredness”. In his article, he declared that the learner’s total reliance in gaining knowledge on his own with teacher, intervening when needed, would lead to neglect. But in many educational situations, both teachers and learners, find learner-centeredness difficult to come to terms with; because the teacher in many cases finds it necessary to be at the front of the class to motivate, instruct, or explain something to the whole class; as the same time, there are also many activities where encouraging students to solve their own problems on their own, will have enormously beneficial effects both on learning, and on the dynamics in the classroom. This questions, in fact, is not a matter of either....or, instead it depends on many issues such that the teacher behavior, the type of the activity, and who the students are and how they feel about what they are asked to do.

2.2.1. The roles of the teacher

The teacher’s role may change from one activity to another or from one stage to another. Below the different roles that a teacher may play in the classroom will be highlighted where we will discover that the more the teacher is fluent at making changes the greater his effectiveness as a teacher is enhanced (Harmer, 2003: 56-63)

2.2.2. Controller

Teachers are in charge of the class and the activity taking place. Controllers take the roll, tell students things, organize drills, read aloud, and in various other ways exemplify the qualities of a teacher-fronted classroom.

2.2.3. Organiser

Organising students to do various activities is one of the most important roles that teachers have. It involves giving the students information, defining the work forms in the classroom and organising teaching material. Skilful classroom management involves the following areas:

a- Organising the environment: it means decorating the walls of the classroom with culture-related posters, maps, flags etc. and arranging the desks and chairs so that the students can learn in different work-forms (in group-, pair-work etc.);

b- Organizing the students: according to language proficiency or language abilities;

c- Organizing activities: So that the ideal balance of skills and activities should be maintained. After each stirring activity a settling activity must be planned, and various skills should be developed in different work-forms;

d- Organizing time: In an average lesson maximum five minutes must be devoted to a warm-up activity, which is followed by the so-called 3Ps (presentation, practice and production with about ten-fifteen minutes spent on each). The last period of lesson is to be spent on revision and giving feedback to the students;

e- Organizing resources: is as important an area as the ones mentioned previously, because all types of teaching material such as the course book, the workbook, handouts, cassettes etc. must be kept in a well-organised way so that the teacher can use them smoothly without making a chaos;

f- Organizing records:

It is considered to be a crucial element of classroom management all the teachers have to think of as their handling not properly can have legal consequences as well;

2.2.4. Assessor

A major part of a teacher's job is to assess the students' work, to see how well they are performing and how well they have performed. The different types of error correction must be distinguished. At the accurate reproduction stage, where the teacher is totally in control, s/he must be correcting each student error or mistake.

Where students are involved in immediate creativity (at the production stage of the lesson) gentle correction or delayed correction should be used lest the teachers should make students inhibited.

A distinction between two kinds of feedback must be made content feedback concerns an assessment of how well the students performed the activity as an activity rather than as a language exercise. Form feedback, on the other hand tells students how well they performed in terms of the accurate use of language. Content feedback should usually come first and the teacher must decide when form feedback is appropriate and when it is not. It is vital for the teacher to be sensitive and tactful to his/her students in his/her role as assessor and to start assessment always with the positive feedback.

2.2.5. Prompter

In this role the teacher needs to encourage students to participate in a role play activity or needs to make suggestions about how students may proceed in an activity. The role of prompter has to be performed with discretion because if the teacher is too aggressive, s/he will take over the jobs from the students and he will make the students lazy and passive.

2.2.6. Participant

Teachers should not be afraid to participate in certain activities as a partner but s/he should not get involved in pair-work or group-work because it will prevent him/her from monitoring the students and performing other important roles.

2.2.7. Resource

Teachers used to be the only resource of information but this role cannot be performed these days as it was done several decades ago. Students have an access to the Internet and other important sources so teachers can add only some pieces of information to the ones gained from other sources. Teachers are supposed to organize and coordinate the process of acquisition, to act as a catalyst.

3. SUBJECT MATTER

It is the content or topic of teaching that is useful to the learner. The subject matter should be:

- i) pertinent to the learner's needs,
- ii) applicable to their real life situations,
- iii) well organised and presented logically and clearly,
- iv) consistent with the overall objectives, and
- v) challenging, satisfying and significant to the learner.

Here, the subject matter is increasing milk production.

4. TEACHING MATERIALS

These are appropriate instructional material, equipments and aids. The teaching material should be:

- i) suitable to the subject matter and physical situation,
- ii) adequate in quantity and available in time, and
- iii) skilfully used.

In the present example, teaching materials may be improved breeds of bull or semen and fodder seeds suitable for the area, appropriate medicines, audio-visual aids relevant to the topic etc.

5. PHYSICAL FACILITIES

It means appropriate physical environment in which teaching learning can take place. The physical facilities should be:

- i) compatible with objective,
- ii) representative of the area and situation, and
- iii) adequate and easily accessible.

CHAPTER VII: CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT AND THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

1. WHY CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT MATTERS

Managing the learning environment is both a major responsibility and an on going concern for all teachers, even those with years of experience (Good & Brophy, 2002). There are several reasons:

- 1) At any one moment each student needs something different—different information, different hints, different kinds of encouragement. Such diversity increases even more if the teacher deliberately assigns multiple activities to different groups or individuals (for example, if some students do a reading assignment while others do the math problems).
- 2) Another reason that managing the environment is challenging is because a teacher can not predict everything that will happen in a class. A well-planned lesson may fall flat on its face, or take less time than expected, and you find yourself improvising to fill class time. On the other hand an unplanned moment may become a wonderful, sustained exchange among students, and prompt you to drop previous plans and follow the flow of discussion.
- 3) The variety of perceptions can lead to surprises in students' responses—most often small ones, but occasionally major.

2. PREVENTING MANAGEMENT PROBLEMS BY FOCUSING STUDENTS ON LEARNING

2.1. Arranging classroom space

Viewed broadly, classrooms may seem to be arranged in similar ways, but there are actually important alternative arrangements to consider. Variations exist because of grade level, the subjects taught, the teacher's philosophy of education, and of course the size of the room and the furniture available. Whatever the arrangement that you choose it should help students to focus on learning tasks as much as possible and minimize the chances of distractions.

2.2. Establishing daily procedures and routines

Procedures are more like social conventions than like moral expectations. They are specific ways of doing common, repeated classroom tasks or activities. Examples include checking daily attendance, dealing with students who arrive late.

2.3. Establishing classroom rules

Unlike procedures or routines, rules express standards of behavior for which individual students need to take responsibility. Although they are like procedures in that they sometimes help in insuring the efficiency of classroom tasks, they are really about encouraging students to be responsible for learning and showing respect for each other.

2.4. Pacing and structuring lessons and activities

One of the best ways to prevent management problems is by pacing and structuring lessons or activities as smoothly and continuously as possible. This goal depends on three major strategies:

- selecting tasks or activities at an appropriate level of difficulty for your students
- providing a moderate level of structure or clarity to students about what they are supposed to do, especially during transitions between activities
- Keeping alert to the flow and interplay of behaviors for the class as a whole and for individuals within it.

3. RESPONDING TO STUDENT MISBEHAVIOR

So far we have focused on preventing behaviors that are inappropriate or annoying. The advice has all been proactive or forward-looking: plan classroom space thoughtfully, create reasonable procedures and rules, pace lessons and activities appropriately, and communicate the importance of learning clearly. Although we consider these ideas important, it would be naive to imply they are enough to prevent all behavior problems. For various reasons, students sometimes still do things that disrupt other students or interrupt the flow of activities. At such moments the challenge is not about long-term planning but about making appropriate, but prompt responses. Misbehaviors left alone can be contagious, a process educators sometimes call the **ripple effect**. There are many ways to respond to inappropriate behaviors :

- Ignoring misbehaviors
- Gesturing nonverbally

- Conflict resolution and problem solving:

Conflict resolution strategies that educators and teachers tend to use usually have two parts. First, they involve ways of identifying what “the” problem is precisely. Second, they remind the student of classroom expectations and rules with simple clarity and assertiveness.

Classroom management is the coordination of lessons and activities to make learning as productive as possible. It is important because classrooms are complex and somewhat unpredictable, because students respond to teachers’ actions in diverse ways, and because society requires that students attend school. There are two major features of management: preventing problems before they occur and responding to them after they occur. Many management problems can be prevented by attending to how classroom space is used, by establishing daily procedures, routines, and rules, by pacing and structuring activities appropriately, and by communicating the importance of learning and of positive behavior to students and parents. There are several ways of dealing with a management problem after it occurs, and the choice depends on the nature of the problem. A teacher can simply ignore a misbehavior, gesture or cue students nonverbally, rely on natural and logical consequences, or engage conflict resolution strategies. Whatever tactics the teacher uses, it is important to keep in mind their ultimate purpose: to make learning possible and effective.

CHAPTER VIII: THE NATURE OF CLASSROOM COMMUNICATION

1. COMMUNICATION IN CLASSROOMS VS COMMUNICATION ELSEWHERE.

“who says what to whom, and with what effect” (Lasswell, 1964).

2. FUNCTIONS OF TALK: CONTENT, PROCEDURES, AND BEHAVIOR CONTROL

Classrooms are different from many other group situations in that communication serves a unique combination of three purposes at once: content, procedures, or behavior control (Wells, 2006).

