ITA
International Teachers Association

Module 23: Teaching Teens and Young Adults

23.1 What is a Young Adult?

A **young adult** is generally a person in the years following adolescence. Definitions and opinions on what qualifies as a young adult vary, with works such as Erik Erikson's stages of human development significantly influencing the definition of the term; generally, the term is often used to refer to adults in approximately the 20s and 30s age range. The young adult stage in human development precedes middle adulthood.

Erik Erikson's theories of early adulthood

According to Erik Erikson, in the wake of the adolescent emphasis upon identity formation, 'the young adult, emerging from the search for and insistence on identity, is eager and willing to fuse their identity with that of others. He [or she] is ready for intimacy, that is, the capacity to commit... to concrete affiliations and partnerships.' To do so means the ability 'to face the fear of ego loss in situations which call for self-abandon: in the solidarity of close affiliations, in orgasms and sexual unions, in close friendships and in physical combat'. Avoidance of such experiences 'because of a fear of ego-loss may lead to a deep sense of isolation and consequent self-absorption'.

Where isolation is avoided, the young adult may find instead that 'satisfactory sex relations... in some way take the edge off the hostilities and potential rages caused by the oppositeness of male and female, of fact and fancy, of love and hate'; and may grow into the ability to exchange intimacy, love and compassion.

In modern societies, young adults in their late teens and early 20s encounter a number of issues as they finish school and begin to hold full-time jobs and take on other responsibilities of adulthood; and 'the young adult is usually preoccupied with self-growth in the context of society and relationships with others.' The danger is that in 'the second era, *Early Adulthood*.. we must make crucially important

choices regarding marriage, family, work, and lifestyle before we have the maturity or life experience to choose wisely.'

While 'young adulthood is filled with avid quests for intimate relationships and other major commitments involving career and life goals', there is also "a parallel pursuit for the formulation of a set of moral values". Erikson has argued that it is only now that what he calls the 'ideological mind' of adolescence gives way to 'that *ethical sense* which is the mark of the adult.'

Reaching adulthood in modern society is not always a linear or clean transition. As generations continue to adapt, new markers of adulthood are created that add different social expectations of what it means to be an adult.

23.2 Theories of Learning

WHAT IS A THEORY?

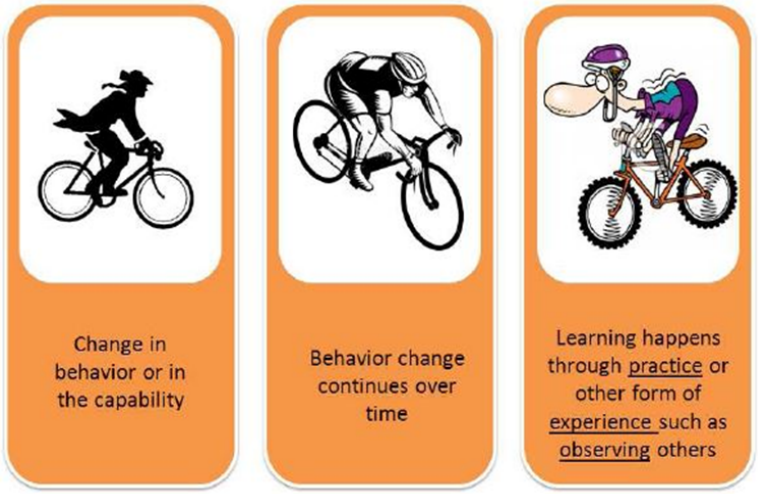
According to Dorin, Demmin and Gabel (1990) theories provide general observations on a phenomenon made over time but the information gained so far has not yet being established beyond doubt. They are propositions based on logical reasoning describing a construct or process that is not easily measurable. For a theory to be recognized, lies a collective assumption of the existence of the phenomenon; and that it (the theory) has the best explanation of the phenomenon and the respective people are working on it to eventually prove that it is true.

What is learning?

There are various definitions of learning. Common to most definitions is the notion that a *change occurs in a learner's behavior, attitudes or skills*. The behavioral change is both observable and relatively permanent

In another definition;

According to Wakefield (1996: 364) learning can be described as a *relatively permanent change in the behavior of an individual based on his/her experiences or discoveries*. Thus the processes of experience and discovery lead to a new understanding of the world and ourselves, and enable us to apply the acquired knowledge in new situations. Knowledge acquisition, then, involves processes that transform data from experience into organized information.



