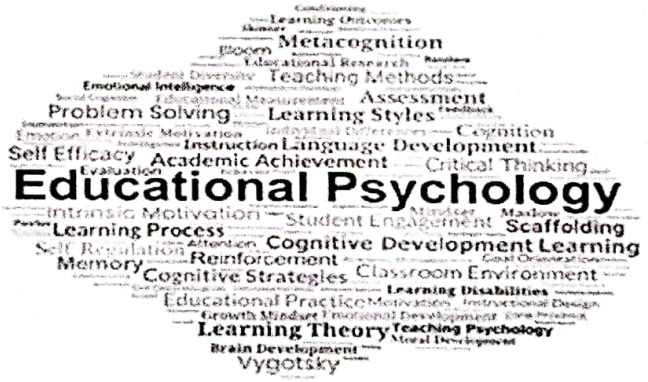
People's Democratic Republic of Algeria
Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research
Salhi Ahmed University Center of Naama
Institute of Letters and Languages
Department of English Language

An Introduction to Educational Psychology

PRINCIPLES OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY FOR EFL LEARNERS



A Pedagogical Manual for Master One Students

<u>Specialty</u>: Linguistics

Dr. Wahida Yaiche

Academic Year 2023/2024

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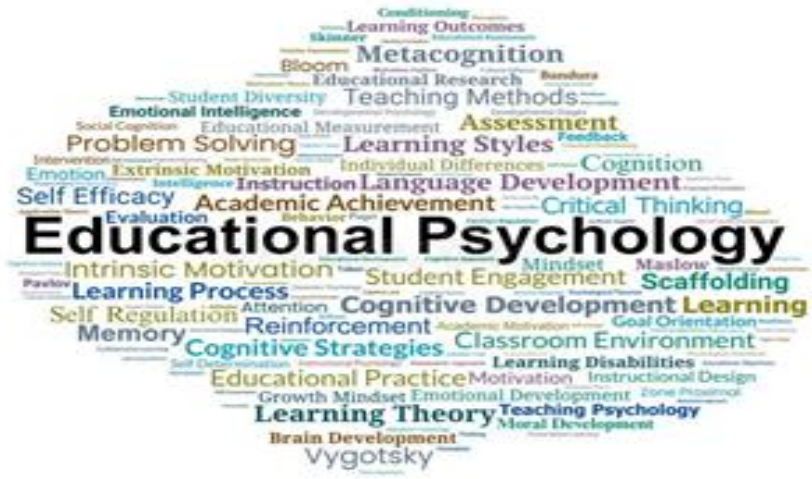

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Dr. Wahida Yaiche

Academic Year 2023/2024

Field: Letters and Foreign Languages

Department: English Language

Specialty: Linguistics

Target Audience: Master 1

Teaching Unit: Methodological

Subject Title/Module: Educational Psychology

Credits: 4 Coefficient: 2

Evaluation Method: continuous assessment (TD) 50%/Final Exam 50%

Duration: 15 Weeks (45h) per semester

Total number of hours per semester: 45h (course: 22h30 and TD 22h30)

Introduction

Learning is a fundamental aspect of human life, allowing us to acquire new knowledge and skills, adapt, grow, and contribute meaningfully to society. It is a constant process that begins at birth and extends throughout life. Learning is not limited to academic or professional achievements; it also includes personal interests and life skills. Engaging in meaningful learning activities boosts self-esteem, decreases stress, and promotes a sense of purpose and fulfillment. Therefore, it is significant to understand how individuals naturally learn and process information.

Educational psychology focuses on understanding how individuals learn and develop in various environments. As a field of scientific inquiry, educational psychology bridges the gap between psychology and education, providing insights into cognitive, emotional, social, and behavioral aspects of learning and offering evidence-based strategies to support diverse learners. Educational psychology plays a pivotal role in preparing future teachers for the dynamic and complex nature of human learning. By understanding the psychological principles that underpin learning and development, teachers can create effective, inclusive, and engaging learning environments.

“An Introduction to Educational Psychology” is a booklet for first-year master's students of ‘linguistics’. It is an outgrowth of teaching educational psychology and learning the dynamics of applying psychological principles in education. Reflections on our teaching experience in educational psychology have led us to conclude that learning is a difficult task that requires the development of many skills. The process of learning requires more than just the teacher's instructions. The task of learning at different levels is designed to develop learners' skills and competencies. Henceforth, this booklet aims to provide an unpretentious account of how psychological principles are applied in educational settings by introducing learning theories and their implications for language-learning classrooms.

This workbook presents a short introduction to educational psychology, followed by five units. Each unit introduces a learning theory and elucidates its implications for language education, including behaviorism, cognitivism, humanism, social learning theory, and constructivism. The concluding unit, classroom management, presents the key skills for effectively managing a learning setting and the main features of well-managed classes. This guide is a comprehensive resource designed to deepen understanding of how psychological principles are applied in educational settings. It serves as a foundation for teachers, students, researchers, and practitioners aiming to enhance learning experiences and improve educational outcomes.

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UNIT ONE: Introduction to Educational Psychology

Unit 1 defines the branch of psychology, explains the implications of psychology to the field of education, and reviews some principles of educational psychology as an applied discipline. It discusses the emergence, scope and importance of educational psychology. Moreover, this unit discusses the nature of human learning and theories of learning.

Learning outcomes

After the completion of this unit, students will be able to:

- Define psychology and Educational psychology
- Outline the link between psychology and education
- Understand the scope of educational psychology
- Answer the question of how people learn
- Understand the significance of learning theories to classroom teachers.

Unit 1:	**An Introduction to Educational Psychology**
Week	Topic
1	Psychology in Education Definition of Educational Psychology
2	The Scope of Educational Psychology Learning Defined Learning Theories
3	Project Presentations

1. Psychology in Education

The word psychology means the study of the soul, deriving from the two Greek words Psyche (soul) and Logos (study of/science of). The definition of psychology has witnessed several paradigm shifts. In the beginning, philosophers such as **Plato** and **Aristotle** inferred psychology as the study of the soul and considered it a branch of philosophy. Afterward, the German philosopher Emmanuel Kant defined psychology as the study of the mind. Along the same lines, modern psychologists such as James Sully and Wilhelm Wundt regarded psychology as the study of consciousness. Nonetheless, some scholars criticized these definitions, arguing that soul, mind, and consciousness cannot be observed or experimentally studied scientifically.

During the early half of the 20th century, psychology established itself as a pure independent science. It became known as the scientific study of behavior. Behaviorists, including J.B. Watson, popularized this definition. This period witnessed the emergence of diverse schools of thought that represented the main theoretical perspectives in psychology. The overall behavior of ordinary human beings constitutes the subject matter of general psychology. Thus, general psychology investigates

- Behavior-related areas such as feelings, motivation, and learning
- Mental processes that involve thinking, perception, and attention.
- Social skills and development across the lifespan.
- Psychological disorders such as anxiety, stress, autism, and intellectual disability
- Individual differences, including learning styles, intelligence, and special needs.

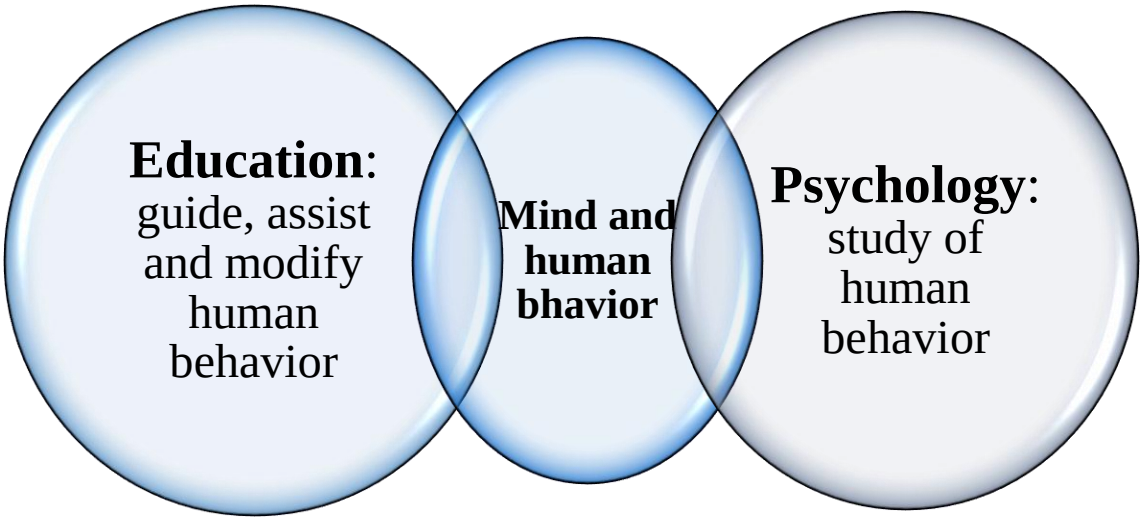
In this sense, psychology is the scientific study of behavior and mental processes. It seeks to comprehend how people think, feel, and behave in various contexts and situations. Moreover, Smeyers and Depaepe postulated,

> Psychology not only carries with it the promise that it will deliver insights into human behavior, but it is also believed that it can help to address the problems human beings are confronted with in the situations they find themselves in (2013, p.1)

Generally, psychology is used to explain the existing conditions within many spheres of human life, including education. Indeed, education is a process involving teaching, learning, and assessment. It is a lifelong process through which individuals acquire knowledge, experience, or skill. It includes formal instruction alongside informal learning practices across settings such as schools, homes, societies, and workplaces.

To educate means to raise and shape an individual's behavior. It aims to bring about desirable changes in his personality development. The achievement of this target is supported by the application of a specific pedagogy, i.e., a set of theoretical and applied research principles relating to teaching and learning, drawing on many disciplines, including psychology. According to Long et al. (2011, p.3), the nature of psychology, which encompasses the logical analysis of what individuals think and what they do, can help in understanding the nature of human learning, “Psychology includes a wide range of topics and can be applied to many different areas such as education, where human thinking and behavior are important”.

Figure 1. The Relationship between Education and Psychology



To sum up, psychology and education are closely associated. Education is concerned with behavior modification, while psychology investigates behavior development and evolution. Educators cannot modify a behavior without understanding the behavior and its idiosyncrasies. Psychology is thus a vital pillar of education, as psychological principles, findings, and techniques apply to educational matters.

2. Definition of Educational Psychology

Education aims to sustain intellectual, social, and emotional growth, preparing individuals to participate effectively in society, achieve set goals, and adapt to a rapidly changing world. Until the 19th century, most of the discussions and debates about human education were grounded in philosophy, schools of thought, and conventional wisdom (Hilgard, 1996). Around the turn of the 20th century, the new field of educational psychology emerged and became a defining force in the scientific study of human learning, development across the life span, teaching processes, and assessment.

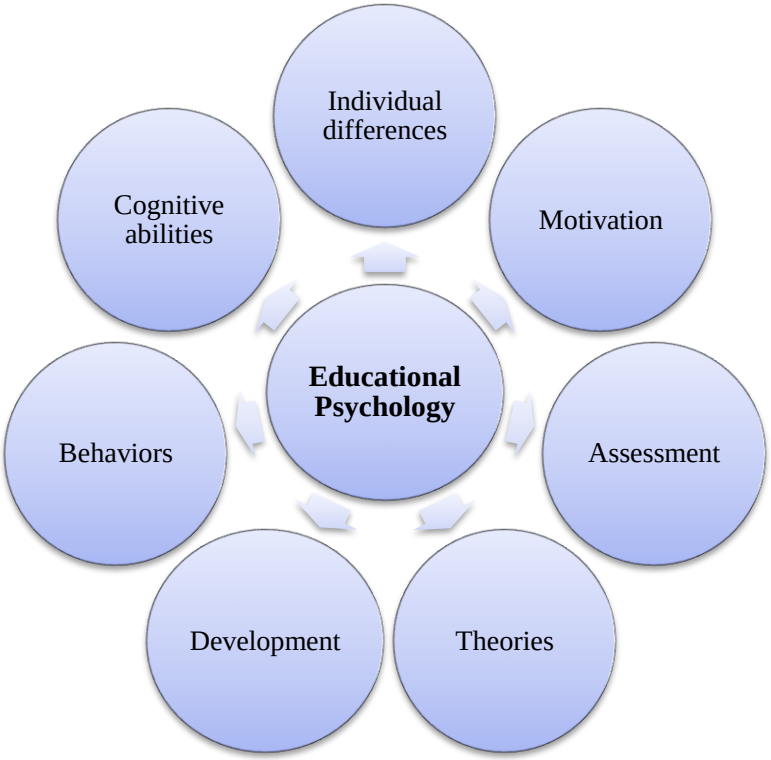
Educational psychology is a sub-branch of psychology concerned with applying psychological findings to solve problems encountered in educational settings. It has an enormous significance to approach the rapidly developing challenges that education has faced through psychological theories, procedures, and research (Eloff & Eberöhn, 2004).

In this vein, Reynolds and Miller say: “Educational psychology is focused largely on the application of psychological principles to the study of human learning and development in educational settings” (2003, p. ix). Educational psychology is, then, an applied discipline that seeks to address the complexity of human learning and to account for students’ characteristics in classroom settings. In other words, it deals with human behavior in an educational setting, enabling it to be estimated, founded, and directed to achieve instructional goals.

To sum it up, educational psychology is the scientific study of learners’ behaviors in educational situations, dealing with:

- The individual learner: his development, needs, motivation, and abilities.
- The learning process, how, when, and what of education.
- The learning experience, its peculiarities, nature, and the techniques to make it significant and productive.

Figure 2. Main Concerns of Educational Psychology



3. The Scope of Educational Psychology

The scope refers to the area of study/inquiry. Educational psychology is an emerging science concerned with how people learn and covers numerous facets of how individuals learn and develop within educational settings. It is interesting for the most part in:

a) The learner

The learner signifies the central focus of educational psychology. Thus, the field attempts to develop techniques for knowing the learner, in terms of

- The observable behavior: scrutinizing how a learner's behavior is learned, shaped, and strengthened through interaction with the environment.
- The innate abilities: comprehending how youngsters and adults think, learn, and remember

- The individual differences: understanding how individual differences impact learning, including intelligence, learning styles, preferences, and special educational needs.
- Growth and cognitive development: inquiring about the physical and cognitive changes from birth to adolescence to measure learning development through the entire lifecycle.
- Social maturation: examining the impact of the social factors, including family members, classmates, and the surroundings, on student social development.

b) The learning experience

The field of educational psychology offers guidance on selecting desirable learning experiences and the suitable age for the learner to acquire them without difficulty.

c) The learning process

After getting acquainted with the learner and determining suitable learning experiences, the important step is to help the learner access them easily. Therefore, educational psychology studies the nature of learning and the way it becomes permanent. It covers a variety of topics, including principles and theories of learning, cognitive areas like memory, attention, perception, thinking processes, problem-solving, and methods of operative learning.

d) The learning environment

Educational psychology also addresses the environmental factors that affect the learning situation. Matters such as classroom atmosphere, supportive utilities that assist learning, evaluation techniques, and teaching/learning practices aid the smooth functioning of the teaching-learning situation. These factors are said to be the midstream between the learner and the teacher.

e) The teacher

The teacher is the cornerstone of any teaching-learning situation. Educational psychology considers all the possible roles of the teacher in the educational operation and supports teachers' continuous growth and learning. It underlines the principle of 'reflective teaching' for a teacher to practice appropriately in the educational setting. The teacher should reflect on their lesson plan, materials, roles, and classroom management to become a successful teacher. It highlights the role of the teacher's training and professional development.

Indeed, Educational psychology incorporates these areas to provide a comprehensive understanding of how students learn and develop, how teachers can improve their teaching performance, and how designed syllabi can be tailored to diverse learners.

4. Learning Defined

Learning, in general, can be defined as a relatively permanent change in mental processing, emotional functioning, and/or behavior resulting from experience or practice. It is the lifelong dynamic process by which individuals acquire new knowledge or skills and alter their thoughts, feelings, attitudes, and actions.