Content talk: It focuses on *what* is being learned; Usually content talk relates in some obvious way to the curriculum or to current learning objectives.

- a. **Procedural talk:** as its name implies, is about administrative rules or routines needed to accomplish tasks in a classroom.
- b. **Control talk:** It is about preventing or correcting misbehaviors when they occur, particularly when the misbehaviors are not because of ignorance of procedures.

3. VERBAL, NONVERBAL, AND UNINTENDED COMMUNICATION

- a. **Verbal communication:** It is a message or information expressed in words, either orally or in writing. Classrooms obviously have lots of verbal communication; it happens every time a teacher explains a bit of content, asks a question, or writes information or instructions on the chalkboard.
- b. **Non-verbal communications:** They are gestures or behaviors that convey information, often simultaneously with spoken words.
- c. **Unintended communications:** They are the excess meanings of utterances; they are the messages received by students without the teacher’s awareness or desire.

4. STRUCTURES OF PARTICIPATION: EFFECTS ON COMMUNICATION

Here are some of the most common:

- **Lecturing**—the teacher talks and students listen. Maybe students take notes, but maybe not.
- **Questions and answers**—the teacher asks a series of questions, calling on one student at a time to answer each of them. Students raise their hands to be recognized and give answers that

are brief and “correct”. In earlier times this participation structure was sometimes called recitation.

- **Discussion**—the teacher briefly describes a topic or problem and invites students to comment on it. Students say something relevant about the topic, but also are supposed to respond to previous speakers if possible.
- **Group work**—the teacher assigns a general task, and a small group of students work out the details of implementing it. The teacher may check on the group’s progress before they finish, but not necessarily.

5. HOW TEACHERS TALK

Although teacher talk varies somewhat with the tasks or purposes at hand, it also has uniformities that occur across a range of situations. Each strategy simultaneously influences the course of discussion and focuses students’ attention, and in these ways also helps indirectly to insure appropriate classroom behavior:

- **Nominating, terminating, and interrupting speakers:** Teachers often choose who gets to speak.
- **Marking importance or irrelevance:** Teachers sometimes indicate that an idea is important. On the other hand, they sometimes also indicate that an idea is not crucial or important.
- **Signaling boundaries between activities:** Teachers declare when an activity is over and a new one is starting.
- **Asking “test” questions and evaluating students’ responses:** Teachers often ask test questions—questions to which they already know the answer. Then they evaluate the quality or correctness of the students’ answers.
 - **Exaggerated changes in pitch:** When busy teaching, teachers tend to exaggerate

changes in the pitch of their voice—

- **Careful enunciation:** In class teachers tend to speak more slowly, clearly, and carefully than when conversing with a friend.
- **Formal vocabulary and grammar:** Teachers tend to use vocabulary and grammar that is more formally polite and correct, and that uses relatively few slang or casual expressions.

6. HOW STUDENTS TALK

- **Agenda enforcement:** Sometimes students interrupt a discussion to ask about or remind others, and especially the teacher, of an agreed-on agenda.
- **Digression attempts:** During a discussion or activity, a student asks a question or makes a statement that is not relevant to the task at hand. While the teacher is leading students in a discussion of a story that they read
- **Side talk:** One student talks to another student, either to be sociable or to get information needed for the current assigned task.
- **Calling out:** A student speaks out of turn without being recognized by the teacher. The student's comment may or may not be relevant to the ongoing task or topic, and the teacher may or may not acknowledge or respond to it.
- **Answering a question with a question:** Instead of answering a teacher's "test" question directly, the student responds with a question of her own, either for clarification or as a stalling tactic ("Do you mean X?"). Either way, the effect is to shift the discussion or questioning to content or topics that are safer and more familiar.
- **Silence:** The student says nothing in response to a speaker's comments or to an invitation to speak.
- **Eye contact, gaze aversion, and posture:** The student looks directly at the teacher while the teacher is speaking, or else deliberately averts gaze. The student may also adopt any variety of postures while sitting (sit up straight vs slouching).

7. HELPING STUDENTS TO ARTICULATE THEIR IDEAS AND THINKING

In general any communication strategy will help students become more articulate if it

both allows and invites further comment and elaboration on their ideas.

The teacher asks the student to explain his initial idea more completely.

- The teacher rephrases a comment made by a student.
- The teacher compares the student's idea to another, related idea, and asks the student to comment.
- The teacher asks for evidence supporting the student's idea.

- The teacher asks the student how confident he is in his idea.
- The teacher asks another student to comment on the first student's idea.

8. PROMOTING ACADEMIC RISK-TAKING AND PROBLEM-SOLVING

- Where possible, call attention to the intrinsic interest or satisfaction of an activity.
- Minimize the importance of grades where possible.
- Make sure students know that they have ample time to complete an activity.
- Show that you value unusual ideas and elegant solutions to problems.

Because communication in classrooms is more complex and unpredictable than in many other situations, it is important for teachers to understand its unique features and functions. It is helpful to think of classroom communication as serving a mixture of three purposes at once: content talk, procedural talk, and behavior control talk. It is also helpful to recognize that classroom communication has elements that are not only verbal, but also nonverbal and unintended.

To be effective in using verbal communication, teachers need to use appropriate instructional strategies related to content, such as using advance organizers, relating new information to prior knowledge, and organizing new information on behalf of students. It includes strategies that assist students to communicate, such as inquiry learning and cooperative learning. To communicate well about procedures and about the behaviors expected of students, teachers need a variety of management techniques.

To be effective in using nonverbal communication, teachers need to use appropriate eye contact, allow ample wait time between speaking turns, and be aware of the effects of social distance on students. Structures of participation influence communication by facilitating particular patterns of speaking and listening, while at the same time making other patterns less convenient or disapproved. Four common participation structures are lectures, questions-and-answers, classroom discussions, and group work.

CHAPTER XI: LESSON PLAN

CHAPTER XI: LESSON PLAN

1. DEFINITION

A lesson plan is the instructor's road map of what students need to learn and how it will be done effectively during the class time. Before you plan your lesson, you will first need to identify the learning objectives for the class meeting. Then, you can design appropriate learning activities and develop strategies to obtain feedback on student learning. A successful lesson plan addresses and integrates these three key components:

- Objectives for student learning
- Teaching/learning activities
- Strategies to check student understanding

Specifying concrete objectives for student learning will help you determine the kinds of teaching and learning activities you will use in class, while those activities will define how you will check whether the learning objectives have been accomplished (see Fig. 1).

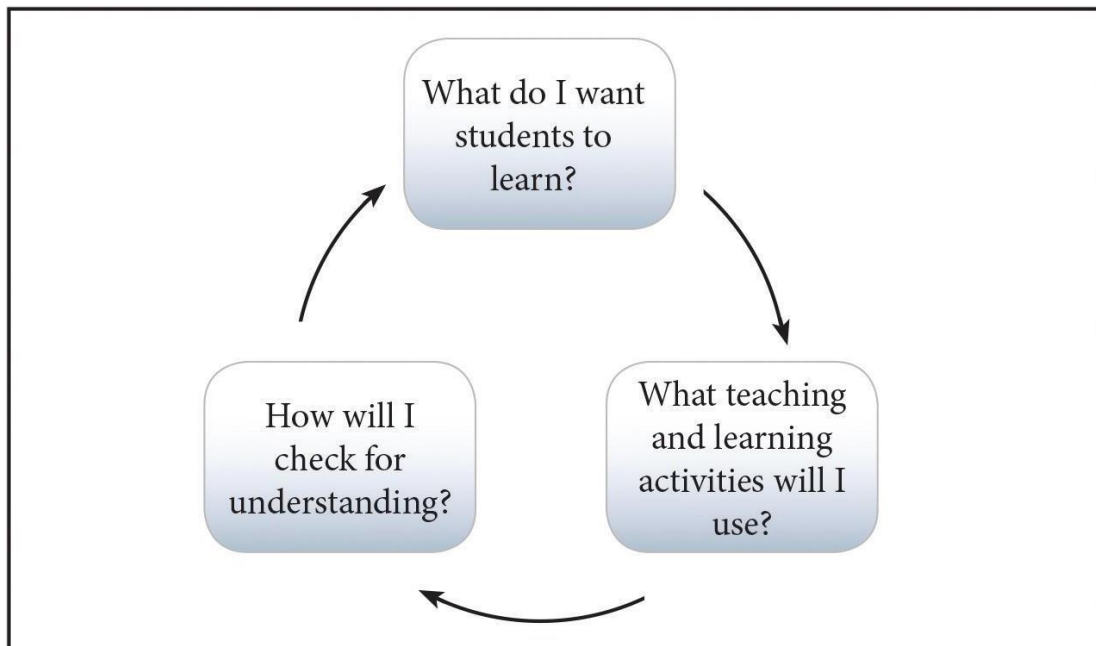


Fig. 1. Key Components of Lesson Plan Design (L. Dee Fink, 2005)

1. STEPS FOR PREPARING A LESSON PLAN

Below are six steps to guide you when you create your first lesson plans. Each step is

accompanied by a set of questions meant to prompt reflection and aid you in designing your teaching and learning activities.