What are learning theories?

Learning theories *are a set* ***of laws or principles about learning****.*

· Different theories represent different perspectives, different assumptions, and different beliefs about learning.

· A learning theory is an attempt to describe how people and animals learn, thereby helping us understand the inherently complex process of learning

Learning theories ***are conceptual frameworks that describe how information is absorbed, processed, and retained during learning***.

Cognitive, emotional, and environmental influences, as well as prior experience, all play a part in how understanding, or a world view, is acquired or changed, and knowledge and skills retained.

Behaviorists look at learning as an aspect of conditioning and will advocate a system of rewards and targets in education. Educators who embrace cognitive theory believe that the definition of learning as a change in behavior is too narrow and prefer to study the learner rather than their environment, and in particular the complexities of human memory. Those who advocate constructivism believe that a learner's ability to learn relies to a large extent on what they already know and understand, and that the acquisition of knowledge should be an individually tailored process of construction.

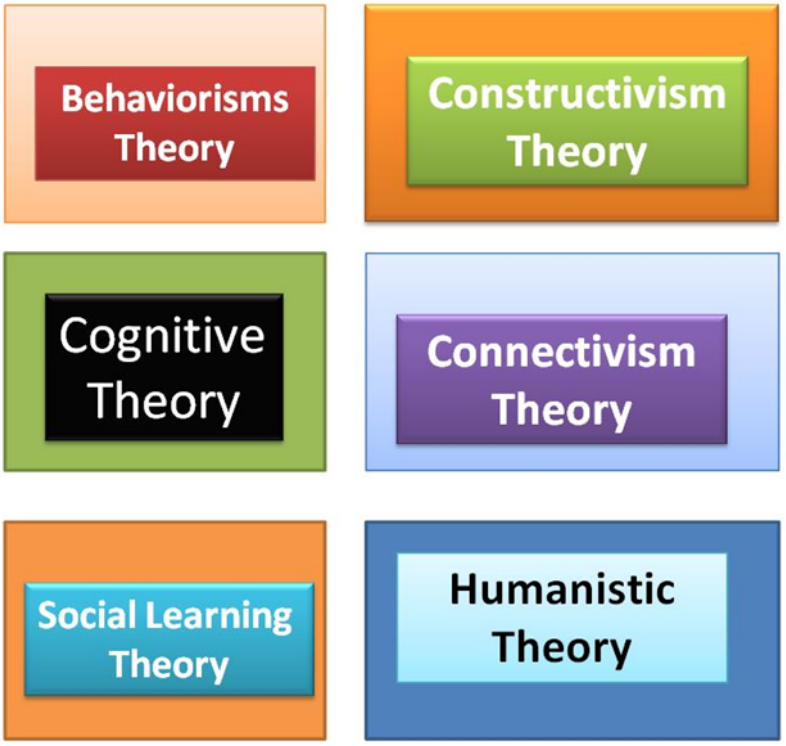


Fig. Theories of Learning Family

a) **Behaviorism**

Behaviorism is primarily concerned with observable and measurable aspects of human behavior. In defining behavior, behaviorist learning theories emphasize changes in behavior that result from stimulus-response associations made by the learner. Behavior is directed by stimuli. An individual selects one response instead of another because of prior conditioning and psychological drives existing at the moment of the action.

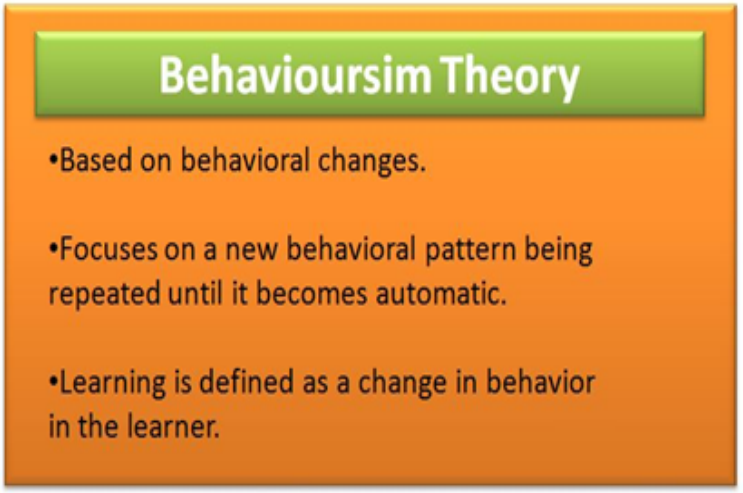
It is the theory of animal and human learning that focuses only on observable behavior.