In this manner, Long et al. (2O11) postulate that individuals work and act effectively after having a beneficial learning experience, thus learning "can be evidenced by changes in strategy, or the ability to think differently about a problem. It enables us to anticipate outcomes and therefore act to control our environment" (14).

Being a universal process, learning leads to an end. Individuals learn so that a change may take place. Learning is a kind of response that is either stimulated or modified to bring about a change. Learning entails the acquisition of new behaviors or the adjustment of old behaviors. Theoretically, common-sense learning refers to the assimilation of knowledge resulting from interaction with the environment. Such a sense of learning holds that certain environmental conditions result in specific changes in the learner's behavior.

Indeed, learning is not directly observable but demonstrated in the learners' performance. We can assume that learners have learned something they could not do before. In short, certain features characterize learning:

- Learning is a behavior change.
- Learning is a universal process.
- Learning is focused and goal-oriented.
- The learned behavior is relatively everlasting.
- Learning leads to adjustment to the environment.

Despite the significance of learning to each individual's development, functioning, and well-being, debate continues about how learning occurs, what kinds of experiences facilitate or hinder the learning process, and what ensures that learning becomes relatively permanent. Henceforth, learning is defined differently from diverse perspectives. Each of the major theoretical approaches in psychology posits a primary factor for learning. For that reason, psychologists working in education are trying to determine and test learning methods to understand how people learn and recall new information. Educational psychologists apply psychological theories to understand individual learning and inform the field of education.

5. Learning Theories

A learning theory is a coherent framework of integrated constructs and principles that describe, explain, or predict how people learn. Slavin (2014) considers the learning theory as

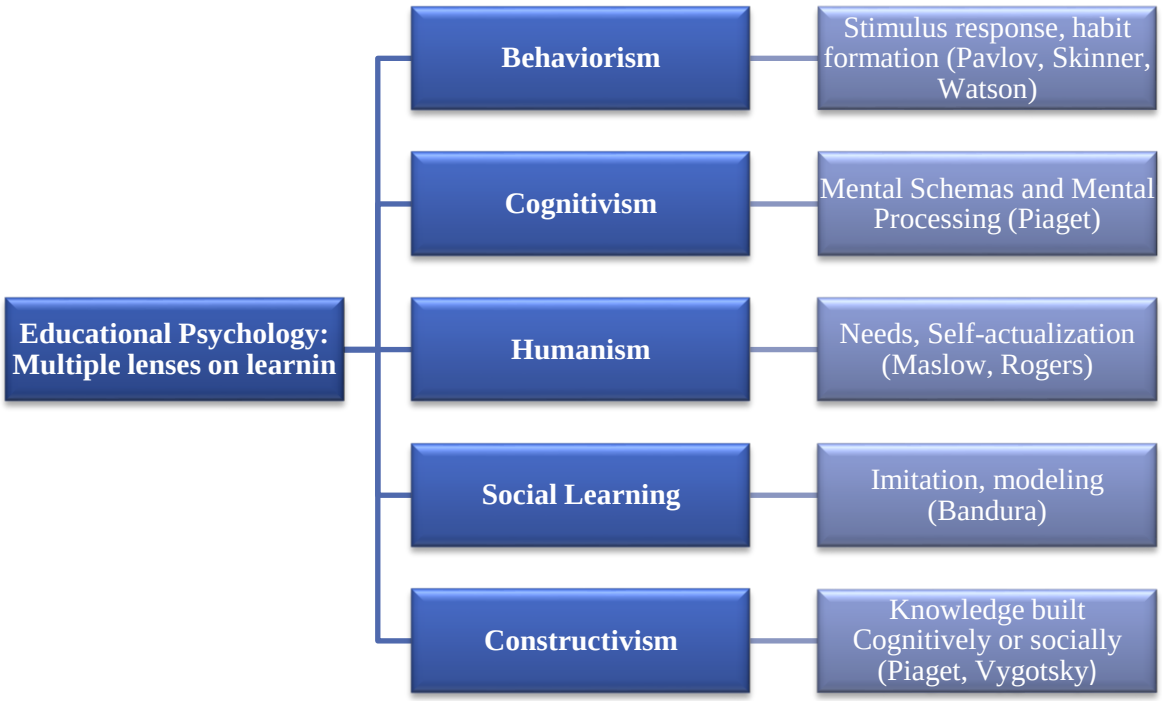
> a set of related principles and laws that explain a broad aspect of learning, behavior, or another area of interest. Without theories, the facts and principles that are discovered would be like disorganized specks on a canvas (p.11)

Rather than offering a single theory of learning, educational psychology provides alternative theories and perspectives on how learning occurs. None of the theories is perfect. A theory of a particular period is applicable in a period when an

alternative modernized theory is workable. When this theory fails to solve a problem, its flaws are exposed. Then a different theory appears. A successive theory does not essentially contradict a previous theory. It endeavors to address the gaps in the preceding. The successive theory complements the former theory.

Regarding how learning occurs, educational psychologists have developed several theories relevant to classroom learning, which define what typically occurs there and provide guidance for promoting learning and motivation.

Figure 3. Alternative Learning Perspectives



6. Practical Exercises

Exercise 1: Reflective Questions

- How has psychological research (e.g., behavior, mental process, social skills) changed your view of "effective teaching"? Give an example from EFL classrooms.
- In what ways does educational psychology's scope (learner development, assessment) overlap with your Master's research interests?
- How might ignoring psychology lead to poor classroom decisions?

Exercise 2:

In a short essay, define "learning" from your experience—permanent change or skill performance, taking evidence from your EFL learning.

Exercise 3: QUIZ

1) An Educational Psychologist works

A	Only within the classroom, focusing on children's behavior
B	At multiple levels – with individual children, groups of children, parents/carers and at the organizational level
C	Exclusively with individual children who have a statement of special educational need
D	In a reactive rather than preventive manner

2) A key role of an Educational Psychologist is to

A	Link academic psychology and education by translating and disseminating research to practitioners
B	Carry out 'basic research' which will inform 'applied research.'
C	Administer medication for children.

D	Provide a counseling role to children who have had traumatic experiences.

3) Applied psychology professionals, including Educational Psychologists, are

A	Problem-solving professions
B	Not based on scientific research.
C	Adult-centered professions
D	Outdated professions

4) In educational psychology, 'evidence-based practice' is considered to be

A	Necessary and sufficient
B	Inappropriate
C	Necessary but not sufficient
D	Unnecessary

5) The primary aim of educational psychology is

A	To contribute to an understanding of sound educational practices.
B	To provide the teacher with a greater appreciation of his role in the education of the child
C	To provide the academic background essential for effective teaching
D	To provide a theoretical framework for educational research.

6) Being a universal process, learning

A	is directly observable
B	is neither directly observable nor demonstrated in the learners' performance
C	is directly observable and demonstrated in the learners' performance
D	is not directly observable but demonstrated in the learners' performance

PROJECT:

Select *one* topic *only*, and then prepare an oral presentation,

Topic one:

General Psychology and Educational Psychology are dissimilar; discuss in your own words.

- In a Presentation, highlight the key features of each scientific field.

Topic two:

The scope of educational psychology refers to the area of study/inquiry. Nature is understood as its scientific reality, accepted as the Science of Education.

- In an essay, Elaborate with appropriate examples on the nature and scope of educational psychology.

UNIT TWO: Behaviorism

Unit 2 highlights the behavioral view of learning, explains the nature of behavioristic learning and cites the main types of conditioning. It aims to enable students differentiate between classical conditioning and operant conditioning, comprehend the stimulus-response relationship, contemplate the implications of the theory to language learning.

Learning outcomes

After the completion of this unit, students will be able to:

- Define learning from the behavioristic perspective.
- Distinguish the two different types of conditioning.
- Describe classical conditioning.
- Describe operant conditioning.
- Identify the implications of the theory for language learning.

Unit 2:	**Behaviorism**
Week	Topic
3	Behavioristic Learning
4	Classical Conditioning Operant Conditioning Implications for Language Learning
5	Implications for Language Learning
6	Project Presentations

1) Behavioristic Learning

Behaviorism is a learning perspective that emphasizes changes in individuals' visible behaviors. At some point, everyone uses this perspective, whether it is called "behaviorism" or something else. For instance, the first time I taught a course, I was mainly concerned with whether I could teach, not with how to define or explain teaching.

Emphasizing what is directly observable and measurable, the behavioral perspective views learning as a change in behavior driven by environmental conditions. The behaviorists assert that learning is a process of forming associations between stimuli and responses.

Bentham defined behaviorism as "Learning theory deals with the relationship between stimuli (events in the environment) and subsequent responses made by an individual" (2002, p. 21). The leading behavioristic figures are John Watson, acknowledged as the Father of Modern Behaviorism; Ivan Pavlov, best known for classical conditioning; B.F. Skinner (Burrhus, Frederic), known for operant conditioning, and Edward Thorndike, known for the law of effect.

In educational settings, behaviorism is most suitable for categorizing the associations between a learner's particular action and the immediate antecedents and consequences of that action. It is not useful for understanding changes in learners' thinking; therefore, cognitive theories are needed. This is not a criticism of behaviorism as a perspective, but an explanation of its precise strength or usefulness: to shed light on observable associations among actions.

Behaviorists use particular terms for these associations. One variety of behaviorism that has proved especially useful to educators is conditioning. Accordingly, most behavioristic learning is based on conditioning, which the behaviorists identify as a universal learning process. There are two different types of conditioning: classical and operant, each possessing a different behavioral pattern.

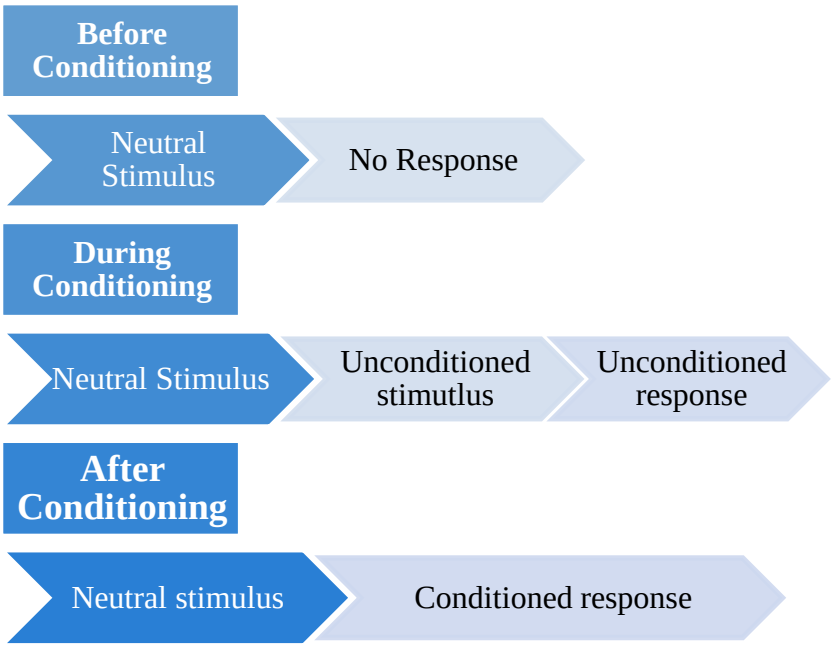
2) Classical Conditioning

Classical conditioning, a form of learning, was introduced by Ivan Pavlov in the early twentieth century. In classical conditioning, a neutral stimulus (the stimulus that does not elicit a particular response) acquires the capacity to elicit a response after the stimulus is repeatedly associated with another stimulus that ordinarily elicits the intended response.

Pavlov experimentally demonstrated that a stimulus can be conditioned to elicit a response when paired with another stimulus. This classical type of conditioning explains learning as a change in behavior reinforced by an external stimulus (Ellof and Ebersöhn, 2004).

In Pavlov's experiment, he rang a bell (external stimulus) when he fed (ordinary stimulus 'food') the dogs and repeated the operation several times. Whenever the dogs heard the bell, they recognized it was time for food; as a result, they salivated (response). After a period, Pavlov rang the bell without carrying food; nevertheless, the dogs salivated. In this sense, the dogs had been "conditioned" to salivate at the sound of a bell.

Figure 4. Classical Conditioning



Watson applied Pavlov's experiment to human beings. Watson conditioned "Little Albert" to feel fear by knocking a hammer (ordinary stimulus) on an iron pole whenever Albert touched a white rat (external stimulus). Watson successfully conditioned Albert to feel afraid (response) when the rat was presented, associating it with the sound of a noise. Ultimately, Albert was conditioned to panic about any hairy items, such as a rabbit.

3) Operant Conditioning

Behaviorism is associated with Skinner, who expanded on Thorndike's work (who advanced a "Law of effect"). Thorndike's theory states that any learning associated with a pleasant or satisfying feeling is more likely to be strengthened, and learning accompanied by an unpleasant feeling is more likely to be weakened.

Thorndike's theory involves three main laws:

- 1. **Law of effect:** responses to a condition, which are rewarded, will be reinforced and become habitual responses to that condition; however, responses that are associated with punishment will not be repeated, and their strength is decreased.
- 2. **Law of readiness**: a sequence of responses can be connected to satisfy a goal, which will lead to irritation if obstructed.
- 3. **Law of exercise:** connections are reinforced with practice and weakened once practice is stopped.

As a behavioristic model, Skinner's operant conditioning theory is based on the law of effect assumption. In that, learning takes place when a response continues to be made because it has been reinforced positively by a reward or stops being made because it has been punished. In this manner, Skinner states, "actions that are followed by reinforcing consequences are more likely to recur, and actions that are followed by unpleasant or punishing consequences are less likely to recur" (qtd. in Bentham, 2002, p. 32).

In the classroom, if the teacher praises a learner for a good statement made during a conversation, there is a greater chance that the learner will make additional comments in the future.

As a behaviorist, B.F. Skinner believes that learning involves a variety of actions undertaken by the instructor, including arousing, persisting, sustaining, and directing desirable behavior (Aggarwal, 2005). Consequently, operant conditioning can be considered a feedback system that assumes learning is strengthened and increased through reinforcement with rewards and the creation of a supportive learning environment, or through punishment (Schunk, 2012).

Figure 5. The Four Quadrants of Skinner's Operant Conditioning

	Positive (add something)	**Negative (remove something)**
Reinforcement **Increases behavior**	Add something desirable Behavior increases Examples: • Praise for good work • Paycheck for working • Bonus for meeting quota	Remove something aversive Behavior increases Examples: • Clean room, nagging stops • Study, anxiety reduces
Punishment **Decreases behavior**	Positive punishment Add something aversive Behavior decreases Examples: • Speeding gets a ticket • Talking in class gets scolded • Late work loses points	Negative Punishment Remove something desirable Behavior decreases Examples: • Misbehave, lose recess • Poor grades, no video games

Reinforcement is a vital component of Skinner's theory. A reinforcer is anything that strengthens the anticipated response. It could be a compliment, a good grade, or a feeling of increased accomplishment or satisfaction. In addition, the theory entails negative reinforcers, that is, any stimulus that results in a decrease in the frequency of an undesirable response.

To sum up, the behavioral perspective to learning did not account for the internal processes while explaining learning. It simply views learning as an increase in the quantity of observable behavior due to external factors. The behaviorists regard reinforcement through rewards as an effective tool to achieve the new behavior acquisition. They emphasized the use of extrinsic reinforcement to stimulate students' task

.

4) Implications for Language Learning

As a learning theory, behaviourism was applied to language learning between 1940 and 1950. Its application is evident in the idea that language is a set of habits that can be learned through the stimulus-response mechanism. Its pedagogical implications led to the audio-lingual approach to teaching and learning, which is based on habit formation through conditioning, analogy, and drilling.

With the introduction of computer technology into educational settings, computer-assisted instruction (CAI) has become a prominent instructional tool. The earliest applications of computer technology in foreign language education date back to the 1960s, with behavioristic principles, especially those stemming from operant conditioning, in which language learning was regarded as the acquisition of a set of habits that included frequent vocabulary items, grammar rules, and phrases established through repetition. Therefore, language could be taught through drilling,

repetition, and conditioning, i.e., drilling students to produce responses as reactions to stimuli (Blake, 2008).

