

ALGIERS 2 UNIVERSITY – ABOU ELKACEM SAADALLAH
FACULTY OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH



EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY
FOR MASTER 1 DIDACTICS OF FOREIGN
LANGUAGES STUDENTS



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INTRODUCTION

The course in 'Educational Psychology' aims at enhancing Master 1 students' critical thinking and problem-solving skills in what concerns issues related to the interplay between psychology and EFL teaching/learning. This course strives particularly to enrich Master students' background knowledge about EFL learners as individuals and as language learners. The students will explore the psychology of teaching/learning through a critical description of cognitive, affective, and social learner variables interfering in the language learning process. There is also a consideration of ways of identifying and catering for these learners' different needs. Eventually, pedagogical implications are to be drawn for the teacher in order to inspire learners to become competent, self-regulated and hopefully autonomous.

This course strives principally to prepare Master students for the teaching career since they will be guided to understand learner differences and consider their impact on the learning process, learn how to identify and meet learner different needs, discuss appropriate teaching strategies required for different types of learners, and be trained to approach classroom problems using critical thinking and problem-solving skills. To this end, Semester 1 lessons will enable learners to come across the theoretical background of the discussed educational psychology issues, Semester 2 lessons will provide a practical consideration of these issues in the EFL classroom. The lessons are enriched with reflection questions, tasks, and extra reading suggestions. At the end of the course, a sample of questions frequently asked by students is offered, followed by corresponding answers.

Ultimately, this course is hoped to contribute in the development of Master students' learning and thinking strategies and in the pre-service training of the would-be EFL teachers.

CONTENTS

Introduction.....p.1
Contents.....p.2
Course Outline and Objectives.....p.3
Semester 1 Lessons.....p.5

Lesson 01	An Introduction to Educational Psychology.....	p.6
Lesson 02	Learner Variation (1) Part 1: Age.....	p.11
Lesson 03	Learner Variation (1) Part 2: Gender and Aptitude.....	p.18
Lesson 04	Learner Variation (2): Motivation, Attitudes, Beliefs, and Emotions.....	p.25
Lesson 05	Personality Factors (1): self-esteem, inhibition, risk-taking, introversion vs. extroversion.....	p.32
Lesson 06	Foreign Language Anxiety.....	p.40
Lesson 07	Multiple Intelligences; Emotional Intelligence.....	p.45
	Suggested Answers to Reflection Questions and Tasks	p.52

Semester 2 Lessons..... p.63

Lesson 01	Principles of Effective Teaching and Learning.....	p.64
Lesson 02	Strategies for Teaching Different Types of Learners.....	p.70
Lesson 03	Managing Classroom Interaction.....	p.73
Lesson 04	Teaching Critical Thinking and Problem-Solving Skills (1)....	p.81
Lesson 05	Teaching Critical Thinking and Problem-Solving Skills (2)....	p.85
Lesson 06	Promoting Metacognition.....	p.91
Lesson 07	Fostering Learner Autonomy.....	p.94
Lesson 08	Special Needs Education.....	p.97
	Suggested Extra Tasks with Answers	p.102
	Frequently Asked Questions and Suggested Answers	p.105

**University of Algiers 2 « AboukacemSaadallah »
Faculty of Foreign Languages
Department of English**



**Level: Master 1
Option: Didactics of Foreign Languages**

**Course: EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY
Teacher in charge: Dr. Samira ARAR**

Course objectives:

By the end of the course, students should be able to

- distinguish between the cognitive and affective domains of learning and assess their influence on effective teaching and learning.
- understand the ways learning environments affect learning and classroom practices
- understand the role of the teacher in motivating students and catering for their different needs
- reflect on ways of promoting self-regulated learning, metacognition, and autonomy
- reflect on special needs education in an EFL context

Teaching method:

- Online material posted on the Moodle platform in the form of lessons in pdf mode
- Analysis of selected reading excerpts and answering reflection questions
- Face-to-face sessions to discuss the lessons as well as the given assignments
- Provision of web-links for extra reading

Course Outline: Semester 1

Week 1	An Introduction to Educational Psychology
Week 2	Learner Variation (1): age, gender, aptitude
Week 3	Learner Variation (1): age, gender, aptitude
Week 4	Learner Variation (2): Motivation, Attitudes, Beliefs
Week 5	Learner Variation (2): Motivation, Attitudes, Beliefs
Week 6	Personality Factors (1): self-esteem, inhibition, risk-taking,

	introversion vs. extroversion
Week 7	Personality Factors (2): self-esteem, inhibition, risk-taking, introversion vs. extroversion
Week 8	Foreign language anxiety
Week 9	Multiple Intelligences; Emotional Intelligence (1)
Week 10	Multiple Intelligences; Emotional Intelligence (2)

Course Outline: Semester 2

Week1	Principles of Effective Teaching and Learning
Week2	Strategies for Teaching different Types of Learners
Week3	Managing Classroom Interaction (1)
Week4	Managing Classroom Interaction (2)
Week5	Teaching Critical Thinking and Problem-Solving Skills (1)
Week6	Teaching Critical Thinking and Problem-Solving Skills (2)
Week7	Promoting Metacognition
Week8	Fostering learner autonomy
Week9	Special Needs Education (1)
Week10	Special Needs Education (2)

Basic readings:

- 1- Harmer, J (2001). The Practice of English Language Teaching. England. Pearson Education Limited. (chapters 3, 9, 10, 20 & 24)
- 2- Skehan, P (1998). A Cognitive approach to language Learning. Oxford. OUP. (chapter 11: Learner, learning and pedagogy)
- 3- Stern, H.H. (1983). Fundamental Concepts of language Teaching. Oxford. OUP. (chapter 5: concepts of language learning)
- 4- Wajnryb, R. (1992). Classroom Observation Tasks. UK. Cambridge University press

Books in pdf form

- 1- Borich G.D. & Tombari, M.L. 1997). Educational Psychology: A contemporary Approach. (<http://ows.edb.utexas.edu/sites/default/files/users/borichgd/book.pdf>)
- 2- Seifert, K & Sutton, R (2009). Educational Psychology. 2nd Ed. <http://home.cc.umanitoba.ca/~seifert/EdPsy2009.pdf>
- 3- Santrock, W. J (2007). Educational psychology: A Tool for Effective Teaching. [file:///C:/Users/dv6/Downloads/santrock_edpsych_ch01%20\(3\).pdf](file:///C:/Users/dv6/Downloads/santrock_edpsych_ch01%20(3).pdf)

SEMESTER 01
LESSONS

LESSON 01: AN INTRODUCTION TO EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

Introduction:

Throughout history, educators and philosophers have discussed different pedagogical approaches to education, and numerous theories and techniques have been proposed. Pedagogies vary greatly as they reflect the different social, political, cultural contexts from which they emerge. In addition, educators are often faced with the challenge of incorporating new technology into their teaching style because of the undeniable revolution that technology has brought to education, including distance learning, computer assisted instruction, and homeschooling. Pedagogy is also continuously changing and improving in an effort to provide the best education to all people. Therefore, modern theories of pedagogy increasingly identify the student as an agent, and the teacher as a facilitator. Among the often raised questions are: *“Why some learners are successful while others are not?”* *“What can be done to improve that learning?”* and *“what is the teacher’s role in either case?”*

In order to answer such questions, we are bound to use psychological concepts and use psychological knowledge that is part of the common understanding of human life and culture. **Psychology** is defined as the study of mind and behavior. Its goal is to understand the role of mental functions in individual and social behavior, while also exploring the physiological and neurological processes that underlie certain functions and behaviors. Chronologically speaking, (Parankimalil, 2012) explains that the word, ‘Psychology’ is derived from two Greek words, ‘Psyche’ and ‘Logos’. Psyche means ‘soul’ and ‘Logos’ means ‘science’. Thus psychology was first defined as the ‘science of soul’. In the 18th century, psychology was understood as the ‘Science of Mind’. Modern psychologists defined psychology as the “Science of Consciousness” and also the science of “internal experiences”. By the beginning of the 20th c, psychology is defined as the “Science of Behaviour”-overt activities

which can be observed and measured scientifically-. Later, psychology was defined as a “science of behaviour and experiences on human beings”.

Psychologists explore such concepts as perception, cognition, attention, emotion, motivation, brain functioning, personality, behavior, and interpersonal relationships. Language is one among the aspects of human behaviour studied by psychologists, and so one could not teach a language without a psychological theory of the language learner and of the language learning process. Therefore, language learning and teaching theories rely on psychological and psycholinguistic concepts/interpretations/conclusions. More recently, the need for direct psychological studies of second language learning has been organized. As a result, a more reciprocal relationship between psychology and language pedagogy has developed. It follows that we have to scan the field of psychology and psycholinguistics so as understand the premises of educational psychology and the arguments for its introduction in the field of language teaching and learning.

Reflection question

Considering the change in focus of psychology (Soul- Mind- Consciousness- Behaviour- Language production– Language Acquisition- Language Learning– Language classroom), what do you notice or conclude?

1/ Historical Background

The field of educational psychology traces its roots to **Plato and Aristotle** who discussed different topics related to the order of learning, the teacher role and the kinds of education appropriate to different kinds of learners; a topic also dealt with in Roman times by **Quintilian (35- 100 AD)** who maintained that an interesting curriculum takes care of most behavior problems. Throughout the centuries, and mainly starting from the 19th c, psychology came to be studied scientifically in Europe and in the United States. **From about 1900**, questions of learning, memory, thinking, and intelligence were the principal topics of

investigation. Later, the studies of emotions, personality growth of the child, and the measurement of individual differences became prominent. Psychological studies made use of verbal behavior as a window to human behavior. Intelligence was measured in light of language tests. Researchers' efforts in the field were influential in creating teaching methods and educational practices, while considering learner needs in the learning process, and emphasized the role of the teacher and the importance of teaching learners how to become reflective problem solvers. **By the mid- 20th C**, the role of language was viewed as a central factor in determining the cognitive and affective states of the individual. With the development of psychology and with the growth of educational psychology, several studies attempted to apply the new psychology to second language teaching. **In the 1970s**, much effort was directed to discussing or resolving second language learning related issues. Later, attention was directed to the learner by the late 1970s, and the interest in the psychology of second language learning has continued through the 80s. Much of the research in educational psychology has been conducted in classroom settings, encompassing a broad range of related topics.

2/ Definition, Scope, and Importance of Educational Psychology

Educational psychology is the scientific study of how students learn and develop in educational settings, the effectiveness of educational interventions, and the psychology of teaching. Educational psychology involves elements of **both art and science**. It is an applied, social, specific and practical science. While general science deals with behaviour of the individuals in various spheres, educational psychology studies the behaviour of the individual in educational sphere only. Thus, educational psychology is a behavioural science with two main references– human behaviour and education. It both draws from and contributes to cognitive sciences and the learning sciences.

The need for educational psychology has been prompted by (1) increased diversity of students, (2) the spread of instructional technology in schools and classrooms, (3) increased expectations for accountability in education, and (4) the development of increased professionalism among teachers. The knowledge base of

educational psychology is developed through the research process, which begins with asking questions, defining variables, and formulating hypotheses. It is necessary to keep in mind that what is learnt is expressed in three major psychological categories: cognition, skill and affect; and these are used to define educational objectives. Educational psychologists may test hypotheses by using qualitative research or quantitative methods, which include correlational methods and experimental studies.

Educational psychology is a discipline that focuses on theoretical and empirical knowledge about instruction, and so it helps overcome the gap between learning theory and educational practice. It is a vital discipline that is contributing to the education of teachers and learners. It offers information, advice, and useful perspectives specifically in three areas of teaching: (1) students as learners, (2) instruction and assessment, and (3) the psychological and social awareness of teachers. It supplies the teachers with all the information, principles and techniques essential for understanding the behaviour of the learners in response to educational environment, understanding their development, their strengths and weaknesses in their learning process, and their social relationships and adaptation. It is concerned primarily with developing ways of improving teaching and learning processes. It deals with different themes, including instructional design, educational technology, curriculum development, special education and classroom management, learning theories, teaching methods, motivation; cognitive, emotional, and moral development, and parent-child relationships. It then involves an understanding of the **Meaning of Teaching** and the qualities required for teachers to be effective; **Knowledge of Students** (their needs, characteristics, and differences); **Understanding the Learning Process** (the procedures and strategies that students use to acquire new information); **Understanding Instructional Strategies** (effective ones and the best circumstances in which learning can occur); **Learning Situation or classroom management** (classroom climate and group dynamics, techniques and aids that facilitate learning and evaluation). **Intelligence and its Measurement; Understanding Assessment Strategies; Guidance and**

Counseling: (Education is nothing but providing guidance to the growing child.). Educational psychologists can train teachers approach classroom problems by means of a problem-solving process that includes the following steps: (1) observing learner behavior, (2) understanding learner characteristics, (3) reflecting on theoretical knowledge, (4) choosing and implementing a classroom strategy, and (5) evaluating the results of the chosen strategy.

Conclusion

Task

In light of the above definitions and accounts, provide a one-paragraph summary of this introduction, clarifying the definition, scope, importance and overall mission of educational psychology.

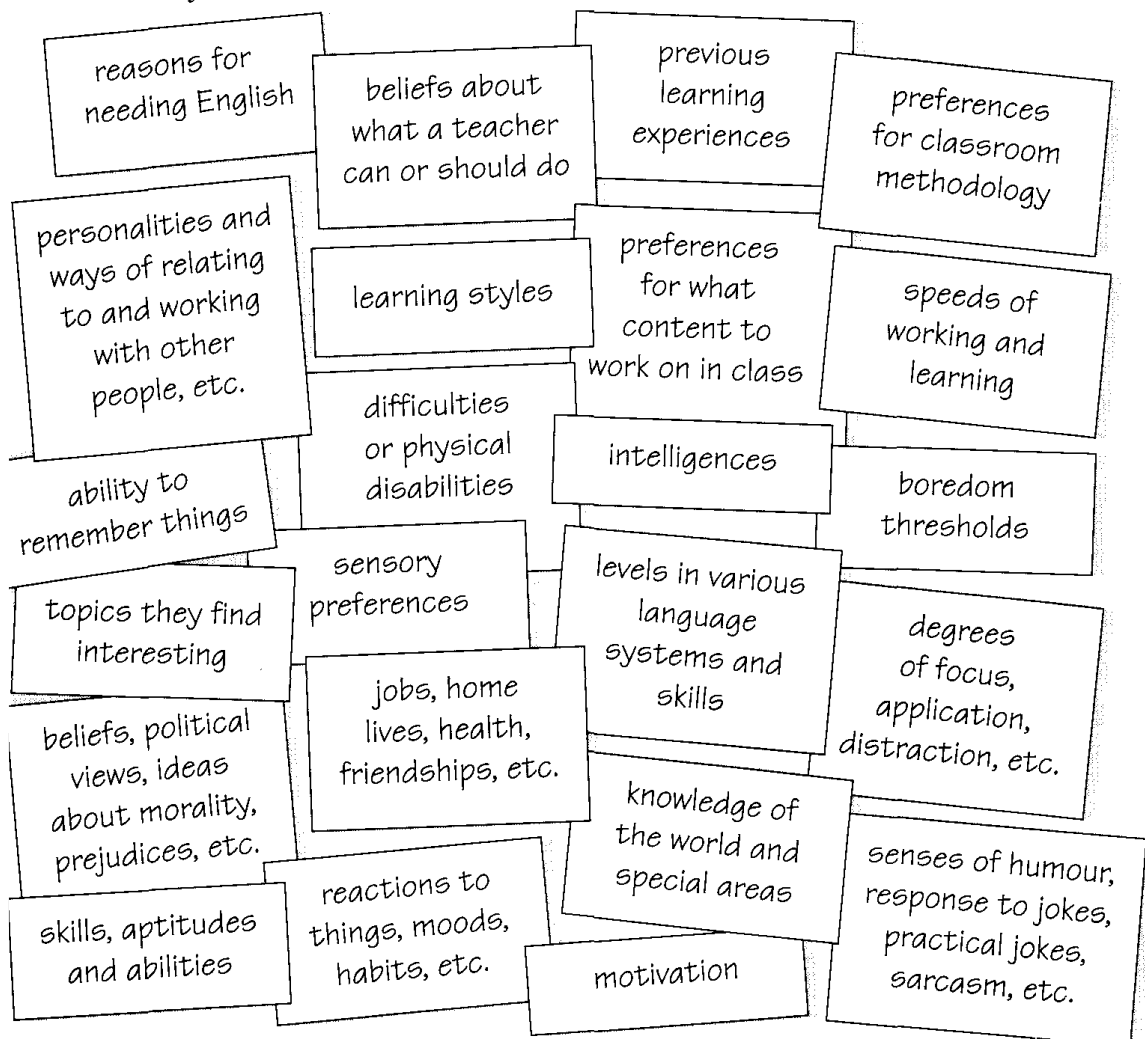
LESSON 02 LEARNER VARIATION (1) PART 1 : AGE

Introduction

Reflection question 1: Consider the following figure (source: <https://slideplayer.com/slide/13027002/>) and reflect on the various reasons for learner differences, and then classify them into categories.

Individual differences

Learners may have different ...



a) Generalities:

There is an agreement that learners differ in many respects, for different reasons, and with different impact. Individual differences are characteristics or traits which distinguish individuals from each other. We distinguish individual differences (which are unique) from group differences (showed by members of a group). There

are also numerous differences within groups. Learner differences cause learners to learn differently and progress differently while acquiring/ learning a language.

b) Historical background

Knowledge about learners' differences and their impact is derived from researchers' and educationalists' observations. The scientific study of individual differences began in the 19th C and developed through the 20thC. Several empirical studies were conducted on cognitive, affective, and psychomotor characteristics of learners. The first tests aimed at measuring intelligence; later, individual differences were an importantly studied aspect of second language acquisition (SLA) since 1960s (Dornyei, 2005). After many different investigations, researchers found that there are a veritable plethora of individual learner variables influencing learning outcomes (Ellis, 1999). Thus, researchers dealt with learner variation concerning the mastery of L2, language aptitude, motivation, good learner characteristics, language learner strategies, styles, and so on.

c) Remarks

There is no agreement over the sources of learner differences. Learner differences may be individual (personality, styles, strategies), family-related (genetics), or related to environment, culture and the wider community. Integrating educational psychology findings into pedagogy is a hard task and is still in the process. This is due to the difficulties in investigating psychological aspects, or even language-related aspects, for many reasons: many variables enter into play simultaneously, learners (mainly young ones) may not be able to give accurate/honest accounts, and there are no convincing methods for measuring non-linguistic factors that affect language learning (such as personality factors). It follows that the results of research on learner differences are still inconclusive (Littlewood, 1998; Dornyei, 2005). Nevertheless, the study of individual differences has attracted much attention and made great progress in second language acquisition.