The main focus of behaviorism is that *behavior is learnt through conditioning*. Behaviorists believe that learning is expressed by change in overt behavior; the environment changes behavior; and that the formation of a bond of things or events depends on the time interval between them.

View of the learning process:	Famous Behaviorist:	Purpose in education:	Learning outcome:
Change in behavior	Ivan Pavlov (1849-1936). •B. F. Skinner (1904-1990 •Thorndike •John B. Watson (1878-1958)	Produce behavioral change in desired direction.	Changes in behavior

Educator's /Your role:

Arranges environment to elicit desired response



Learning is demonstrated following the presentation of a specific environmental stimulus the major concern is the association between the stimulus and response is made, strengthened or maintained. Responses followed by reinforcement are more likely to occur in the future.

Behaviorism is a theory of animal and human learning that only focuses on objectively observable behaviors and discounts mental activities. Behavior theorists define learning as nothing more than the acquisition of new behavior. This theory is relatively simple to understand because it relies only on observable behavior and describes several universal laws of behavior. Its positive and negative

reinforcement techniques can be very effective for both in animals, and in treatments for human disorders such as autism and antisocial behavior.

Behaviorism often is used by teachers, who reward or punish student behaviors. There are two models of behaviorist theories:

- Classical Conditioning
- Operant Conditioning

KEY PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING IN BEHAVIORISM

Key principle	Explanation
Activity is important	Learning is better when the learner is active rather than passive. Learning by doing
Repetition, generalization and discrimination are important notions	Frequent practice and practice in varied contexts is necessary for learning to take place
Reinforcement is the key motivator	Positive reinforces like rewards successes are preferable to negative events like punishment and failures

Figure 4: Key Principles of Learning in Behaviourism

Pavlov: classical conditioning

Classical learning is also known as Pavlovian conditioning. Ivan Pavlov (1849-1936), a Russian psychologist was the first person to describe this type of learning based on a number of experimental studies he conducted on dogs.

This theory is called “Classical” conditioning because of its significance in psychology.

Classical conditioning is a very powerful tool for entraining basic physiological responses (e.g., increases in blood pressure, taste aversions, psychosomatic illness), and emotive responses (e.g., arousal, fear, anxiety, pleasure) since the learning is paired with reflexive, inborn associations.

Classical conditioning is a major theoretical notion underlying advertising, propaganda, and related learning. Its importance in the formations of biases, stereotypes, etc. is of particular importance in the design of instructional materials and should always be considered in the design process.