Skinner believed that operant conditioning principles of learning, such as the use of reinforcement to stimulate students' responses, could be applied to a computer-based approach called programmed instruction. The purpose behind such a program is to help students learn on their own by receiving immediate feedback after each answer (Moreno, 2010)

Indeed, programmed instruction requires students to respond to stimuli on the computer screen and to carry out activities such as filling in gaps in texts, matching sentences, and answering multiple-choice questions. In all these activities, the computer provides students with immediate feedback, ranging from indicating whether the answer is true or false. Moreover, the computer may offer more feedback by demonstrating the reason why the student is mistaken (Dudency and Hockly, 2007).

5) Practical Exercises

Exercise 1: Classical Conditioning Scenario Analysis

Identify NS, US, UR, CS, and CR in EFL examples. Diagram on poster paper.

1. School bell rings → Students pack bags excitedly (even on test days).
    - NS: _____ US: _____ UR: _____ CS: _____ CR: _____
2. Teacher smiles during speaking practice → Reduced anxiety over time.
    - Diagram the stages (Before/During/After).

Exercise 2: reflective questions

- How did identifying NS/US/CR in Exercise 1 change your view of automatic responses in EFL classrooms, like reacting to a teacher's praise?
- What limitation of behaviorism (e.g., ignoring cognition) emerged during behavior change, and how might it affect long-term EFL fluency?

- Overall, how could you integrate one type of conditioning (e.g., classical conditioning scenario) into your lessons—benefits vs. drawbacks?

Exercise 3: QUIZ

1) Behaviourism is a learning theory that

A	focuses on human behavior
B	Focuses on observable changes in individuals' behavior
C	Exclusively deals with the impact of environmental factors on human learning
D	Deals with behavior acquisition

2) Behavioristic learning is based on

A	Conditioning is identified as a universal learning process
B	Changes in learners' thinking
C	Stimulus provided by the environment
D	Subsequent responses made by an individual learner

3) Who is considered the father of behaviorism?

A	B.F. Skinner
B	Ivan Pavlov
C	John B. Watson
D	Edward Thorndike

4) Which of the following principles best describes Pavlov's classical conditioning?

A	Learning occurs through reinforcement and punishment.
B	Learning takes place through observing others' behaviors.
C	Learning results from associating two types of stimuli.
D	Learning results from environmental stimuli and responses.

5) Who piloted the well-known "Little Albert" experiment proving conditioned emotional responses?

A	John B. Watson.
B	B.F. Skinner
C	Albert Bandura
D	Ivan Pavlov

6) In operant conditioning, what does reinforcement indicate?

A	A neutral stimulus
B	A stimulus that decreases a behavior
C	A stimulus that does not affect a behavior
D	A stimulus that increases a behavior

7) Which method is primarily used to teach language using behavioristic principles**?**

A	Grammar translation method
B	Direct method
C	Audiolingual method
D	Communicative language teaching

8) Which of the following techniques is commonly associated with behaviorist language teaching?

A	Language games
B	Role-playing
C	Task-based learning
D	Drill and practice

9) Which of the following best describes the audio-lingual method?

A	Focus on reading and writing
B	Emphasis on listening and speaking through repetition and drills
C	Use of real-life communication activities
D	Explicit grammar teaching

10) Critics of behaviorism argue that it

A	Overemphasizes observable behavior
B	Ignores the importance of social interaction
C	Underestimates the role of internal mental abilities
D	All of the above

PROJECT 1:

Behaviorism, as a school of thought, is interested in extrinsic behavior rather than what goes on inside the individual student. It also calls for the creation of a supportive learning environment where every student is motivated to engage in tasks.

- Using the main ideas in the statement above, write a research paper in which you discuss the applicability of behavioristic principles to understand observable behavior, and the importance of internal mental dynamics in learning.

Project 2:

Apply behavioristic principles like repetition, stimulus control, and error correction in a language lesson plan.

- Design a 20-minute EFL vocabulary lesson using choral drills (whole-class repetition) followed by individual checks with immediate error correction via prompts and reinforcement.
- Deliver the lesson to peers, record data, and analyze behavior changes.

UNIT THREE: Cognitivism

Unit 3 introduces the cognitive perspective to learning, explains learning as internal mental process, elucidates the relationship between cognitivist learning and motivation, and cites the main cognitivist approaches to motivation. It aims to enable students differentiate between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, comprehend the internal processes, and explicate the implications of the theory to language learning.

Learning outcomes

After the completion of this unit, students will be able to:

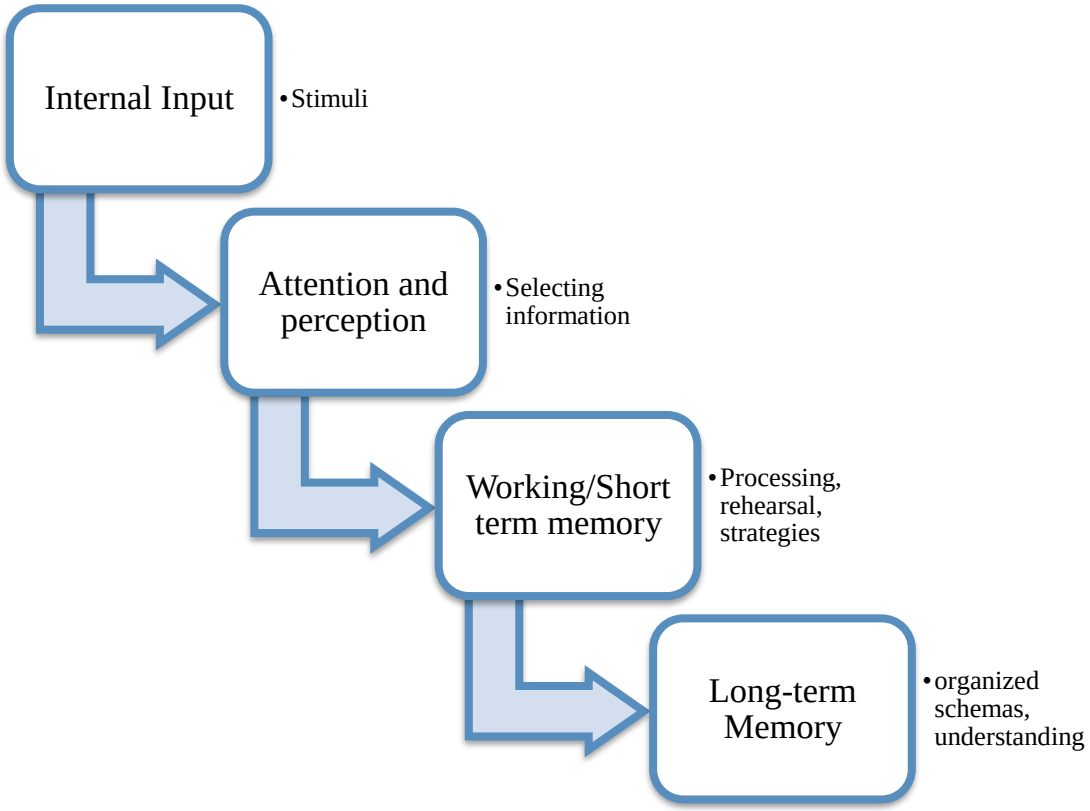
- Define learning from the cognitive perspective.
- Understand the association between cognitive learning and motivation.
- Differentiate intrinsic motivation from extrinsic motivation.
- Become acquainted with the cognitive theories of motivation.
- Identify the implications of the theory for language learning.

Unit 3:	**Cognitivism**
Week	Topic
7	Cognitivist Learning Cognitivism and Motivation
8	Cognitivist approaches to motivation The self-determination theory The expectancy-value theory
9	Implications for Language Learning
10	Project Presentations

1) Cognitivist Learning

In response to the behaviorists' neglect of the internal dynamics of learning, the cognitive perspective emphasizes the importance of what occurs within each learner. According to the cognitivists, learning is an internal process involving learners' cognition, specifically perception, teaching, memory, and the processing and structuring of information. Given that, Faigan states, "learning is a sequence of mental events or conditions leading to changes in the learner" (qtd. in Aggarwal, 2005, p. 183).

Figure 6. The process of cognitivist learning



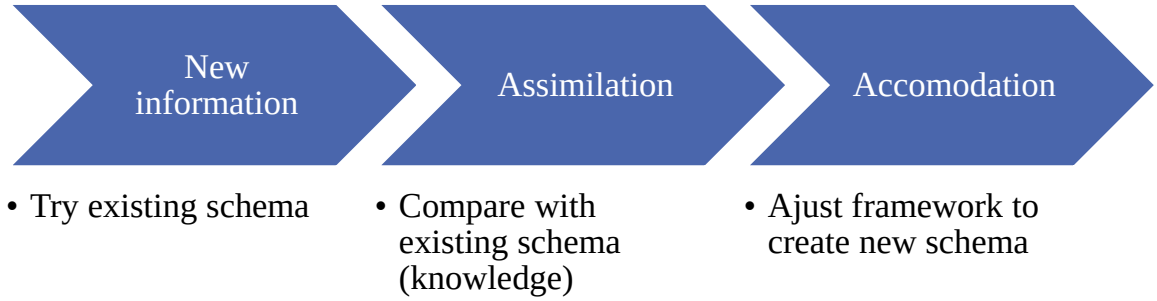
As a cognitivist, Ausubel argued that learning entails transforming information in the environment into knowledge stored in the mind. He went on to say that learning occurs after a piece of new information is acquired or a previously learned knowledge is adapted by experience (Brown, 2000). Therefore, the individual's cognitive processes, such as perception, attention, and memory, are crucial to learning. Cognitive learning is an internal mental process that involves recognizing

information, interpreting it with prior knowledge, and storing it as a new insight or understanding.

The process by which individuals process new information and store it as acquired knowledge is called adaptation, according to Jean Piaget. Piaget, the father of cognitive development theory, argued that adaptation entails two main processes:

- Assimilation is the process of taking in the information/stimuli from the environment.
- Accommodation is the process of creating space for or adapting to the received stimuli/information.

Figure 7. Jean Piaget's Adaptation Process



As a cognitive psychologist, David Ausubel stressed the importance of mental processes and advanced a theory that contrasted meaningful learning with **rote learning**.

- In Ausubel's view, to learn meaningfully, students must relate new knowledge (concepts) to what they already know. Meaningful learning is the idea that the individual learner understands and interprets the knowledge they have learned. Thus, the individual knows how that knowledge relates to the stored one.
- In contrast, rote learning means that the individual memorizes something without a full understanding, and s/he does not know how the information relates to other stored knowledge.

2) Cognitivism and Motivation

Indeed, the cognitive approach holds that learners' thought processes shape their motivation. It assumes that learners' motivation plays a major role in learning. Murray et al. (2011) view motivation as an individual difference (ID) or a dependent variable that is essential to learning success, alongside other variables such as aptitude, personality, anxiety, and cognitive style.

Within the framework of educational psychology, motivation to learn refers to the learner's degree of tenacity and interest in the material being learned, or the driving force behind behavior that steers it toward a particular goal.

As a psychological characteristic, motivation is closely allied with several concepts in the human mind or cognition, such as attention, desire, needs, goals, and interests. All these concepts have an impact on how learners view a learning situation, how they engage in learning, and how they respond to tasks (Dörnyei, 2001). Similarly, Murray et al. perceive motivation as "a dynamic force involving social, affective, and cognitive factors manifested in desire, attitudes, expectations, interests, needs, values, pleasure, and efforts" (2011, p. 63).

Learners' motivation to learn any given task encompasses a variety of diverse sources and circumstances. While some motivational sources stem from students' internal cognitive processes, others seem to be connected to the external environment in which learners are located.

a) Intrinsic Motivation

This genre of motivation denotes the learner's inclination or desire to focus attention and interest in a specific way. In this sense, intrinsic motivation is related to the learners' behaviors that are carried out as an outcome of the learner's

- The natural sentiment of curiosity, that is, a need to learn about or make discoveries about something.
- Desire to participate in an activity to accomplish an assignment.
- Fulfillment of an inward drive.

- An Interest in the learning experience (Dörnyei, 2001).

Consequently, the intrinsically motivated learner is prompted by interests, needs, and enthusiasm rather than by apparent external rewards such as good grades or recognition.

In summary, intrinsic motivation refers to the natural human desire to learn and succeed, characterized by interest in the task without obvious external reinforcement. In other words, learners may be more motivated to engage in a given assignment out of personal interests than out of a desire to get good grades or to satisfy the teacher or their parents.

b) Extrinsic Motivation

When compared to the intrinsic type of motivation, extrinsic motivation is typically characterized by the following

- Preoccupied with the external aspects that stimulate or inspire the learners' desires to participate in learning.
- The behavior is executed as a means to an end,
- The behavior is not performed smoothly; rather, the learner feels compelled and under pressure to participate in an activity to get external rewards, such as good grades, or to avoid punishment (Dörnyei, 2001).

To quote, "extrinsically motivated behaviors are those in which an external controlling factor can be readily identified". (Salkind, 2009, p. 555). Extrinsic motivation, which must be instilled in the learner through external stimuli, is linked to performance goals. Learners with performance goals learn to gain their teachers' recognition and seek high grades. Henceforth, these performance goals imply the learners' extrinsic motivation (Seifert and Sutton, 2009).

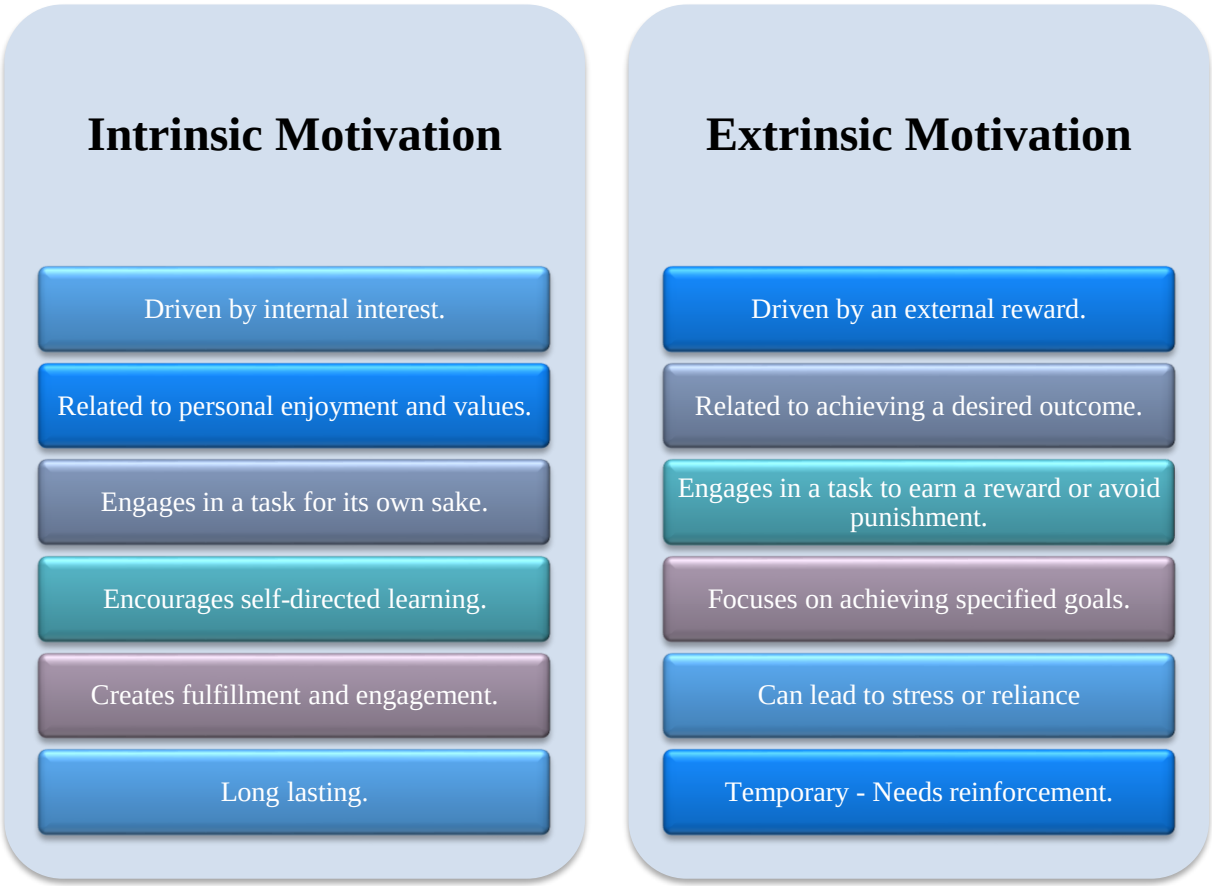
Extrinsic motivation, then, denotes a tendency to control attention strengthened by outward conditions in which the learner behaves for conceivable results. Teachers apply it to motivate learners to act in a specific way (Babad, 2009). Accordingly,

Skinner argued that the use of donated rewards could effectively establish and stimulate learners' motivation to learn (Moore, 2003).