Task 1: Write a short paragraph (5 to 6 lines), summarizing the above notes on learner differences and clarifying the importance of studying them.

Age, gender, and aptitude are among the factors that distinguish learners and shape teaching practices. In what follows these factors are considered.

1/ AGE

1.1. Introduction

Age is a determining factor in deciding what to teach and how to teach. Different ages have different needs and different learning skills (Ayars, 2015). Developmental psychology is defined as a subfield of psychology which focuses on the development of the human mind through the life span. It tries to understand how people come to perceive, understand, and act within the world, and how these processes change as they age. The focus of research may be on intellectual/cognitive, neural, social, or psychological development.

1.2. Examples of approaches in developmental psychology:

(i) Jean Piaget's Theory of Cognitive Development: Piaget posited that children learn through actively constructing knowledge through hands-on (practical) activities. The role of adults is to provide them with necessary materials to interact. He suggested 4 stages of cognitive development relating to a person's ability to understand and assimilate:

- a- ***Sensorimotor stage (birth- age 2):*** The child learns through senses and actions (looking, touching, objects manipulation...).
- b- ***Preoperational stage (2-7ys):*** The child uses language and begins to use words and symbols to represent objects; the child has difficulty to conceptualise time and lacks logical reasoning. At this stage, teachers should use neutral words, realia, body language, active role playing
- c- ***Concrete stage (7-11ys):*** The child develops ability to think logically and make rational judgments about concrete observable phenomena; abstract things are still difficult; reasoning is inductive (arriving to generalisations from a set of examples). At this stage, teachers should

give them the opportunity to ask questions, explain things, and manipulate information mentally.

- d- ***Operational stage (12 to adulthood) (or adolescence)***: It is characterized by the following aspects: abstract thinking, deductive reasoning; cognition arrives to its final form; no need for concrete objects to make rational judgments; capacity of hypothetical and deductive reasoning. At this stage, teaching can be varied because adolescents can consider many possibilities from different perspectives.

Piaget's theory was criticized because not all children progress in the same way (due to environmental factors), and because of the under-evaluation of the influence of culture and underestimation of children's abilities. However, many educational programmes are built upon the belief that children should be taught at the level for which they are developmentally prepared and in a supportive learning environment.

(ii) Vygotsky's Social Cultural theory / Cultural Historical Theory

His psychology aimed to account for the inseparable unity of mind, brain, and culture. Vygotsky focused on the role of culture and the environment in determining the child's pattern of development. He focused on the role of dialogue and interaction within the environment, and he believed higher mental functions develop through social interaction. Thus, development moves from the social level to the individual level. He advocated the theory of zone of proximal development (ZPD) which refers to the range of tasks a child performs independently and those completed with the guidance of a skilled person/adult, through 'scaffolding'. Scaffolding means that the teacher changes and adjusts the level of support according to the needs of learners. This theory is related to socio-constructivism where teaching is built on learners' knowledge and on helping learners build new knowledge accordingly. This theory is criticized as children may become lazy as they expect help.

Theories in developmental psychology inform about human cognitive development at specific phases of development, acknowledging learner differences in processing information and in self-regulation. Therefore these theories (such as the ones illustrated above) serve education to help learners develop skills and acquire knowledge according to their understanding and problem-solving skills, and help teachers take appropriate teaching decisions in a way to cater for learners' different needs.

1.3. Age Characteristics

The following characteristics are acknowledged by a number of authors and researchers including (Brown, 2000; Harmer, 2001; Littlewood, 1998; Skehan, 1998; Ur, 1996).

1.3.1. Young Learners

Young learners learn directly rather than indirectly; they learn from everything around them rather than focusing on the topic they are taught; they learn through explanation and through interaction, using the five senses; and they find abstract things and grammar rules difficult. What is also important to note is that they have a limited attention span: they easily get distracted (they can lose interest after 10 mins) They also have a rich imagination and love stories, enjoy creative activities, are good observers, and are good at memorizing. They particularly need individual attention and approval from the teacher; they like to talk about themselves/ lessons that involve that personal life. However, they are easily discouraged, they are emotionally sensitive, and they trust and believe all what adults tell them.

1.3.2. Adolescent Learners

Adolescence is a period of growth between childhood and adulthood. It is characterized by changes that occur at biological/physical, social, behavioural/psychological, and cognitive levels:

The **Biological/physical** aspect refers to puberty, the role of hormones, and brain architecture.

In terms of **Behaviour**, this period is known for the importance of self-image and self-esteem, prevalence of self-centredness and self-consciousness (acute sense of self-awareness), feeling 'on the stage', sensitivity and anxiety (because the emotional part of the brain develops faster than the cognitive one), concern over one's body changes, search for individual identity (often formed among friends and classmates), indestructible self (risk taking), and rebellion over parents/adults/authority. It is noteworthy that there may be differences due to cultural norms.

The **Social** aspect is characterized by the importance of personal relationships mainly that the peer group becomes highly significant, and even their identity is formed peer groups. In addition, adolescents have more roles to play in their surrounding (depending on given cultures too). They are noticed to crave for independence and autonomy, and for rebellion and risk-taking which may lead to violence. Also, peer pressure may lead to cheating/crime, mainly that peer approval becomes more important than parent/teacher approval or attention. In fact, it is often understood that belonging to a group is a way to solve the problem 'who I am'

In what concerns **Cognitive development**, adolescents are known for abstract thinking, higher mathematical concepts, ability to apply knowledge in new situations, and the birth of learning strategies. They are aware of their strengths and weaknesses as learners and seem to manifest deeper self-understanding,

At **School** level, Ur (1996) maintains that adolescents are the best language learners because they are motivated, creative and passionate; when engaged they have the ability to learn. However, they may show negative motivation and their behavioural change associated with school transitions stems from schools not providing appropriate educational environments for youths.

Reflection Question 2: *In Algeria for example, when learners shift from primary school to middle school, they face many changes. Mention them.*

Adolescence is often considered as a period of contradictions. Adolescents are usually seen as problematic learners. They can cause problems of discipline and are constantly challenging authority (Puchta and Schratz 1993). They seek independence, but they prefer to be controlled in a supportive and constructive way. In other words, they prefer 'limit-setting'; this refers to pre-determined and negotiated rules and regulations regarding behaviour (in other words, they need a safe boundary for growth).

1.3.3. Adult Learners

Adult learners are often known for their ability to engage in abstract thought. They draw on their life experiences and can sustain high levels of motivation. They have their own patterns of learning, are more disciplined than adolescents, and can resist boredom. They have a clear understanding of who they are and what they want to get out of their learning; have expectations of the learning process. However, they can be critical of the teaching methods and even be hostile to some activities, they may be anxious or under-confident because of previous (negative) experiences.

Task 2: Provide a summary, in paragraph form, for age as a determining factor in learner differences. Sum up ways in which learners may differ and how teachers can consider their differences in the language classroom (suggest two or three ideas for each age category)

LESSON 03: LEARNER VARIATION (1)

PART 2: GENDER and APTITUDE

2/ GENDER

2.1.Generalities

Gender is an aspect of learner variation that is often neglected (Nyikos, 2008). It is often perceived in an oversimplified way in second language studies. Gender “refers to the socially-shaped (as opposed to the biologically determined) characteristics of women and men, girls, and boys” (Sunderland, 2004, p.220). Gender differences are related to social roles and expectations associated with males and females. The differences have to do with physical behavior, styles of interaction, and academic motivation. Gender differences have a variety of sources: neurological (brain structure), hormones, parents, peers, media, and culture. Stereotypes and bias influence children’s self-concept and attitude towards others: gender is socially and culturally constructed. Oxford (1996) believes that gender influences strategy use, with females reporting more strategy use than males in many different cultures. Oxford and other researchers referred to the following: women’ greater social orientation, women’s greater desire for social approval, women’s greater willingness to accept existing norms, differences between men’s and women’s speech, and women’s greater verbal ability.

2.2. Neurological differences

Differences in brain structure and development cause girls and boys to learn differently; the following are some illustrations (according to Nasser, 2016). Neurologically, the corpus callosum (the neural cable connecting the two hemispheres of the brain) is thicker in girls; girls are better at connecting both hemispheres and using them together in cognitive processes. Language areas in girls’ brains are denser than those boys. The Amygdala (a part of the brain that responds to emotional stimulation) is larger in boys, explaining their aggressive behavior, and their need to move around while learning, as opposed to girls who

tend to have a longer attention span which allows them to sit still and focus on one subject for a long time. The Hippocampus (responsible for memory formation and consolidation) grows more in girls during adolescence, explaining girls' better language, arithmetic, and sequencing skills.

2.3. At school

Teachers are not the primary source of gender differences, but they sometimes influence them by the way they treat male and female learners in class. Teachers respond differently to boys and girls in class: they ask boys more to control their behavior (Erden & Wolfgang, 2004), praise boys more for good answers, and punish them more (criticize their bad behaviour).

In the language classroom, boys and girls may experience different forms of motivation and may use different learning strategies. This may be due to expectations and support from parents, peers, or teachers. In class, boys are observed to be more active, more aggressive, are restless if they have to sit for long periods, they speak up, interact in groups, and are more engaged in formal sports. They also drop out of school more, and they are more in special education. They perform well on sciences, mathematics and physics. Girls are more motivated and perform well at school. They perform well or prefer foreign languages, social sciences, psychology, and fine arts. They are reported to be better language acquirers in L1 and L2 than boys, and achieve higher in language-related exams (Nasser, 2016). However, this is often a consequence of social and cultural influences: girls are engaged in social interaction more than boys, which is helpful in language learning.

Dr. Leonard Sax advocates the idea of dramatic differences between boys and girls, which cause them to react differently to instruction in the classroom. He believes grouping boys and girls by age rather than by gender does not work because boys' brains are less mature than those of girls of the same age.

-Disadvantages of the school to girls: girls need encouragement in education and need to feel accepted; girls are influenced by expectations placed on them on what they can learn and in which subjects they will excel (eg. Girls achieve less in

mathematics because teachers do not expect them to do better and do not give them needed encouragement- Note that this is not a generalisation)

-Disadvantages of the school to boys: some researchers in the field (such as Michael Thomson) believe that for the average boy, the school is not as good and fit as for the average girl. Thomson explains that because of their need to be physically active, boys get in more trouble than girls. Besides, boys' learning styles need to be more physical, which is not the case in the average classroom; all this leads to high dropouts and more a tendency to be labeled as having ADHD (Attention Deficit/Hyperactivity Disorder)

In fact, many argue that classrooms are more fit to the learning preferences of girls where long periods of sitting and verbal-emotional activities are prominent. These classrooms are not/are less accommodating to the more impulsive, kinesthetic, spatially-oriented learning preferences of boys. However, some researchers, such as Nyikos (2008), do not find strong evidence that females are better language learners than males. He explains that gender interacts with many aspects of social identity such as race, social class, ethnicity, and age.

Reflection Question1: Many schools in the worlds opt for gender separate education (also known as single sex education). Do you think it is a good solution? Discuss.

Task 1: Teacher intervention: What should teachers do to ensure gender equity (providing fair learning experience for both boys and girls) in the language classroom?

3/ APTITUDE

3.1. Definition

Language aptitude is defined in terms of “speed in language learning” (Ranta, 2008, p.14). Everyone can acquire a language, but some people do it faster than others (Johnson, 2008). The concept of aptitude for language learning is actually complex.

It derives from the observation that some language learners are seen to have a ‘gift’ or a natural ability for language which others do not have (Hall, 2011). The concept of second or foreign language aptitude is important because it can be used to focus on specific cognitive learner qualities needed for language learning. Nevertheless, there is no agreement on what constitutes aptitude or how these relate to intelligence (Hedge, 2000).

3.2. Relationship with Intelligence

Many psychologists advocate the idea that there is a link between intelligence (or IQ –Intelligence Quotient) and second language learning ability. Intelligence is the ability to acquire and apply knowledge and skills (Davis, 2020). Many researchers believe that success in second language learning is related to general cognitive abilities and that language aptitude is a predictor of success in language learning (Skehan, 1989). Heredity, on the other hands, does not dictate that a child will have a particular IQ score; it establishes a range of abilities within which children will eventually fall, with the actual ability level each one achieves depending on his specific environmental experiences. In this context, Anastasi (1994) points that *our inherited information sets broad limits to one’s development. Within these limits, what individuals actually become depends on their environment.*

Reflection Question 2: Comment on Anastasi’s idea.

3.3. Aptitude and Critical Period Hypothesis (CPH)

Children are often observed to be better language learners than adults. They gain proficiency more quickly and more easily. The most common explanation is the ‘critical period’ during which the brain is flexible and language learning occurs easily (Stern, 1983). This period is around puberty, after which they cannot call on those natural learning capacities, and language learning becomes an artificial process. But there is no conclusive evidence on the impact of age on language learning aptitude. In fact CPH is criticized for a number of reasons:

- Biological evidence: puberty is accompanied by changes in brain crucially for language learning;

- Many adolescents and adults achieve a successful acquisition of language,;
- The comparison between children and adults is not possible (or rather not fair) because kids have better learning conditions than older learners: more time to learn, different communicative needs, and more opportunities for practice.

Stern (1983) also asserts the following:

- Children were found superior to adults in acquiring phonological aspects (such as accent) but made less rapid progress in other aspects of foreign language.
- There is no proof for superiority of early start or late start of language learning. Early start only gives more time for language learning.
- Older learners are more proficient because of life experience and cognitive maturity.
- Attainment in a foreign language depends on the amount of instructional time provided and does not relate necessarily to the age of starting language instruction.

3.4. Aptitude Tests

Interest in language aptitude started in 1950s and language aptitude tests appeared in 1950s and 1960s, to predict a student's future progress. These tests were meant to sort out individuals undergoing language training in order to place them in homogeneous groups and to identify learners having potential difficulties. The most widely referenced aptitude tests were MLAT (Modern Language Aptitude Tests) (Carroll and Sapon, 1959), and PLABTs (Pimsleur language Aptitude Battery Tests). These tests attempted to identify features of language aptitude (that is particular language abilities). These tests included the following rubrics (Stern, 1983):

a-Auditory capacity

b-The sound-symbol relations

c- The grammatical abilities

d-Verbal memory

In other words, they investigated the ability to identify sounds and remember and link them to phonetic symbols or spelling, in addition to the sensitivity to grammatical structures in a sentence, the ability to learn inductively (infer rules about a language), and the ability to rote learn vocabulary.

Note that Memory is the process by which we encode, store, and retrieve information. Littlewood (1998) and Skehan (1998) maintain that memory is crucial for language learning and that what distinguishes good learners is their exceptional memory.

Criticism of aptitude tests

Though these tests contributed to better understand the nature of language aptitude as a learner variable, they had many flaws: they favoured Audiolingual teaching (focus on structure and rote learning); they especially suited people who were analytic learners and grammar-focused; and they neglected the communicative features of language learning (focus on form rather than on communication does not suit all styles of learners). Also, they neglected other factors such as motivation.

3.5. Impact on Teaching/ Teacher Development

Aptitude is not of fixed nature and it is likely to change. Assuming that aptitude is stable and not likely to improve may discourage teachers from devoting efforts to help all types of learners, and may discourage learners themselves. Therefore, teachers should not take for granted aptitude tests. The concept of ‘aptitude’ should be taken with caution while taking decisions about *who*, *what*, and *how* to teach.

Educational practices should be fair with all types of learners and should suit different levels of aptitude. Teachers have to design different types of activities to meet the needs of different types of learners; for example, Ranta (2008) proposes that teachers might help less analytical learners work out language rules and patterns or intensively focus upon phonological skills development.

3.6. Language Levels

Another way to perceive aptitude is to consider language levels. According to the Council of Europe and the Association of Language Teaching in Europe, learners are classified or described into 3 competency levels according to a number of language standards. These are Beginners, Intermediate and Advanced. Further classifications include: false beginners and real beginners, mid/upper/lower intermediate levels. Each level has its own characteristics in terms of proficiency in the form of skills. Now, learners' are evaluated according to the CEFR (Common European Framework of Reference). It is a common reference level for language proficiency, which describes the levels of performance required at each level as follows:

Proficient User	C2: Mastery C1: Effective operational proficiency
Independent User	B2: Vantage (better level) B1: Waystage (a low to middle level of ability beginning discovery)
Basic User	A2: Threshold A1: Break through

To conclude, the concept of aptitude is complex. It is often used to focus on specific learners' cognition qualities needed for learning, but it is interrelated with other learner attributes. It is recognized as a learner attribute that shapes how language courses and classes are designed and managed, but not as the only factor for learners' classification.

ConclusionTask2: Summarise 'lesson 3' into a paragraph, highlighting the role of the different factors in determining learner differences and in shaping teacher roles.

LESSON 04 LEARNER VARIATION 2

MOTIVATION, BELIEFS, ATTITUDES, AND EMOTIONS

Introduction:

Affective variables are those emotionally relevant characteristics of the individual that influence the way he/she responds to a situation. There is an agreement over the importance of these factors in understanding/explaining learner differences. Stern (1983), for example, notes that research on the affective aspect has been largely prompted by the conviction that cognitive factors are not the only ones that matter in second language learning. These affective factors and personality are needed to engage language aptitude and other cognitive skills that come into play. In fact, previous aptitude tests failed to account for reasons of learners' differences because of neglecting many factors among them motivation. In this context, Hall (2011) maintains that "it is difficult to imagine anyone learning a language without some degree of motivation" (p.134), and Dörnyei (2005) suggests that motivation ranks alongside language aptitude as one of the two key learner characteristics that determine success in L2 development. Overall, researchers believe that in the majority of cases, learners with sufficient motivation can achieve an acceptable competence of L2 regardless of their language aptitude or other cognitive characteristics, and that without motivation, even the brightest learners are unlikely to persist long enough to attain any really useful language. Research also reveals that attitudes toward learning and the perceptions and beliefs that determine them may have a profound influence on learning behavior and on learning outcomes.

1) Defining Motivation:

Motivation is a psychological aspect; it means eagerness or readiness (Harmer, 2001). In psychology, motivation deals with 'why people behave as they do' (Wlodkowski, 1986, cited in Dörnyei, 2001). Harmer (2001) defines it as a kind of internal drive which pushes someone to do things in order to achieve something.