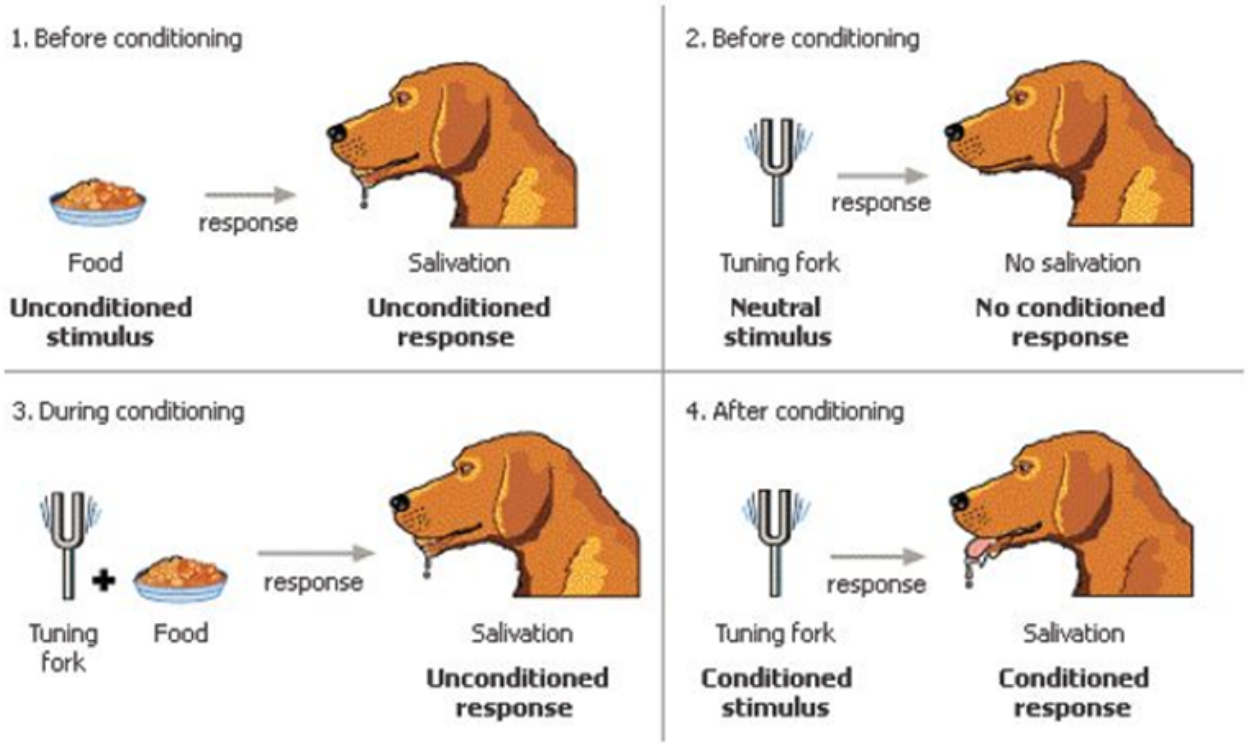
Pavlov developed terminologies specific to the components of these observations, namely:

***Unconditioned stimulus* (US)**. A stimulus in the environment that biologically makes an organism to give a specific response. In the above experiments the sight of food naturally leads an organism (including us humans) to salivate. The US is a natural stimulus that is not a result of learning.

***Conditional stimulus* (CS).** This is a neutral stimulus that naturally does not produce a response but after being paired several times with the US produces a response. The metronome was a neutral stimulus at the beginning that did not make the dog salivate upon hearing it. However the sound eventually, after being paired with food powder several times, could alone make the dog salivate. So, CS is a neutral stimulus that after conditioning (learning) makes an organism to make a response. Some of us can just salivate when someone mentions (CS) food we learned to like.

***Unconditional response* (UCR).** This is an unlearned response produced by UCS. The dog naturally salivated when food powder was placed on the tongue. We normally salivate when we taste something delicious. UCR can be counted as reflex action.

***Conditional response* (CR).** This is a response that is elicited by CS alone. Before pairing CS and UCS there was no response, but after pairing an organism makes a response on CS in the absence of UCS. So, UCR and CR are the same responses (in Pavlov's experiment salivation), the difference is that UCR is produced by UCS while CR is produced by CS.



Characteristics of classical conditioning

For conditioning to occur during the pairing the CS must be applied several times just before the UCS. It is very difficult (next to impossible) for conditioning to occur if the CS is applied before UCS. Also if the interval between the CS and UCS is long the organism cannot make the connection between CS and UCR.

Skinner: operant conditioning

The approach of operant conditioning was developed by B.F. Skinner (1904 -1990). He postulated that psychology should deal with observable behavior that can be measured (and ignore the processes taking place in the mind i.e. mental processes.

In Pavlov's experiment the dog had to wait for someone to introduce the UCS or CS for it to give a response.In operant conditioning (sometimes called Instrumental conditioning) the organism 'operates' on the environment based on the consequences of its actions i.e. deliberately initiating and operating in a process of responses. The individual and the consequences are instrumental in his/her behavior.

Skinner used a special box (called "Skinner Box") to study the behaviors of some animals (mostly rats) to demonstrate his theory. (Please read about these experiments in other sources).