Nonetheless, educational psychologists have generally questioned the effectiveness of donated rewards. According to Jerome Bruner, liberating learners from the oppression of rewards and punishment is one of the effective ways to help them think and learn. Further, he emphasized that these rewards are 'addictive'. In this vein, Brown, as a researcher in the field of teaching English to foreign learners, postulates

> The most powerful rewards are those that are intrinsically motivated within the learner. Because the behavior stems from needs, wants, or desires within oneself, the behavior itself is self-rewarding; therefore, no externally administered reward is necessary. (2007, p. 59)

Figure 8. Intrinsic Vs. Extrinsic Motivation



Moreover, a mishmash of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations is significant for successful learning (Seifert and Sutton, 2009). For example, learners may appreciate learning (intrinsic motivation), but they also learn to obtain a certificate and to search for employment (extrinsic motivation).

3) Cognitivist Approaches to Motivation

According to the cognitivist perspective, an individual's desire to comprehend and develop serves as the motivating force for learning. Hence, the cognitivists firmly believed that the learners' intrinsic motivation plays a more significant role than extrinsic motivation.

Consequently, the cognitive theories of motivation lay great emphasis on learners' mental operations, such as thoughts, beliefs, expectations, attitudes, and how they affect motivation to learn. In this vein, two significant cognitive perspectives on motivation will be examined in this segment: self-determination and expectancy-value theory.

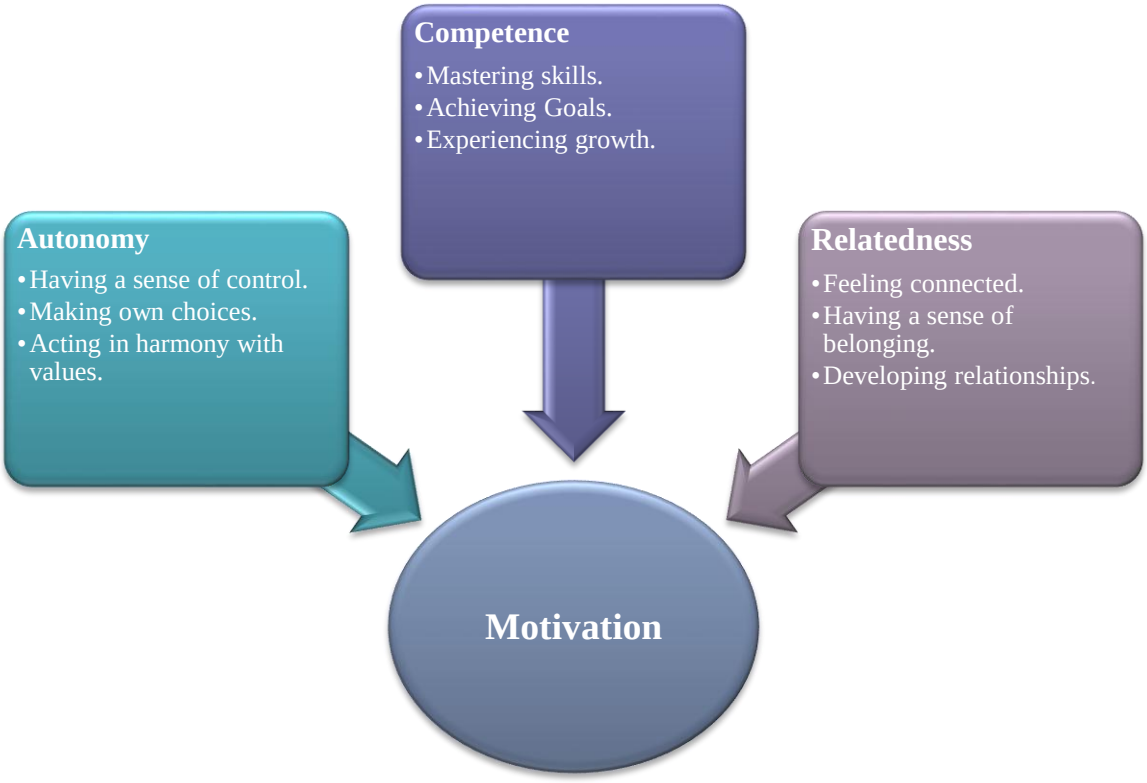
1) The Self-determination Theory

Self-determination theory, a cognitive perspective on motivation, was developed by Edward Deci and Richard Ryan. It highlights the significance of the internal factors in raising learners' motivation to learn. It suggests that to boost motivation, three psychological needs must be met, including

- Autonomy is the need to feel free from external control that could impede a learner's behavior.
- Competence is the need to feel proficient or skilled.
- Relatedness is the need for a sense of affiliation and engagement with others.

Given that these fundamental internal needs are met together, they will result in increased intrinsic motivation; however, if one need is not met to a sufficient degree, learners will feel embarrassed by external forces.

Figure 9. The Self-Determination Theory: Antecedents of Motivation



The self-determination theory emphasizes the role of the teacher in fostering learners' intrinsic motivation by

- Excluding the need for outside rewards.
- Establishing a suitable social environment.
- Helping learners satisfy their own needs.
- Inhibiting classroom management orders affects the learners' satisfaction.

For example, motivation improves when learners feel autonomous, responsible, and affiliated; therefore, teachers can work to strengthen these three variables to foster intrinsically motivated learners.

2) The Expectancy Value Theory

As discussed in this unit, learners' internal needs, interests, goals, and self-determination are among the factors that influence motivation. In addition, external reinforcement in a suitable educational setting is one such factor. David Atkinson

uses these internal elements to generate two primary sources of motivation: their expectations for reaching a goal and the importance they attach to it. This motivational approach is known as the expectancy-value model of motivation.

Indeed, Atkinson's expectancy-value model of achievement motivation identifies three learning-related motivational elements.

- ❖ The first element is expectancy, which encompasses learners' perceptions of their abilities and expectations for success.
- ❖ The second element is the value, which unites learners' reasons, goals, and interests in realizing certain outcomes.
- ❖ The third element is affective, implying how learners feel about academic tasks.

Assuming that the learners' level of motivation is dependent on both expectancy-related and value-related elements. According to Atkinson, motivated behavior relies on learners' expectancy of attaining a specific goal or outcome, along with their efforts, which in turn depend on how much they value the outcome.

As Schunk (2012) stated, the expectancy-value model of motivation has proven beneficial for classroom education. Specifically, teachers focus on decreasing learners' feelings of failure towards learning tasks and increasing their hope for success to boost achievement motivation. According to this theory, learners' expectations for reaching a goal and the importance they assign to it determine their motivation.

4) Implications for Language Learning

Language teaching methodology changed in the late 1970s and early 1980s, moving away from behavioristic principles toward a communicative approach heavily influenced by cognitivist principles. According to the cognitive perspective, learners actively process information by perceiving, interpreting, and storing it. When applying and learning a rule, learners use their cognitive abilities to sort through the vast amount of information provided, identify the circumstances in

which the rule would be applicable, and then act on that determination (Ausubel et al., 1978).

Therefore, the focus of communicative language teaching has shifted from the teacher and the language itself to meaning and the learner. This approach, developed by Firth, Halliday, Wilkins, and Sinclair, emphasizes communicative competence as the primary objective, achieved through the practice of natural language situations where fluency is valued over accuracy. Nevertheless, grammar is subtly addressed because theorists emphasized the significance of accuracy in language instruction. Furthermore, communicative language teaching has moved language teaching away from teachers' control toward a learner-centered approach.

According to Suharno (2010), cognitive language learning aims to encourage learners to engage in active thinking. The central teaching techniques of the cognitive theory of language learning may cover the following activities: (1) problem-based learning (problem-solving), (2) discovery learning, and (3) project-based learning. Jerome Bruner was the first to apply the cognitive principles in education. He advocated for **Discovery learning, in which teachers create a problem-solving environment that allows** students to question, explore, and experiment.

In summary, cognitive learning involves learners actively seeking ways to comprehend, process, and connect new information to previously acquired and stored knowledge. To support learners in integrating new information with what they already know, current curriculum programs encourage teachers to understand and put into practice cognitivist learning principles that take into account individual differences in learners' cognitive structures or prior knowledge bases. Modernized curriculum programs require teachers to design creative practices that enhance learning. Teachers can benefit from this valuable learning paradigm to help learners achieve their learning objectives.

5) Practical exercises

Exercise 1: reflective questions

- How much did you know about cognitivist learning (e.g., accommodation, schemas) before this course began?
- How might raising task value help students master academic collocations?
- What goal will you set to build autonomy in your learning of the educational psychology module?
- What one cognitivist strategy will you use in your EFL lesson as a teacher or thesis research?

Exercise 2: Draw a table to compare cognitivist vs. behaviorist learning principles and their implications for EFL education

Aspect	Behaviorist Principles	Cognitivist Principles
View of learning		
Learner role		
Key mechanisms		
Teacher role		
Focus of assessment		

Exercise 3: QUIZ

1) Cognitivism, as a learning theory, is primarily concerned with

A	Behavior modification
B	Mind and thought processes
C	Reinforcement

D	Stimulus-response

2) Who is considered the father of cognitive development theory?

A	B.F. Skinner
B	John Watson
C	Jean Piaget
D	Albert Bandura

3) Which of the following ideas DOES NOT fit within the notion of cognitive learning?

A	Assimilation
B	Meaningful learning vs. rote learning
C	Reinforcement
D	Accommodation

4) What is the term for integrating new information into existing Knowledge?

A	Accommodation
B	Discovery learning
C	Adaptation
D	Assimilation

6) According to the cognitive learning perspective, learning is:

A	A passive process
B	An active internal process
C	A result of stimulus-response relationship

D	A stable outcome

7) In self-determination theory, which of the following is NOT considered a basic psychological need?

A	Autonomy
B	Competence
C	Relatedness
D	Achievement

8) Which motivational strategy involves increasing the perceived value and attainability of goals?

A	Reinforcement
B	Self-determination
C	Expectancy-value intervention
D	Discovery learning

9) What is the main goal of discovery learning?

A	To memorize facts and information
B	To reinforce behavior through rewards and punishments
C	To understand concepts through exploration and problem-solving
D	To improve rote learning and repetition skills

10) Which of the following best describes discovery learning?

A	Teacher-centered approach
B	Learner-centered approach
C	Rote learning

D	Passive learning

11) What is the primary goal of communicative language teaching?

A	Memorizing vocabulary
B	Mastering grammatical rules
C	Focus on accuracy over fluency.
D	Developing communicative competence

PROJECT: (Problem-Based Learning Project)

Objective: Encouraging critical thinking, problem-solving, and application of acquired knowledge.

Description:

- Working in groups of no more than three students, search for the problem of "learner autonomy."
- Each group presents its findings and proposed solutions, highlighting the cognitive processes they used.

UNIT FOUR: Humanism

Humanism—or humanistic approach—is a learning theory focusing on the affective and emotional processes of the individual. This unit will provide some insight into humanistic learning and the main principles of humanistic psychology. Moreover, the unit highlights the famous humanistic learning theories such as Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers. Finally, the unit ends up with humanistic implications to language education.

Learning outcomes

After the completion of this unit, students will be able to:

- Define learning from the humanistic perspective.
- Understand the association between learning and affection.
- Become acquainted with the humanistic theories of learning.
- Pinpoint the implications of the humanistic approach to language education.

Unit 4:	**Cognitivism**
Week	Topic
11	• Humanistic Learning

12	• Humanistic theories
	  ○ Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs
	  ○ Rogers Motivation theory

13	Implications for Language Learning
14	Project Presentations

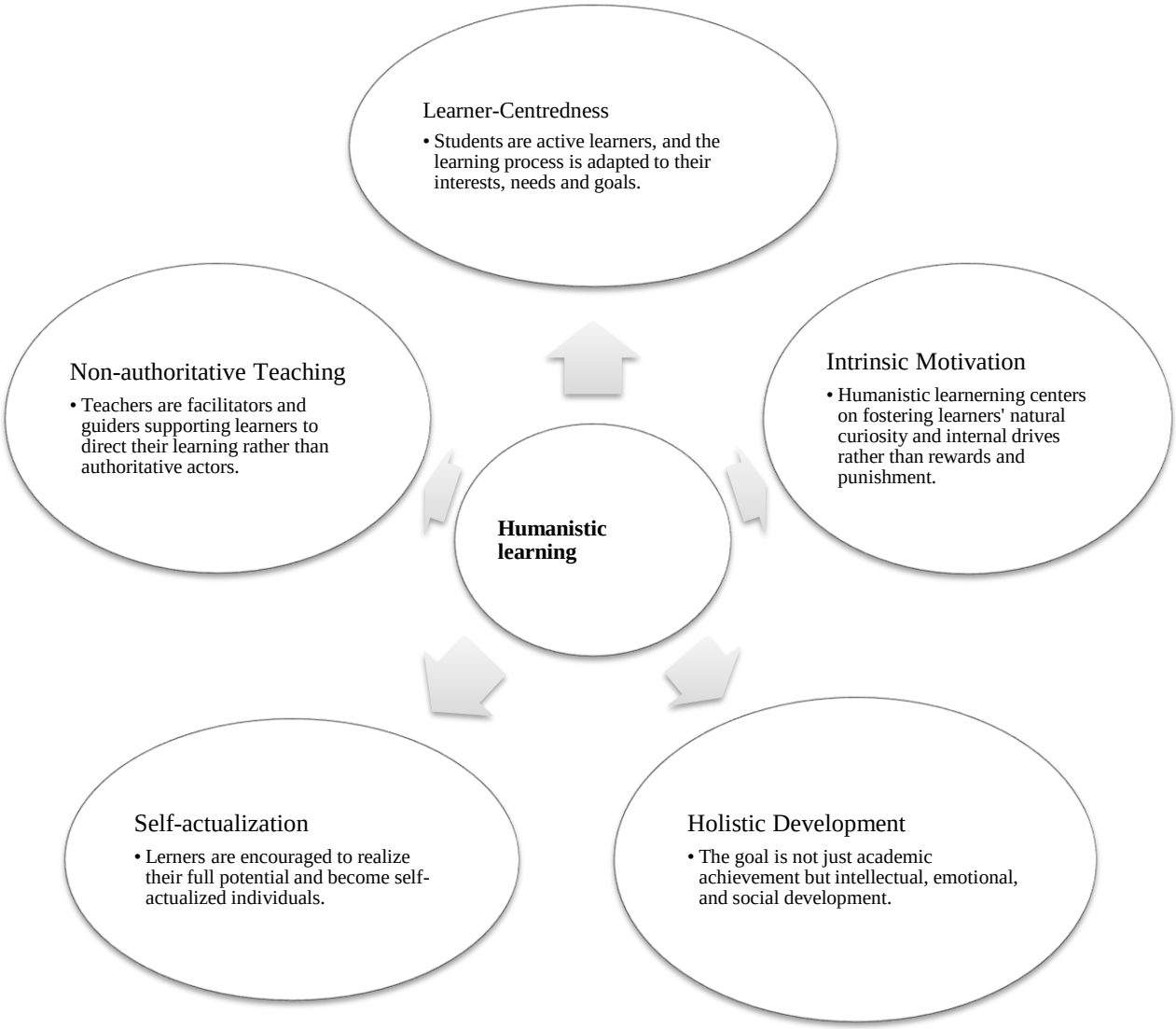
1) Humanistic Learning

Advancing in the 1950s, humanistic Psychology was associated with the seminal thinkers Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers. The humanists disagree with the behaviorists who study animal responses to detached stimuli; they emphasize cognitive and affective processes in people who are psychologically and mentally functioning. Thus, the humanistic approach places greater emphasis on analyzing individuals' actions, ideas, and emotions to understand how they learn. Lei (2007) asserts that the humanistic approach elevates the learner's inner side and puts the individual's thoughts, feelings, and emotions at the center of all human learning.