William and Burden (1997) see motivation as “a state of cognitive and emotional arousal that leads to a conscious decision to act” (p.120); this results in intellectual and/or physical effort to attain previously set goals. Dornyei (2001) posits that motivation is responsible for the *choice* of a particular action (why people decide to do something), the *effort* expended on it (how hard they are going to pursue it), and the *persistence* with it (how long they are willing to sustain the activity). In the same vein, Littlewood (1988) sees motivation in 2nd language learning as the crucial *force* which determines whether a learner embarks on a task, *how much energy* he devotes to it, and *how long he perseveres*. Motivation is thus closely related to *goal-setting* and the devotion of necessary *effort*. Others believe rather that motivation depends on *the value* an individual places on the outcome he/she wishes to achieve. It follows that it is necessary to sustain both short-term goals (e.g., completing a classroom activity) and long-term goals (e.g., studying a language over a period of years).

Reflection Question 1: What does motivation mean? Make your own synthesis on the basis Dornyei’s summary of motivational theories in psychology.

Reference: *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom (Dornyei, 2001, pp. 10-11)*

2) Sources of Motivation:

Motivation may have different sources. Harmer (2001) explains sources of motivation as the ‘significant others’ (family, friends, peers, ...), the teacher (a major factor because of the teaching method/methodology), and the society we live in with its corresponding culture. According to Brown and White (2010), “the integration between *previous language learning experiences, current learning events, and goals* play a significant role in one’s motivational behavior”. Therefore, motivation is related to setting goals (short and long-term) and operates with a broader context of social and cultural influences. For his part, Gardner (1985) believes motivation is related to beliefs (before), peers’ and teachers’ reactions

(during), and impact of success/failure (after). This idea is shared with Stern (1983) also maintains that motivation relates to affective conditions that

- a- precede the learners' approach to 2nd language learning (before: e.g. desire to achieve goals)
- b- are engendered by the learning experience (one's efforts as well as peers' and teachers' reactions)
- c- result from the learning experience and outcomes (success/failure; i.e. satisfaction after achieving goals)

In short sources of motivation may be *personal, social, cultural, or learning related*.

3) **Kinds of Motivation**

Gardner and Lambert (1972) advocated integrative and instrumental motivation.

Integrative Motivation comes from the desire to learn a language in order to know about the cultural aspect of and be accepted by the target community. Dornyei (2001) explains it as a positive disposition toward the L2 group and the desire to interact with and even become similar to valued members of that community

Instrumental Motivation comes from the desire to learn a language because of the social benefits or economic rewards this knowledge brings (such as getting a job or a better salary, or meeting educational requirements).

Bailey (1986) suggested a distinction between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation.

Intrinsic motivation comes from within the individual; it refers to the enjoyment of the learning process itself, or the desire to make themselves feel better (Harmer, 2001). Intrinsic motivation is said to be related to two elements: self-determination and increase in perceived competence.

Extrinsic Motivation is caused by outside factors, such as the need to pass exams, financial reward, future travel, to please parents, receive praise or approval, or to avoid punishment.

Researchers agree that intrinsic motivation is especially important for encouraging success. Even when there is extrinsic motivation, success is enhanced when learners come to love the learning process. However, learner actions can be prompted by a mixture of both forms of motivation, i.e., they are not 'opposites' (Williams and Burden, 1997). Scrivener (2009) equally notes that learners may be differently motivated in the same class, which may pose problems to teachers. There is also an agreement that motivation enhances language learning and that successful language learning in turn enhances motivation (There is then a mutual relationship between both).

4) **Beliefs**

A belief is an acceptance that something is true (or that something exists). Beliefs are also defined as insights, learners' assumptions, implicit theories, conceptions of learning, and as "general assumptions that students hold about themselves as learners, about factors influencing language learning, and about the nature of language learning and teaching" (Victori & Lockhart, 1995, p. 224). Learners' beliefs concern the target language, language learning, themselves, classroom behavior, error correction, the place of grammar, the role of translation, and instruction methodology in general. According to Larsen-Freeman (2001), beliefs of significant others may influence L2 learning. She explains that beliefs mediate how learners experience L2 classroom and can lead to mismatches between teachers' and learners' perceptions (resulting in learning difficulties). A common example is when teachers and students do not agree on norms of exams assessment.

Breen (2001) posits that "In the classroom context, the perceptions, beliefs, attitudes, and metacognitive knowledge that students bring with them to the learning situation have been recognized as a significant contributory factor in the

learning process and ultimate success” (cited in Bernat&Gvozdenko, 2005, p. 1). Therefore, identifying and examining learners’ beliefs and reflecting on their potential impact on language learning and teaching in general can inform future syllabus design and teacher practice in the course. This may help teachers understand learners’ behavior and may enable them to find ways to adjust these beliefs in a way to adopt a flexible and reflective approach to their learning.

In order to understand the relationship between beliefs and motivation, we have to consider the meaning of attitudes and emotions.

5) **Attitudes and Emotions**

Learner’s motivation has long been at the core of foreign language acquisition research. According to Ellis (1985), “motivation and attitudes are important factors, which help to determine the level of proficiency achieved by different learners.”(p. 118). An attitude is a “mental and neural state of readiness organized through experience, exerting a direct and dynamic influence upon the individual’s response to objects and situations with which it is related.” (Allport, 1935, p.810). It is simply defined as a way of thinking or feeling about something. An emotion is a conscious mental action (anger, fear, sadness, anxiety...) accompanied with physiological and behavioural changes in the body (reactions). For example, the feeling of sadness may be accompanied with tears, and anxiety is an emotional response to learning. In a school setting, emotions result from the evaluation learners make of particular situations while learning (about teacher’s methodology, themselves, peers’ reactions...). These evaluations are influenced by previous experiences, the social context, and personal goals.

The relationship between emotions, attitudes, beliefs, and motivation: Attitudes are said to have three components: *cognitive* (beliefs), *affective* (emotions/results of evaluations), and *behavioural* (observed actions). Emotions can change motivational drives positively or negatively. The contact with a second or foreign language engenders two types of attitudes:

a) positive: resulting in *motivation* and willingness to learn

- b) negative: resulting in *resistance* to language learning expressed through anxiety, anger, and hostility towards the foreign language and its users

There is agreement among researchers (eg Gardner and Lambert, 1972; Brusttall, 1974, and Stern, 1983) on the importance of the affective aspect of language learning, and on a correlation between learning outcomes and attitudes towards the target group and language. Swain also argues that language learning is both a cognitive and emotional struggle and recommends to take learners' emotions into consideration by listening carefully to learners' emotional processes in learning, giving them an opportunity to express their emotions and helping them problem-solve (in the foreign language).

Assessing motivation and attitudes: Robert C and Gardner (1985) developed AMTB (Motivation and Attitudes Test Battery) to measure a number of attributes associated with second/ foreign language learning. This test assesses motivation intensity, types of attitudes and desire to learn.

(See the related AMTB pdf document on the following link: <https://publish.uwo.ca/~gardner/docs/englishamtb.pdf>)

6) Initiating and sustaining motivation

Motivating learners is not a simple process. Many researchers maintain that teachers and institutions can play an important role in motivating L2 learners and in helping them sustain their motivation until their goals are achieved. It is also important to raise parents' awareness about the necessity to motivate their children; that is a collaboration between teachers, institutions, and parents. Dornyei (2001, p.29) suggests a motivational teaching practice through the following strategies:

a) Creating the basic motivational conditions: this can be through:

Appropriate teaching behavior; a pleasant and supportive atmosphere in the classroom; and a cohesive learner group with appropriate group norms

b) Generating initial motivation: Enhancing learners' related values and attitudes; increasing learners' expectancy of success; increasing learners'

goal-orientedness; making teaching materials relevant for learners; and creating realistic learner beliefs

- c) **Maintaining and protecting motivation:** Making learning stimulating and enjoyable; presenting tasks in a motivating way; setting specific learner goals; protecting learners' self-esteem and increasing their self-confidence; allowing learners to maintain a positive self-image; creating learner autonomy; promoting self-motivating strategies; and promoting cooperation among learners
- d) **Encouraging positive retrospective self-evaluation:** Promoting motivational attributions; providing motivational feedback; increasing learner satisfaction; and offering rewards and grades in a motivating manner

Hedge (2000), for her part, posits that the challenge for the teacher must be how to enable each learner according to his or her individual characteristics and cultural background. She highlights the importance of raising learners' awareness of their own styles and strategies and in helping them to refine and apply these in more independent and individualised learning.

Reflection Question 2: What is the learners' responsibility in maintaining their own motivation in foreign language learning?

Conclusion: Research shows that cognitive factors are not the only ones that matter in second language learning. The affective component contributes more to language learning than the cognitive skills represented by language aptitude assessment. Even if learner factors are not yet understood, it is clear that there is more awareness of specific psychological characteristics and their impact on the language learning processes and outcomes. The awareness of learner characteristics and individual differences among language learners can sensitise teachers to possible strategies for better learning conditions and results. Thus, the concept of learner characteristics should have a place in language teaching theory, with both cognitive and affective factors.

LESSON05

PERSONALITY FACTORS

1) Introduction and Definition

As has been explained in previous lessons, in L2 research, the affective side is equally important to (and sometimes more important than) the cognitive side. The affective side includes motivation, attitudes, and personality factors, though some researchers (such as Dornyei, 2000) would rather think that the role and impact of personality in language learning is less important than those of other affective variables. Affective variables in L2 learning are influenced by personality factors that contribute to the success of language learning, and by sociocultural variables brought by learners- such as language or cultures.

Personality is the most individual characteristic of a human being (as opposed to gender or age which are often referred to as demographic variables). Personality is defined as “the characteristic way that a person thinks, feels, and behaves; the relatively stable and predictable part of a person's thought and behavior” (Free online Dictionary), or simply as “the totality of an individual's behavioral and emotional characteristics” (Merriam-Webster Dictionary). Thus, it refers to specific differences in ways of thinking, feeling, and behaving. In Hall's words (2011): ‘Who we are ‘affects ‘What we do’. What is important to consider is that learners come to the foreign language classroom with a wide range of ‘personality variables’.

2) Research on Personality

In 1970s, researchers attempted to test whether success in language learning was related to personality features. Stern (1983) and Larsen-Freeman (2001) posit that according to classroom observation, there are certain personality characteristics which are helpful or detrimental to successful language learning. Most studies related personality factors such as extroversion, willingness to take risks, lack of inhibition and self-esteem to successful language learning. Teachers also reported

good language learners have prominent personality features. However, no linear relationship between personality traits and achievement could be proved. The systematic study of the role of personality in second language acquisition has led to a greater understanding of the language learning process and to improved teaching methods. Dornyei (2001) also believes that an analysis of affective and personality characteristics can indicate how the individual is likely to respond to emotional, motivational, and interpersonal demands of language learning. Nevertheless, the relationship between personality and language learning has not been elucidated yet, because personality interacts with various variables in the social context of learning situations (this prevents generalization). There are many tests of personality that can be used to understand learners; the most widely used test in the world (recognized as valid and useful) is the Myres-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI, 1976). This personality model puts a lot of emphasis on cognitive style (mental structure), or the preferred way of processing information, highlighting the fact that emotion and cognition are hard to separate. Myers and Briggs come up with four distinct personality traits in the form of dichotomies:

- a) Extroversion and introversion
- b) Sensing and intuition
- b) Thinking and feeling
- c) Judging and perceiving

The MBTI divides people's responses to the world into 16 personality types, combining four positive and four negative poles. (*Consider the appendix below about (MBTI) to understand the different dichotomies and check your own personality type.*)

3) **Major Personality Factors:**

Many types of personality are found to affect second or foreign language learning; the most cited ones are extroversion and introversion, self-esteem, inhibition, risk-taking, and anxiety.

3.1. Self-esteem:

Coopersmith (1967) defines self-esteem as “ a personal judgment of worthiness that is expressed in the attitudes that the individual holds towards himself”. Chen (2020) explains that self-esteem is a term in psychology used to reflect a person's overall

assessment of their own worth. He adds that self-esteem includes beliefs (e.g., "I have the power" or "I don't have the power") and emotions such as triumph, despair, pride, and shame.

A person's self-esteem may be reflected in their behavior, like being shy, confident, or cautious. Personality development involves the growth of a person's concept of self through their interaction with others, and it is commonly accepted that no successful cognitive or affective activity can be carried out without some degree of self-esteem, self-confidence, knowledge of yourself and your abilities. It is noteworthy that the sources of self-esteem may be an accumulation of experiences with themselves and with others, and from the external world around them (parents, family, friends, school, work, ...).

In addition, self-esteem is said to have different levels: global self-esteem, situational self-esteem, task self-esteem. *Global self-esteem* refers to personal judgment in general (e.g. *I believe I am a good person*); *situational self-esteem* refers to self-esteem in specific situations such as learning foreign languages (e.g. *I believe I can learn English*); *task self-esteem* refers to personal judgment in a specific task, such as speaking in public or writing an essay (e.g. *I am too shy to speak in public*). Studies show that students who feel good about themselves are more likely to succeed. But, as with many other personal factors, it is believed that high self-esteem alone does not lead to verbal success and vice versa.

Reflection Question: Does high self-esteem cause success in language learning or does language success cause high self-esteem?

3.2. Inhibition

Inhibition is a feeling that makes one self-conscious and that prevents acting in a relaxed way. It is the opposite of facilitation and refers to a mental state in which there is hesitation of learners in a blocking situation. People with high self-esteem withstand threats while those with weak self-esteem maintain walls of inhibition. Inhibition is then closely related to self-esteem, since the lower is self-esteem, the stronger is inhibition. As Brown (1994) points out, language learning means a lot of self-exposure, because it inevitably involves making mistakes. Those

students who are self-critical in nature see mistakes in language learning as an insult. Because of these defense mechanisms, they delay the process of language learning. Inhibition can thus be understood as a process of ego protection.

It is important to note here the role of the teacher's attitudes toward errors reinforce these barriers and, in the long run, create learning disabilities or beliefs of failure. In fact, teachers are observed to have an impact on shaping learners' beliefs about themselves; they can have an influential effect on the linguistic and emotional well-being of learners. This is because teachers' opinions and expectations of their students affect their way of teaching and evaluating, and so lead to positive or negative results. This is often related to *teacher's prophecies* or *Pygmalion Effect* which posits that learners who receive positive feedback perform well and those who receive negative feedback perform poorly; in addition, they tend to internalize positive or negative labels and succeed or fail accordingly. Inhibition does not facilitate learning; therefore, there should be awareness among language teachers that focusing on students' strengths rather than their weaknesses is an effective way to break down learning barriers and overcome inhibitions.

3.3. Risk-taking

Risk-taking is a domain of personality factors and one of the most important components of learning a second language. Beebe (1983) believes it is important in both classrooms and natural settings. Linguists define risk-taking as the ability to try new information regardless of linguistic awkwardness. While interacting in the language classroom, learners take risks in order to succeed in language learning, even if making mistakes can be impulsive and embarrassing. In this case, learners run the risk of not producing the intended meaning, not explaining the intended meaning, being laughed at, avoided, or rejected (Brown, 2001), but the rewards are worth the risks. Therefore, taking risks is necessary to interaction in learning a second/foreign language.

Taking risks does not only mean daring to make mistakes, but also learning from one's failure and accepting it as a learning experience. In short, risk-taking is a positive factor for language learners. It is often observed that learners with high self-esteem are likely to take risks in the classroom, but those with high global

self-esteem do not like taking risks, which may lead to fossilization of errors, preferring safety. Brown (2000) contends that creating a language learning context in which students are free to take risks and orally try hypotheses will break down some of the barriers that often discourage learners from trying their new language. He argues that if students are afraid to speak until making sure that a sentence is correct, then the students will probably never have a productive conversation.

3.4. Introversion vs. Extroversion

It is the most researched personality aspect in language studies. As a matter of fact, there is a tendency to stereotype extroversion and introversion. Some examples of stereotypes consist in the following: extroverts are talkative, participating freely, and successful language learners because of their willingness to take risks and their ability to make social contact (Hedge, 2000), while introverts are quiet and prefer to be alone, and not as bright as extroverts.... These stereotypes have influenced teachers' perceptions about learners. In reality, most researches have provided evidence that these stereotypes are partly wrong.

Extroversion is the extent to which a person has a need to receive ego enhancement, self-esteem, and a sense of wholeness from others, as opposed to receiving that affirmation from within oneself. Extroverts usually need other people to feel good. They are not necessarily talkative. They may prefer group participation tasks. Extroverts are often known for their sociability (including gregariousness, people-orientation and a fear of isolation) and impulsivity (including the need for excitement, change, and risk-taking). They might have an advantage in language learning as they create learning opportunities through interaction and consequently expose themselves to input while generating output. However, while there may be links between extroversion and speaking skills, there does not appear to be a relationship between extroversion and overall success in language learning.

Introversion is the extent to which a person derives a sense of wholeness and fulfillment apart from a reflection of their self from other people. They can have inner strength that extroverts do not have. Introverts are reported to have logical and precise thinking, to be more successful because of their ability to consolidate learning, lower distractibility, and better study habits. Introverts are said to be quieter, more introspective, reserved, rather distant, and tend to plan ahead. They are more interested in their inner thoughts and feelings, and they prefer individual learning and knowledge. However, they are reported to suffer from increased pressure which inhibits their speech production. While there is no direct link between extroversion and language learning, some studies confirm introverts' precise thinking leads to more success.

Remarks

- In L2 learning, both introversion and extroversion may have positive features, depending on particular tasks
- Skehan (1989) argues that extroversion and introversion aspects are related to two aspects: *a) the type of tasks* (written or oral), in the sense that extroverts may be more at ease with and more successful at oral communication tasks while introverts would be more successful at the systematic study of language and at written tasks, and *b) cultural norms* which may affect learners' behavior and choices of conduct (e.g. in some cultures, being talkative is not praised and is not a trait of good learners).

4.4. Anxiety

Anxiety is commonly defined as 'an uncomfortable feeling of nervousness or worry about something that is happening or might happen'. It is accompanied by feelings of restlessness, depression, and self-doubt. Brown (1994) suggested that anxiety can be experienced at different levels and distinguishes between *trait anxiety*: at a global level, it is a permanent personality feature (some people are generally anxious about many things); and *state anxiety*: at a momentary or situational level,

it is a feeling associated with a particular situation (eg. Stage anxiety: a person may not be ordinarily anxious but becomes so when asked to address a public). Anxiety plays an important affective role in language learning (this will be elaborated in the following lesson about foreign language anxiety)

5. Classroom Implications

Research has shown that personality factors are heavily implicated in the learning process in general and in second language acquisition in particular. Although there is little conclusive evidence on the role of affective factors, some studies have proved to be of value to the teacher in challenging common assumptions and in suggesting areas for concern. Besides, even if personality factors do not directly determine the degree of an individual's academic success, they shape the way people respond to given tasks, and so they are important to consider. Equally important is that knowledge of learner factors can sensitize teachers to differences in learning strategies. However, they must stop stereotyping learners for selection or teaching purposes. Hall (2011) also remarks that in classrooms that include a range of personality types (as most do), teachers should take into account learners' needs and preferences. In other words, teachers must be aware that they can have an influential effect on cognitive development and emotional well-being of learners.