Stimulus ----------→	*Response*----------→	*Reinforcement*
(Teacher asking a question)	student raising hand	student being selected to answer

A stimulus indicates when to give a response. In the above illustration students raise their hands after the teacher has asked a question. They raise their hands as a response expecting to be selected to answer. Reinforcement is being selected to answer. Bus approaching is a stimulus for us to wave hands (response) and the bus stops and we board (reinforcement). A stimulus indicates where/ when/ how to give a response that will be reinforced. So, a response given before the stimulus cannot get reinforcement, and for reinforcement to be effective it must be received after giving a response and not before.

Actions that lead to positive consequences are repeated and those that bring negative consequences are avoided. Remember that repeating or avoiding are both responses. *Positive Reinforcement* is a pleasant or rewarding consequence that follows a response and as result makes it likely for the response to be repeated in future when under the same circumstances. A student will always study more for a course s/he does well. *Negative Reinforcement* is the consequence that makes a person escape or avoid a painful situation. These responses are likely to be repeated since they remove

unpleasant conditions. A person will repeat taking pills that relieve (avoid) headache when s/he gets a headache in the future.

Classical conditioning forms an association between two stimuli. Operant conditioning forms an association between a behavior and a consequence. (It is also called response-stimulus or RS conditioning because it forms an association between the animal's response [behavior] and the stimulus that follows [consequence])

Consequences have to be immediate, or clearly linked to the behavior. With verbal humans, we can explain the connection between the consequence and the behavior, even if they are separated in time. For example, you might tell a friend that you'll buy dinner for them since they helped you move, or a parent might explain that the child can't go to summer camp because of her bad grades.

With very young children, humans who don't have verbal skills, and animals, you can't explain the connection between the consequence and the behavior. For the animal, the consequence has to be immediate. Anything that increases a behavior - makes it occur more frequently, makes it stronger, or makes it more likely to occur - is termed a reinforce

NB: Reinforcement (either categorized as positive or negative) is any consequence that increases the probability of response being repeated in the future.

Any events that strengthen or increases the behavior (bad and good behavior)

1. Positive reinforces
2. Negatives reinforces

Positive reinforces

I. Adding something to a situation

II. That would increase the response

III. Praise

IV. Direct reward

Negative reinforces

I. Taking something away

II. That would increase the response

Purpose = To increases behavior

PUNISHMENT

Outcomes that decrease in the behavior
1. Positive reinforce/punishment
2. Negative reinforce/punishment

Positive reinforce

I. Punishment by application

II. Display of unfavorable outcome

III. To weaken the response it follows

IV. Teacher says to a naughty student to stay inside during recess - student quit bothering his friend

Negative reinforce

I. Punishment by removal

II. Remove of unfavorable outcome

III. Teacher says to a naughty student to stop bothering his friend- student quit bothering his friend

Purpose = To decrease behavior

	Reinforcement (To increase behavior)	**Punishment** (To decrease behavior)
Positive reinforce (something added)	Something added increases behavior	Something added decreases behavior
Negative reinforce (something removed)	Something removed increases behavior	Something removed decreases behavior

E.L Thorndike- Trial and Error Theory of Learning:

Edward Lee Thorndike (1874-1949) was the first American psychologist who put forward the Trial and Error Theory of learning. According to Thorndike, all learning takes place because of the formation of bonds or connection between stimulus and response.

He further says that learning takes place through a process of approximation and correction. A person makes a number of trials, some responses do not give satisfaction to the individual but he goes on making further trials until he gets satisfactory responses. Thorndike conducted a number of experiments on animals to explain the process of learning. His most widely quoted experiment is with a cat placed in a puzzle box.

Thorndike put a hungry cat in a puzzle box. The box had one door, which could be opened by manipulating a latch of the door. A fish was placed outside the box. The cat being hungry had the motivation of eating fish outside the box. However, the obstacle was the latch on the door. The cat made random movements inside the box indicating trial and error type of behaviour, biting at the box, scratching the box, walking around, pulling and jumping etc. to come out to get the food. Now in the course of her movements, the latch was manipulated accidently and the cat came out to get the food. Over a series of successive trials, the cat took shorter and shorter time, committed less number of errors, and was in a position to manipulate the latch as soon as it was put in the box and learnt the art of opening the door.