1.1. Outline learning objectives

The first step is to determine what you want students to learn and be able to do at the end of class. To help you specify your objectives for student learning, answer the following questions:

- What is the topic of the lesson?
- What do I want students to learn?
- What do I want them to understand and be able to do at the end of class?
- What do I want them to take away from this particular lesson?

Once you outline the learning objectives for the class meeting, rank them in terms of their importance. This step will prepare you for managing class time and accomplishing the more important learning objectives in case you are pressed for time. Consider the following questions:

- What are the most important concepts, ideas, or skills I want students to be able to grasp and apply?
- Why are they important?
- If I ran out of time, which ones could not be omitted?
- And conversely, which ones could I skip if pressed for time?

1.2. Develop the introduction

Now that you have your learning objectives in order of their importance, design the specific activities you will use to get to understand and apply what they have learned. Because you will have a diverse body of students with different academic and personal experiences, they may already be familiar with the topic. That is why you might start with a question or activity to gauge students' knowledge of the subject or possibly, their preconceived notions about it. For example, you can take a simple poll: "How many of you have heard of X? Raise your hand if you have." You can also gather background information from your students prior to class by sending students an electronic survey or asking them to write comments on index cards. This additional information can help shape your introduction, learning activities, etc. When you have an idea of the students' familiarity with the topic, you will also have a sense of what to focus on.

Develop a creative introduction to the topic to stimulate interest and encourage thinking. You can use a variety of approaches to engage students (e.g., personal anecdote, historical event, thought-provoking dilemma, real-world example, short video clip, practical application, probing question, etc.). Consider the following questions when planning your introduction:

- How will I check whether students know anything about the topic or have any preconceived notions about it?
- What are some commonly held ideas (or possibly misconceptions) about this topic that students might be familiar with or might espouse?
- What will I do to introduce the topic?

1.3. Plan the specific learning activities (the main body of the lesson)

Prepare several different ways of explaining the material (real-life examples, analogies, visuals, etc.) to catch the attention of more students and appeal to different learning styles. As you plan your examples and activities, estimate how much time you will spend on each. Build in time for extended explanation or discussion, but also be prepared to move on quickly to different applications or problems, and to identify strategies that check for understanding. These questions would help you design the learning activities you will use:

- What will I do to explain the topic?
- What will I do to illustrate the topic in a different way?
- How can I engage students in the topic?
- What are some relevant real-life examples, analogies, or situations that can help students understand the topic?
- What will students need to do to help them understand the topic better?

1.4. Plan to check for understanding

Now that you have explained the topic and illustrated it with different examples, you need to check for student understanding

– how will you know that students are learning? Think about specific questions you can ask students in order to check for understanding, write them down, and then paraphrase them so that you are prepared to ask the questions in different ways. Try to predict the answers your questions will generate. Decide on whether you want students to respond orally or in writing. Here are some guiding questions you can ask yourself:

- What questions will I ask students to check for understanding?
- What will I have students do to demonstrate that they are following?
- Going back to my list of learning objectives, what activity can I have students do to check whether each of those has been accomplished?

An important strategy that will also help you with time management is to anticipate students' questions. When planning your lesson, decide what kinds of questions will be productive for discussion and what questions might sidetrack the class. Think about and decide on the balance between covering content (accomplishing your learning objectives) and ensuring that students understand.

1.5. Develop a conclusion and a preview

- Go over the material covered in class by summarizing the main points of the lesson. You can do this in a number of ways:
 - you can state the main points yourself ("Today we talked about..."), you can ask a student to help you summarize them, or you can even ask all students to write down on a piece of paper what they think were the main points of the lesson.
 - You can review the students' answers to gauge their understanding of the topic and then explain anything unclear the following class. Conclude the lesson not only by summarizing the main points, but also by previewing the next lesson.
 - How does the topic relate to the one that's coming? This preview will spur students' interest and help them connect the different ideas within a larger context.

1.6. Create a realistic timeline

Teachers know how easy it is to run out of time and not cover all of the many points they had planned to cover. A list of ten learning objectives is not realistic, so narrow down your list to the two or three key concepts, ideas, or skills you want students to learn. Instructors also agree that they often need to adjust their lesson plan during class depending on what the students need. Your list of prioritized learning objectives will help you make decisions on the spot and adjust your lesson plan as needed. Having additional examples or alternative activities will also allow you to be flexible. A realistic timeline will reflect your flexibility and readiness to adapt to the specific classroom environment. Here are some strategies for creating a realistic timeline:

- Estimate how much time each of the activities will take, then plan some extra time for each
- When you prepare your lesson plan, next to each activity indicate how much time you expect it will take
- Plan a few minutes at the end of class to answer any remaining questions and to sum up key points
- Plan an extra activity or discussion question in case you have time left
- Be flexible – be ready to adjust your lesson plan to students' needs and focus on what seems to be more productive rather than sticking to your original plan

2. PRESENTING THE LESSON PLAN

Letting your students know what they will be learning and doing in class will help keep them more engaged and on track. You can share your lesson plan by writing a brief agenda on the board or telling students explicitly what they will be learning and doing in class. You can outline on the board or on a handout the learning objectives for the class.

Providing a meaningful organization of the class time can help students not only remember better, but also follow your presentation and understand the rationale behind in-class activities. Having a clearly visible agenda (e.g., on the board) will also help you and students stay on track.

3. REFLECTING ON YOUR LESSON PLAN

A lesson plan may not work as well as you had expected due to a number of extraneous circumstances. You should not get discouraged – it happens to even the most experienced teachers! Take a few minutes after each class to reflect on what worked well and why, and what you could have done differently. Identifying successful and less successful organization of class time and activities would make it easier to adjust to the contingencies of the classroom. For additional feedback on planning and managing class time, you can use the following resources: student feedback, peer observation, viewing a videotape of your teaching.

CHAPTER XII: Assessing Students' Learning

1. DEFINITION

Evaluation, or assessment, refers to all the means used in schools to formally measure student performance (McMillan, 2004; Popham, 2005). These include quizzes and tests, written evaluations, and grades. Student evaluation usually focuses on academic achievement, but many schools also assess behaviors and attitudes.

Tests and grades tell teachers, students, and parents how students are doing in school. Teachers can use tests to determine whether their instruction was effective and to find out which students need additional help. Students can use tests to find out whether their studying strategies are paying off. Parents need grades to learn how their children are doing in school; grades usually serve as the one consistent form of communication between school and home.

2. ASSESSMENT OBJECTIVES

Student evaluations serve six primary purposes (see Gronlund, 2003):

2.1. Feedback to students

Teachers and students need to know as soon as possible whether their investments of time and energy in a given activity are paying off by the increasing of their learning. For example, suppose a teacher had students write compositions and then gave back written evaluations. Some students might find out that they needed to work more on content, others on the use of modifiers, still others on language mechanics. This information would help students to improve their writing much more than would a grade with no explanation.

2.2. Feedback to teachers

One of the most important (and often overlooked) functions of evaluating student learning is to provide feedback to teachers on the effectiveness of their instruction. Teachers cannot expect to be optimally effective if they do not know whether students have grasped the main points of their lessons. Asking questions in class and observing students as they work gives the teacher some idea of how well students have learned; but in many subjects brief, frequent quizzes, writing assignments, and other student products are necessary to provide more detailed indications of students' progress. Evaluations also give information to the principal and the school as a whole, which can be used to guide overall reform efforts by identifying where schools or subgroups within schools are in need of improvement (Hanna & Dettmer, 2004)

2.3. Evaluation as Information

A report card is called a report card because it reports information on student progress. This reporting function of evaluation is important for several reasons.

2.4. Information to parents

First, routine school evaluation of many kinds (tests, and certificates as well as report card grades) keep parents informed about children's schoolwork. For example, if a student's grades are dropping, the parents might know why and might be able to help the student get back on

track. Second grades and other evaluations set up informal home-based reinforcement systems.

2.5. Information for selection and certification

Some sociologists see the sorting of students into societal roles as a primary purpose of schools. Closely related to selection is certification, a use of tests to qualify students for promotion or for access to various occupations. For example, many states and local districts have minimum competency tests that students must pass to advance from grade to grade or to graduate from high school.

2.6. Information for accountability

Often, evaluations of students serve as data for the evaluation of teachers, schools.

2.7. Evaluation as Incentive

One important use of evaluations is to motivate students to give their best efforts. In essence, high grades, stars, and prizes are given as rewards for good work. Students value grades and prizes primarily because their parents value them.

3. HOW IS STUDENT LEARNING EVALUATED ?

To understand how assessments can be used most effectively in classroom instruction, it is important to know the differences between formative and summative evaluation and between norm-referenced and criterion-referenced interpretation.

3.1. Formative and Summative Evaluations

A *formative evaluation* asks, "How well are you doing and how can you be doing better?" A *summative evaluation* asks, "How well did you do?" Formative, or diagnostic, tests are given to discover strengths and weaknesses in learning and to make midcourse corrections in pace or content of instruction. Formative evaluations might even be made "on the fly" during instruction through oral or brief written learning probes.