Conclusion

Task: Write a paragraph in which you conclude about the role of personality factors in second or foreign language learning.

Appendix: Myers Briggs Type Indicator — Wikipédia (fr.wikipedia.org)

What's Your Personality Type?

Use the questions on the outside of the chart to determine the four letters of your Myers-Briggs type. For each pair of letters, choose the side that seems most natural to you, even if you don't agree with every description.

Do you prefer to focus on details or on the big picture?

- Could be described as reserved, private
- Prefer a slower pace with time for contemplation
- Tend to think things through inside your head
- Would rather observe than be the center of attention

then you prefer

I
Introversion

ISTJ Responsible, sincere, analytical, reserved, realistic, systematic. Hardworking and trustworthy with sound practical judgment.	ISFJ Warm, considerate, gentle, responsible, pragmatic, thorough. Devoted caretakers who enjoy being helpful to others.	INFJ Idealistic, organized, insightful, dependable, compassionate, gentle. Seek harmony and cooperation, enjoy intellectual stimulation.	INTJ Innovative, independent, strategic, logical, reserved, insightful. Driven by their own original ideas to achieve improvements.
ISTP Action-oriented, logical, analytical, spontaneous, reserved, independent. Enjoy adventure, skilled at understanding how mechanical things work.	ISFP Gentle, sensitive, nurturing, helpful, flexible, realistic. Seek to create a personal environment that is both beautiful and practical.	INFP Sensitive, creative, idealistic, perceptive, caring, loyal. Value inner harmony and personal growth, focus on dreams and possibilities.	INTP Intellectual, logical, precise, reserved, flexible, imaginative. Original thinkers who enjoy speculation and creative problem solving.

Do you prefer to focus on the present or on the future?

- Enjoy finding the flaws in an argument
- Could be described as reasonable, level-headed

then you prefer

T
Thinking

Do you prefer to focus on feelings or on logic?

- Imagine the possibilities of how things could be
- Notice the big picture, see how everything connects
- Enjoy ideas and concepts for their own sake
- Like to describe things in a figurative, poetic way

then you prefer

N
Intuition

ESTP Outgoing, realistic, action-oriented, curious, versatile, spontaneous. Pragmatic problem solvers and skillful negotiators.	ESFP Playful, enthusiastic, friendly, spontaneous, tactful, flexible. Have strong common sense, enjoy helping people in tangible ways.	ENFP Enthusiastic, creative, spontaneous, optimistic, supportive, playful. Value inspiration, enjoy starting new projects, see potential in others.	ENTP Inventive, enthusiastic, strategic, enterprising, inquisitive, versatile. Enjoy new ideas and challenges, value inspiration.
ESTJ Efficient, outgoing, analytical, systematic, dependable, realistic. Like to run the show and get things done in an orderly fashion.	ESFJ Friendly, outgoing, reliable, conscientious, organized, practical. Seek to be helpful and please others, enjoy being active and productive.	ENFJ Caring, enthusiastic, idealistic, organized, diplomatic, responsible. Skilled communicators who value connection with people.	ENTJ Strategic, logical, efficient, outgoing, ambitious, independent. Effective organizers of people and long-range planners.

Do you prefer to focus on what is or on what could be?

- Prefer to have matters settled
- Think rules and deadlines should be respected
- Prefer to have detailed, step-by-step instructions
- Make plans, want to know what you're getting into

then you prefer

J
Judging

LESSON 6: FOREIGN LANGUAGE ANXIETY

Introduction:

Among the affective variables, anxiety is considered as one of the main blocking factors of effective language learning. As defined earlier, anxiety is an uncomfortable feeling of nervousness or worry. It is classified into trait anxiety and state anxiety. Language classroom anxiety is identified as an instance of state anxiety; it is “quite possibly the affective factor that most pervasively obstructs the learning process” (Arnold and Brown, 1999: 8). This fact has triggered researches to enquire what kind of anxiety language anxiety is, how it affects language learning, and how it can be minimised in the classroom.

1) FLA: Definition and components:

Foreign language anxiety (henceforth FLA) is often defined as “a feeling of tension, apprehension, and nervousness associated with the situation of learning a foreign language”. Horwitz, Horwitz and Cope (1986) define FLA as “a distinct complex construct of self-perceptions, beliefs, feelings, and behaviours related to classroom language learning arising from the uniqueness of language learning process” (p. 128). Other researchers point that FLA “can be distinguished from other types of anxiety and that it can have negative effects on the learning process” (MacIntyre and Gardner, 1960). Arnold and Brown (1999: 9) observe that foreign language learning is particularly anxiety-provoking; thus, language learners may experience ‘*Acceptance anxiety* (eg. Will I be accepted, liked, wanted?) . . .

Orientation anxiety (eg. Will I understand what is going on?) . . .

Performance anxiety (eg. Will I be able to do what I have come to learn?)’

Oxford (1999), for her part, holds that FLA is an essential element of classroom life and is closely linked to other aspects of learners’ personalities. In fact, three components have been identified in order to break the construct into researchable issues:

a) Communication Apprehension:

It is the fear an individual feels about communicating orally or in writing. MacIntyre and Gardner (1991) assert that it relates mainly to negative experiences in speaking activities (but we should not neglect writing anxiety). Shyness and low self-esteem are often related to communication apprehension. The causes may be the way communication is perceived by the speaker, the lack of competency in oral skills, the number of people present, the topic of conversation, and the formality of the environment at the time (Chen, 2020). Larsen-Freeman (2001) notes that anxiety *causes* poor performance, but it may also *be caused by* poor performance. The results are avoidance, withdrawal, a feeling of frustration, and unhappiness.

b) Fear of negative evaluation:

It arises from the learner's need to make a positive social impression on others, as communication in the target language involves *self-presentation in language*, the *teacher's view* as well as *that of peers*.

c) **Test anxiety** or apprehension over academic evaluation, it refers to those situations involving formal instruction and assessment.

2) Types of FLA:

Another important distinction has been made to deepen the understanding of anxiety (by Alpert and Haber (1960) as cited in Brown (1994)): *Debilitating anxiety vs. Facilitating anxiety*. Hall (2011) posits that anxiety is commonly seen as 'harmful' and hinders language learning. This '*debilitating anxiety*' creates worry, lowers self-esteem and potentially reduces learner motivation and participation in class. According to MacIntyre and Gardner (1989), debilitating anxiety develops because of repeated negative experience with second or foreign language, mainly with speaking. Many researchers agree that state anxiety has a negative impact on the language learning process. Krashen (1985) also argues strongly that anxiety is not helpful in L2 development.

On the contrary, Bailey (1983) points out that some kind of concern or anxiety is a positive factor, what she refers to as '*facilitating anxiety*', which helps learners perform better. She explains that in the language classroom, tasks without a certain level of challenge debilitate the learner's motivation, while tasks without balance and appropriate support can be disappointing because they overpower the learner in a state of emotional bluntness or lack of activity.

In short, a certain amount of attention, anticipation, and curiosity is useful and even necessary, but excessive anxiety can be inhibiting and hindering success in language learning. Teachers have to be aware of such distinction so that they could minimize the sources of debilitating anxiety and optimize facilitating anxiety, keeping in mind that too little and too much anxiety may hinder the process of successful foreign language learning (Bailey, 1983).

3) Competitiveness and anxiety:

Another research has revealed that competitiveness is a major source of anxiety for learners. While some learners are preoccupied by the anxiety of wanting to be among the best, others are preoccupied by the anxiety of avoiding to be among the worst (Bailey, 1983). This emphasizes the conception of the L2 classroom as *a social and pedagogical environment*, since anxiety is partly a consequence of *the relationships learners have with each other*, as well as *their more pedagogic concerns about their progress and performance in L2*.

For anxious learners, competitiveness will lead them to feel frustrated and to a reduced effort instead of causing them to work harder. Competitiveness is closely linked to *successful or unsuccessful self-image*, and it has an important role in classroom anxiety. Bailey (1995) links anxiety to competitiveness and argues that if we discover its various causes, we will be able to reduce it. She derived the following seven categories:

- 1- Overt _ comparison of myself with other students
- 2- Emotive responses to such comparison including emotional reactions to other students

- 3- The desire to outdo other students; here released as the tendency to race through exams in order to finish first.
- 4- Emphasis on tests and grades, especially with reference to the other students
- 5- The desire to gain the teacher's approval
- 6- Anxiety experienced during the language class, often after making errors on material I felt I should have known
- 7- Withdrawal from the language-learning experience when the competition was overpowering

4) Classroom Implications:

FLA anxiety has adverse effects on language learning, and teachers have found that the factors of learners' reluctance to participate are those elements that cause anxiety. Anxiety is a phenomenon that exists in all classrooms, but the pressure to give the right answer is greater in the language classroom because not only learners have to know the right answer, but they also have to express themselves in the target language. When they fear their English is not good enough (low perceived competence), they prefer to remain silent. Avoiding participation is to protect one's self-image by avoiding the risk of making mistakes, being laughed at by peers, and being negatively evaluated by teachers. This type of anxiety is self-imposed but it is often teacher-induced. Anxiety is worsened by the teacher's persistent focus on correctness of form and content without realizing that by doing so they could be publically humiliating learners. When the mother tongue (L1) is banned in class or when learners are asked to perform only in English, they feel they are deprived from their natural way of speaking or expressing themselves. In addition, they show just part of their personality and intelligence. This type of anxiety inhibits learners' use of the target language and thus deprives them from opportunities of language use.

5) **Reducing FLA:**

As stated by different authors, low anxiety learners are more likely to succeed in foreign language learning since they interact with confidence. Research about anxiety suggests the need to ‘humanistic’ approaches in which learners do not feel under threat. It is of paramount necessity to alleviate anxiety in the language classroom so that successful language learning is ensured. It is on the teachers that the biggest role falls.

Task (pair work): What are teacher and learner roles in reducing foreign language anxiety? Mention a few examples for each, and then write a concluding paragraph (up to 10 lines) about FLA.

LESSON07 MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCES; EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE

1) Introduction and Definition(s)

Wechsler (1958) defines intelligence as “the aggregate or global capacity of the individual to act purposefully, to think rationally, and to deal effectively with his environment” (p.3). Though traditionally it was defined in terms of linguistic and logical-mathematical abilities, intelligence can be described as the ability to perceive information and to retrieve it as knowledge to be applied towards adaptive behaviours within an environment or context (<https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Intelligence>). Current definitions/conceptualisations suggest that intelligence involves the ability to

- a) Learn (acquisition, retention, and use of knowledge)
- b) Recognise problems (identifying problems in one’s environment that need to be addressed)
- c) Solve problems (ability to use acquired knowledge to find a useful solution to problems)

In short, intelligence is a mental ability to think, process, store, and retrieve knowledge in order to adapt to an environment, context, or to solve problems. Individuals vary in their ability to understand complex ideas, to adapt effectively to the environment, to learn from experience, to engage various forms of reasoning, or to overcome obstacles by taking thought. The differences between individuals’ abilities can be significant, but they are never entirely consistent: a given person’s intellectual performance will vary on different occasions, in different domains, as judged by different criteria (Salkind, 2008).

2) Research about Intelligence:

Some psychologists believe intelligence to be largely heritable, but others insist it is an ability that can be modified through education and social intervention. There is

evidence that intelligence is a malleable quality and that effective instruction makes a difference in one's intellectual performance.

Sources of intelligence are diverse: biological (it relates to neurological state, and it is difficult to modify), domain experience (through instruction or in response to environmental influences), reflection and thinking (personal intervention/responsibility). Intelligence is then composed of a mixture of nature and nurture (of heredity and experience) (Farelle & Jacobs, 2010). Many psychologists were interested in intelligence and its measurement through different tests. One of the most famous theories about intelligence is Howard Gardner's Multiple Intelligences.

3) Multiple Intelligences Theory (H. Gardner, 1983)

Gardner believes students have different kinds of minds and so they learn, remember, perform, and understand things in different ways. One way to understand learners' differences is to consider their different intelligences. He suggests every person has a range of intelligences, but in each person one or more intelligences is more apparent. Gardner suggests 8 different intelligences:

- 1- Verbal-linguistic:** using words effectively (such as in reading, writing, talking, listening, or poetry)
- 2- Logical- mathematical:** reasoning, calculating, scientific thinking, ability with numbers, learning through problem-solving, symbols, and analysis.
- 3- Musical:** showing sensitivity to rhythm; e.g. singing, composing, playing an instrument, or appreciating music (it also relates to auditory memory).
- 4- Spatial-visual:** thinking in terms of the physical space, like sailors, drivers, and architects, visualising, graphic organisation
- 5- Bodily-kinesthetic:** using the body effectively (dancer, surgeon, drama, sports...)
- 6- Intrapersonal:** ability to see oneself, self-identity development, understanding one's interests, self-management or reflection.

- 7- **Interpersonal:** understanding and interacting with others, learning by discussing, explaining and debating with others.
- 8- **Naturalistic:** sensitivity to nature objects, plants, animals, clouds..., ability to recognize and classify patterns in nature and other phenomena, including people, and people-made objects.

Reflection Question: *In what way the theory of Multiple Intelligences may be helpful for teachers?*

4) **Emotional Intelligence (EI)**

Traditionally, emotions were seen as disrupting cognitive intelligence. A writer in (100bc) once warned, “Rule your feelings lest your feelings rule you”. Modern theories, however, consider emotions as a motivating force that leads to learning success. EI was first introduced by David Goleman (1995), and earlier suggested by Salovey and Mayer (1990) who defined it as the cooperation of intelligence and emotion. Goleman (1995) argues that the “emotional mind is far quicker than the rational mind, springing into action without pausing to consider what it is doing. Its quickness precludes the deliberate, analytic reflection that is the hallmark of the thinking mind.” (p. 291). Goleman defines EI as the capacity of recognizing one’s own feelings and those of others, for motivating oneself, and for managing emotions well in oneself and in one’s relationships. He believes these abilities are complementary to cognitive intelligence (which was traditionally measured by IQ tests). He explains that EI is the ability to be motivated, to control one’s impulses and to delay personal satisfaction, to regulate moods, and to prevent trouble that may obscure our judgments, to be persistent and have hope. He placed emotions or emotional quotient at the seat of intellectual functioning.

The management of core emotions_ anger, fear, sadness, joy,..._ drives and controls efficient mental and cognitive processing. EI is thus the interplay of cognitive ability with emotional knowledge and regulation. In fact, Goleman expanded the work of Gardner on MI, mainly concerning interpersonal and

intrapersonal skills, that is personal and social competences, which he described as learned abilities based on EI that result in outstanding performance. EI can be considered as the 9th intelligence. Goleman's model of EI includes Self-awareness, Self-regulation, Motivation, Empathy, and Social Skills. The first three components are considered personal competencies while the last two are considered social competencies.

- 1) **Self-awareness:** It consists in knowing one's internal states, preferences, feelings, and intuitions, including emotional awareness, accurate self-assessment and self-confidence.
- 2) **Self-regulation:** It refers to managing one's internal states, impulses and resources, including self-control, trustworthiness, adaptability and innovation, conscientiousness (conscience, self-discipline, organization, efficiency). A good example of self-regulation is delaying gratification, also called deferred gratification, which describes the process of resisting the temptation of an immediate reward in preference for a later reward.
- 3) **Motivation:** It refers to emotional tendencies to guide or facilitate reaching goals. It is related to the ability to self-motivate, achievement drive, initiative, optimism.
- 4) **Empathy:** It is awareness of others' feelings, needs, and concerns, the ability to be in other people's shoes including understanding others, helping others develop. It involves self-knowledge and knowledge of others.

Empathy is important in society to communicate effectively (the need to understand other people's affective and cognitive states). It is also important in language learning (language is related to society and culture). Learners make transactions to learn a foreign language (imitation), modeling, empathy, styles of communication often referred to as 'acculturation'.

- 5) Social skills:** inducing desirable responses in others, social skills concern handling emotions and understanding social situations, persuasion, influencing others, leadership.

Task 1: Comment on the video about delayed gratification, in the following web link, and explain its relationship with achieving emotional intelligence. (<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=eqGg1EXlcPQ>)

5) Research Related to EI

EI is generally measured through the use of self-reports that examinees have to complete according to scales. Other tests require examinees to perform tasks after which they are scored. All the tests and reports are meant to investigate and measure the components of EI. EI proved successful in developing learners' language acquisition and support components of their EI; awareness of their emotions, expressing by means of verbal language or other symbolic codes, displaying empathy.

- *Gender:* some differences were reported between males and females in a few factors, such as females have stronger interpersonal skills and more empathy. Males have higher intrapersonal capacity, better at managing emotions, are more adaptable, more self-reliant, optimistic, and better self-regulated.
- *Age:* older groups, mainly after 40, are better than younger groups. Older people are more socially and emotionally intelligent
- *Behaviour and performance:* 17% of academic performance is related to EI. Emotional intelligence has a stronger impact than IQ on one's ability to do one's best.
- *Language acquisition:* EI proved to be successful for developing language acquisition. For example, in a Romanian study by Elena .A. Mancas (2012), EI theory was applied in the language and literature classes in high school and proved to be successful in developing learners' language acquisition and support some components of learners' EI, such as awareness of their emotions, expressing feelings by means of verbal language and other symbolic codes, and

displaying empathy, developing understanding and reading competence, change in their behaviour and increase in their motivation for learning. Some of the statements the author collected through questionnaires or self-assessment sheets are as follows:

'I'm happy I found ways to calm down'

'I understand that there are cures for sadness and anger'

'Others have feelings similar to mine'

'I'm thinking of talking about my feelings to my parents'

Mancas (2012, p.5)

6) Teaching EI in the language classroom

Topics can be suggested in productive skills (speaking/writing) classes; such as social violence, cyber bullying. Learners may be invited to define concepts, find examples, consequences and suggest solutions. This can also be in receptive skills (listening/reading); for example about 'how to deal with conflicts'. Learners can practise giving advice with the use of certain grammatical structures and language expressions. These activities can start with a form with a quiz to be answered and then shared with other classmates. Other activities may target anger management, self-expression, conflict resolution, emotions awareness, awareness of others' emotions, and helping them to regulate them. In particular, teachers can develop EI components as follows:

Self-awareness: Learners learn that ALL emotions are normal. They are helped to recognize their own emotions and express them verbally or non-verbally. Teachers can use self-assessment sheets, questionnaires, or interviews.