Thorndike concluded that it was only after many random trials that the cat was able to hit upon the solutions. He named it Trial ***and Error Learning***. An analysis of the learning behavior of the cat in the box shows that besides trial and error the principles of goal, motivation, explanation and reinforcement are involved in the process of learning by Trial and Error.

NB: Also a theory termed **response association theory**, also expressed as S→R i.e. the connection between stimulus and response. The theory states that: ***when an organism detects a certain stimulus it gives a specific response based on previous encounters.***

Responses that do not get reinforcement eventually become extinct. *Extinction* means an organism stopping giving a response in presence of stimulus after learning that it will not be reinforced. A student will stop raising a hand to a teacher whom s/he knows will not select him/her to answer questions. As teachers we should stop giving reinforcement to students' misbehavior so that these behaviors become extinct.

Laws of Learning

Based on Trial and Error Learning Theory, Thorndike gave certain laws of Learning. We shall discuss three fundamental Laws of Learning in this section. These laws are:

1. Law of Readiness

It states that the basis of an individual's response depends on the extent of his/her preparedness to act.

This law refers to the fact that learning takes place only when the learner is prepared to learn. No amount of effort can make the child learn if the child is not ready to learn. The dictum that 'you can lead a horse to the pond but you can't make it drink water unless it feels thirsty' goes very well with this law. In other words, if the child is ready to learn, he/she learns more quickly, effectively and with greater satisfaction than if he/she is not ready to learn. In the words of Thorndike the three stages of this Law of Readiness are :

• For a conduction unit ready to conduct, to conduct is satisfying.

• For a conduction unit ready to conduct, not to conduct is annoying.

• For a conduction unit not ready to conduct, to conduct is annoying.

Thus, the Law of Readiness means mental preparation for action. It is not to force the child to learn if he is not ready. Learning failures are the result of forcing the learner to learn when he is not ready to learn something.

Educational Implications of Law of Readiness:

The law draws the attention of the teacher to the motivation of the child. The teacher must consider the psycho-biological readiness of the students to ensure successful learning experiences. Curriculum / Learning experiences should be according to the mental level of maturity of the child. If this is not so, there will be poor comprehension and readiness may vanish.

2. Law of Exercise

It states that the connection between a stimulus and response is strengthened depending on how frequently they (stimulus and response) are used together.

This law explains the role of practice in learning. According to this law, learning becomes efficient through practice or exercise. The dictum 'Practice makes a man perfect' goes very well with this law. This law is further split into two parts — Law of use and Law of disuse. The law of use means that a connection between a stimulus and response is strengthened by its occurrence, its exercise or its use. In other words, the use of any response strengthens it, and makes it more prompt, easy and certain. Regarding the law of disuse, it is said that when a modifiable connection is not made between a stimulus and a response over a length of time, the strength of that connection is decreased. This means that any act that is not practiced for some time gradually decays. Anything that is not used exercised or practiced for a certain period tends to be forgotten or becomes weak in strength, efficiency and promptness.

Educational Implications

Exercise occupies an important place in learning. Teachers must repeat, give sufficient drill in some subjects like mathematics, drawing, music or vocabulary for fixing material in the minds of the students. Thorndike later revised this law of exercise and accordingly it is accepted that practice does bring improvement in learning but it in itself is not sufficient. Practice must be followed by some reward or satisfaction to the learner. The learner must be motivated to learn.

3. Law of Effect

This is most important of Thorndike's laws, which ***state that when a connection between stimulus and response is accompanied by a satisfying state, its strength is increased***. On the other hand, when a connection is accompanied by an annoying state of affairs, its strength is reduced or weakened. The saying 'nothing succeeds like success' goes very well with this law. In other words, the responses that produce satisfaction or comfort for the learner are strengthened and responses that produce annoyance or discomfort for the learner are weakened. Thorndike revised this law in 1930 and according to this revision, he stated that reward strengthened the response but punishment did not always weaken the response. Then he placed more emphasis on the reward aspect than on the punishment aspect of Law of Effect.

Educational Implications

This law signifies the use of reinforcement or feedback in learning. This implies that learning trials must be associated with satisfying consequences. The teacher can use rewards to strengthen certain responses and punishment to weaken others.