Formative evaluation is useful to the degree that it is informative, closely tied to the curriculum being taught, timely, and frequent (McMillan, 2004). For example, frequent quizzes that are given scored immediately after specific lessons might serve as formative evaluations, providing feedback to help both teachers and students improve students' learning.

In contrast, *summative evaluation* refers to tests of student knowledge at the end of instructional units (such as final exams). Summative evaluations may or may not be frequent, but they must be reliable and (in general) should allow for comparisons among students. Summative evaluations should also be closely tied to formative evaluations and to course objectives.

Some Examples of Summative and Formative Assessment

Formative	Summative
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • In-class discussions • 1 on 1 conversations with students • Peer-generated concept maps • Exit tickets written at the end of class • Stoplight check in of their understandings • Peer-review of assignments • In Class Quiz (not contributing to the overall course grade) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Midterm or Final Exam The following are examples provided they contribute to the overall course grade: • Online or In-Class Quiz • Paper • In-Class Debate • Final Recital or Performance

4. NORM-REFERENCED AND CRITERION-REFERENCED EVALUATIONS

The distinction between norm-referencing and criterion-referencing refers to how students' scores are interpreted.

4.1. Norm-referenced interpretations

Focus on comparisons of a student's scores with those of other students. Within a classroom, for example, grades commonly are used to give teachers an idea of how well a student has performed in comparison with classmates. A student might also have a grade-level or school rank; and in standardized testing, student scores might be compared with those of a nationally representative norm group.

4.2. Criterion-referenced interpretations

Focus on assessing students' mastery of specific skills, regardless of how other students did on the same skills. Criterion-referenced evaluations are best if they are closely tied to specific objectives or well specified domains of the curriculum being taught. Comparison of the principal features and purposes of criterion-referenced and norm-referenced testing (Popham, 2005).

Table : Comparison of the principal features and purposes of criterion-referenced and norm-referenced testing (Popham, 2005).

Feature	Norm-Referenced Testing	Criterion-Referenced Testing
Principal use	Survey testing	Mastery testing
Major emphasis	Measures individual differences in achievement	Describes tasks students can perform
Interpretation of results	Compares performance to that of other individuals	Compares performance to a clearly specified achievement domain
Content coverage	Typically covers a broad area of achievement	Typically focuses on a limited set of learning tasks
Nature of test plan	Table of specifications is commonly used	Detailed domain specifications are favored
Item selection procedures	Items selected to provide maximum discrimination among individuals (to obtain high score variability); easy items typically eliminated from the test	Includes all items needed to adequately describe performance; no attempt is made to alter item difficulty or to eliminate easy items to increase score variability
Performance standards	Level of performance determined by <i>relative</i> position in some known group (e.g., student ranks fifth in a group of 20)	Level of performance commonly determined by <i>absolute</i> standards (e.g., student demonstrates mastery by defining 90 percent of the technical terms)

Source: Adapted from Norman E. Gronlund, *How to Make Achievement Tests and Assessments* (5th ed.). Copyright © 1993 by Allyn & Bacon. Reprinted by permission.

5. MATCHING EVALUATION STRATEGIES WITH GOALS

Teachers must choose different types of evaluation for different purposes. At a minimum, two types of evaluation should be used: one directed at providing incentive and feedback and the other directed at ranking individual students relative to the larger group.

5.1 Evaluation for Incentive and Feed back

It is important to have a clear and objective set of criteria that student work is compared with so students can see exactly why they scored as they did. If the criteria are illustrated using a rubric that has descriptions of different levels of achievement (scores) as well as examples of student work at the highest levels of achievement (or better yet, that is typical of each possible score students might receive according to the rubric), then students can see exactly how their achievement compares with the criteria.

5.2 Evaluation for Comparison with Others

There are times when teachers need to know and to communicate how well students are doing in comparison to others. This information is important to give parents (and students themselves) a realistic picture of student performance.

Comparative evaluations are traditionally provided by grades and by standardized tests. Unlike incentive/feedback evaluations, comparative evaluations need not be conducted frequently. Rather, the emphasis in comparative evaluations must be on fair, unbiased, reliable assessment of student performance. Comparative evaluation should assess what students can do and nothing else.

6. HOW ARE TESTS CONSTRUCTED?

Writing good achievement tests is therefore a critical skill for effective teaching. This section presents some basic principles of achievement testing and practical tools for test construction.

7. PRINCIPLES OF ACHIEVEMENT TESTING

Gronlund (2000) listed six principles to keep in mind in preparing achievement tests. These are paraphrased as follows:

- a. Achievement tests should measure clearly defined learning objectives that are in harmony with instructional objectives.

- b.** Achievement tests should measure a representative sample of the learning tasks included in the instruction.
- c.** Achievement tests should include the types of test items that are most appropriate for measuring the desired learning outcomes. Items on achievement tests should correspond as closely as possible to the ultimate instructional objectives.
- d.** Achievement tests should fit the particular uses that will be made of the results. Each type of achievement test has its own requirements. For example, a test that is used for diagnosis would focus on particular skills with which students might need help.
- e.** Achievement tests should be as reliable as possible and should be interpreted with caution. A test is reliable to the degree that students who were tested a second time would fall in the same rank order. In general, writers of achievement tests increase reliability by using relatively large numbers of items and by using few items that almost all students get right or that almost all students miss.
- f.** Achievement tests should improve learning. Achievement tests of all kinds, particularly formative tests, provide important information on students' learning progress. Stiggins (2004), for example, urges that assessments *for* learning are more important than assessments *of* learning. Achievement testing should be seen as part of the instructional process and should be used to improve instruction and guide student Learning.

8. TYPES OF LANGUAGE TESTS

8.1 Achievement Test

An achievement test, also referred to as attainment or summative test, are devised to measure how much of a language someone has learned with reference to a particular course of study or programme of instruction, e.g. end-of-year tests designed to show mastery of a language. An achievement test might be a listening comprehension test based on a particular set of situational dialogues in a textbook. The test has a two-fold objective: 1) To help the teachers judge the success of their teaching. 2) To identify the weaknesses of their learners. In more practical and pedagogical terms, Brown (1994, p. 259) defines an achievement test as „tests that are limited to particular material covered in a curriculum within a particular time frame“. In other words, they are designed primarily to measure individual progress rather than

as a means of motivating or reinforcing language. Ideally, achievement tests are rarely constructed by classroom teacher for a particular class.

8.2 Diagnostic Test

As its name denotes, a diagnostic test is primarily designed to diagnose some particular linguistic aspects. Diagnostic tests in pronunciation, for example, might have the purpose of determining which particular phonological features of the English language are more likely to pose problems and difficulties for a group of learners. One of the well-known diagnostic tests in English is Prator's (1972) Diagnostic Passage. It consists of a short written passage that the learner reads orally; the teacher then examines a tape recording of that reading against a very detailed checklist of pronunciation errors. Basically, diagnostic language tests have a three-fold objective: 1. To provide learners with a way to start learning with their own personal learning programme or what would be called in the literature of testing learning paths. 2. To provide learners with a way to test their knowledge of a language. 3. To provide learners with better information about their strengths and weaknesses. Ideally, diagnostic tests are designed to assess students' linguistic knowledge (knowledge of and about the language) and language skills (listening, speaking, reading and writing) before a course is begun. However, the term formative is sometimes used to designate a diagnostic test. One of the main advantages of a diagnostic test is that it offers useful pedagogical solutions for mixed-ability classes. In this very specific context, Broughton et al. (1980) contend that: There will certainly be a large block in the middle of the ability range who can be separated off as a group for some parts of the lesson, or for some lessons, and will form a more homogenous teaching group. If this strategy is adopted, the poor ones and the better ones must receive their due time and attention. (Broughton et al. 1980, p. 189)

8.3 Language Aptitude Test

Before one ventures into defining what a language aptitude test is, it would be wiser to start first by defining what a language aptitude is. Language aptitude, as a hybrid concept part linguistic and part psychological, refers to the genuine ability one is endowed with to learn a language. It is thought to be a combination of several abilities:

- **Phonological ability**, i.e. the ability to detect phonetic differences (e.g. of stress, intonation, vowel quality) in a new language.
- **Syntactic ability**, i.e., the ability to recognize the different grammatical functions of words in sentences.
- **Psychological ability**, i.e. rote-learning abilities and the ability to make inferences and inductive learning.

Additionally, Crystal (1989, p. 371) suggests other variables conducive to successful language learning such as empathy and adaptability, assertiveness and independence with good drive and powers of application“. A high language-aptitude person can learn more quickly and easily than a low language-aptitude individual. The evidence in such assertion is axiomatic in a language aptitude test. A language aptitude test tends to measure a learner aptitude for language learning, be it second or foreign, i.e. students performance in a language. Thus, it is used to identify those learners who are most likely to succeed. Language aptitude tests usually consist of several different test items which measures such abilities as:

- **Sound-coding ability**, i.e. the ability to identify and remember new sounds in a new language.
- **Grammar-coding ability**, i.e. the ability to identify the grammatical functions of different parts of sentences.
- **Inductive-learning ability**, i.e. the ability to work out meanings without explanation in the new language.
- **Memorization**, i.e. the ability to remember and to recall words, patterns, rules in the new language

8.4 Placement Test

A placement test, as its name implies, is originally designed to place learners at an appropriate level in a programme or course. The term “placement test” as Richards et al. (1989) note does not refer to what a test contains or how it is constructed, but to the purpose for which it used. Various types or testing procedures such as dictation, interview or a grammar test (discrete or integrative) can be used for placement purposes. The English Placement test (EPT), which is a well-known test in America, is an illustrative example of this

test-type. The EPT is designed to assess the level of reading and writing skills of entering undergraduate students so that they can be placed in appropriate courses. Those undergraduate students who do not demonstrate college or university-level skills will be directed to remedial courses or programmes to help them attain these skills.