The Humanists deal with learners' self-awareness, capabilities, and potential when making decisions. They maintain that human choices, creativity, and self-actualization are the main topics to be examined in the educational environment (Schunk, 2012). Therefore, this learning theory is interested in personal growth and learners' development, prioritizing the whole person rather than academic achievements.

Regarding the objectives of humanistic learning, the approach emphasizes self-directedness, self-actualization, holistic development, and intrinsic motivation, as illustrated in the following figure.

Figure 10. Major Components in Humanistic Learning



The well-known humanistic theories on learning include those of Abraham Maslow and Carl Rogers. Maslow's theory stresses motivation to develop individuals' potential to learn, which is discussed next, followed by Rogers's theory, which covers both learning and instruction.

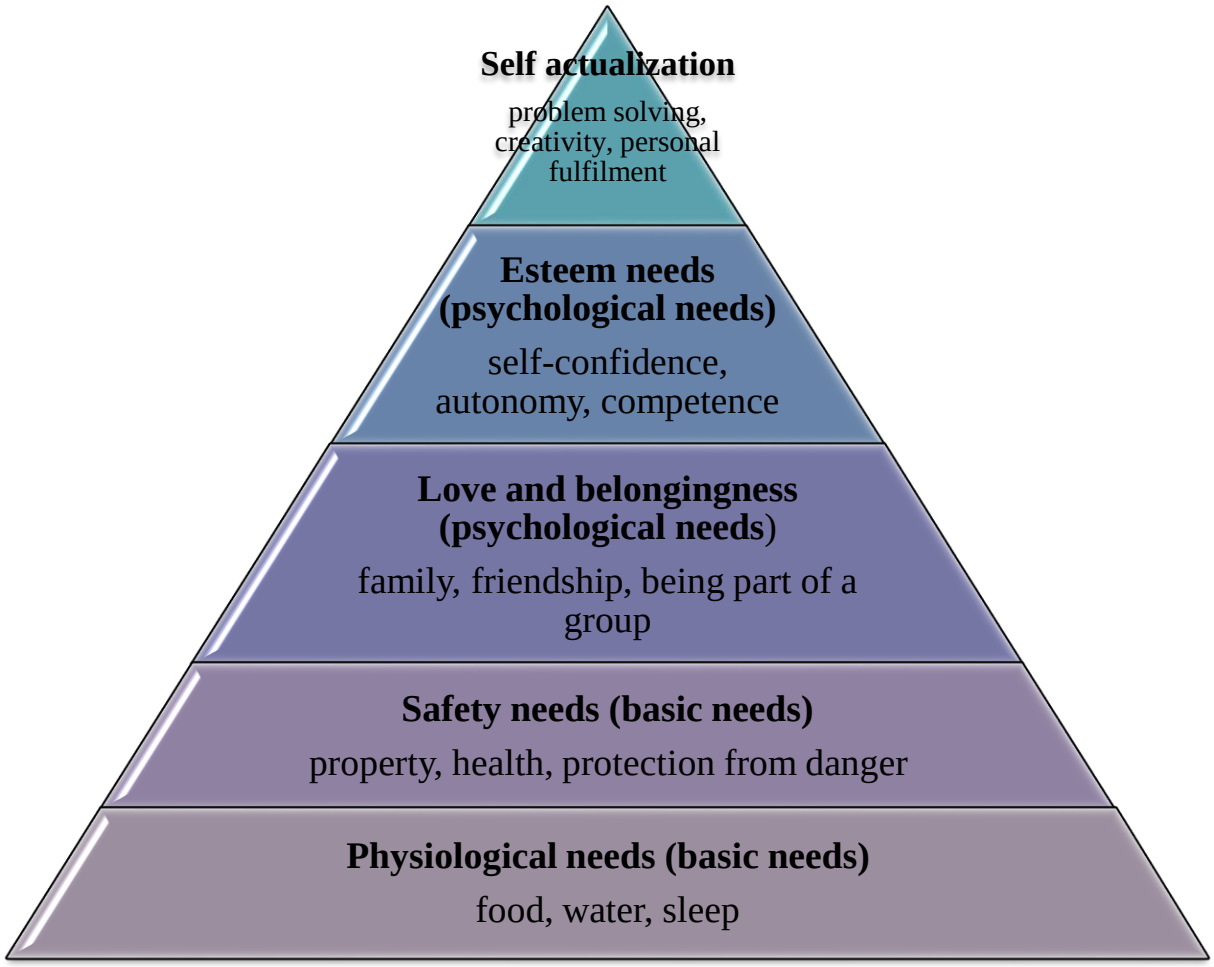
2) Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

As a humanist, Maslow proposed a hierarchy of needs in 1954. Maslow perceived personal growth and realizing one's unique capabilities in terms of several

basic needs that are considered as motives. He suggested a classified set of needs that must be satisfied to achieve an individual's potential.

Maslow's psychological theory is often illustrated as a pyramid of five basic classes.

Figure 11. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs



- In the first class, there are the physiological needs, including hunger and thirst.
- The second level of the pyramid comprises safety needs, such as security, order, and protection from harm and anxiety.
- The third level encompasses love and belonging needs.
- The pyramid's fourth rank, esteem needs, covers the needs for competence, approval, and recognition.

- Lastly, self-actualization needs, that is, the need to realize one's potential and capabilities and gain understanding and insight, settle at the top of the pyramid in the highest level.

When lower-level needs are satisfied, learners' efforts are focused on achieving higher-level ones; however, the learner cannot realize self-actualization without fulfilling the basic (levels 1 and 2) and physiological needs (levels 3 and 4) (Dörnyei, 2001).

In this context, Aggarwal states, "The highest needs can be satisfied only after the lower needs are satisfied" (2005, p. 204). Moreover, Schunk (2010) considers Maslow's hierarchy of needs advantageous for teachers to understand learners and to establish an appropriate atmosphere that boosts learning.

3) Rogers Humanistic Theory

Carl Rogers, a prominent figure in humanistic psychology, advanced a psychological theory explaining human behavior and growth. His humanistic approach ponders personal growth and self-actualization as motivating factors. According to Rogers, the individual learner has an innate tendency to realize his full potential, which is self-actualization. This drive is motivated by a desire for analogy between the individual's self-concept and self-experience. In this sense, Rogers's theory defines learning as the continuous, dynamic involvement in the environment, supplemented by learners' certainty that learning is significant.

Rogers believes that learners often possess an innate potential to learn and an unlimited curiosity to discover experiences consistent with their self-concept. Their behaviors are controlled by their perception of both personal and environmental factors. Therefore, it is necessary to develop an appropriate learning environment in which teachers serve as facilitators of the learning process, building relationships with learners and providing consistent resources and encouragement. Learners will accept all they believe to be relevant or beneficial if the learning experiences are properly established (Brown, 2000).

Mounting learners' potential in a suitable learning environment will often enhance their potential and level of engagement in learning experiences (Bentham, 2002; Schunk, 2012). Overall, Rogers's assumptions about humanistic learning center on enabling learners to take on challenges and feel satisfied with their learning experiences.

To sum up, this humanistic approach offers an insightful understanding of the factors that can motivate individuals to learn and develop. By underlining personal growth, self-actualization, the analogy between self-concept and self-experience, and a positive attitude, Rogers offers an outline for determining the essential motivational factors that direct human behavior.

4) Implications for Language Learning

As one of the conventional educational theories, the humanistic approach has influenced foreign language pedagogy, with particular implications and applications for language teachers and learners. Foreign language education shifted away from behavioral and cognitive approaches toward a humanistic approach. As a result, considerable changes took place across all facets of language education, where the traditional roles of teachers and learners were redefined and the formerly controlling teacher roles were replaced by learner-centered classrooms.

The fundamental principles of the humanistic approach are that learning is self-directed and holistic, and that it is facilitated when the learner acts intuitively during the learning process. When applied to language education, this approach advocates for

- Learner-centeredness: Lei (2007) argued that humanistic education advocates learner-centeredness, in which the objective is to attend to learners' emotions and feelings rather than simply developing their cognitive and linguistic capabilities.
- Emphasis on learners' needs: humanism aligns with learners' emotional well-being, self-esteem, and self-actualization. Therefore, teachers are

recommended to establish a supportive learning environment in which learners are motivated to express themselves without anxiety or fear of negative feedback.

- Creation of personalized learning experiences: teaching is customized to meet learners' needs, interests, and goals.
- Focus on intrinsic motivation: consider learners as active participants, directing their learning by encouraging them to discover their motives for learning the language. This promotes profound cognitive engagement.
- Teacher-student relationship: teachers have many roles, including facilitators of the learning process, guides helping learners direct their learning, and caregivers providing emotional support.
- The Emphasis on genuine communication: humanistic language education centers on developing learners' communicative competence and fluency rather than stiff accuracy.
- Collaborative learning, through collaborative activities such as group and pair work, is widely recognized as fostering a sense of belonging and fostering cooperation among learners.
- Critical thinking and self-assessment: encouraging learners to think about their learning and evaluate their progress. Learners are motivated to reflect on the competencies they have acquired, their weaknesses, and areas for improvement.

In summary, humanism has several implications for language instruction. It focuses on approaching learners as whole individuals and promoting meaningful communication, individual development, and intrinsic motivation. Humanism transmitted the emphasis of language learning from modest linguistic accuracy to establishing an enjoyable learning environment in which learners are encouraged to be self-directed, self-regulated, and cooperative. The ultimate goal of this approach is to foster academic success along with emotional, cognitive, and social development.

5) Practical Exercises

Exercise 1: Needs Pyramid Personal Audit

Instructions: Draw Maslow's pyramid (physiological → safety → belonging → esteem → self-actualization). For each level, write 1 EFL example:

- Physiological: Need met/not met during class?
- Safety: Do you feel secure sharing speaking errors?
- Belonging: Do group activities build connection?
- Esteem: Pride in collocation mastery?
- Self-actualization: How does EFL help your potential?

Reflection: Which unmet need blocks your language fluency most?

Exercise 2: reflective questions

- In what EFL skill (speaking, reading) does humanistic theory best promote self-actualization?
- Compare: How does Rogers/Maslow shift EFL from behaviorist drills to intrinsic growth?
- What personal goal will you set for humanistic language learning?

Exercise 3: QUIZ

1) The major focus of the humanistic approach to learning is

A	Mastery of linguistic rules
B	Development of the whole individual (cognitive, emotional, social)
C	Rote memorization of vocabulary items
D	Teacher-centered education

2) Which of the following is NOT a characteristic of humanistic instruction?

A	Encouraging learner autonomy
B	Fostering intrinsic motivation
C	Focusing exclusively on behavior acquisition
D	Generating a supportive learning environment

3) Humanistic learning emphasizes

A	A firm devotion to the curriculum
B	Learners emotional and psychological well-being
C	Reinforcement
D	Assessment and corrective feedback

4) Humanistic learning promotes motivation through

A	Providing rewards
B	Encouraging competition among learners
C	Fostering intrinsic motivation through meaningful, relevant tasks
D	Giving tests to measure progress

5) Which of the following is most consistent with a humanistic approach

A	Teacher-centered lectures
B	Focusing on learners' emotional well-being and self-expression
C	Punishing learners' mistakes to certify accuracy
D	Frequent testing to check learners’ progress

6) The emotional state of the learner.

A	Is overviewed and neglected
B	Plays a crucial role in their ability to learn effectively in a humanistic classroom.
C	Is slightly considered
D	Is margined and neglected

7) In humanistic language teaching, the role of the teacher is best described as:

A	A source of knowledge
B	An authoritative character
C	A facilitator or a guider
D	The principal sage on the stage

8) Which language teaching method aligns with humanistic principles?

A	Grammar-Translation Method
B	Audio-lingual Method
C	Total Physical Response
D	Suggestopedia

PROJECT 1: Comparative Analysis of Humanistic and Traditional Language Teaching

Working in groups of no more than three students, search for how a humanistic classroom environment differs from a traditional classroom.

Tasks

- Explain the importance of personalized learning experiences in motivating learners.

- Give an example of how a teacher might create a safe, supportive learning environment.

PROJECT 2: Design a Humanistic Language Classroom

Create an exhaustive plan or model for a language classroom that integrates humanistic learning principles. In that plan, take into account the corporal plan, the teaching method, teacher-student interaction, cooperation among learners, and the role of emotional well-being in learning.

Tasks

- Design a lesson plan that supports learner autonomy, emotional well-being, communication, and collaboration.
- Propose learning experiences that consider learners' interests, encourage self-expression, and incorporate authentic situations.

UNIT Five: Social Learning Theory

Social learning theory—later expanded into socio-cognitive theory —is a learning theory emphasizing the role of observational learning and the environment. The current unit will highlight the main principles of the theory, including modeling, imitation, and the role of cognitive processes. Furthermore, the unit explains Bandura's four-step observational learning. Lastly, the unit presents some implications to language education.

Learning outcomes

After the completion of this unit, students will be able to:

- Understand the pillars of the social learning process.
- Define the four-step observational learning.
- Recognize the role of cognitive factors such as beliefs and self-efficacy.
- Determine the implications of the approach to language education.

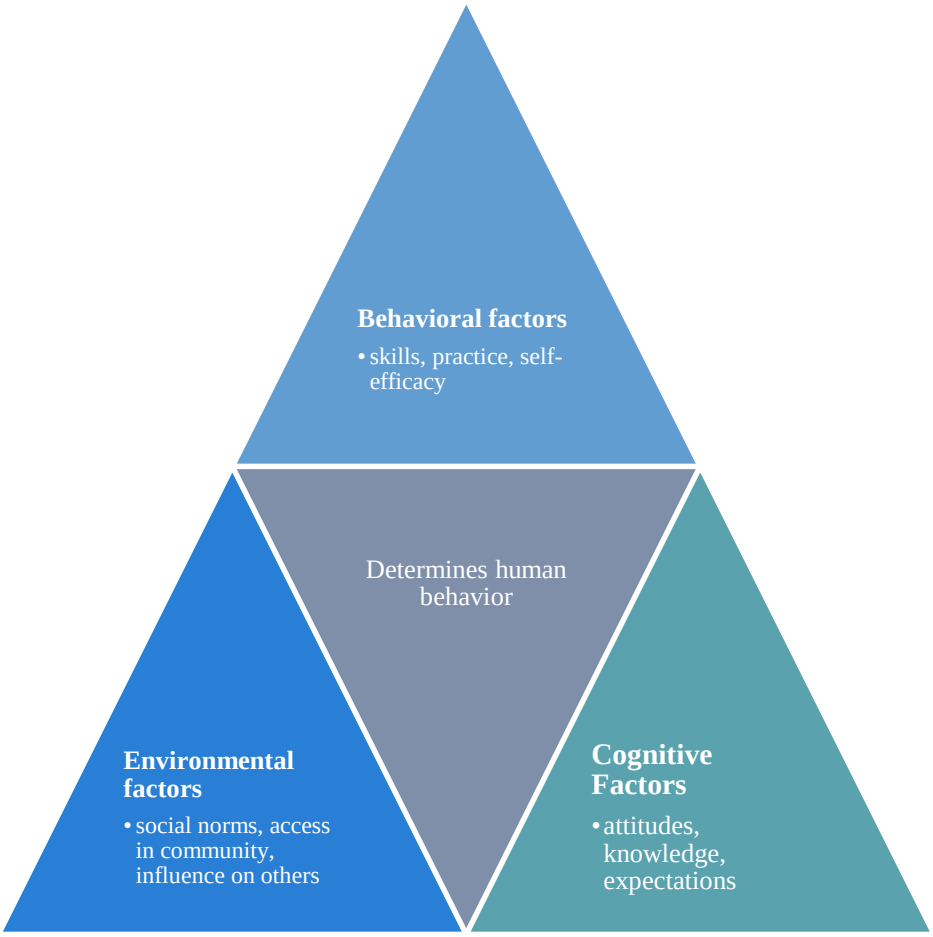
Unit 4:	**Cognitivism**
Week	Topic
15	• Background of the Theory • Imitation and Modeling
16	• Bandura's Learning Process
17	• Implications for Language Learning
18	Project Presentations

1) Background of the Theory

The social learning theory emerged in the 1960s to provide insight into areas where links between behaviorism and cognitivism can be made. It is considered an interpretative tool for comprehending the roles of behavioral factors, cognitive processes, and social influences in learning. Thoroughly allied to the prominent thinker Albert Bandura, the theory has undergone several paradigm shifts.