Self-control and emotional regulation: instead of lecturing and telling them what they should/shouldn't do, it is important to put learners in actual /imagined situations by which they learn to activate their emotional and rational self.

Motivation: the teachers can help learners formulate their short-term and long-term objectives and guide them realise these objectives according to their individual abilities.

Empathy: It refers to triggering emotional reactions to others and cognitive responses that determine the extent to which students are able to understand the feelings of others and show their compassion.

Social skills: Activities can be in pairs or in groups in a way to develop intrapersonal and interpersonal competences; such as through expressing opinions, agreeing or disagreeing with others, or praising others' good answers.

Conclusion

Task 2: Write a conclusion about the place and importance of EI in the EFL classroom.

SUGGESTED ANSWERS TO REFLECTION QUESTIONS AND TASKS

Lesson 01

Reflection question: Change seems to move from very abstract (soul, mind, consciousness) to less abstract (behavior, language acquisition) to concrete (language production, language learning) to social (classroom learning and interaction).

Task: Conclusion

Educational psychology focuses on the application of psychology to the understanding of learners and learner environments. It represents an important area of psychological research, theory, and practice. Research in educational psychology is designed to provide insights into authentic education problems, using empirical rather than subjective judgments. Its impact is visible in the education of teachers, in procedures of classroom learning and instruction, in ways to motivate learners, and in the integration of technology into the classroom. It plays an important role in improving education in society and guiding educational policy reform.

Lesson 02

Reflection question 1: Classification into categories

<i>Cognitive</i>	<i>Affective</i>	<i>Psychomotor / Behavioural</i>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Ability to remember things</i> - <i>Beliefs, political views, ideas about morality, prejudices, etc.</i> - <i>Beliefs about what a teacher can or should do</i> - <i>Learning styles</i> - <i>Previous</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Personalities and ways of relating to and working with other people, etc</i> - <i>Reactions to things, moods, habits, tec.</i> - <i>Motivation</i> - <i>Boredom thresholds</i> - <i>Senses of humour, reponse to jokes, practical jokes, sarcasm, etc.</i> - <i>Reasons for needing Eenglish</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Learning styles</i> - <i>Difficulties or physical disabilities</i> - <i>Sensory preferences</i> - <i>Speeds for working and learning</i> - <i>Levels in various language systems and skills</i> - <i>Degrees of focus, application,</i>

<p><i>learning experiences</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Intelligences</i> - <i>Knowledge of the world and special areas</i> - <i>Speeds for working and learning</i> 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Topics they find interesting</i> - <i>Sensory preferences</i> - <i>Jobs, home lives, health, friendships, etc.</i> - <i>Preferences for what content to work on in class</i> - <i>Preferences for classroom methodology</i> 	<p><i>distraction, ect.</i></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - <i>Speeds for working and learning</i>
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Task 1: Importance of studying learner differences

- One of the concerns of educational psychology is to account for learner differences in order to understand learners' behavior in educational settings, and to determine the factors leading to success or failure.
- Individual differences are considered important predictors of success in L2 learning.
- Considering individual differences in educational contexts is important to adapt instruction to learners' preferences, strengths, and weaknesses.
- Teachers accommodate their teaching methodology, materials, and media to learners' needs (to be facilitators of learning).
- Stakeholders can reevaluate textbooks and teaching programmes on the basis of results on individual differences.
- Modern education recognizes the necessity of acknowledging learners' differences for better learning outcomes.

Reflection Question 2: Changes learners face when shifting from primary school to middle school.:

In addition to their struggle with puberty and identity formation, pupils face the following when they move to the middle school: - from small to larger schools (and more learners) - a more controlling and rigid system - more teachers and less personal contact - different learning and assessment requirements

– having to take decisions that may impact their future career/ life (choosing a major: scientific or literary stream).....

Task 2: Ideas to be focused on:

- Topic sentence: age is a determining factor in learner variation.
- Explain and briefly illustrate how learners differ according to their age and sources of these differences (young, adolescent and adult learners differ in their cognitive and affective and psychomotor abilities and practices. These differences may be due to cognitive and developmental reasons and they manifest in different competences, different behaviours and different cognitive and affective needs.
- Determine how teachers should consider age differences in the language classroom (e.g.s:Teacher makes appropriate decisions in the classroom about what to teach –activities selection in accordance to the developmental level of each category of learners- and how to teach –in a way to cater to learners specific needs)
- Concluding sentence: reformulating the importance of age as learner variation aspect and highlight teacher role and importance of teacher training.

Lesson 03:

Reflection Question1: Many countries advocated or single gender education, claiming less distraction, lessening stereotypes, lessening learner variation, more appropriate teaching and assessment strategies, more opportunities for self-expression and participation, developing self-confidence, and improving academic achievement, less bullying,

Disadvantages: less competition, less opportunities to learn from and about each other, no agreement on the direct link between single sex education and academic success, in society (reality) males and females do not work separately and do not live separately, boys are deprived from the positive influence of girls who are perceived as being more mature and more committed to their studies, there is no

diversity of ideas, learning styles or abilities, reinforcing stereotypes as boys and girls do not have the opportunity to know the other gender, much responsibility to adapt textbooks in a way to respond to the needs of every gender.

Task 1:

Teacher intervention

- It is important to uncover the needs and social issues behind gender behavior. Rather than provide them with equal treatment, seek ways to encourage all children to see themselves as contributors to the classroom community, by offering different experiences in a safe learning environment.
- Avoid comparing boys' and girls' behavior, attitudes, or achievements, and devise the right education that helps them both of them achieve better.
- Create a gender equitable culture in the classroom (use of non-sexist texts, explore themes that institute mutual understanding and acceptance)
- Enable them to express themselves freely regardless of stereotypes
- Encourage learners to use their past experiences as part of knowledge
- Encourage interaction, participation, creativity and problem-solving.
- Train teachers to deal wisely with gender-related issues
- When gender-based learning styles are accepted and accommodated, they do better at school and become more confident.
- Class solutions: introduction of action-based instruction, choice of topics of their interests, co-education (single gender groups).

Reflection Question 2:

Anastasi's idea refers to the role heredity plays in defining the broad limits of a person's aptitude/abilities. It is within these limits that a person may change/develop on the basis of environmental interaction and influences.

Task 2 :Conclusion

Courses may be modified to suit different levels of aptitude (gradation, relevance, interest)

- Teachers can observe differences and establish from the beginning those *who* the different students are and *how* they are different using formal devices (tests, questionnaires, interviews..).
- It is important to acknowledge differences between girls and boys and offer them an equitable learning experience
- It is equally important to assign learners different types of activities to cater for learners' different needs
- Teacher-training is extremely important, for teachers have to be aware of learner differences and ways of dealing with them. While in-service, teachers may organize meetings to discuss related problems and ways of facing them, in their respective institutions.

Lesson 04 :

Reflection Question 1: Motivation is a psychological construct influenced by many factors. It is generally defined as an internal drive and eagerness to attain a given goal. According to different theories, motivation stems from the perceived expectancy of success and the value/importance attached to particular tasks. Motivation is influenced by one's self-judgment of one's competence/ability to do a given task and leads to a decision over given actions, to the effort to be devoted, and to the persistence in doing these actions. The judgments from past learning experiences (failure or success) exert an influence on motivational behavior of learners. Setting goals is another variable that influences motivation. A goal sets a purpose for learning, provided this goal is reasonably challenging and targets preferably mastery rather than performance, and favours intrinsic over extrinsic motivation. Finally, the sociocultural context has an undeniable impact on learners' motivation to learn second or foreign language. Therefore, learners' attitudes towards the target language shape their behavior while learning this language.

To conclude, motivation is subject to different influences: expectancy of success, self-judgments, goal-setting, and sociocultural context.

Reflection Question 2: *learners' responsibility in maintaining their own motivation* :reflecting on their learning experience and growing awareness of the necessity of success in foreign language learning for academic achievement and future career prospects , Setting goals, devoting necessary effort, regular self-evaluation, developing their responsibility of choices and actions and developing their autonomy.

Lesson 05

Reflection Question: There seems to be a reciprocal relationship between both. Learners who involve in the EFL classroom with a satisfactory level of self-esteem are observed to participate more, to be more optimistic, to have better expectancy of success in the foreign language, and are readier to take risks. Besides, those who come to experience success in the foreign language classroom gradually gain self-confidence and so self-esteem.

Task: Conclusion and Classroom Implications

- Research has shown that personality factors are heavily implicated in the learning process in general and in second language acquisition in particular
- Some personality factors may enhance foreign language learning while others may impede it.
- There is an interrelationship between personality factors and other individual variables.
- Even if personality factors do not directly determine the degree of an individual's academic success, they shape the way people respond to given tasks, and so they are important to consider.

- Knowledge of learner factors can sensitize teachers to differences in learning strategies. However, they must stop stereotyping learners for selection or teaching purposes
- Teachers can have an influential effect on cognitive development and emotional well-being of learners.
- In summary, although we have little conclusive evidence on the role of affective factors, some studies have proved to be of value to the teacher in challenging common assumptions and in suggesting areas for concern.

Lesson 06

Reducing FLA: Research about anxiety suggests the need to ‘humanistic’ approaches in which learners do not feel under threat. Teachers have the power and the responsibility to counter the development of anxiety by building self-confidence through positive early experiences, through providing reassuring feedback, and through promoting self-perception of developing proficiency.

a)The role of the teacher: The most important aspect in the classroom is the emotional atmosphere. The teacher has to create a healthy social and oral atmosphere in which learners have the opportunity for self-expression, and in which they do not feel threatened or under continuous pressure. The teacher should be sympathetic, helpful, and comprehensive with learners so as to establish a good relationship based on confidence and respect. He also has to enhance learners’ self-image and avoid anything that might damage their self-esteem. The teacher can do so by keeping criticism to the minimum and by encouraging them to feel good about themselves. In addition, the teacher has to create a meaningful content of learning, drawing on learners’ own experiences, allowing a maximum interaction and focusing on learners’ work to be on meaningful communication rather than on form. The teacher should also be aware of learners’ differences and learning styles.

For shy and reticent learners, it is more important to express themselves rather than to produce correct forms. The teacher should also allow learners to

discuss with their peers before giving the right answer, as well as group work since cooperative learning facilitates meaningfulness and reduces anxiety.

In terms of evaluation, the teacher has to be sensitive to learners' possible reactions. He should not constantly interrupt learners to correct them; otherwise, learners will have no sense of achievement and will be discouraged from answering questions in the future. One way to deal with errors is to repeat learners' response with correction; this kind of correction avoids providing negative evaluation and exposes learners to the correct form. Thus, the teacher should not inhibit learners while evaluating them as this represents a blow to their self-esteem., mainly when the teacher does not adopt a positive and encouraging tone.

b) The part of learners: Other strategies of anxiety reduction concern learners. Some of these strategies concern using progressive relaxation and deep breathing exercises. Learners should change their thinking patterns, that is they should get rid of their fears and adopt a positive attitude towards foreign language learning. They should face difficulties instead of avoiding them and take the risk of doing so. They have to be aware that making mistakes is a part of the learning process. Furthermore, they should reduce their self-consciousness, as high rates of self-consciousness increases anxiety. Learners have not to think about unpleasant experiences faced during their foreign language acquisition, and try to broaden their focus of attention to be able to learn more. Moreover, they must build up self-confidence as self-image has a considerable impact on their learning process. They also have to reduce fear of public speaking by adequately preparing what they have to present.

Conclusion: Foreign language anxiety is one of the educational issues of great interest in modern language theory. It has proved to have a considerable impact on foreign language learning, and teachers have the role of alleviating its bad effects and so facilitate learning. Teachers are to create a friendly and relaxed classroom atmosphere that encourages risk-taking. To this end, teachers should focus on teaching meaningful language content in response to learners' needs and interests in

a positive, supportive learning environment so as to offer affective and effective experiences to foreign language learners.

Lesson 07

Reflection Question: Classroom Implications

- MI theory could explain the relative ease of some learners in some language skills and tasks.
- MI is used in FL education by showing how each intelligence relates to certain demands in the classroom.
- Teachers understand learners' classroom behavior and reasons for success.
- Teachers decide about teaching/assessment activities to cater for learners' needs (in a flexible learning environment)
- To help learners integrate classroom activities in a motivated way.
- Learners concentrate more and learn more since the activities are appealing to their needs and preferences
- Absence of mismatch between learners' needs and teaching methodology
- Learners learn to work with intelligences in which they are less developed (style stretching).
- Chen (2004) believes that “ the goal of education is not to teach MI but see them as tools achieve educational goals.
- Ultimately, learners are more likely to achieve success.
- Study skills are important in a student's life
- It is important to include learning strategies instruction in language learning, to respond to students' talents and abilities.
- Teachers have to vary tasks and methodologies to cater for needs of all types of learners.
- Teacher training should take into consideration the psychological aspect of teaching/learning.
- More cooperation between teachers and psychologists is needed.
- It is preferable for learners to work with intelligences in which they are less developed and should appreciate the value of working with people of varied intelligence profiles. Additionally, by being aware of the different

intelligence profiles of themselves, their classmates, their teachers, and others and by appreciating the benefits of learning with people of different profiles, students celebrate Diversity.

Task 1: Comments on the video

- The aim of the video is to show the significance of delaying gratification in developing one's emotional intelligence.
- The video illustrates how young kids resisting the temptation of eating the marshmallow develop into better learners and stronger people than those lacking self-discipline.
- The kids with self-discipline adopt distraction strategies to waste time and avoid looking at the marshmallow, for the sake of getting a better reward.
- Self-discipline on the basis of delayed gratification has short-term and long-term benefits.
- Learners, in any discipline, have to be made aware of the necessity of self-regulation to achieve success as learners and as future citizens.
- Parents (and teachers) do have an important role to play in inculcating self-discipline by promoting delayed gratification and by being positive models themselves.

Task 2: Conclusion

- EI explains why some persons are more skilled than others despite similar cognitive skills.
- People who develop EI understand and express their emotions, recognize emotions in others, regulate affect, and use moods and emotions to motivate adaptive behavior (become self-actualised). Otherwise, they will suffer different social and emotional problems (they may be slaves of their emotions).

- Appropriate management of students' emotions is necessary for teachers to enable them to help their students make their emotions work.
- The creation of a positive environment should be the concern of teachers through group cohesion, better teacher-learner relationship, showing interest in student learning processes, teachers will inspire trust, confidence, and motivation
- If learners are helped to express their emotions and set individual goals, they become more socially competent, personally effective, and better coping with life frustrations.
- Train learners in self-evaluation regularly (weekly, monthly) so that they can review their strategies and set new objectives.
- It is more relevant because it can be a powerful predictor of how successful a person can be successful in life and it has been maintained that if children are appropriately taught, it can be increased (they become more socially competent, personally effective, better coping with life frustrations.
- Learners become better self-aware, self-regulated and autonomous.
- When people approach life tasks with ET, they are at advantage for solving problems adaptively.

SEMESTER 02
LESSONS

LESSON 01 PRINCIPLES OF EFFECTIVE TEACHING AND LEARNING

In order to identify principles of effective teaching and learning, it is essential to identify learners' needs.

1/ Identifying Learners' Needs: Why? and How?

It is widely accepted that learners' needs have to be identified before designing a language course, or before making decisions about content selection, organization, and presentation. Teachers' awareness of learners' needs, requirements, and interests is essential for an effective teaching and learning. Noessel (2003) explains that the needs of a learner represent the gap between what the learner wants to get out of the learning experience and his current state of knowledge, skill, and enthusiasm

What are learners' types of needs?

Learners' needs are generally classified into 04 categories:

a) Cognitive Needs

They concern their current aptitude level and past learning experiences. Considering learners' cognitive needs consists in asking them what they already know? What they need to know? Why do they study English? Are teaching aids available?. It also consists in asking good questions, getting help from experts, practicing problem solving, thinking independently, processing new information, and using learning resources

b) Social Needs

Learning is a social process that requires interpersonal interaction and a cooperative environment. Learners' needs should be considered within the context of their current physical, social, intellectual, and emotional development, classroom and school environment. Also, one should take into consideration the special nature of their communicative, social, and cultural beliefs, in addition to communicating with peers, giving and receiving support, experiencing external motivation, interacting while problem-solving, and managing time and tasks.

c) Affective Needs

It concerns attaining objectives. It also concerns developing motivation and positive attitudes, reflecting and self-assessment, being open to feedback from others, learning in a motivating environment where their self-image is preserved

d) Psychomotor Needs

The focus is on physical and kinesthetic forms of learning, and having access to equipment and tools. It involves communicative skills, such as speaking, computer manipulation in addition to being in a comfortable setting.

Why should we identify learner needs and how?

Learners are different (because of age, gender, aptitude, personality) and bring to the learning situation different past learning experiences. In learner-centred education, teachers should consider learners' level of knowledge and skill development before beginning instruction. It is important to determine the readiness of learners to the particular type of instruction and develop the strategies that would help them reach educational objectives.

How can these needs be identified?

Learners' needs can be collected via various procedures and strategies:

- *Classroom observation*: experienced teachers often rely on their own experience with learners' face expressions, behaviour, questions, and interaction...
- *Questionnaires* about lessons, activities, texts, ...etc, and shy learners can respond anonymously
- *Interviews*: oral or written, formal or informal. Learners negotiate with the teacher the choice of elements that fit them best.
- *Learning journals*: learners keep journals, on which they relate their learning experiences regularly and reflect on their learning process, and so they are more aware and there is continuous contact between teachers and learners.

- *Discuss course content with learners* (analysing the syllabus): to build their awareness of what is required from them and elicit any difficulties/lacks
- *Pre-assessment*: at the beginning of the course, unit, or chapter, to determine learners' readiness
- *Collaborative needs analysis*: Teachers may exchange ideas and teaching experiences, suggestions, and solutions, either in the same school or in seminars, study days, online conferences...

Ultimately, the teacher considers learners' different needs in order to take decisions in terms of objectives, methodology, and type of interaction. The teacher opts for a flexible and eclectic methodology that copes with different situations/learners.

2/ Effective Learning

a) What is learning?