8.5 Proficiency Test

A proficiency test is devised to measure how much of a language someone has learned. It is not linked to any particular course of instruction, but measures the learner's general level of language mastery. Most English language proficiency tests base their testing items on high frequency-count vocabulary and general basic grammar. Some proficiency tests have been standardized for worldwide use, such as the well-known American tests, the TOEFL, and the English Language Proficiency Test (ELPT)³ which are used to measure the English language proficiency of foreign students intending further study at English-speaking institutions, namely the USA. However, the Cambridge Certificate of Proficiency in English or CPE, as it is generally referred to, is the most advanced remains the only British top-value and high-prestige standardized⁴ language test. It is the most advanced general English exam provided by the University of Cambridge. The Certificate is recognized by universities and employees throughout the world. The English level of those who pass the CPE is supposed to be similar to that of a fairly educated native speaker of English. Clearly, as Valette posits, „the aim of a proficiency test is to determine whether this language ability corresponds to specific language requirements“ (Valette, 1977, p. 6). Actually, there are four other types of Cambridge proficiency tests, the Cambridge Key English Test (KET), the Cambridge Preliminary English Test (PET), The Cambridge First Certificate of English (FCE) and the Cambridge Certificate in Advanced English (CAE). The material contained in proficiency tests can be used for teaching as well as for testing. In essence, a proficiency test measures what the student has learned in relation to a specific purpose, e.g. does the student know enough English to follow a course offered in English?

8.6 Progress Test

A progress test is an achievement-like test. It is closely related to a particular set of teaching materials or a particular course of instruction. Progress tests are usually administered at the end of a unit, a course, or term. A progress test may be viewed as similar to an achievement

test but much narrower and much more specific in scope (Richards et al., 1989). They help examiners in general and language teachers in particular to assess the degree of success of their programmes and teaching and therefore to identify their shortcomings and weaknesses respectively. Progress tests can also be diagnostic to some degree, in the sense that they help identify areas of difficulties encountered by learners in general.

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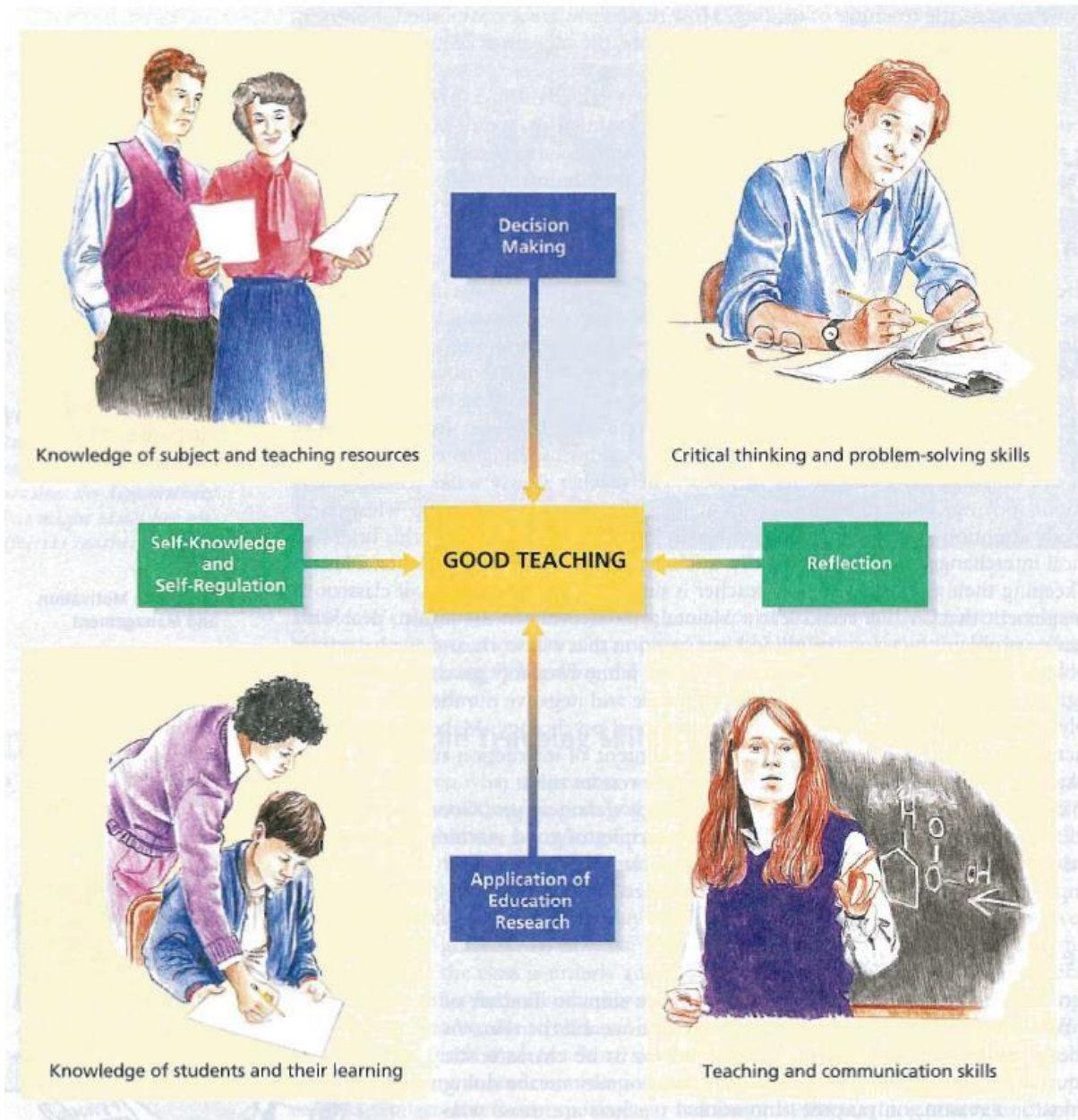
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Appendices

Components of good teaching



Stages of Cognitive Development

Table 2.1

Piaget's Stages of Cognitive Development

People progress through four stages of cognitive development between birth and adulthood, according to Jean Piaget. Each stage is marked by the emergence of new intellectual abilities that allow people to understand the world in increasingly complex ways.

<i>Stage</i>	<i>Approximate Ages</i>	<i>Major Accomplishments</i>
Sensorimotor	Birth to 2 years	Formation of concept of "object permanence" and gradual progression from reflexive behavior to goal-directed behavior.
Preoperational	2 to 7 years	Development of the ability to use symbols to represent objects in the world. Thinking remains egocentric and centered.
Concrete operational	7 to 11 years	Improvement in ability to think logically. New abilities include the use of operations that are reversible. Thinking is decentered, and problem solving is less restricted by egocentrism. Abstract thinking is not possible.
Formal operational	11 years to adulthood	Abstract and purely symbolic thinking possible. Problems can be solved through the use of systematic experimentation.

(Appendix A): The Social Development

Table 2.2

Erikson's Stages of Personal and Social Development

As people grow, they face a series of psychosocial crises that shape personality, according to Erik Erikson. Each crisis focuses on a particular aspect of personality and involves the person's relationship with other people.

<i>Stage</i>	<i>Approximate Ages</i>	<i>Psychosocial Crises</i>	<i>Significant Relationships</i>	<i>Psychosocial Emphasis</i>
I	Birth to 18 months	Trust vs. mistrust	Maternal person	To get To give in return
II	18 months to 3 years	Autonomy vs. doubt	Parental persons	To hold on To let go
III	3 to 6 years	Initiative vs. guilt	Basic family	To make (= going after) To "make like" (= playing)
IV	6 to 12 years	Industry vs. inferiority	Neighborhood, school	To make things To make things together
V	12 to 18 years	Identity vs. role confusion	Peer groups and models of leadership	To be oneself (or not to be) To share being oneself
VI	Young adulthood	Intimacy vs. isolation	Partners in friendship, sex, competition, cooperation	To lose and find oneself in another
VII	Middle adulthood	Generativity vs. self-absorption	Divided labor and shared household	To take care of
VIII	Late adulthood	Integrity vs. despair	"Mankind," "My kind"	To be, through having been To face not being

Source: From "Figure of Erikson's Stages of Personality Development," *Childhood and Society* by Erik H. Erikson. Copyright 1950, © 1963 by W. W. Norton & Company, Inc. renewed © 1978, 1991 by Erik H. Erikson. Reprinted by permission of W. W. Norton & Company, Inc.