In its initial conception, Bandura focused on behaviorist principles and the imitation of models. He demonstrated that learning takes place through observation and imitation in a reinforcing environment. Next, the attention is redirected towards cognitive factors. After 30 years of research, Bandura found that a modest emphasis on stimulus-response was insufficient to account for the complexity of human behavior. He became aware of the role of cognition in learning, recognizing that individuals' cognitive processes enable them to attend to models, use ciphers to stand in for a model's behavior, and mentally organize information. More recently, Bandura's focus shifted to the effects of social context and its importance in learning, illustrating that people shape their environment and are molded by it as well. This way, Albert Bandura merged cognitive principles and behavioral patterns within the social environment in the social cognitive theory.

Figure 12. Social Learning Theory Components



Bandura's social cognitive theory has made specific assumptions, implying that self-efficacy, that is, one's belief in his ability to succeed in tasks and activities, is a key contributor to learning. Bandura holds that learners with greater self-efficacy are more likely to engage in learning activities, persist in the face of encountered challenges, and ultimately become proficient. Moreover, the theory holds that learned behaviors are largely the result of imitation or modeling. Observing another person's behavior results in the copying and acquisition of that behavior.

2) Imitation and Modeling

Albert Bandura asserts that people learn behaviors by observing others. His research focused on imitation, or modeling, in which learning arises from cautious observation of what others do (Salkind, 2009). In this vein, Seifert and Sutton state, "modeling refers to performing or demonstrating a desired new behavior or skill, as

when a teacher or classmate demonstrates polite behaviors or the correct solution to a problem" (2009, p. 230).

In this situation, the teacher or the classmate models a behavior. Learners carefully observe the modelled behavior and tend to imitate it expectantly. The extent of imitation depends on the positive reinforcement associated with those behaviors. Thus, responsibility is placed on the educator to serve as a role model and to select appropriate social experiences for learners to observe and imitate.

Bandura (2000) stressed that modelling or imitating anticipated behaviors is a dynamic, operant technique for learning new behaviors, particularly when learners perceive the model or the desired behavior as significant. In this manner, modelling desired behaviors is known as observational learning (Moreno, 2010; Seiffert and Sutton, 2009).

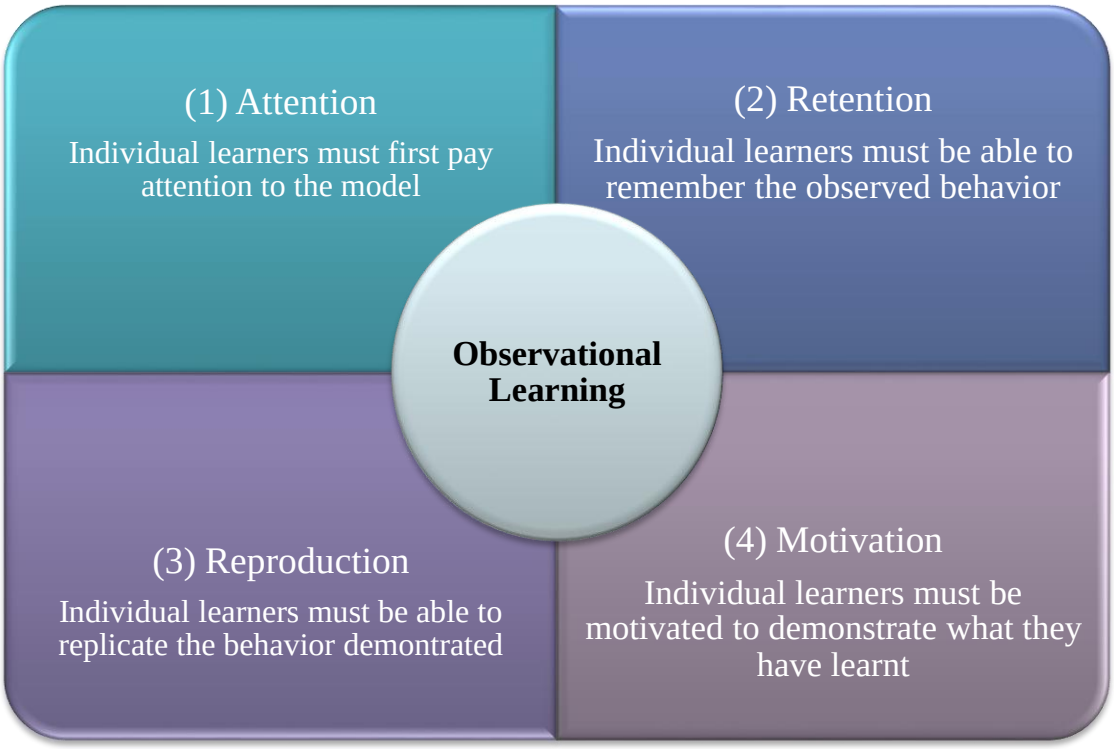
3) Observational Learning

Observational learning refers to learning that occurs through observing others' desired behaviors and imitating them (Schunk, 2012). According to Bandura, learners' observational learning relies on four interrelated, largely internal processes: attention, retention, reproduction, and motivation.

- The first process, attention or attentional phase, is a central factor without which learning through observation cannot occur. It reveals that learners will not learn through observation if they do not pay attention to the behavior they tend to acquire. It means learners select specific behaviors from certain models based on their interests, needs, and goals. Research pointed out that role models with high status, attractiveness, and competence are more likely to be observed.
- The second process, retention, acknowledges the role of memory functions in observational learning. In this process, the observer must retain the actions of the modelled behavior to perform them. Hence, this process of observational learning necessitates the cognitive organization of the modeled behavior for memory storage and retrieval.

- The third process of observational learning, production, involves the learners' renovation of observable behaviors into overt behaviors. The performance of the observed actions signposts that learning has effectively occurred.
- The final process, motivation, is a psychological factor affecting observational learning. According to Schunk (2012), learners engage in the first three processes when they value the observed model and perceive it as significant, either to satisfy an internal drive or to obtain an external reward. In this concern, Salkind declares, "Motivation in observational learning is governed by the extent to which the individual values the task, and it is also influenced by principles of reinforcement" (2009, p. 744).

Figure 13. The Social Learning Theory: Observational Learning Process



The social cognitive theory holds that people learn through observation of the social environment when it is perceived as motivating and stimulating. Henceforth, teachers can endorse it by showing learners the benefits of the modeled behaviors, linking the learned materials to learners' interests, offering feedback, emphasizing the value of learning, and constructing an inspiring learning environment that stimulates learners to try modeling actions.

4) Implications for Language Education

Bandura's theory implies that language learning is not merely a cognitive activity but is deeply embedded in social interactions, observational learning, self-reflection, and motivation. Language teachers can create vibrant, cooperative, and supportive learning environments that foster learners' language acquisition skills by integrating social cognitive theory principles.

- Establishing an observational learning environment: teachers are required to model appropriate language use and provide learners with opportunities to observe and imitate skilled speakers. For instance, video recordings, role-playing, and interactive conversations permit learners to observe fluent language situations in authentic contexts. Observing others practice a language can help learners acquire syntax, pronunciation, and social skills.
- Encouraging social interaction and collaborative learning: language teachers are commended for fostering collaborative learning through pair work, cooperative activities, and interactive tasks that support cognitive development and language acquisition. Activities such as problem-solving, class discussion, and practicing dialogues are effective for supporting language use and skill development.
- Boosting self-efficacy: language teachers must help learners build self-confidence by setting achievable goals, offering supportive feedback,

and appraising progress. Henceforth, they are recommended to establish activities that allow for fruitful learning experiences.

- Fostering metacognitive awareness: Based on the assumption that learners are not passive recipients of knowledge and must actively process information, teachers could foster learners' critical thinking about how they learn, monitor their performance, and assess their progress. To this end, teachers encourage the use of language learning journals/diaries, self-assessment portfolios, and critical reflection tests.
- Offering positive reinforcement: learners' motivation is raised when they observe it in others; thus, language teachers should offer rewards or recognition for learners' progress in the target language to motivate hard work.

Overall, the social cognitive theory stresses that behavior, cognition, and the social environment influence one another. This means that an individual's learning environment, mental abilities, and interactions all contribute to the success of the learning process. Hereafter, the learner will reciprocally influence the group through goal setting, self-efficacy, and self-regulation during cooperative learning. The reciprocal influence in this theory helps learners transform information acquired in cooperative environments into self-regulation mechanisms. Indeed, reciprocal causation is a term developed by Bandura (2006) to denote the interrelationship among learners' environment, their personal beliefs, and their behavior.

5) Practical Exercises

Exercise 1: Watch the 2-minute Bobo Doll video clip. In groups of 3: Note aggressive/non-aggressive models. Predict child imitation. Discuss: How does this show SLT background vs. pure behaviorism?

Reflection: What real-world EFL "model" (teacher/peer) have you imitated?

Exercise 2: reflective questions

- What is one key idea about Social Learning Theory that you understand now but did not understand before this session?
- How does Social Learning Theory differ from behaviorism and cognitivism in your own words?
- Which part of Bandura's background or experiments (e.g., Bobo Doll) impressed you the most, and why?
- How could you deliberately use Social Learning Theory to improve one specific area (speaking, listening, vocabulary, or pronunciation)?

Exercise 3: QUIZ

1) What is the key principle of the socio-cognitivist learning?

A	Operant conditioning
B	Fulfillment of basic and psychological needs
C	Memorization and recalling
D	Observational learning

2) In Social Cognitive Theory, the term self-efficacy refers to

A	The ability to memorize new information quickly
B	The ability to imitate others
C	The belief in one's ability to succeed in specific tasks
D	The act of learning from others' mistakes

3) Which of the following is an example of observational learning?

A	A learner is rewarded for wanted behavior.
B	An individual learns to perform a speaking act by listening to classmates.
C	A learner memorizes vocabulary words through repetition.
D	A teacher rewards a learner for a high test score.

4) What role does reinforcement play in observational learning?

A	Learners are directly rewarded for their actions
B	Learners practice independently until they master a task.
C	Learners observe others being rewarded and are motivated to imitate them.
D	Learners are punished for their behavior.

5) How can self-efficacy influence language learning?

A	Learners with low self-efficacy are more likely to participate in language tasks.
B	High self-efficacy inspires learners to engage in language activities and to persist in challenging situations.
C	High self-efficacy pushes learners to avoid difficult language tasks.
D	Self-efficacy does not play a role in language learning.

6) How does metacognition contribute to the socio-cognitive learning process?

A	It implies the ability to memorize facts without thinking
B	It implies the learners' ability to reflect on and monitor their learning.
C	It is the exercise of observing others' actions and copying them without reflection.

D	It refers to the process of learning through punishment.

7) Which of the following best represents reciprocal causation?

A	A learner can succeed without the influence of external factors
B	Learning is entirely based on reinforcement.
C	An individual's behavior, environment, and cognition all influence one another.
D	Rewards exclusively influence an individual's behavior.

8) What is the best classroom activity to incorporate the socio-cognitive theory principle of collaborative learning in language education?

A	Individual vocabulary tests
B	Group debates in the target language
C	Memorizing grammar rules individually
D	Silent reading exercises

PROJECT 1: Reciprocal Causation Case Study

Working in pairs, search how the interaction between behavior, cognition, and environment influences learning.

Tasks

- Choose a real-life learning environment, such as a classroom, and observe how a learner's behavior, cognitive beliefs, and environmental factors influence each other.

- In a written document, explain how these three elements (behavior, cognition, and environment) interact in the observed setting. Highlight specific examples of how one factor influences the others.

PROJECT 2: Social Cognitive Theory Implications

Search how the social cognitive theory principles are applied in real language classroom settings and how they affect student learning, focusing on

Tasks

- How do teachers use modeling, scaffolding, reinforcement, and collaborative learning in their lessons?
- How do students observe and imitate behaviors? Where self-efficacy is boosted through positive feedback.

UNIT SIX: Constructivism

Constructivism is a learning theory based on the assumption that learners actively construct their own knowledge rather than receiving that knowledge from other sources. The current unit aims at identifying the principles, characteristics, and perspectives of constructivism. Moreover, the unit presents the two sub-branches of constructivism, including cognitive constructivism and social constructivism. Finally, the unit ends up with constructivist implications to language education.

Learning outcomes

After the completion of this unit, students will be able to:

- Define learning from the constructivist perspective.
- Recognize the difference between cognitive constructivism and social constructivism.
- Become acquainted with the Zone of Proximal Development and self-regulation skills.
- Identify the implications of constructivism in language education.

Unit 6:	**Constructivism**
Week	Topic

19	• Constructivist Learning
	• Constructivist Perspectives
	  ○ Cognitive Constructivism
	  ○ Social Constructivism

20	• The Zone of Proximal Development • Self-regulation
21	Implications for Language Learning
22	Project Presentations

1) Constructivist Learning

As a learning perspective, constructivism has had a crucial influence on our current understanding of learning. It argues that human beings are active learners who construct their understanding of knowledge and skills from their personal experiences with others and the environment (Schunk, 2012).

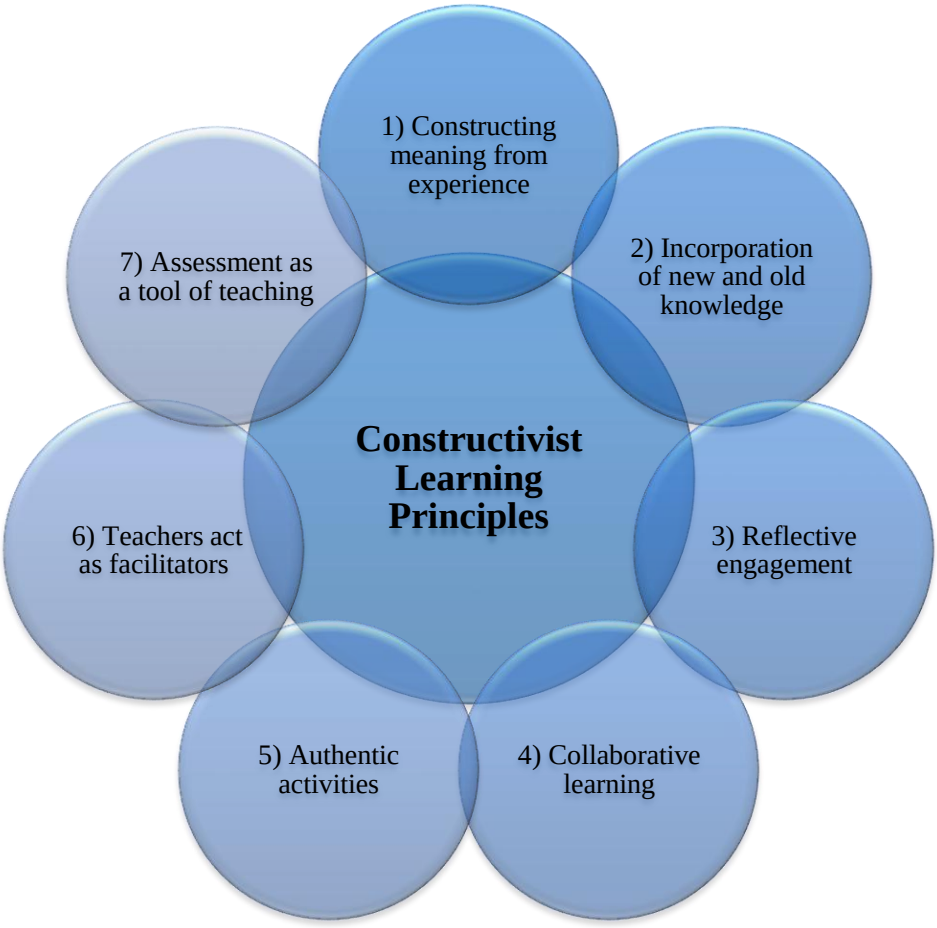
Seiffert and Sutton define it as “a perspective on learning focused on how students actively create (or “construct”) knowledge out of experiences” (2009, p. 33). Knowledge is constructed based on personal experiences (hypotheses) and not acquired or transmitted. The learner is a knowledge constructor. They actively construct or develop their depictions of objective certainty. After new information is connected to existing knowledge, mental models are constructed.