According to Brown (1990, p.7), learning is acquiring knowledge, retaining information or skill in memory; it involves active thinking and practice and causing a change in behavior. It is also getting knowledge of a subject or a skill by study or experience. Many authors consider learning as a process that combines cognitive, emotional, and environmental influences and experiences in order to acquire, enhance, or make changes in one's knowledge, skills, values, and world views. "We define learning as the transformative process of taking in information that—when internalized and mixed with what we have experienced—changes what we know and builds on what we do. It's based on input, process, and reflection. It is what changes us." (From *The New Social Learning* by Tony Bingham and Marcia Conner)

b) What are the principles of effective learning?

Effective learners are known for their ability to link new ideas to older ones and build new ideas through critical thinking. They move from concrete to abstract thinking, and they engage into practicing what they learn (they move from theory to

practice). Learning is effective when there is feedback and when learners are self-confident; that is when there is a combination of intellectual ability, learning preferences, and personality characteristics. Also, learning is effective when learners are provided with a variety of learning models to develop their learning habits

c) What are the strategies used by effective learners?

Different learners have different types of style and strategies for successful learning, and it is agreed on that good learners use a large range of strategies in language learning more frequently and appropriately. Good learners are often reported to find a learning style that suits them best by adapting or modifying strategies they encounter, take in charge their own learning (self-regulation, responsibility, and autonomy), and they participate actively inside and outside the classroom. In addition, according to many researches and studies have demonstrated that effective learners are creative, problem solvers, and have tolerance of ambiguity. They learn to make intelligent guesses, they learn different styles of speech and writing, they use contextual cues to help them in comprehension, and they use linguistic knowledge of first language in learning the second language. They are also known for their perseverance and high aspirations

Remark: According to many authors (Rubin, Wenden, Oxford, Chamot..), learners' individual learning style and preferences influence the type of learning strategies that they use. For example, extroverts prefer social strategies, while introverts use metacognitive strategies.

Reflection Questions:

- ***What are your best / worst learning strategies?***
- ***Prodromou (1992) believes that 'the bad learner is just a myth, and all learners are willing to learn and don't like to fail'. Comment***

3/ Effective Teaching:

a) What is teaching?

Teaching means imparting knowledge or skill. It involves a teacher and a learner interacting over a subject in a setting. Teaching means to give someone knowledge, or to instruct, or train (Cambridge International Dictionary of English). Teaching is the process of attending to people's needs, experiences and feelings, and making specific interventions to help them learn particular things. Most importantly, teaching is the activity of facilitating learning. It is often defined as an art, a science and a profession.

b) What is effective teaching?

There are general factors leading to effective teaching.

Conditions before: These concern teachers' knowledge of language, of other subjects, and knowledge of teaching and learning (professional competence presupposes subject-matter knowledge and pedagogy), teacher certification (degree) and teaching experience, as well as teacher preparation and training.

In class: These concern the clarity of presentation (eg. Verbal ability) and building on prior knowledge. Teacher enthusiasm and good teacher-learner relationship are equally important. Teachers should also strive to motivate, acknowledge, and praise learners' effort, while minimising criticism and giving necessary feedback. Besides, teachers should provide learners with adequate learning conditions, balancing formative and summative assessment, and guiding them to answer and interact. Ultimately, they should work for promoting self-reflection and evaluation (metacognitive strategies)

Out of class: These concern reflective teaching or the ability to observe and think critically. This can be attained through keeping teaching journals, writing lesson reports, opting for collaborative teaching, and adjusting perceptions about teacher and learner roles.

c) What are the characteristics of good/bad teachers?

Educationalists often maintain that there is no fixed formula for good teaching and that different people make good teachers for different reasons. In an article published in 1991 (English Teaching Forum), Prodromou reports the results of a survey designed to discover students' views of good and bad language teachers. Some of the students' answers were as follows:

The good teacher	The badteacher
Friendly -Let the students do it by themselves - We did the lesson together - Talked about other subjects - Played games -Told jokes - Asked students' opinions, there was a dialogue -She was like an actress, pretended a lot - She believed in me, made me believe in myself -Was very experienced -She made grammar clear -She gave advice - She used questions a lot - She tried to communicate - She asked all students questions - we did experiments, practical work - She gave me a lot of books to read - She was funny - She made sure everyone understood -Took out (elicited) things we know	Very strict - Didn't let us speak - She was fixed in a chair - Shouted (for no reason) -Didn't discuss other problems - Didn't smile -She stared at you and you couldn't say a word even you wanted to - He just showed us a grammar rule and we forgot it - Very nervous (bad tempered) -She spoke flat - There was a distance from us - We didn't do experiments - His tests were too difficult - Like a machine - Sarcastic and ironic -You couldn't laugh, you couldn't speak - He was the teacher, I was the student - No communication, nothing -He had a blacklist and said "you, you, you" - She made me feel anxious

Task 1: Classify learners' answers into categories and then make a list of good/bad teacher characteristics.

Task 2: Discuss the following quote: "If he (the teacher) is indeed wise, he does not bid you enter the house of his wisdom, but rather leads you to the threshold of your own mind" (Khalil Gibran, 1923, p.56).

Extra reading:For further information on teacher roles, read Harmer's book, chapter6

[https://www.academia.edu/25472823/The Practice of English Language Teaching 4th Edition - Jeremy Harmer](https://www.academia.edu/25472823/The_Practice_of_English_Language_Teaching_4th_Edition_-_Jeremy_Harmer)

LESSON 2 STRATEGIES FOR TEACHING DIFFERENT TYPES OF LEARNERS

Introduction

It is important for teachers to understand learners' styles, strategies and individual differences in order to devise appropriate teaching strategies. Teachers should show learners and care about their individual needs, goals, and preferences, using supportive strategies. What strategies can be then used in the classroom to teach learners according to their age, aptitude, gender, or different intelligences? On the basis on the characteristics and needs of every learner category discussed in previous lessons, teachers take appropriate decisions about what to teach and how to teach.

1) Age:

a- For Adults learners:

On the basis of their particular characteristics, teachers should treat them like the adults they are. They should consider and acknowledge the technological gap; most adult learners are not technology literate as younger ones. They should also be aware of their classroom skills; mainly if they have not been to school for a long period of time. Practically speaking, they have to involve their abstract thinking and their past experiences, and involve them actively in class as they are autonomous and goal-oriented. They may equally show them how instruction is relevant to their goals and how relevant it is to their careers. Overall, they must serve as facilitators rather than as teachers.

b- .For Adolescents

Adolescents are particularly known for their creativity, imagination, and love for activity, teachers should be team leaders rather and role- models rather than authority. In practical terms, they should show care in their interests, get them moving around when possible, and send them to the board. They should organize pair and group work, and give them some freedom in choosing topics for oral discussion/writing tasks, or for productive and receptive skills in general.

c- For young learners

Young learners are often known to rely on their five senses for learning, be keen on concrete learning and seeking the teacher's attention. Therefore, teachers are recommended to be clear and direct when they speak; use one or two word commands, be animated and lively, use realia, include physical actions and perform emotions. They should also include meaningful games and songs to enhance their imagination and creativity, while teaching vocabulary and grammar rules for example. As young learners get easily bored and have a short attention span, teachers should always have back-up plans to move to other activities when they lose interest. Most importantly, they should constantly praise their effort.

2) Different aptitude (mixed ability classes)

For mixed ability classes (as most classes are) , teachers should organize individual, pair and group work. They have to assign tasks with varying difficulty, moving from easy to complex or difficult. However, through their daily observations, they should identify students with specific needs; these needs can be physical, behavioural, cognitive, or developmental.

3) Gender (favour gender equity)

In what concerns gender differences in the language classroom, teachers, ought to give all students equal attention in instruction, feedback and advising. For example, they could include female experiences in reading/listening sessions. What is important to keep in mind is to monitor classroom discussion to give fair opportunities for interaction to all learners in speaking sessions or debates, and never encourage competition between girls and boys.

4) For Different intelligences:

a- Visual learners

For visual learners, teachers can use maps, diagrams, or webs to organize materials, highlight and colour code books or notes, write a checklist of needed formulas, or commonly misspelled words, or see the board to note important information.

b- Auditory learners

For auditory learners, teachers can ask for oral summaries, or have them tape-record themselves and then discuss. They can also encourage them to read material aloud.

c- Kinesthetic/tactile learners

For kinesthetic/tactile learners, teachers can use role play or use some form of body movement to teach lessons. Students can move objects around to act/ dramatise a concept, or be encouraged to imagine scenes in which they practice the lesson. They can equally have learners take notes while reading.

d- Interpersonal/intrapersonal learners

For this type of learners, teachers should vary activities requiring individual, pair, and group work, provide practice in the 4 skills, as well as include role play and group discussion.

e- Linguistic learners

Teachers have to provide this category of learners with activities involving verbal interaction through discussion, asking questions, teaching others, and vocabulary activities. In other words, language activities are the focus.

f- Logical/Mathematical

They can include activities involving multistep processes, data collection, and problem-solving.

Task: Add strategies for every category; for more information, see the following article on 'Adapting instruction to multiple intelligences'

<https://www.scholastic.com/teachers/articles/teaching-content/adapting-instruction-multiple-intelligences/>

5/ Conclusion:

To conclude, learners vary greatly and so they should be taught and assessed through different types of activities. Accordingly, lesson content and methodology may be modified to suit different types of learners. Besides, educational practices should be fair with all types of learners, providing them with a safe learning environment in which their individuality is respected. Finally, the teacher has to perform different roles; therefore, pre-services and in-service teacher training is extremely important.

Task 2: What would you add to the conclusion? Make your own synthesis about learners' needs, effective learning, and effective teaching

LESSON 3

MANAGING CLASSROOM INTERACTION

PART 1: A SUPPORTIVE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

Introduction

“The classroom is the crucible _ the place where teachers and learners come together and language learning, we hope, happens”

(Gaies, 1980 cited in Allright and Bailey, 1991, p.18).

According to many authors, what happens in the classroom will certainly determine what learning opportunities learners will get (Allwright& Bailey, 1991; Gaies, 1980; Woods, 1991, 1996).It is a fact that classrooms go beyond theory applications. They involve cognitive, affective, social, cultural, and intercultural dimensions.Thus, diversity and complexity are fundamental elements of language teaching and learning, and since classrooms are said to be social environments – places for social interaction- , they are often affected by different sources of influence mainly related to beliefs and cultural norms. Finally, and as Freeman (1989) posits, teaching is a *dynamic decision-making process*.

1) A Motivating Classroom Atmosphere

Teachers should set the conditions for a motivating classroom atmosphere, in physical and psychological terms. In addition, their teaching should be both planned and flexible. Therefore, the following points have to be taken into consideration.

a) Physical environment:

One of teacher’s roles is to create conditions for learning. To begin with, classroom management areas include grouping and seating learners, using tools and techniques (board, body language...), and introducing technological tools (online and offline).

It also includes arranging the physical setting: inviting and comfortable classrooms, with enough light and aeration. The classrooms may even be decorated with attractive items related to learners’ lessons (maps, charts...). In a word, the educational material should be readily accessible to learners.

b) Psychological environment:

To promote students engagement and learning, and create a safe and motivating classroom climate teachers first accept all students and accept variation. They should also promote community in the classroom (using ‘we’, ‘our work’, ‘our aim...’), and develop a good teacher-learner and learner-learner relationship. It is equally advisable that they show care about students’ lives, interests and ideas, and respect culture, traditions, and values. Besides, they have to encourage student participation and interaction, and value improvement and not outcomes (that is to focus on *process* rather than *product*). Moreover, they should display positive attitude and enthusiasm while teaching, and encourage learner intrinsic motivation, while also providing helpful feedback with fewer criticisms.

c) Planning and flexibility:

Lessons are a combination of planned and unplanned activities. The teachers cannot plan everything students would do or say. It follows that they have to orchestrate and control classroom interaction and communication, by observing learners’ need, difficulties and improvement, and then modifying lessons accordingly. Teachers are often advised to be consistent and proactive, and strike a balance between variety and challenge in student activities. Also, they have to establish routines and procedures to limit disruption and time taken away. Basically, teachers should, from the beginning of the year, set expectations about study strategies/ in-class behavior and participation/ homework and papers submission. However, they should also anticipate potential problems, and increase student engagement in learning. Equally important for teachers is to involve learners in decision-making about lessons in order to raise their awareness, responsibility, and autonomy.

Extra reading: *Successful teaching and learning is based on a good teacher-learner relationship. Consider the following link:*

<https://www.waterford.org/education/teacher-student-relationships/>

PART 2: MAIN PRINCIPLES

1) Teacher and Learner Roles (Teacher-talk vs. student-talk)

Teachers are active participants in the learning process and not mere technicians. They do not cause learning directly; they rather provide the conditions for learning to take place. Consequently, the way teachers talk to learners is a key element in organizing and facilitating learning, mainly in L2 situation, since the teacher is also a source for language learning (a model for input). Thus, the provision of comprehensible input and alleviating Foreign Language Anxiety are essential for learning to take place. This means providing learners with content they are likely to understand, using the appropriate metalanguage (that is the language used to explain different language concepts). It is equally important to alleviate learners' anxiety (see the lesson about foreign language anxiety).

In fact, there is a debate over Teacher Talk Time (TTT) and Student Talk Time (STT). TTT is often estimated to 20 to 30% of the lesson while the rest of time is devoted to STT. Communication and Interaction- based approaches to ELT suggest giving learners more opportunities to talk, but at the same time these learners need input. This is why teachers should strike a balance between their talk-time and that of their students. Teachers are often the source of language content and the model for pronunciation; however, learners may have only the classroom setting to practice the language.

In addition, teachers' beliefs exert an influence on their teaching decisions and practices. These beliefs originate from different sources: their personality, past learning and teaching experiences, culture. According to their beliefs, teachers take decisions about what and how to teach, and how to deal with their learners. It is important to note that there may be mismatches between teachers' and learners' beliefs, and this may constitute an obstacle for effective teaching and learning.

2) Type of instruction and methodology

In what relates to the type of instruction and methodology, teachers should set general and specific lesson objectives. They have to assign learners tasks to be done

individually, in pairs, or in groups, as well as use different types of activities and ask different types of questions to encourage inductive and deductive reasoning.

In practical terms, they should elicit answers or information from learners, using **wh-** and **yes/ no** questions. Generally, when learners have difficulties in understanding, **wh-**questions can be transformed into **yes/no** questions to minimize linguistic demands on learners and to help learners answer and participate in the discourse (in fact, involving learners in questions is better than giving lectures). In order for explanation, teachers ought to give clear instructions, starting with what learners already know to relate old information with new ones. Teachers play the role of models; in addition, they scaffold learners' efforts until they arrive to the desired objectives. Besides, they have to encourage thinking processes, provide appropriate challenges and encourage risk-taking, and encourage turn-taking behavior, though this may be difficult with large classes. Monitoring is highly recommended in classroom interaction and management too; this consists in initiating classroom discussions, maintaining eye-contact with as many learners as possible, walking around, checking understanding and noting those who need additional help ...

Reflection Question: *Choosing the right language of instruction in the second or foreign language classroom has long been a topic of debate. Which language should be used (L1 or foreign language), and why?*

3) Feedback and error treatment

Providing feedback is undeniably vital in any classroom as learners need to know when they are right or wrong, and it prevents them the fossilization of their errors. However, feedback and correction should not be embarrassing for learners; negative feedback engenders frustration and inhibition. Teachers take decisions about *when* and *how* to provide feedback for learners. In addition, feedback essentially requires a regular analysis of learners' errors and needs.

4) Teacher Self-reflection and Self-evaluation

Managing classroom interaction and teaching effectively requires from teachers not only to observe learners and evaluate their progress, but also to observe, reflect on, and evaluate their own teaching. Observation is one of the crucial roles of a teacher. It enables the teachers to gather as much information as possible on learners' aptitude, motivation, and needs. It also enables the teachers to evaluate their own content organization and presentation, their teaching and assessment practices, as well as their classroom management skills. This could be achieved through different techniques: asking the learners themselves, observing their interaction and their reaction to the different tasks, evaluating learners' progress quantitatively and qualitatively, asking colleagues to attend their classes, and holding a teaching journal/diary.

Extra reading: The following link about 'Writing a teaching diary' will help you reflect on and evaluate your own teaching including classroom management:

https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/sites/teacheng/files/teaching_diary.pdf

PART 3: CHALLENGES

Throughout their career, teachers often encounter different challenges while attempting to manage their classrooms. Before thinking about possible solutions, one should first understand the reasons of these challenges. The challenges are of different kinds:

1) Material/administrative

Basically, these concern unsuitable classrooms, lack of resources: books, materials and equipment, having to move from room to another, and so wasting time, as well as maintaining relationships with colleagues, administrative staff and learners' parents.

2) Pedagogical

Pedagogical challenges relate to different aspects of teaching. Some teachers may face difficulties in explaining new or difficult concepts, or in time management, that is not being able to finish the lesson/ tasks in the required time. Others may find it difficult to perform different roles at the same time: observer, knowledge provider, assessor.... Dealing with cultural issues can also be challenging; for example, a possible clash may arise between the local culture and the target culture. Besides, teachers can face hardship in having to deal with learners who differ in many ways (gender, aptitude, styles, strategies...), training learners to work independently (in-class or out-of-class), or having to improve their students' learning outcomes (when learners cannot achieve the desired objectives). In the end, having to manipulate new technology can equally be a hurdle.

3) Large classes:

Large classes constitute a challenge for both teachers and learners. Learners often get a limited teacher attention; they also have limited opportunities for interaction and participation. In addition, meeting learners' needs is difficult because of learners' diversity, and even assessing students' work is difficult both for on-going evaluation and end-of-term tests/exams. Besides, noisy classes may be disturbing for both teachers and learners; this requires from the teacher to have good organization and clear routines

4) Discipline/behaviour problems

Learners usually manifest some discipline/behavior issues such as learners' absenteeism or arriving late, not doing their homework, or not being interested /motivated in class. Other behavior problems concern disruptive, disrespectful, or violent learners, as well cases of plagiarism or cheating in exams

5) Learners with special needs

This includes learners with physical disabilities (blindness or deafness), learning disabilities (such as dyslexia and slow pace learning), emotional or behavioural needs (such as anxiety and violence), communication and interaction needs (Attention Deficit and Hyperactivity Disorder and Autism).