(Appendix B): Cultural Diversity & Individual Identity



(Appendix C):The Eight Intelligences

Table 4.4

The Eight Intelligences

<i>Intelligence</i>	<i>End States</i>	<i>Core Components</i>
Logical/mathematical	Scientist, mathematician	Sensitivity to, and capacity to discern, logical or numerical patterns; ability to handle long chains of reasoning.
Linguistic	Poet, journalist	Sensitivity to the sounds, rhythms, and meanings of words; sensitivity to the different functions of language.
Musical	Composer, violinist	Abilities to produce and appreciate rhythm, pitch, and timbre; appreciation of the forms of musical expressiveness.
Naturalist	Naturalist, botanist, hunter	Sensitivity to natural objects, like plants and animals; making fine sensory discriminations.
Spatial	Navigator, sculptor	Capacities to perceive the visual-spatial world accurately and to perform transformations on one's initial perceptions.
Bodily/kinesthetic	Dancer, athlete	Ability to control one's body movements and to handle objects skillfully.
Interpersonal	Therapist, salesperson	Capacities to discern and respond appropriately to the moods, temperaments, motivations, and desires of other people.
Intrapersonal	Person with detailed, accurate self-knowledge	Access to one's own feelings and the ability to discriminate among them and draw on them to guide behavior; knowledge of one's own strengths, weaknesses, desires, and intelligences.

Source: From H. Gardner and T. Hatch, "Multiple Intelligences Go to School," *Educational Researcher*, 18(8), p. 6. Copyright © 1989 by the American Educational Research Association. Adapted by permission of the publisher and the authors.

(Appendix D):Lesson Parts

Sample Lesson for History: The Origins of World War II	
Lesson Part	Teacher Presentation
1. State learning objective and orient students to lesson.	<p>"Today we will begin to discuss the origins and causes of World War II—perhaps the most important event in the twentieth century. The political situation of the world today—the map of Europe, the political predominance of the United States, the problems of the Eastern European countries formerly under Soviet domination, even the problems of the Middle East—all can be traced to the rise of Hitler and the bloody struggle that followed. I'm sure many of you have relatives who fought in the war or whose lives were deeply affected by it. Raise your hand if a relative or someone you know well fought in World War II."</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • "Germany today is peaceful and prosperous. How could a man like Hitler have come to power? To understand this, we must first understand what Germany was like in the years following its defeat in World War I and why an unemployed Austrian painter could come to lead one of the largest countries in Europe." • "By the end of this lesson you will understand the conditions in Germany that led up to the rise of Hitler, the reasons he was successful, and the major events of his rise to power."
2. Review prerequisites.	<p>Have students recall from the previous lesson:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The humiliating provisions of the Treaty of Versailles <ul style="list-style-type: none"> —Reparations —Demilitarization of the Ruhr —Loss of territory and colonies • The lack of experience with democracy in Germany
3. Present new material.	<p>Discuss with students:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Conditions in Germany before the rise of Hitler <ul style="list-style-type: none"> —Failure of the Weimar Republic —Economic problems, inflation, and severe impact of the U.S. Depression —Belief that Germany lost World War I because of betrayal by politicians —Fear of Communism • Events in Hitler's rise to power <ul style="list-style-type: none"> —Organization of National Socialist (Nazi) Party —Beer-Hall Putsch and Hitler's imprisonment —<i>Mein Kampf</i> —Organization of Brown Shirts (S.A.) —Election and appointment as chancellor
4. Conduct learning probes.	Questions to students throughout lesson should assess student comprehension of the main points.
5. Provide independent practice.	Have students independently write three reasons why the situation in Germany in the 1920s and early 1930s might have been favorable to Hitler's rise, and have students be prepared to defend their answers.
6. Assess performance and provide feedback.	Call on randomly selected students to read and justify their reasons for Hitler's success. Discuss well-justified and poorly justified reasons. Have students hand in papers.
7. Provide distributed practice and review.	Review lesson content at start of next lesson and in later lessons.

(Appendix E):Learner-centered Psychological Principles

Learner-Centered Psychological Principles: Cognitive and Metacognitive Factors	
Principle	Explanation
<i>Principle 1</i> Nature of the learning process	The learning of complex subject matter is most effective when it is an intentional process of constructing meaning from information and experience.
<i>Principle 2</i> Goals of the learning process	The successful learner, over time and with support and instructional guidance, can create meaningful, coherent representations of knowledge.
<i>Principle 3</i> Construction of knowledge	The successful learner can link new information with existing knowledge in meaningful ways.
<i>Principle 4</i> Strategic thinking	The successful learner can create and use a repertoire of thinking and reasoning strategies to achieve complex learning goals.
<i>Principle 5</i> Thinking about thinking	Higher-order strategies for selecting and monitoring mental operations facilitate creative and critical thinking.
<i>Principle 6</i> Context of learning	Learning is influenced by environmental factors, including culture, technology, and instructional practices.
<i>Principle 7</i> Motivational and emotional influences on learning	What and how much is learned is influenced by the learner's motivation. Motivation to learn, in turn, is influenced by the individual's emotional states, beliefs, interests and goals, and habits of thinking.
<i>Principle 8</i> Intrinsic motivation to learn	The learner's creativity, higher-order thinking, and natural curiosity all contribute to motivation to learn. Intrinsic motivation is stimulated by tasks that are of optimal novelty and difficulty, are relevant to personal interests, and provide for personal choice and control.
<i>Principle 9</i> Effects of motivation on effort	Acquisition of complex knowledge and skills requires extended learner effort and guided practice. Without learners' motivation to learn, the willingness to exert this effort is unlikely without coercion.
<i>Principle 10</i> Developmental influences on learning	As individuals develop, they encounter different opportunities and experience different constraints for learning. Learning is most effective when differential development within and across physical, intellectual, emotional, and social domains is taken into account.
<i>Principle 11</i> Social influences on learning	Learning is influenced by social interactions, interpersonal relations, and communication with others.
<i>Principle 12</i> Individual differences in learning	Learners have different strategies, approaches, and capabilities for learning that are a function of prior experience and heredity.
<i>Principle 13</i> Learning and diversity	Learning is most effective when differences in learners' linguistic, cultural, and social backgrounds are taken into account.
<i>Principle 14</i> Standards and assessment	Setting appropriately high and challenging standards and assessing the learner and learning progress—including diagnostic, process, and outcome assessment—are integral parts of the learning process.
Source: From American Psychological Association, <i>Learner-centered psychological principles: A framework for school redesign and reform</i> , pp. 4–7. Copyright © 1997 by the American Psychological Association. Adapted by permission.	

(Appendix F):Thinking Skills : Build a strategy

Thinking Skills: Build a Strategy		
Strategy Building Blocks		
When . . .	Strategy Step	Tactics
When you need to be clear about what you're doing or where you're going . . .	State . . . either the problem, the situation, or your goal(s).	Identify the different dimensions of the situation. Identify the parts of the situation you will focus on. State precisely what you want to change or what you want your outcome to be. Be specific!
When you need to think broadly about something . . .	Search . . . for ideas, options, possibilities, purposes, features, assumptions, causes, effects, questions, dimensions, hypotheses, facts, or interpretations.	Brainstorm. Look for different kinds of ideas. Look at things from different points of view. Look for hidden ideas. Build on other people's ideas. Use categories to help you search.
When you need to assess, rate, or decide something . . .	Evaluate . . . options, plans, ideas, theories, or objects.	Look for lots of reasons. Consider the immediate and long-term consequences. List all the pros and cons, paying attention to both. Try to be objective; avoid bias. Use your imagination: How will it affect others?
When you need to think about the details of something . . .	Elaborate . . . possibilities, plans, options, hypotheses, or ideas.	Make a detailed plan: Say what will happen at each step. Visualize what it will look/feel/seem like <i>in detail</i> . Ask yourself: What resources will be used? How will it happen? Who will be affected? How long will it take? Think about the different parts. Draw a picture or write a description; imagine <i>telling</i> someone about it.

Source: From Shari Tishman, David N. Perkins, and Eileen Jay, *The Thinking Classroom*. Copyright © 1995 by Allyn & Bacon. Reprinted by permission.