Unlike the preceding learning standpoints, constructivism views the individual as a physical, cognitive, social, and, principally, emotional being. It has the same social cognitive theory’s assumption that individuals, behaviors, and environments interact reciprocally. Constructivism is not a learning theory but, rather, an epistemology, or a philosophical explanation of the nature of human learning (Simpson, 2002). Therefore, the constructivists hypothesize that knowledge is constructed when individuals participate actively and socially in discourse about common concerns or tasks.

Hence, constructivist learning is the process by which learners are presented with a situation by more experienced adherents. Learners continuously test their hypotheses through social interaction. Each learner forms different interpretations and constructs knowledge based on his/her hypotheses of the environment. The learner is not a tabula rasa but carries previous experiences and social influences to a learning situation. Learning, in this sense, is the process by which learners adjust their conceptual frameworks to accommodate new experiences. This view contradicts the viewpoint that learning is transmitted from the teacher to the learner directly.

These constructivist assumptions mean that teachers should not traditionally deliver instruction to a group of learners. Instead, they should create experiences in which learners are energetically engaged with the content of learning through social interaction. Learning experiences include observing phenomena, gathering information, proposing and testing hypotheses, and collaborating with classmates. Learners visit locations outdoors. Instructors from diverse disciplines collaborate to design the syllabus. Learners are trained to develop skills, including self-regulation and autonomy, through goal setting, monitoring learning, and evaluating progress (Schunk, 2012).

Figure 14. Key Principles of Constructivism



2) Constructivist Perspectives

There are two major psychological strands of constructivism. These studies disagree on how much emphasis cognitive or social factors have on learners' constructions. In this sense, there are two constructivist perspectives: cognitive constructivism and social constructivism.

1) Cognitive Constructivism

The work of Jean Piaget fundamentally inspires this perspective. It centers on how learners use their mental abilities to construct knowledge. Piaget's theory described learning as the interaction between two mental activities that he named assimilation and accommodation. Assimilation refers to the interpretation of perceived information in terms of preexisting notions, information, or ideas. In addition, accommodation involves adjusting or modifying prior concepts in light of new information or experience.

According to Piaget, assimilation and accommodation operate together to improve an individual's thinking and to generate what he called cognitive equilibrium (that is, a balance between reliance on prior knowledge and readiness to receive new information). At all times, cognitive equilibrium involves a constantly expanding range of mental representations for items and experiences. A mental representation is called a schema (the plural form is schemata).

In educational settings, Piaget's cognitive constructivism advocates teaching methods that foster discovery, problem-solving, and self-regulation, often through activities such as open-ended questions that encourage reflection at different stages.

2) Social Constructivism

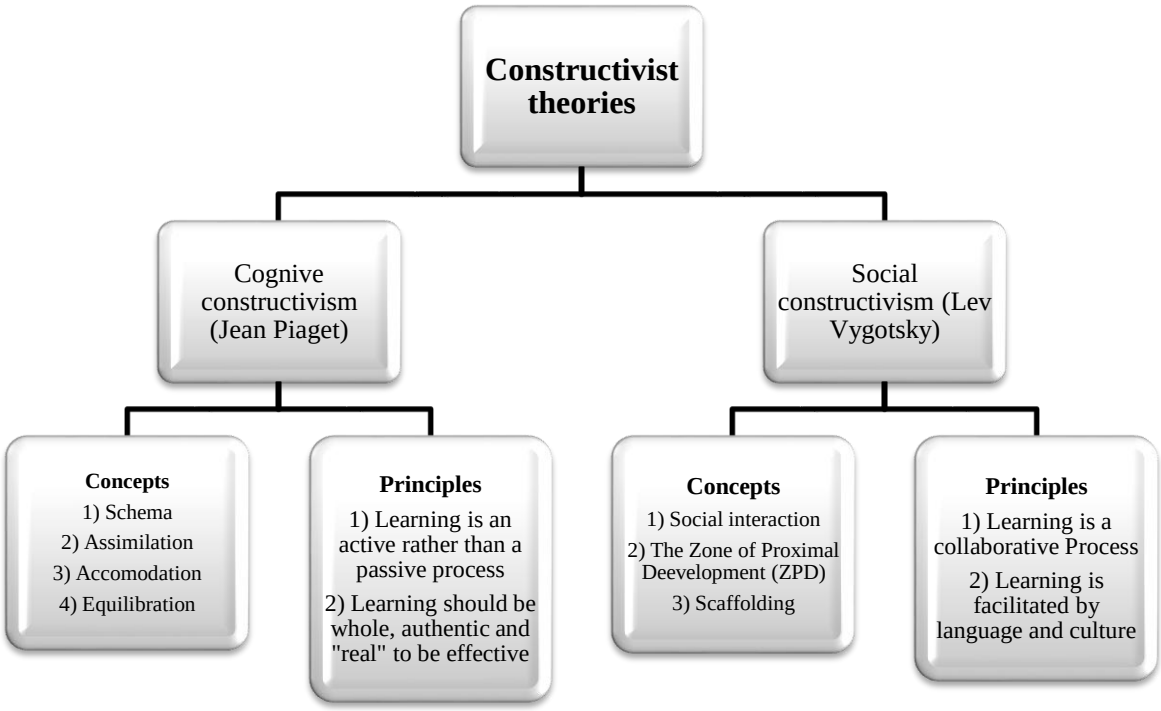
Based on the work of Lev Vygotsky, social constructivism hypothesizes that knowledge is constructed when learners engage socially in discourse (social interaction) and actively work on mutual problems or responsibilities. It views learning as a collaborative process in which learners build knowledge together through interaction, communication, and shared experiences. Thus, it suggested

cooperative learning as a teaching method to promote collaboration and social learning (Moreno, 2010). In this sense, knowledge is not constructed individually, as Piaget's approach suggests, but is shaped by cultural context through social engagement with others.

Vygotsky contended that cultural rules, standards, and tools, such as language, strongly shape learning. The latter figures out how people think and how they consider the world they live in. Language and communication are essential to learning and cognitive development. Learners speculate, elucidate, and deepen their understanding, thereby improving their cognitive capabilities. Knowledge is culturally shaped, and the ways individuals understand experiences and construct knowledge differ across cultural backgrounds (Snowman et al., 2009).

Briefly, Vygotsky considered learning as a social activity that is virtuously facilitated by the language of a culture. It is the cultural context that shapes human learning through authentic, real-life experiences, forming a common or shared understanding of a particular situation. In social constructivist classrooms, teachers create opportunities for learners to collaborate and discuss, pose open questions, and support learners' development through their Zone of Proximal Development.

Figure 15. Constructivist Perspectives



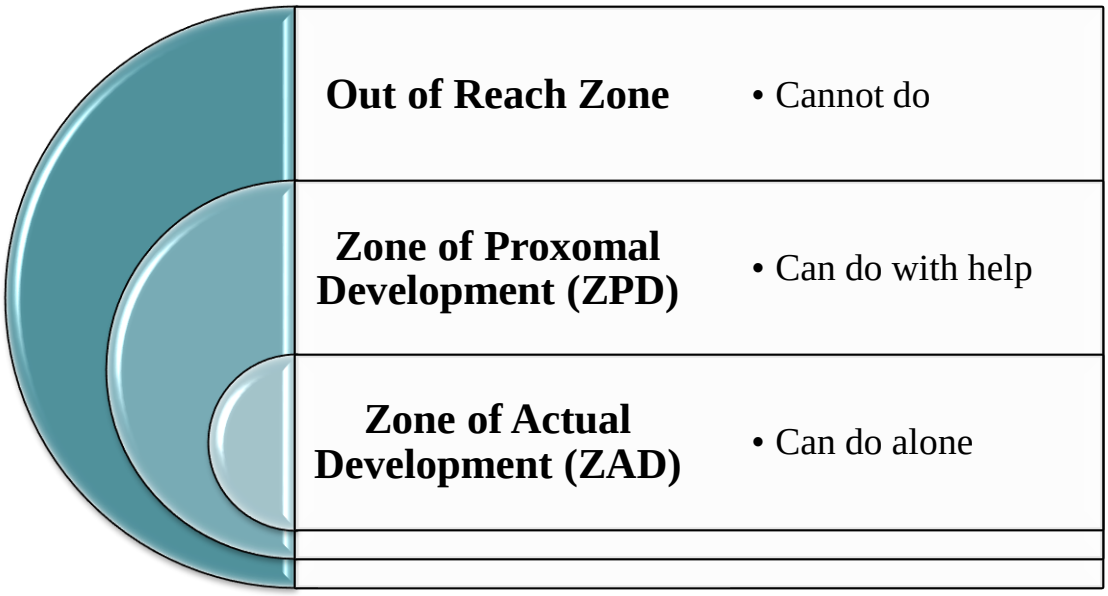
3) The Zone of Proximal Development

The Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is one of the major concepts developed by Lev Vygotsky, making it a crucial notion in social constructivist theory. ZPD includes the range of tasks that a learner cannot perform alone but can practice with the direction and assistance of more skilled members, such as teachers or colleagues.

What learners can do independently without any assistance reflects their actual development level. On the other hand, what the learner can realize with help from more skilled individuals, such as a teacher or a peer, represents their potential development level. Consequently, the gap between the actual and potential development levels denotes the ZPD. The assistance given is called scaffolding by

Jerome Bruner. Scaffolding, in this context, refers to the momentary support that skilled members provide to learners to accomplish a specific task until they can do it independently (Salkind, 2009).

Figure 16. Vygotsky's Theory of Scaffolding



To sum up, the ZPD stresses that learning is an active, social process by which learners improve performance through communication and cooperation, moving from potential development level to self-determining capability through scaffolding. This assistance, or scaffolding, can guide the learner through a sequence of steps that ultimately lead to "self-regulation" and intellectual development.

4) Self-Regulation

Self-regulation is a skill involving learners' capacity to recognize how they learn and to develop strategies for achieving self-control over the cognitive processes that are critical components of knowledge construction. It refers to learners' development of reflective thinking abilities about learning, including planning, monitoring, and assessing learning.

Self-regulation is viewed by Seifert and Sutton (2009) as a metacognitive process that denotes the capacity to develop strategies for learning and problem-

solving. In the classroom, self-regulation skills can be promoted by tackling learners' goal-setting, decision-making, observation, and self-assessment.

Constructivism considers learners as active participants who construct their understanding of knowledge through engagement with the content of learning, problem-solving, and reflection on experiences. As a skill, self-regulation supports these undertakings by motivating learners to take charge, actively organize their style, and evaluate their development. Key components of self-regulation include:

- **Setting goals**: learners plan clear, precise, and realizable goals for what they want to learn.
- **Planning and selecting strategies**: In this component, learners determine and plan the appropriate strategy to approach the activity they are undertaking.
- **Monitoring/evaluating learning:** learners constantly test their learning to assess their progress.

Figure 17. Cycle of Self-regulated Learning

Constructivism emphasizes learners' critical reflection, self-assessment, and assimilation. Self-regulation strengthens these processes by enabling learners to dynamically reflect on their performance, recognize areas for development, and plan strategies when needed.

5) Implications for Language Learning

In education, constructivism is a psychological and philosophical perspective that centers on learning rather than teaching, learner engagement, and social interaction in the learning process (Wang, 2011).

Constructivism has significant implications for language learning. Constructivist methods imply that students learn a language by dynamically engaging, communicating, and constructing knowledge through social interactions and applicable experiences. Given this, constructivists strongly emphasized the importance of the organization and structure of learning experiences in promoting active learning through grouping students for instruction, organizing lecture timing, providing updated learning materials, and other aspects of classroom management. In this view, Schunk says

> Classrooms include other factors that can affect learners' perceptions, motivation, and learning. Some of these can be summarized by the acronym TARGET: Task design, distribution of Authority, Recognition of students, Grouping arrangements, Evaluation practices, and Time allocation (2012, p. 255)

- **Task design:**

Teachers design learning experiences that meet learners' interests, needs, and goals.

- **Distribution of authority:**

Teachers encourage learners' control and authority by providing choices and allowing them to make decisions. This might include allowing students to select their reading materials, work on personal language projects, or set individualized learning goals.

- **Recognition:**

This factor implies the use of reinforcement. Teachers can organize learners into groups to support collaboration and communication, thereby improving their ability to work with others.

- **Evaluation:**

Teachers use techniques to develop learners' self-assessment, such as providing opportunities to evaluate their work and revise it.

- **Time allocation:**

Teachers offering learners choices over their time management is an effective strategy for enhancing self-regulation skills.

Other implications for language learning may involve Pritchard and Woollard's constructivist teacher strategies. They stressed that the constructivist classroom must hold a sum of operative and creative strategies to stimulate learning. These strategies are outlined as follows:

- Fostering learners' autonomy and creativity.
- Boosting learning through using learners' responses and considering them.
- Seeking learners' understanding of new concepts before teaching them.
- Engaging learners in dialogues among themselves and with the teacher.
- Encouraging learners to reflect and ask thoughtful, open-ended questions.
- Putting learners in experiences that may contain contradictions to encourage discussion. (Pritchard & Woollard, 2010).

Accordingly, constructivism has re-conceptualized the notions of teaching and learning, the teachers' and learners' roles, and thus, invites teachers to reflect on their practices and the experiences they design in the classroom.

6) Practical Exercises

Exercises 1: Theory application

- Define cognitive constructivism in 2 sentences.
- Design a 5-min EFL snippet: "Teach aviation vocab using schema-building."
- Add ZPD scaffold (e.g., peer hints).

Exercise 2: Schema mapping

Draw mind maps linking prior teaching experiences to new cognitive constructivism concepts (e.g., "How does schema activation apply to EFL vocabulary?"); review for misconceptions.

Instructions:

- In the center circle, write "Cognitive Constructivism in EFL." Branch to your prior schema: "What did I already know about vocabulary teaching?" (e.g., "Repetition drills"). Add branches for key ideas—Schema (existing mental frameworks), Assimilation (fit new info into old), Accommodation (adjust schema for mismatches), Equilibration (resolve conflicts). Link each to EFL vocab example: "How does guessing words from context assimilate into my 'drills' schema?"

Exercise 3: Reflective questions

1. Define constructivism in one sentence and contrast it with behaviorism.
2. Explain Piaget's role in cognitive constructivism, including key processes like assimilation and accommodation.
3. Describe Vygotsky's social constructivism and name one tool (e.g., ZPD) for classroom use.

4. How does cognitive constructivism emphasize individual schema-building, unlike social constructivism's focus on collaboration?

Exercise 4: QUIZ

1) What is the key principle of constructivist learning?

A	Students passively receive knowledge from the teacher.
B	Knowledge is best learned through repetition and memorization.
C	Teachers are the sole source of knowledge.
D	Students construct their knowledge through experiences and interactions.

2) Which theorist is most closely associated with cognitive constructivism?

A	Lev Vygotsky
B	John Dewey
C	Jean Piaget
D	Jerome Bruner

3) Lev Vygotsky's concept of the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) refers to:

A	Tasks a learner can do independently.
B	Tasks a learner can do with guidance or collaboration.
C	Tasks a learner cannot do, even with help.
D	The skills a teacher possesses to teach students effectively.