This link may be help you reflect on different challenges and ways of meeting them: <https://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/blogs/soniam/some-classroom-management-problems-their-reasons-solutions>

A few examples of solutions for each category:

Teachers are advised to attempt the following solutions

a) Administrative:

Learn to work collaboratively with teachers in your team. Collaborative teaching serves not only to exchange lessons, activities, and material, but also to exchange problem-solving strategies and is part of the self-reflection process.

b) Pedagogical:

Prepare the lesson thoroughly. Also, prepare extra activities and extra examples to illustrate the different rules. Do not plan for too many activities in one session.

c) Large classes:

Train learners to work in pairs and groups. Develop their self-reflection and self-evaluation skills; for example, by using appropriate self-evaluation grids. Divide learners into sub-groups to which you will give opportunities for turn-taking by addressing a different group each session.

d) Discipline/behavior problems:

Set clear rules of conduct from the first session. Build a strong teacher-learner relationship and a positive learning environment where learners feel they are taken care of. Be firm and consistent when dealing with discipline problems. Also keep in mind that when much instruction is going on, learners will have less time to be distracted.

e) Learners with special needs:

Identify learners' needs right from the beginning of the year. Work in collaboration with the administration and parents.

Conclusion:

Task: Draw appropriate concluding remarks about a successful classroom interaction.

Extra Reading: Consider the following book that will help you build knowledge about teaching by Jackson (2009)

'Never work harder than your students and other principles of great teaching'

[https://mindstepsinc.com/wpcontent/uploads/woocommerce_uploads/Never Work Harder Than Your Students Mindsteps.pdf](https://mindstepsinc.com/wpcontent/uploads/woocommerce_uploads/Never_Work_Harder_Than_Your_Students_Mindsteps.pdf)

LESSON 4 **TEACHING CRITICAL THINKING AND PROBLEM SOLVING SKILLS (1)**

PART 1: Understanding Critical Thinking and Problem Solving

Introduction:

Learning is much more than memorizing. According to Bruner (1966), “learning is a process, not a product”. Learners also need to learn independent problem-solving and critical thinking skills, because they must discover, analyse, and manipulate information. Discovery learning stirs students’ interest, spurring them to proceed to work until they find answers. Overall, critical thinking and problem-solving skills equip learners with strategies to deal with problems in school and real-life settings, and so prepare learners for 21st c requirements.

1) Critical Thinking Defined

Critical thinking comes from a Greek word meaning “discerning judgment based on standards”. It assumes that the capacity for good reasoning. It involves analysing, assessing and reconstructing information, and arriving to conclusions, on the basis of arguments and evidence. Critical thinking is the art of taking charge of our mind, so it pre-supposes self-reflection, monitoring, and self-evaluation. It entails effective communication, problem solving, and decision-making. It preserves human thinking from subjectivity, over-generalisations, and narrowness. It can be nurtured and developed by an educational process. It is a necessary skill required in and outside the classroom setting

2) Qualities of critical thinkers

It is important to note that critical thinkers are observed to have the ability to perceive and understand the world around them, and to consider facts and ideas from different angles. They are good listeners, and communicate with others to find solutions; they are also known for their curiosity, self-confidence and self-discipline. In addition, they are creative, they challenge pre-conceptions, and generate new ideas (that is they have the ability to think outside the box). Moreover, they raise vital questions and formulate them clearly, they are open-minded, and

they are flexible in considering alternatives and opinions. They draw insightful, reasonable conclusions and thoroughly explain assumptions and reasons. Most importantly, they have empathy, humility, and willingness to reconsider and revise views when necessary.

3) Problem Solving Defined

Problem solving is the analysis and solutions of tasks/situations that are complex or ambiguous and that pose difficulties or obstacles of some kind (Mayer & Wittrock, 2006). It is also needed everywhere. In class, the teacher challenges learners with activities for which they are encouraged to use their mental skills/prior knowledge to arrive to the required answers/solutions.

4) Qualities of problem-solvers:

Problem solvers are known for different qualities such as first being critical thinkers and having reasonable expectations. They are also known for exploring their options and finding new and productive ways to deal with new problems as they arise. Socially speaking, they can easily connect with people. In addition, they know the difference between complex and simple thinking; this involves knowing when to do asystematic and complex thinking and when to go through short cuts and find an easy solution. Besides, they apply problem-solving techniques in domains other than learning (in daily life).

5) Common obstacles to problem-solving:

Researchers have described a number of mental obstacles that can interfere with our ability to solve a problem quickly and efficiently; among them are the following (according to Cherry, 2020):

- **Assumptions:** When dealing with a problem, people often make assumptions about the constraints and obstacles that prevent certain solutions.

- **Problem representation:** This comes when there is inability to understand the problem; for example, when students understand exam questions in a wrong way
 - **Irrelevant or misleading information:** When one is trying to solve a problem, it is important to distinguish between information that is relevant to the issue and irrelevant data that can lead to faulty solutions.
 - **Functional fixedness:** This is when there is no flexibility in ideas or functional fixedness that prevents people from fully seeing all of the different options that might be available to find a solution.
 - **Confirmation Bias:** The tendency to only search for or interpret information that confirms a person's existing ideas. People misinterpret or disregard data that doesn't align with their beliefs.
 - **Mental set:** It is the tendency people have to only use solutions that have worked in the past rather than looking for alternative ideas. A mental set limits creativity and can also lead to inflexibility, making it more difficult to find effective solutions.
 - **Paradigm Blindness:** This concerns people who are unwilling to adapt or change their worldview, outlook on a particular problem, or typical way of processing information. This can limit the effectiveness of problem solving techniques because they are not aware of the narrowness of their thinking, and therefore cannot think or act outside of their comfort zone.
- 6) **Strategies to assist problem-solving:** Many authors suggested diverse strategies to maintain and enhance problem-solving; among these strategies are problem-analysis, working backward, and analogical thinking. These strategies can be used inside and outside educational settings.

Problem-analysis:

That is dividing a problem into manageable sub-problems. The solution to each sub-problem contributes to the solution of the whole problem (e.g. A learner has

difficulties in learning a language. This difficulty is divided into categories: oral or reading comprehension, communication, and writing skills. So, every category is dealt with separately for in the end the solution to the sub-parts will contribute in solving the whole problem)

Working backward:

That is considering a problem from the last phase/ step to the first one. (For example, find out why students fail at exams: a student failed at exams –he did not revise well – he took bad notes during lessons—he has bad study habits and weak learning strategies)

Analogical thinking:

That is using knowledge or experience with similar features or structures to help unravel the problem at hand. Teachers can suggest helpful analogies. (e.g. raising a child is like planting a tree. If you put the seed in a fertile land and you water it regularly, the plant grows; otherwise it fades and dies. Similarly, a child needs a supportive environment where he receives continuous care). In other words, detecting similarities between problems can guide us to attempt similar successful solutions. A common example that could be cited is learning a new foreign language (L4) can be similar to learning previous foreign languages (L2 or L3).

Reflection question: Teaching critical thinking and problem-solving skills is essential for quality education. Think of few strategies to teach these skills in the language classroom.

LESSON 5 TEACHING CRITICAL THINKING AND PROBLEM SOLVING SKILLS (2)

PART 2 Principles and Strategies for Teaching Critical Thinking and Problem

Solving

Introduction:

Critical thinking is a high priority in tertiary education. Critical thinking skills are important for autonomous thinking and problem solving in learners' professional and personal lives. They can be introduced and promoted in the language classroom for all ages, through different activities and in the different language skills. In simple terms, critical thinking and problem-solving can be taught and learned. Therefore, teachers have to be trained to incorporate thinking, learning and language skills in a harmonious fashion. Thinking and problem-solving skills can be incorporated in daily lessons and classroom experiences, and instruction has to be student-centred and based on group interaction.

1) Principles for teaching critical thinking skills

In order to teach critical thinking and problem solving effectively, teachers should keep in mind a number of recommendations (as adapted from Tatsumi, 2018). First, teachers should start early: it is important to tailor activities according to the learners' developmental age and level, but it is possible to have them use their brains as early as possible. Second, they should not answer their questions right away: give them time to find the answers on their own. Alternatively, they can have them work in pairs or groups and try to find the answers together. They ought to stimulate students' critical thinking by asking *convergent and divergent questions* (Convergent questions seek one or more specific correct answers while Divergent questions seek a variety of correct answers). They also have to be a model for transforming ideas into well-formulated questions and answers, and allow them to ask questions to the teacher and their classmates, to motivate inquisitive students and encourage brainstorming and open discussions.

Examples of questions: - Explain why/how ...?; - How does ... tie in with what we have learned before?; - Compare ... and ... with regard to ...?; - Do you agree or disagree with this statement? What evidence is there to support your answer?

Teachers should also strive to help students develop their own ideas, by providing scaffolding – techniques/strategies to help them move progressively towards their goals. This will contribute in achieving autonomy. Besides, they should encourage students to think in new ways; that is to develop their capacity to see associations and relationships between ideas, by helping them with necessary information, or helping them recall related data (previous personal experience in lessons/practice activities/homework).

Additionally, teachers have to avoid over-testing, and encourage learners to experience with different activities in a thought-provoking way. Emphasis should be on giving reasons for opinions rather than giving correct answers. Self-reflection, independent study and collaborative learning have to be promoted in the form of task-related group work, peer review, or debates. Also, practicing Role Playing (imagining they are someone else) calls upon stretching both their analytical and creative mind. When necessary, visual aids may help learners use different mental skills. What is particularly important is to provide feedback, assess and evaluate to what extent critical thinking goals are reached, and make learners aware of these evaluation criteria. This will help them to reflect on their own work and improve the quality of their thinking and writing.

2) Principles for Teaching problem-solving skills:

Teaching problem-solving skills should be done within a specific context, using real-life problems in explanations, examples, and exams. They should not be introduced or taught as independent, abstract skills. Teachers should help students understand the problem by first defining the goal. When a teacher succeeds at helping students answer the questions “what?” and “why?”, finding the answer to “how?” will be easier. Take enough time. Similarly, when planning a lesson, enough time has to be devoted for understanding the problem and defining the goal,

both individually and as a class. Errors have to be genuinely linked to misconceptions, and learners should be guided how to learn from their mistakes.

Learning has to be directed towards using information and skills to solve problems, and later transfer their skills and knowledge to solve problems in real-life situations. What is important to keep in mind is that the more different kinds of problems students learn to think about and solve in class, the more likely they will be able to solve problems in real life situations. Likewise, teachers ought to promote Project-Based Learning; this is a skill that is paramount for success in life beyond school. Projects also promote creativity and collaboration in class, for students will have to put their minds together and negotiate meaning, solve problems, and create something that will be the end product of the project. As they should always be models in the classroom, teachers should show and illustrate to students how to be patient and persistent and how to follow a structured method.

3) Strategies for Teaching Critical Thinking and Problem-solving:

The following are some suggestions for an effective and practical teaching of critical thinking and problem-solving.

Example 1: *A strategy suggested by Bransford & Stein (1993) consists of the following steps:*

- 1- Identify problems and opportunities (resources):** List what is known about the problem, and identify the knowledge needed to understand (and eventually) solve it. Ideally, students will develop a mental image of the problem at hand during this stage.
- 2- Define goals and represent the problem:** Be sure that students understand what they are expected to find. Students need to determine by themselves the required background knowledge from illustrations, examples and problems covered in the course.
- 3- Explore possible strategies:** One key aspect in problem solving is teaching students how to select, interpret, and use units and symbols. Help students to choose the best strategy by reminding them again what they are required to find. Plan a solution. Choose the best strategy.

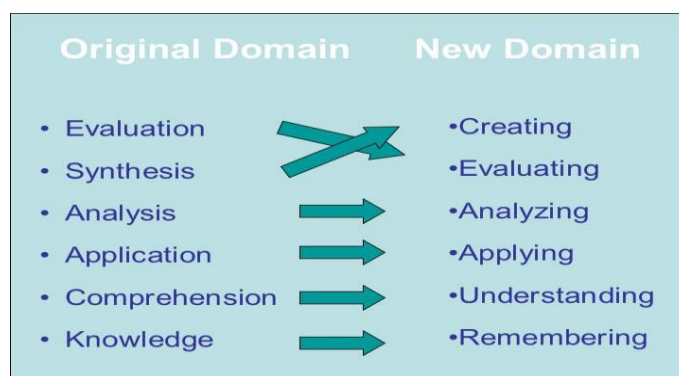
4- Anticipate outcomes: Help students to consider from the beginning what a logical type of answer would be. What characteristics will it possess? Carry out the plan

5- Look back and learn: Encourage students to reflect. Once a solution has been reached, students should ask themselves the following questions:

- a. Does the answer make sense?
- b. Does it fit with the criteria established in step 1?
- c. Did I answer the question(s)?
- d. What did I learn by doing this?
- e. Could I have done the problem another way?

Example 2: Consider the cognitive domain in Bloom's taxonomy of learning domains (initially suggested in 1956 and revisited by his students in 1990).

It involves knowledge and development of intellectual skills. It comprises six categories of cognitive processes. It offers a straightforward way to classify instructional activities as they advance in difficulty. Each level is related to a different level of cognitive ability. Teachers can then exploit this taxonomy to plan lessons in a way to introduce activities in the desired level of difficulty. It is important to note that critical thinking takes place when learners perform higher mental skills.



4) More Examples of Critical Thinking and Problem-Solving Activities

The following are activities promoting critical thinking and problem-solving. As it may be noticed, critical thinking and problem-solving can be promoted while teaching any language skill or content. Teachers can devise or adapt different activities, depending on the level of learners and the objectives of the course of the lesson.

Language activity: For activities that are about the language, teachers can have students categorize words (good for vocabulary learning), make comparisons, memorize or sequence (facts in a story, names), think of cause and effect, and so on.

Example of a role play activity: teachers can pair students up and have them research a conflict involving an interaction between two famous historical figures/ political leaders/ philosophers/ story heroes.... Then they lead them to decide which character they each choose to play. They will each have different points of view in this conflict. Students can be asked to discuss it until they can mutually explain the other's point of view. Their final challenge will be to each suggest a compromise.

Moral dilemma: Teachers can create a number of possible moral dilemmas students might encounter in life. They have to write them down, and place each item folded up in a bowl or bag. Each student will draw an item from the bag one by one, read it aloud, and then tell the class their answer on the spot as to how they would handle the situation. This can be a good activity in a speaking class.

Critical thinking through writing: Writing requires students to identify issues and formulate hypotheses and arguments. It requires them to focus and clarify their thoughts before putting them down on paper, hence taking them through the critical thinking process. Writing requires that students make important critical choices and ask themselves the following questions (Gocsik, 2002): *What information is most important?; What might be left out?; What is it that I think about this subject?; How did I arrive at what I think?; What are my*

assumptions? Are they valid?; How can I work with facts, observations, and so on, in order to convince others of what I think?; What do I not yet understand?

The above questions can be provided to students so that they can evaluate their own writing as well. Some suggestions for critical thinking writing activities include these ideas:

- Give students information/data and ask them to write an argument or analysis based on the data
- Have students explore and write about unfamiliar points of view or “what if” situations.
- Think of a controversy in your field, and have the students write a dialogue between characters with different points of view.
- Select important articles in your field and ask the students to write summaries or abstracts of them. Alternately, you could ask students to write a summary of your lecture.
- Develop a scenario that places students in realistic situations relevant to your discipline, where they must reach a decision to resolve a conflict.

(source: <https://uwaterloo.ca/centre-for-teaching-excellence/teaching-resources/teaching-tips/developing-assignments/cross-discipline-skills/promoting-assessing-critical-thinking>)

Conclusion:

Task: *Write an appropriate conclusion for the lesson, making your own synthesis*

LESSON 06

PROMOTING METACOGNITION

Introduction:

Current ESL and EFL contexts claim the importance of inculcating autonomy into learners in a way they become independent and responsible for their own learning. For such an objective, metacognition is believed to be an impetus for learners as they plan, monitor, and reflect over their learning. These ideals could be pedagogically put into practice through a self-regulated learning instruction.

1) Metacognition:

There is an asserted relationship between metacognitive knowledge and learning performance. Metacognition refers to ‘cognition about cognition’ or ‘knowing about knowing’ (Flavel, 1979). It includes knowledge about when and how to use particular strategies for learning or problem solving. It involves an awareness of one’s thinking, an active monitoring, and self-regulation of one’s cognitive processes, and an ability to retrieve learnt strategies in new contexts. More precisely, Scott and Levy (2013) indicate that metacognition involves the following components

- a- *Knowledge* of one’s and others’ cognitive processes
- b- *Planning* prior to performing a task
- c- *Monitoring* one’s own thinking, learning, and understanding while performing a task
- d- *Regulating and Controlling* one’s thinking by making proper adjustments to optimize performance
- e- *Evaluating* cognitive processes after a solution has been found

Therefore, metacognition is a higher order mental skill and should be part of any class. Teaching metacognition can be through explicit teaching of strategies, cooperative learning, and self-reflection. ‘Self-reflection’ refers to thinking about one’s own learning processes and tasks before, during, and after the learning

experience. Self-reflection is an undoubtedly important practice where learners evaluate their learning process and outcomes. However, it is found to work better when it involves interaction and discussion with teacher and peers. Moreover, teachers have to train learners how to reflect by giving helpful guidelines for the different language skills and tasks, and they should themselves model the use of these strategies. In addition, they should respond thoughtfully to students' reflections and comments. Teachers can also encourage learners to keep diaries or learning logs on which they note down and reflect on their learning experiences.

2) A few steps for promoting metacognition in class (as suggested by G. Conti, 2016):

- At the beginning of each lesson, ask the students how what they are going to learn may be useful/relevant to them (e.g. 'Why are we learning this?', 'How is this going to help you be better speakers of English?')
- On introducing a task, give an example of how you would carry out that activity yourself (be the model) and take them through your thought processes.
- At the end of a task, ask students to self-evaluate with the help of another student (functioning as a moderator or a neutral participant, rather than a peer assessor) using a checklist of questions, the use of which you would have modelled through think-aloud beforehand. For example, for a conversation this could include: Were the answers always pertinent? Was there a lot of hesitation? Was there a good balance of nouns, adjectives and verbs? Were there enough opinions? Were there many mistakes with verbs? etc.
- Encourage student-generated metacognitive questioning by engaging students in group-work problem-solving activities, in which they ask metacognition-promoting questions. Such activities may include: (1) inductive grammar tasks to figure out how the rules governing that structure work; (2) inferring the meaning of unfamiliar words in context; (3) Real life

- problem solving tasks such as planning a holiday and having to reserve tickets online, finding out a hotel that suits a pre-defined budget, etc.
- Get students, after completing a challenging task, to ask themselves questions like: “what did I find difficult about it?”; “Why? ”; “What did I not know?”, “What will I need to know next time?”.
 - On giving students back their corrected essays, scaffold self-monitoring skills by getting them to ask themselves: “Which of the mistakes I made in this essay do I make all the time?”, “Why?”, “What can I do to avoid them in the future?”; “What is that I am not sure about?”
 - Ask them, at the end of a lesson, to fill in a form or just write on a piece of paper to hand in to you the answer to the questions: “What activity benefitted me the most today? Why?”
 - Every now and then, at key moments in the term, get the students to ask themselves questions about the way they learn. For instance, ask them to reflect on what distracts them in class or at home and what one can do to eliminate those distracting factors; or what they do to reduce their anxiety.
 - At the beginning of each school year, to gain a valuable insight into their learning habits and issues, ask them to keep a concise reflective journal to write at end of each week (to elicit problems about their learning and what they or you can do to address them).