(Appendix G):School & Teacher Policies to promote Learning/Task Goals

School and Teacher Policies That Are Likely to Promote Learning or Task Goals		
Area	Objectives	Examples of Possible Strategies
Task	Enhance intrinsic attractiveness of learning tasks. Make learning meaningful.	Encourage instruction that relates to students' backgrounds and experience. Avoid payment (monetary or other) for attendance, grades, or achievement. Foster goal-setting and self-regulation. Use extra classroom programs that make learning experiences relevant.
Autonomy/Responsibility	Provide optimal freedom for students to make choices and take responsibility.	Give alternatives in making assignments. Ask for student comments on school life—and take them seriously. Encourage instructional programs that encourage students to take initiatives and evaluate their own learning. Establish leadership opportunities for <i>all</i> students.
Recognition	Provide opportunities for <i>all</i> students to be recognized for learning. Recognize <i>progress</i> in goal attainment. Recognize challenge seeking and innovation.	Foster personal-best awards. Reduce emphasis on honor rolls. Recognize and publicize a wide range of school-related activities of students.
Resources	Encourage the development and maintenance of strategies that enhance task-goal emphases.	Underwrite action taken by staff that is in accord with a task-goal emphasis.
Grouping	Build an environment of acceptance and appreciation of all students. Broaden the range of social interaction, particularly of at-risk students. Enhance social skills development.	Provide opportunities for cooperative learning, problem solving, and decision making. Allow time and opportunity for peer interaction. Foster the development of subgroups (teams, schools within schools, etc.) within which significant interaction can occur. Encourage multiple group membership to increase range of peer interaction. Eliminate ability-grouped classes.
Evaluation	Grading and reporting processes. Practices associated with use of standardized tests. Definition of goals and standards.	Reduce emphasis on social comparisons of achievement by minimizing public reference to normative evaluation standards (e.g., grades, test scores). Establish policies and procedures that give students opportunities to improve their performance (e.g., study skills, classes). Establish grading/reporting practices that portray student progress in learning. Encourage student participation in the evaluation process.
Time	Allow the learning task and student needs to dictate scheduling. Provide opportunities for extended and significant student involvement in learning tasks.	Allow students to <i>progress at their own rate</i> whenever possible. Encourage flexibility in the scheduling of learning experiences. Give teachers greater control over time usage through, for example, block scheduling.

Source: From M. L. Maehr and E. M. Anderman, "Reinventing Schools for Early Adolescents," *The Elementary School Journal*, 93(5), 1993, pp. 593–610. Copyright © 1993 by The University of Chicago Press. Adapted by permission.

(Appendix H): Developing your Portfolio

Appendix: *Developing Your Portfolio*

What Is a Portfolio?

A portfolio is not merely a file of course projects and assignments, nor is it a scrapbook of teaching memorabilia. A portfolio is an organized, goal-driven documentation of your professional growth and achieved competence in the complex act called teaching. Although it is a collection of documents, a portfolio is tangible evidence of the wide range of knowledge, dispositions, and skills that you possess as a growing professional. What's more, documents in the portfolio are self-selected, reflecting your individuality and autonomy.

There are actually two kinds of portfolios that you will be developing: a working portfolio and a presentation portfolio. A working portfolio is characterized by your ongoing systematic collection of selected work in courses and evidence of community activities. This collection would form a framework for self-assessment and goal setting. Later, you would develop a presentation portfolio by winnowing your collection to samples of your work that best reflect your achieved competence, individuality, and creativity as a professional educator.

What Is a Working Portfolio? A working portfolio is always much larger and more complete than a presentation portfolio. It contains unabridged versions of the documents you have carefully selected to portray your professional growth. For example, it might contain entire reflective journals, complete units, unique teacher-made materials, and a collection of videos of your teaching. Working portfolios are often stored in a combination of computer disks, notebooks, and even boxes.

What Is a Presentation Portfolio? A presentation portfolio is compiled for the expressed purpose of giving others an effective and easy-to-read portrait of your professional competence. A presentation portfolio is selective and streamlined because other people usually do not

have the time to review all the material in your working portfolio. In making a presentation portfolio, you will find that less is more. For example, since you would be unlikely to take to an interview all your teacher-made learning materials, you might rely on photographs. Most reviewers would not want to assess several videos of your teaching but would be interested in one well-edited and annotated video. Sample pages from a large project would replace an entire project. The two types of portfolios differ in that all documents in a presentation portfolio should be preceded by an explanation of the importance or relevance of the document so that the reviewer understands the context of your work. Because it is important that a presentation portfolio not be cumbersome or unwieldy, we recommend the use of a notebook.

How Do I Organize My Portfolio?

There is one essential way in which working portfolios and presentation portfolios are alike. From their inception, both need to have a well-established organizational system. There is no one standard way to organize a portfolio, but to be effective it must have a system of organization that is understandable and meaningful to you and other educators. We suggest organizing your portfolio around a set of goals you are trying to achieve. This makes sense when one of your purposes for a portfolio is to demonstrate to others that you are achieving success in meeting standards set for excellence in the teaching profession.

Many professional organizations are setting goals for the teachers of the twenty-first century. These organizations include state departments of education, professional societies such as the National Association for the Education of Young Children or the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics, interagency groups, and university schools of education. The professional goals established by these organizations are called by a variety of names, including standards, principles, performance domains, outcomes, and competencies. They are all attempts to reflect the knowledge, skills, and dispositions

Excerpted from Dorothy M. Campbell et al. (2001). *How to Develop a Professional Portfolio: A Manual for Teachers* (2nd ed.). Boston: Allyn & Bacon.

that define excellent teachers and therefore are goals for you as a preservice teacher to achieve.

You should become familiar with a number of documents that outline sets of standards for your discipline, your state, and your own university department. As you study these standards, choose or adapt a set of goals that makes sense to you in your particular situation. Regardless of the goals or standards chosen, everything collected for your portfolio should be organized around the chosen goal statements.

What Evidence Should I Include in My Portfolio?

For every standard, you will include artifacts that demonstrate you have met this principle. An artifact is tangible evidence of knowledge that is gained, skills that are mastered, values that are clarified, or dispositions and attitudes that are characteristic of you. Artifacts cannot conclusively prove the attainment of knowledge, skills, or dispositions, but they provide indicators of achieved competence. For example, lesson and unit plans are pieces of evidence that might provide strong indication of your ability to plan curriculum or use a variety of teaching strategies. A video of your teaching might be a convincing indicator of your ability to manage and motivate a group of students. The same artifact may document more than one standard. At first, many artifacts will be collected. Later, artifacts will be selectively placed within each of the standards. Those artifacts that represent your growth and very best professional work should be included as evidence in your professional portfolio. Ask yourself: Would I be proud to have my future employer and peer group see this? Is this an example of what my future professional work might look like? Does this represent what I stand for as a professional educator? If not, what can I do to revise or rearrange so that it represents my best efforts?

Who Is the Audience for My Portfolio?

Information contained in the portfolio will be of interest to individuals who will be assessing your performance and measuring your accountability. While a student, your portfolio will be reviewed by your university faculty and advisors. Moreover, your portfolio will be an excellent way for you to introduce yourself to cooperating teachers and administrators during field experiences and student teaching. During job interviews, your portfolio is likely to be reviewed by superintendents, principals, teachers, and in some cases even school board members. As you begin your teaching career, your portfolio will be a helpful vehicle for mentors, in-service education

coordinators, and other colleagues. In some school districts, a portfolio will be relied on by supervisory staff charting ongoing career development or making tenure and promotion decisions. There is also a good possibility that your portfolio will one day be used to facilitate licensing by professional organizations, state agencies, or national consortiums. Most importantly, the portfolio provides you, the author, with an informative and accurate picture of your professional development and growth.

What Are Some Artifact Possibilities?

Article Summaries or Critiques You may have written a summary or evaluation of an article from a professional journal as a class assignment. When including these in your portfolio, choose critiques that address the desired topic very specifically. The title of the article should be reflective of a chosen standard, making an obvious connection. This document is especially helpful if your professor has made positive remarks about your work and these remarks are about the outcome you wish to document.

The article summary or critique may show your ability to analyze any number of teaching skills. For example, suppose you critiqued an article titled "Getting Parents Involved in Their Children's Education." If you discussed your own ideas about parent involvement in your critique, this document may be able to reflect your knowledge of school-home-community cooperation.

Assessments Any forms of assessment you have used or developed to measure child performance would be included in this type of document. Examples of assessments are performance tasks, portfolios, teacher-written tests, informal observations or notes, evaluations from lesson plans, formative assessment notes or charts, and summative charts of student developmental levels. You may want to include the actual assessment instrument you have written, with the children's work on it, if applicable (only one copy is necessary). In addition, you may include notes in a personal journal from observations made during the administration of a standardized test. Your ability to assess children's performance, diagnose progress, and use tests wisely is reflected in this document. In addition, your understanding of child development may be evident.

Awards and Certificates Copies of letters, awards, or certificates that verify your outstanding contribution to the field of education fit in this category. These could include honors conferred, memberships in honorary

professional organizations, community recognition, and volunteer recognition. Your professional commitment is reflected in these types of documents.

Bulletin Board Ideas After creating a bulletin board, make a copy of your design or take a photograph of the board. Make sure all spelling, punctuation, and grammar are standard English. This document can be used to show your ability to think creatively, use materials in interesting ways, or motivate students.

Case Studies A case study is a thorough examination of a student's growth over a period of time. When using this as a document, make sure the student is anonymous. Generally, case studies are quite long; therefore, you may want to include a specific part of the paper for documentation of a standard. Your knowledge of child development as well as your observation skills may be evident in this document.

Classroom Management Philosophy This is a written summary of your philosophy of classroom management. Make sure to cite the research and theories that have guided you in the way you influence student behavior and encourage development of self-control. Classroom management skills and knowledge of human development are evident in this document.

Computer Programs This includes examples of various programs you have utilized, developed, or incorporated in your teaching that provide evidence of your ability to use materials in a challenging and appropriate way to encourage active learning.

Also appropriate are programs that demonstrate your ability to conduct online searches and research. Examples include ERIC, Education Index, and Internet programs that link teachers worldwide. You can document your abilities by providing the hard copies of these searches along with an explanation of the reason for your computer searches. These documents reflect your willingness to seek further professional growth.