4) Which of the following best describes the role of the teacher in a constructivist classroom?

A	The source of information
B	An authoritative character of strict discipline and memorization.
C	A facilitator or guide in the learning process.
D	A passive observer of student activities.

5) What is scaffolding in the context of constructivism?

A	Providing physical materials for hands-on learning.
B	Gradual reduction of support as learners gain independence.
C	Punishing students for incorrect answers.
D	Assigning repetitive tasks to build mastery.

6) Which of the following activities is least aligned with constructivist teaching?

A	Group discussions and collaborative learning.
B	Memorizing definitions for a vocabulary test.
C	Inquiry-based projects.
D	Role-playing real-world scenarios.

7) How does constructivism view prior knowledge?

A	As irrelevant to new learning.

B	As an obstacle to learning new concepts.
C	It is a foundation on which new knowledge is built.
D	As a separate process unrelated to the current learning.

8) Which of the following activities aligns most with constructivist language teaching?

A	Completing grammar worksheets independently.
B	Role-playing a discussion in the target language
C	Memorizing a list of irregular verbs.
D	Translating sentences from the target language into the native language.

PROJECT 1: Designing a Constructivist Classroom Model

Working in groups, develop a classroom design that fully integrates constructivist principles.

Tasks

- Create a detailed lesson plan for a constructivist classroom, including the physical layout, teaching strategies, and types of activities.
- Include examples of collaborative tasks, inquiry-based projects, and methods for assessing student learning.

PROJECT 2: Scaffolding and the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) in Action

Search how scaffolding supports student learning within their ZPD, focusing on

Tasks

- Design a teaching sequence about the speaking skill that includes clear scaffolding strategies, including modeling, guided practice, and gradual release.
- Analyze the students' progress as scaffolding is reduced by suggesting an innovative assessment framework with examples and evaluation criteria.

UNIT SEVEN: Classroom Management

Classroom management is a key component in effective instruction. It refers to the strategies, techniques, and practices by which teachers create and maintain an organized, productive, and supportive learning environment. This unit aims at identifying the principles, characteristics, and key-components of classroom management. Finally, the unit ends up with the characteristics of well-managed classes.

Learning outcomes

After the completion of this unit, students will be able to:

- Define Classroom management as a concept.
- Become acquainted with the main classroom management skills.
- Identify the characteristics of well-managed classrooms.

Unit 7:	**Constructivism**
Week	Topic
23	• Classroom Management Defined • Classroom Management Skills
24	• Characteristics of Well-managed Classes
25	Project Presentations

1) Classroom Management Defined

Generally, most educational researchers consider classroom management an essential component of effective instruction. It denotes the strategies teachers use to construct a supportive learning environment, control students' behaviors, movement, and collaboration, and organize classroom activities.

Everston and Weinstein define it as "the actions teachers take to create an environment that supports and facilitates both academic and social-emotional student learning" (qtd. in Babad, 2009, p. 121). Accordingly, effective classroom management ensures that education occurs without disruptive behavior and that students feel safe, engaged, and motivated, leading to high expectations for achievement. Hence, effective education is reliant on the teacher's managerial skills.

As an area of scientific inquiry, classroom management is closely allied with the field of teacher education, which aims to equip teachers with strategies and techniques to create and maintain a planned, creative, and respectful learning environment (Babad, 2009). Classroom management, in this sense, comprises a range of organizational features, including:

- The physical setting, which signifies the entirety of the surroundings and circumstances where learning takes place, the teachers' roles and personality styles, and the classroom climate.
- The physical setting, for instance, involves a range of conditions that influence learning, such as lighting, seating arrangement, chalkboard use, tools, the number of students in a class, and students' varying levels of proficiency.

According to Brown (2007), the way a learning setting is organized emphasizes the task of teaching vigorously.

2) Classroom Management Skills

There is a considerable body of research on effective teaching and learning strategies and on the role of teachers' skills in establishing well-managed classrooms. Marzano and Pickering (2003) stated that if students are disorganized and disrespectful and there are no clear instructions or techniques to monitor their behavior, this results in their failure. In this sense, teachers fight to teach, and students learn less than they should. On the contrary, well-managed classrooms foster an environment where teaching and learning can take place effectively. Nonetheless, a well-managed classroom does not happen in a vacuum. It requires a good deal of skills that the teacher should have to create.

1. Organizing the Physical Setting:

   Effective teachers design classroom layouts that support learning activities (e.g., seating arrangements, group work organization, and assignment of individual tasks). The physical setting should be organized to minimize distractions and ensure accessibility.

2. Establishing Rules, Procedures, and Academic Expectations:

   The teacher should explain the idea that the classroom is a place for structured learning through

   a. Listing defined learning goals on the board.
   b. Post a course syllabus that lists the main deadline dates.
   c. Scheduling class meeting times to offer feedback on how students are respecting the designed class rules and procedures.
   d. Explaining that what students are learning will result in expected outcomes.

3. Planning and Instruction:

   Good teachers plan attractive and well-organized lessons that keep students engaged and focused. They also adjust instruction to meet diverse student needs, goals, and expectations. Well-structured lessons

balance between teacher talk, whole-group activities, small-group work, and independent work.

4. Behavioral Management:

   Behavior management is a key concern for the teacher in every lesson; the teacher should have a very clear structure to attract students and keep them on task. In this situation, teachers should develop a behavior management system by setting clear rules and procedures. Moreover, teachers have to adjust their approaches to address classroom behavior problems effectively.

5. Establishing Teacher-Student Relationships:

   Teachers with good managerial skills would establish relationships with students based on respect. To build good relationships with students, it is important to communicate students' perspectives and challenges, and to express that you are concerned with their goals as individuals and with the class as a whole.

6. Reflecting Critically and Seeking Self-Improvement:

   Teachers' critical reflection on their teaching reveals a commitment to developing their professional careers and helps them understand the outcomes of their classroom actions (Yaiche, 2019). According to Jay (2003), teachers' reflection on their practice is a key element of quality teaching. Thus, effective teachers frequently assess what works well and pinpoint areas for development.

Figure 18. Classroom Management Tips and Tricks

To sum up, classroom management is an ongoing process that entails flexibility, reflection, and a responsibility to promote an effective learning setting.

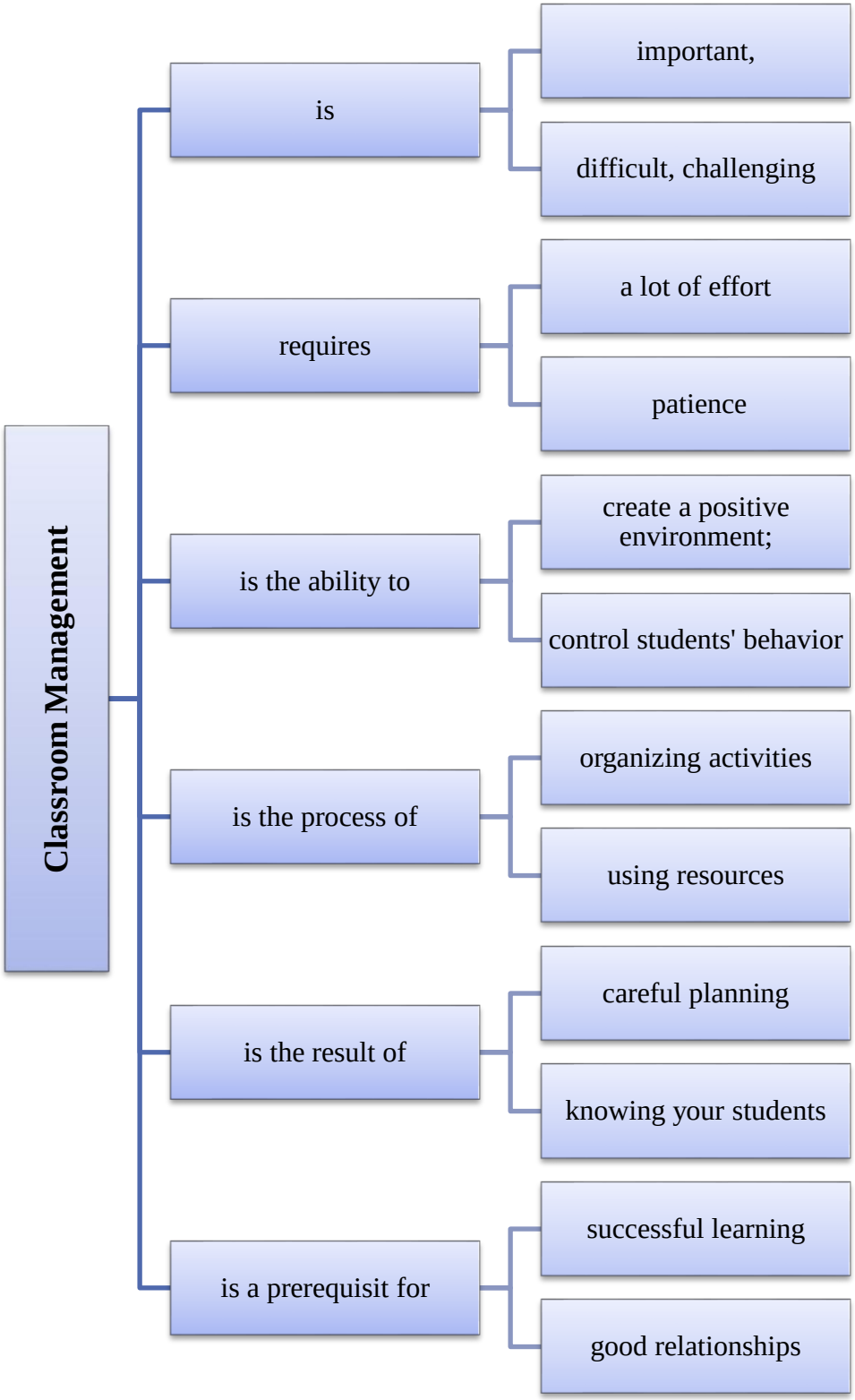
3) Characteristics of Well-managed Classes

A well-managed classroom fosters a positive, productive environment where students can flourish academically and socially. In this sense, skilled teachers create a balance between course structure and flexibility, and their classrooms appear to have certain characteristics, including

- Motivated students: well-managed classrooms positively affect students' desire to learn, attract their attention, and activate their willingness to learn.
- Low level of anxiety: the classroom atmosphere is an important factor emphasized in many psychological theories. Well-managed classes foster a comfortable, mutually respectful atmosphere that reduces anxiety, supports learning, and promotes academic achievement.

- Autonomous students: learner autonomy is an observable skill in well-managed classes. Effective teachers develop, promote, and support autonomous learning using various resources and innovative pedagogies.
- High student engagement: well-designed instruction engages students in problem-solving and constructivist activities. This goal cannot be achieved unless the teacher organizes the learning environment, defines learning goals, and provides immediate feedback.
- Respectful environment: teachers with managerial skills treat students fairly and give equal opportunities, acknowledge good behavior, and address misbehavior with appropriate, related consequences. A well-managed classroom affords an environment where students feel safe, valued, and motivated to achieve their goals.

Figure 19. Classroom Management



In short, it is widely accepted across most fields of learning that classroom management is a fundamental element of the success of teaching and learning.

Without classroom management skills, teachers will certainly fail to make the necessary effort to teach. These skills may relate to the teacher's personality or be acquired through experience and training. In the classroom, the teacher may face a range of circumstances that either facilitate or hinder classroom management. Creating and maintaining a well-managed classroom is one of the major challenges educators and researchers seek to address through research and continuous critical reflection on practice.

4) Practical Exercises

Exercise 1:

1. Read the following scenario paragraphs (each describing a different classroom).

Scenario 1:

"Ms. Zahra enters 5 minutes late, carrying a pile of photocopies. She says quickly, 'Open page 47, do exercise 2,' but half the class doesn't know which book to use. Three students in the back start chatting in Arabic about football. Ms. Zahra shouts, 'Be quiet!' from the front, but continues writing on the board. After 10 minutes, only 8 students are working; others look confused or talk among themselves. The lesson ends abruptly with 'OK, finished!'"

Scenario 2:

"Ms. Nadia starts promptly with a clear opening routine: date on board, objective written, materials check. She explains the grammar point in English only, using complex sentences. Students copy silently but look confused. During pair practice, she stays at the front, monitoring from afar. Several groups work well, but four students in the corner play with phones while she writes examples. At the end, she collects books without checking if students understood the exercises."

Scenario 3:

"Mr. Karim waits at the door, greeting each student by name as they enter with prepared materials. He signals attention with a raised hand and countdown (5-4-3-2-

1); students immediately quiet. He models the pair activity twice using simple English and gestures, then checks: 'So, you work with your partner? Books open? Clear?' Students pair up within 30 seconds. Mr. Karim circulates, leaning in to listen and offering specific praise: 'Good job using "delayed" correctly, Amina.' When two students speak L1, he calmly moves nearby and asks a content question in English."

2. For each scenario, answer:
    - Is this class well-managed or not?
    - Identify three clues (about routines, teacher behavior, student behavior, environment).
    - Rewrite one action the teacher should change to improve management.
3. Share answers in pairs, then in plenary.

Exercise 2: Design a “Well-Managed EFL Class” Poster

1. In groups of 3–4, draw a poster with the title: “A Well-Managed EFL Classroom”.
2. Divide it into 4 zones, for example:
    - Physical environment
    - Routines and procedures
    - Teacher behaviors
    - Student behaviors
3. Under each zone, list 3–5 specific, observable indicators (not vague adjectives).

Exercise 3: Reflection task

1. Write two short paragraphs:
    - “My picture of classroom management before this course.”
    - “My picture of a well-managed EFL classroom now.”

2. Mention at least: one teacher skill, one student behavior, one environmental factor, one routine.
3. Add: “One concrete strategy you will apply in your future EFL classroom.”

Exercise 4: QUIZ

1) What is the primary purpose of classroom management??

A	To establish teacher authority
B	To maximize student interaction
C	To impose strict discipline
D	To create a productive learning environment

2) Which of the following is an example of positive reinforcement?

A	Giving extra homework as a reinforcement
B	Ignoring disruptive behavior
C	Praising a student for completing their task
D	Blaming a student for forgetting the homework

3) Which seating arrangement is best for encouraging group collaboration?

A	Traditional rows
B	Group clusters
C	A horseshoe or U-shape

D	Individual desks are spread apart

4) What should a teacher do if a student repeatedly disrupts the class?

A	Punish the student in front of peers
B	Ignore the behavior.
C	Address the behavior privately and create a plan.
D	Remove the student from the classroom immediately.

5) Which of the following is NOT a characteristic of a well-managed classroom?

A	Clear rules and procedures
B	Frequent unplanned disruptions
C	Positive teacher-student relationships
D	High levels of engagement

6) How can a teacher create a welcoming and inclusive classroom environment?

A	Using negative reinforcement
B	Building positive relationships with students.
C	Imposing memorization and class revision.
D	Enforcing strict rules and regulations.

7) Which of the following is the best example of a classroom rule?

A	Don’t annoy others.

B	Raise your hand before speaking.
C	Be respectful to everyone all the time.
D	Do what the teacher says.

8) How can a teacher build positive relationships with students?

A	Discussing personal matters.
B	Show genuine interest in students' goals and achievements.
C	addressing their needs during class time only
D	Sharing their personal problems with their colleagues.

PROJECT 1: Behavior Management Plan

Working in pairs, prepare a document or a presentation in which you create a personalized behavior management plan for a hypothetical or real classroom.

Tasks

- Define class rules, procedures, and expectations.
- Plan consequences for positive and negative behavior.
- Include strategies for specific circumstances (e.g., managing disruptions and reinforcing students' performance).

PROJECT 2: Case Study Analysis

In a written report or a PowerPoint presentation, analyze real-life classroom management challenges that EFL teachers face in middle schools.

Tasks

- Interview a teacher or observe a classroom.

- Identify the specific classroom management issues (e.g., low engagement, frequent disruptions).
- Suggest strategies grounded in classroom management, available research, and best practices.

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