Extra reading: *The following article explains how teaching Metacognition improves learning, and gives a number of teaching tips.*

https://serc.carleton.edu/NAGTWorkshops/metacognition/teaching_metacognition.html

Conclusion:

Task: *Write an appropriate conclusion, making your own synthesis*

LESSON 07

FOSTERING LEARNER AUTONOMY

Learner autonomy is a life-long learning process. It is gaining more and more importance in education, giving learners a central role in the learning process. Autonomy presupposes learners to take in charge their own learning and not to rely on the teacher as the only source of knowledge. It is an ideal in modern education for many reasons: the increasing numbers of students, mixed-ability classes, teachers not being able to give equal attention to all, increasing importance of technology in education, and the challenges of 21st century which require learners to be autonomous to become effective learners and then effective citizens.

Autonomous learners are self-regulated learners who have knowledge of effective learning strategies and how and when to use them. They are also responsible of their choices. They are motivated by learning itself and not by grades or others' appraisal (intrinsic motivation). They have both effective learning strategies and the motivation persistence to apply these strategies until a job is done to their satisfaction.

Learner autonomy does not eliminate the role of the teacher. The teacher plays an even more important role in guiding learners adopt the appropriate strategies that would lead them for better learning outcomes. Learner autonomy is an ideal that can be reached through the efforts of both teachers and learners. It requires, then, a skilled teacher who is likely to gear learners towards different sources of knowledge to learn independently during and after the course.

In the context of language learning, most authors agree that autonomy should be gradually fostered in learners. Nunan (2000) summarizes five levels of autonomy that integrate learning-to-learn tasks with learning content tasks as shown in the following table, and he introduces examples of these types of activities. According to Nunan (2000), these levels overlap and real benefits can be seen only by the end of the learning process.

Autonomy: Levels of Implementation (Nunan, 2000)

Level	Learner Action	Content	Process
1	Awareness	Learners are made aware of the pedagogical and content of the materials that they are using.	Learners identify strategy implications of pedagogical tasks and identify their own preferred learning styles /strategies
2	Involvement	Learners are involved in selecting their own goals from a range of alternatives on offer	Learners make choices among a range of options
3	Intervention	Learners are involved in modifying and adapting the goals and content of the learning programme	Learners modify/adapt tasks
4	Creation	Learners create their own goals and Objectives	Learners create their own Tasks
5	Transcendence	Learners go beyond the classroom and make links between the content of classroom learning and the world beyond	Learners become teachers and researchers

In general terms, teachers can foster learner autonomy **in class** by encouraging collaborative learning, critical thinking and problem-solving tasks, as well as by developing metacognitive skills (see strategies cited in previous lesson about metacognition).

As a reminder, these tips can be taken into consideration:

- Build upon the students' prior knowledge to make the content more relevant and learning easier and more efficient.
- Choose engaging contexts and topics that learners would find meaningful, authentic, and appealing to their interests.
- Create flexible tasks in which different answers might be accepted, and in which learners can make individual choices.
- Encourage collaborative learning, active learning and risk-taking.
- Get students to reflect on their learning and to assess themselves and their peers.
- Explain the rationale of tasks and assignments to help students understand how learning happens and make their future learning experiences more and more efficient.
- When possible, make use of technology to encourage learners work according to their own pace. This could be through computers, data show projection...

Learner autonomy can also be promoted **out of class** by giving learners homework, assignments, and even projects to be done individually or in groups. Learners would use different resources and rely on themselves to complete the tasks. They may be required to submit these assignments in written form or present them orally.

Possible challenges while implementing autonomous learning

- Teacher or learner resistance to the concept of learner autonomy because of the required efforts on the part of either the teacher or learners.
- Lack of appropriate conditions (classrooms, equipment, materials, media...)
- Big number of learners (crowded classes)

Conclusion:

Task: Write an appropriate conclusion for this lesson.

LESSON 8

SPECIAL NEEDS EDUCATION

Introduction

Every teacher is likely encounter a learner with a disability in one of their classes, so acquiring knowledge about this category of learners is of paramount importance for your teaching career. Special education is highly important for children with learning disabilities, because it gives them the chance to get quality education in line with their specific needs, and it allows every learner to attain autonomy and use their complete potential.

1) Understanding Special Needs Education

Special education, or special needs education, refers to the education of learners who display social, mental, or physical differences that necessitate adjustments in their schooling. A child is said to have special educational needs if they have learning difficulties or disabilities of some kind. A disability is any situation of the body or mind (impairment) that causes activity or interaction limitations.

Researchers often believe that causes and risk factors of special needs relate generally to: heredity, problems during pregnancy or birth, accidents after birth such as head injury, or social environmental factors (such as poverty). As opposed to special education, general education is also known as mainstream education. When special education classrooms and general special education classrooms mix, this is called an inclusive classroom. Special needs education is the practice of educating students in a way that accommodates their individual differences, disabilities, and special needs, using appropriate teaching procedures, adapted equipment and materials, and accessible settings. The primary purpose of special education is to enable special needs learners to access freely the public educational system. The special needs education aims to improve children's strengths and provide support for their weaknesses. Teachers' efforts are devoted to providing support and appropriate intervention to help these learners succeed in school and in life in general. Thus, educators modify teaching methods and strategies to cater for the needs of the

maximum number of learners in general education environments. It is noteworthy that though some scholars of education categorize gifted education under the umbrella of "special education, the term "special education" is generally used to specifically indicate instruction of disabled students.

2) **Types of Disabilities**

Many researchers have provided lists of types of learners' special education disabilities and needs (Siegel, 2003; Santrock, 2007; Seifert and Sutton, 2009; Defalco, 2013). In the following website (<https://www.fortbendisd.com/Page/669>), 13 kinds of disabilities are explained; the most important ones are categorized as follows:

a) **Physical disabilities**

Learners with sensory and/or physical needs face difficulty in managing their daily life without other people's help.

Auditory Impairment (AI): Means a hearing impairment that is so severe that the child is incapable of processing linguistic information through hearing, that affects highly a child's educational performance.

Deaf-Blindness (DB): Means the combination of hearing and visual impairments which cause severe communication and other developmental and educational needs.

Visual Impairment (VI): Means an impairment in vision that affects a child's educational performance. The term refers to both partial sight and blindness.

b) **Emotional/behavioural**

Learners with Social, Emotional and Mental Health Needs have difficulty to handle emotions and behavior.

Autism (AU): It is a developmental disability affecting verbal and nonverbal communication and social interaction, which highly affects a child's educational performance. Autistic learners are also observed to display repetitive activities and

stereotyped movements, resistance to environmental change, and awkward reactions to sensory experiences.

Emotional Disturbance (ED): refers to a condition in which the learner manifests an inability to learn that cannot be explained by intellectual, sensory, or health factors; an inability to build or maintain interpersonal relationships with peers and teachers; inappropriate types of behavior or feelings under ordinary circumstances; a mood of unhappiness or depression; and a tendency to develop fears associated with personal or school problems.

c) Learning/communication

Learners with Cognition and Learning Needs find learning, thinking and understanding harder than most of people which causes them to take longer time to learn important skills, to recall or memorize things such as the important words for reading, or to understand how to use letter sounds to read and spell words. Learners with Communication and Interaction Needs, also called speech, language and communication needs find interaction and communication with people difficult.

Learning Disability (LD): it refers to a disability in one or more of the basic psychological processes required in understanding or in using language. It can be observed in learners' disabilities in listening, thinking, speaking, reading, writing, or spelling.

Speech Impairment (SI): it refers to a communication disorder, such as stuttering, impaired articulation, language impairment, or a voice impairment, that highly impacts a child's educational performance.

These learners with special education needs can also cope with the curriculum requirements but they need extra help and support. It is thus necessary to understand their disabilities and be trained to cater for their different needs by adopting appropriate teaching strategies.

3) Assisting Students with Foreign Language Learning Difficulties:

According to Ganschow and Schneider (2006), students at-risk for failing to learn a foreign language can benefit from multisensory structured, explicit language instruction. Below are a few specific suggestions for foreign language teachers which can be effective in inclusive foreign language classrooms (<http://www.ldonline.org/article/22725>).

Teachers can adopt multisensory teaching strategies as follows:

- Using different input/output strategies — visual, auditory, tactile, and kinesthetic.
- Using several learning channels simultaneously (listening, speaking, reading, writing). To enhance memory.
- Teaching one or two new sounds and symbols at a time. The teacher serves as a model by showing mouth movements and tracing the letter pattern while saying and spelling the sound.
- Using visual aids when needed, such as picture clues for words, hand and mouth movements to illustrate a sound, or color coded endings to illustrate gender and subject/verb agreement.

Teachers should also use structured teaching strategies:

- Presenting concepts in a logical order, from simple to complex, and from frequently to less frequently used language patterns.
- Providing direct and explicit grammatical, syntactic, and morphological language patterns
- Providing opportunities for repeated practice and reviewing concepts frequently to facilitate their acquisition
- Providing guided pair work activities where strong students can work with weaker ones.
- Guiding and training learners to explain how language rules are used to develop their reflection and self-correction.
- Providing summaries and review of the lessons.

- When necessary, providing one-to-one or small group tutoring, extra time for language practice, or instruction in special classroom settings.

4) **Special education Challenges**

Special education may present challenges for both students and teachers.

For students, they may for example have difficulties in finding the appropriate and distraction-free learning environment for their particular needs. They may also need extra time to learn a foreign language concept and a slower pace of instruction; On other occasions, they may require extra tutoring in the language and explicit guidance about language concepts.

For teachers, they may need a particular training in methods of dealing with special needs of some students in their classrooms. They may equally require extra time and sources to set up a suitable classroom setting for learners with different needs and abilities. Additionally, they may need to collaborate with parents to provide extra assistance for at-risk learners at home.

In case of these challenges, both teachers and students need the government's funding and support to provide them with appropriate classrooms and materials to cater for learners' different needs. In addition, administrators should be flexible in setting criteria for foreign language study in school settings, such as providing more tutors, choosing schedules that allow for slowing the pace of foreign language instruction, suggesting ways to re-integrate students back into the regular classes, as well as implementing an alternative foreign language instructional program for students at-risk foreign language learners.

It is important to note that many experts advocate the early involvement of at risk learners into foreign language study. They recommend also that struggling students may need to take fewer courses or focus only on foreign language study, which can be a positive and culturally rich experience.

Conclusion

Task: write a suitable conclusion for the lesson

SUGGESTED EXTRA TASKS WITH ANSWERS

Task 1: Effective learning is a process and not a product. Discuss and illustrate in an EFL context

Answer

Explaining main concepts:

- Effective learning
- Learning as product
- Learning as process
- Teacher role to make of EFL learning a process and of a product

Examples of illustrations in an EFL context:

- Effective learning is a combination of intellectual ability, learning preferences, and personal characteristics. Effective EFL learning involves competence in the language and the development of appropriate learning and life strategies.
- Learning as a product involves passive learning and teacher-centredness (in that the teacher is the only source of exposure to the target language), rote learning of language rules, and focusing on short-term outcomes such as improving grades in EFL
- Learning as process involves the use of active learning strategies, critical thinking, problem-solving, self awareness, autonomy, self-regulated learning and metacognition in that learners are taught how to monitor their progress regularly, striving to achieve short and long term objectives(achieving competence in the EFL and developing strategies for effective citizenship), in addition to individualized instruction in which learners' differences, needs and preferences are taken into account.
- The role of the teacher is vital as a model not only for language using but also for strategies using and encouraging sense of initiative, collaborative learning and promoting learners' emotional intelligence

Task 2: Teaching is said to be a dynamic decision-making process. Explain and illustrate with reference to short-term and long-term learning objectives, in and EFL context.

Answer

Explaining main concepts:

Teacher roles: observer, needs analyst, knowledge and feedback provider, guide, learning facilitator

Dynamic decision-making: beyond competence in the subject-matter (EFL), the teacher takes appropriate decisions about what to teach (content) and how to teach (methodology) and to whom (learners' needs). These decisions change according to learners' differences in terms of age, aptitude, gender, and motivation. It is a dynamic process that requires from the teacher competence in the English language, flexibility, self-reflection and development.

Learner roles: active involvement in the learning process inside and outside the classroom setting, defining and monitoring attainable goals, showing a positive change in behaviour

Short-term learning objectives: These are limited in time (*short time span*), space (*classroom/ formal setting*), and scope (*producing a measurable change in behavior/ developing competence in English in its written, oral and interactional forms/ providing evidence improvement in tests and exams/improvement of achievement in English...*)

Long-term learning objectives: These are meant to develop at classroom level and beyond to last for life: using appropriate learning strategies, *developing critical thinking and problem-solving skills, promoting their emotional intelligence, training in metacognition and autonomy* (ultimately lifelong learning and effective citizenship)

Examples of illustrations in an EFL context:

- The teacher continuously observes learners' behavior responses and questions in the EFL classroom to define their strengths and weaknesses, and interests. Other than observation, teachers may use diagnosis tests, (informal) interviews and questionnaires.
- The teacher takes into consideration learners' differences to decide for content selection and lesson planning according to learners' level (e.g: Bloom's taxonomy), gender (eg choosing reading , writing , or speaking

- topics that promote gender equity), motivation (eg. asking learners why they are learning English and understanding their interests and so tailoring activities according to these interests and needs)
- The teacher provides learners with a safe learning atmosphere which preserves their self-image and prevents their foreign language anxiety
 - The teacher assigns learners language tasks that develop their critical thinking and problem-solving skills (e.g.s. Asking them divergent and convergent questions, requiring justifications for answers,
 - The teacher develops learners' metacognition and autonomy by making them active participants in the learning process instead of being passive recipients of knowledge (e.g.s. Self and peer editing; the teacher is the model of English use and of learning strategies
 - The teacher promotes intercultural understanding (e.g. Choice of reading texts, classroom debates, writing tasks ... that promote open-mindedness and encourage global tolerance)
 - Promote learners' creativity through story-telling in English, and role-play
 - Promote learners' emotional intelligence by developing their self-awareness, motivation and interpersonal skills through pair and group work and project work that deal with English language and themes related to local culture (Algerian), target culture (English) or international.

FREQUENTLY ASKED QUESTIONS SUGGESTED ANSWERS

1. ***What is accountability in education:*** Accountability in education means holding schools responsible learners' achievement and their preparation for

social and professional life using available resources. This is so because society expects much from the school system. When we say 'schools', we mean stakeholders (school districts, principals) teachers; even parents are responsible. In general terms, accountability means responsibility, and accountability in education specifically means responsibility to achieve high standards of performance.

2. ***What's the knowledge base in education psychology:*** Knowledge base refers to a collection or a store of information about a particular subject.

3. ***What are the educational objectives & educational psychology objectives?***

Education: Formal education refers to systematic instruction, teaching and training by professional teachers, especially at a school or university. Education is seen as the process by which people are prepared to live effectively and efficiently in their environment. Thus education is now recognized as an instrument for social stability as well for social change.

Educational objectives, or learning outcomes, are statements that describe precisely what the learner will know or be able to do as a result of having attended an educational program or activity (For example, objectives stated in the programme of educational psychology course).

Objectives of education: Education aims at developing knowledge, qualities, skills, attitudes, and capacities that enable individuals to become self-awareness and become active and effective participants in social and professional life.

Educational psychology objectives: to study how students learn and develop in educational settings, the effectiveness of educational interventions, and the psychology of teaching. Educational psychology checks and evaluates learning and teaching (finding out strengths and weaknesses) and attempts to improve both of them for better outcomes. Educational psychology is a discipline that focuses on theoretical and empirical knowledge about instruction, and so it helps overcome the gap between learning theory and educational practice.

4-How do people contribute in stereotyping gender differences? Since their young age, children receive feedback from their surrounding of what is correct or wrong (socially or culturally). There are often stereotypes that are transmitted to young kids. Some biased information (such as relating weakness to females) shape young people conceptions of gender roles and differences. For example, a child trying to help with house chores may be shouted at or even bullied as being a “woman”.

5-What is the relationship between intelligence and aptitude? First of all, you have to distinguish ‘aptitude’ from ‘language aptitude’. Intelligence is a mental ability to think, process, store, and retrieve knowledge in order to adapt to an environment, context, or to solve problems. *Aptitude* can be defined as the capacity to apply knowledge to perform a certain task. Language aptitude is ‘speed in language learning’.

6- Are the beliefs, attitudes and emotions all part of motivation? Or is motivation another variable on its own, alongside them...? As stated in the lesson, motivation, attitudes, emotions, and beliefs are all interrelated (see p.3, point 5). Attitudes have 3 components: cognitive (beliefs), affective (emotions), and behavioural (observed actions). Attitudes can have a positive or a negative impact on motivation. Positive attitudes lead to motivation and desire to learn, while negative attitudes result in resistance

7-Can we classify learner’s differences into cognitive and affective differences according to what we have studied in the 2nd 3rd and 4th lessons? Learners can be classified according to age and gender (these are demographic variables) , according to cognitive factors (related to beliefs, aptitude and intelligences) and to affective variables (motivation , attitudes, emotions, and personality factors).

8- Can we consider heredity and environment as the factors affecting human differences? Yes, both do. This brings us to acknowledge the importance of individual differences and to the important role family, society and mainly school play in shaping learners both in cognitive and affective sides. Today, researchers

generally agree that *heredity and environment* have an interactive *influence* on intelligence. In simple terms, *Heredity* places an upper and lower limit on the IQ that can be attained by a given person. The *environment* determines where within these limits the person's IQ will lie.

9) *Educational psychology: whether at the end or the beginning of each lesson , it is clearly stated that " there has been no proof that " any variable " affects learner differences " what has been proven by researchers so far?* It has never been stated that there is no proof any variable affects learners' differences. The fact is learners variables vary so much that they overlap and prevent strong generalisations. For some of them, researchers could not find a direct link with learning achievement. For example, they cannot assert that extraversion leads necessarily to language achievement. However, there is agreement that individual differences do have an impact on their learning outcomes. This has been proven through observations, assessment practices and surveys. For example, motivated learners achieve better at school. It is obvious that educational psychology is a relatively recent science that requires more research and investigations.