Cooperative Learning Strategies Have you planned or taught a lesson using a cooperative learning technique? Cooperative learning is a method of teaching in which students work collaboratively in small groups to solve a problem. This type of group work must be obvious in your lesson. You may want to include a copy of the lesson plan and, if the lesson was actually taught, a statement assessing the effectiveness of the cooperative learning technique. This will document your ability to use cooperative learning as a strategy as well as your ability to manage and motivate a class of students.

Curriculum Plans These documents are written plans, or programs, or both designed to organize curriculum. Your curriculum plans can reflect all experiences you have developed for the child while engaged in the process of schooling. Examples may include lesson plans, units, thematic units, learning centers, extracurricular programs, or school-community ventures. These documents portray your instructional planning skills or your ability to use many and varied instructional strategies.

Essays You can use papers from education courses, English composition, or any other class in which you were required to write an essay. Examine the topic you addressed in your paper to be sure its main idea reflects one of the standards you are using.

Goal Statements Professional goals are based on your needs, interests, philosophy of education, and perception of your role as a teacher. Goal statements assist you in determining where you want to be and provide you with information about how to get there.

Think about the important results you should accomplish in your role as a teacher and record these as goal statements. Remember that any short-term goals you establish should be tied to the longer-term goals you have identified in conjunction with your philosophy of education. Periodically review and evaluate your accomplishments in relation to your goal statements. You may wish to list your accomplishments associated with each goal. You will establish new goals as you refine your philosophy of education, your role as a teacher, and your expectations. It is important to keep your list of goal statements current. These statements might appear at the beginning of your portfolio or as documentation of your professional commitment.

Individualized Plans Children with special needs sometimes need tasks to be structured in ways that will allow them to use their strengths and compensate for their specific learning difficulties. Ways in which lesson and unit plans have been adapted for specific students should be documented. Make sure the learning need is defined and clearly addressed. This artifact could document your skills in meeting individual needs, your instructional strategies skills, and your knowledge of child development.

Journals You may have kept journals during field classes or observation assignments. Include them if they address your observations of students as they relate to the desired standard. If necessary, highlight the appropriate sections of the journals. Make sure dates and times are included but not the names of schools or teachers visited.

Lesson Plans Copies of your lesson plans should include all components of a workable plan: objectives, materials, introduction, procedures, closing, and evaluation.

Sometimes plans may be used for more than one standard. In this case, highlight the specific part of the plan that documents the standard. Your ability to execute instructional planning and to use a variety of instructional strategies will be most obviously documented with lesson plans; however, it is possible that knowledge of content, use of environments and materials, communication skills, and knowledge of human development could be documented here.

Media Competencies This type of document includes evidence and descriptions of the various forms of media you are able to incorporate in your instruction. This could include teaching resources such as the slide projector, camcorder and VCR, overhead projector, 16mm projector, computers and printers, interactive video, laser discs, and cable and electronic (educational) television.

You will also want to include evidence of your ability to incorporate technology into the classroom. Examples of how you have used e-mail, remote databases, and distance learning equipment to research and to communicate with students and colleagues regionally, nationally, and internationally should be highlighted. A printout or floppy disk of your Internet address(es), listing of professional online news group and listserv memberships you hold, and examples of printed texts will provide documentation of your ability to share and retrieve information via the Internet.

Projects Projects can include any type of assignment that involved problem solving, group presentations, creating materials, investigating phenomena in classrooms, or researching current information. In a presentation portfolio, include paper copies only and make photographs of anything too large to fit in a notebook. If this is a group project, make that clear but indicate the extent of your input. (Be careful about this one; it is not helpful to brag about doing all the work.)

The documentation possibilities of this artifact depend on the project. Examine the standards to determine whether the project reflects instructional planning skills, professional commitment, the ability to meet individual needs, or knowledge of content.

References References might include statements, evaluations, or both, from your supervisors of your academic work, experiences in the classroom, other work experience with children, or outside employment.

Try to connect the reference with one of your selected standards. For instance, the reference might de-

scribe a lesson you taught in a field course or in student teaching. You could use this document to illustrate your competence in the area of instructional strategies. In addition, you may want to place reference letters from your cooperating teachers in a special tabbed section of the portfolio.

Research Papers When selecting a research paper to include in your portfolio, you will need to consider several factors. The content of the research paper might make it appropriate for inclusion under a particular standard. It might, for instance, highlight your knowledge of an academic subject.

Subscriptions If you subscribe to a journal that specifically addresses the standard in its title, include a copy of the cover of the journal, along with the address label showing your name. You might also briefly mention any ideas, instructional techniques, or other helpful information you gathered from reading the journal. Generally, professional commitment is well documented with subscriptions; however, you may find other standards to document with this artifact, depending on the type of journal to which you subscribe.

Teacher-Made Materials These materials may include games, manipulatives, puppets, big books, charts, videotapes, films, photographs, transparencies, teaching aids, costumes, posters, or artwork. Because many of these items are cumbersome, include only paper copies or photographs of the materials. If you do not have copies of the actual materials you have made, you may want to highlight sections of a well-designed lesson plan that show how you would use creative teaching materials. Materials that support learning theory and were designed to suit this purpose are most helpful. Your materials should reflect your ability to encourage active learning and a variety of instructional strategies.

Transcripts A copy of your official transcript can be used in a variety of ways. You may wish to use it to document your knowledge in subject areas such as chemistry, geography, or education courses. Highlight the courses and the grade you wish to document. Include a brief, typewritten explanation of why this transcript is included. You may even include other information, such as a syllabus from the course that you have highlighted, to show that you have taken essay or other types of tests on the subject.

Unit Plans A unit plan is an integrated plan for instruction on a topic developed over several days or even weeks. Often, units are developed within a discipline, and les-

sons are organized to build on knowledge acquired in previous lessons. Unit plans generally include purposes, objectives, content outlines, activities, instructional resources, and evaluation methods. (Interdisciplinary units have been described under the entry called Theme Studies.) Unit plans are particularly good for documenting your ability to use a variety of instructional strategies and instructional planning skills.

Volunteer Experience Descriptions This document might include a list and brief description of volunteer experiences and services provided to the school and community. You should focus on how these activities have enhanced your abilities while providing a contribution to society. You should also emphasize the importance of maintaining positive school-community collabora-

tion through teacher, parent, and student interaction. Depending on what you learned from these experiences, make sure they address the standard under which you have placed this document.

Work Experience Descriptions These are statements you have written to describe work experiences. These might include work with students in both traditional and nontraditional settings and work for which you were compensated or that you performed on a voluntary basis. To be of most interest, these statements should include not only a summary of the setting and your responsibilities but also a reflective statement addressing the intangible aspects of the work experience. In writing these statements, be sure to address how these work experiences relate to the specific standard.

(Appendix I): Examples of Objectives in a Behavior Content Task

Examples of Objectives in a Behavior Content Matrix			
A behavior content matrix can remind teachers to develop instructional objectives that address skills at various cognitive levels.			
Type of Objective	Example 1: <i>The Area of a Circle</i>	Example 2: <i>Main Idea of a Story</i>	Example 3: <i>The Colonization of Africa</i>
Knowledge	Give the formula for area of a circle.	Define <i>main idea</i> .	Make a time line showing how Europeans divided Africa into colonies.
Comprehension		Give examples of ways to find the main idea of a story.	Interpret a map of Africa showing its colonization by European nations.
Application	Apply the formula for area of a circle to real-life problems.		
Analysis		Identify the main idea of a story.	Contrast the goals and methods used in colonizing Africa by the different European nations.
Synthesis	Use knowledge about the areas of circles and volumes of cubes to derive a formula for the volume of a cylinder.	Write a new story based on the main idea of the story read.	Write an essay on the European colonization of Africa from the perspective of a Bantu chief.
Evaluation		Evaluate the story.	

(Appendix J): Comparison of Two Approaches to Achieving Testing

Comparison of Two Approaches to Achievement Testing		
Norm-referenced tests and criterion-referenced tests serve different purposes and have different features.		
Feature	Norm-Referenced Testing	Criterion-Referenced Testing
Principal use	Survey testing	Mastery testing
Major emphasis	Measures individual differences in achievement	Describes tasks students can perform
Interpretation of results	Compares performance to that of other individuals	Compares performance to a clearly specified achievement domain
Content coverage	Typically covers a broad area of achievement	Typically focuses on a limited set of learning tasks
Nature of test plan	Table of specifications is commonly used	Detailed domain specifications are favored
Item selection procedures	Items selected to provide maximum discrimination among individuals (to obtain high score variability); easy items typically eliminated from the test	Includes all items needed to adequately describe performance; no attempt is made to alter item difficulty or to eliminate easy items to increase score variability
Performance standards	Level of performance determined by <i>relative</i> position in some known group (e.g., student ranks fifth in a group of 20)	Level of performance commonly determined by <i>absolute</i> standards (e.g., student demonstrates mastery by defining 90 percent of the technical terms)
Source: Adapted from Norman E. Gronlund, <i>How to Make Achievement Tests and Assessments</i> (5th ed.), Copyright © 1993 by Allyn & Bacon. Reprinted by permission.		