However, the use of reward is more desirable than the use of punishment in school learning. The teacher for motivating the students for learning situations can exploit the use of reward.

Criticism of Behaviorism

Behaviorism is unbelievably simple in its assumption that a single mechanism like conditioning is responsible for learning. Seemingly, behaviorism does not take mental processes of learning into consideration. Some of the criticism of behaviorism relates to the following:

- It views learning as something that happens to a person, with the person being passive. We all know that every learner is active, both mentally and physically, when engaged in learning.
- It does not account for all types of learning, since it disregards the activities of the mind. What goes on inside the mind of a person is of extreme importance in understanding the learning processes.
- It does not explain some forms of learning such as the recognition of new language patterns by young children.

b) Cognitive Theory of Learning

This examines internal mental processes such as problems solving, memory and language .Cognitive psychology interests itself in how people understand, diagnose, and solve problems concerning themselves with mental processes which mediate between stimulus response. Wolfgang Kohler showed that a protracted process of trial and error may be replaced by sudden understanding that grasps the interrelationships of a problem. This process is called insight and is more akin to piecing together a puzzle than responding to a stimulus.

Definition:

Cognitive theory is based on the thought process behind the behavior. The process of human mind accumulate new knowledge

View of the learning process:

Internal mental process (including insight, information processing, memory and perception)

Purpose in education:

Develop capacity and skills to learn better

Educator's /Your role:

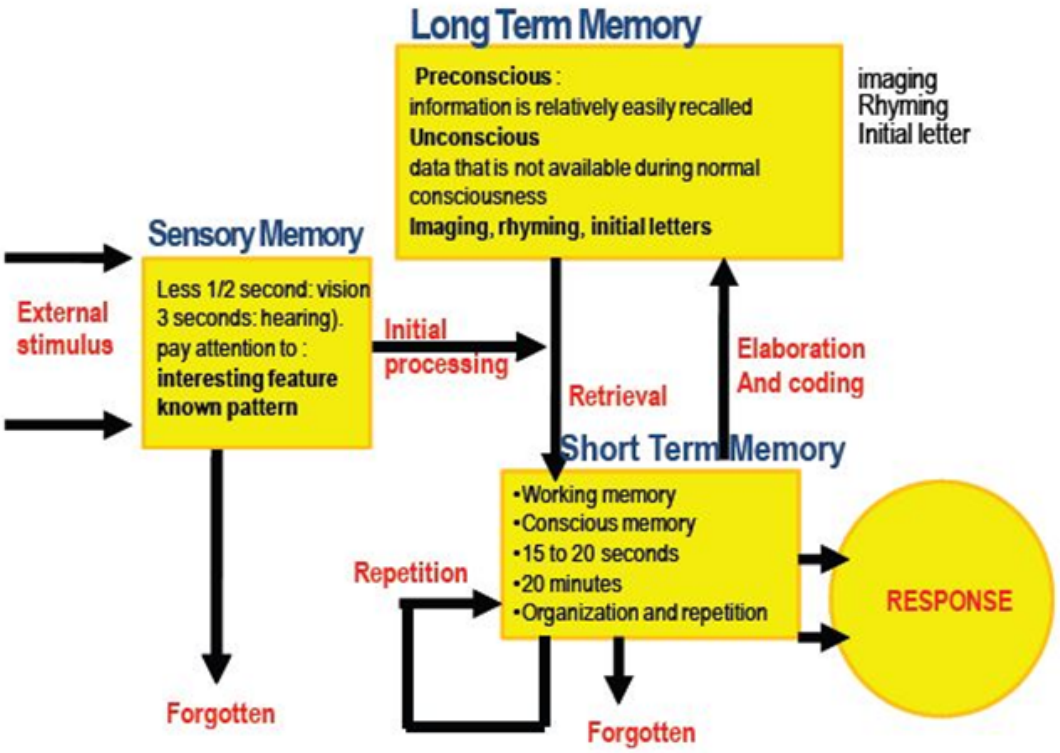
Structures content of learning activity

Cognitive theorists view learning as involving the acquisition or reorganization of the cognitive structures through which humans process and store information. Changes in behaviors are observed, but only as an indicator to what is going on in the learner's head

Learning Tips

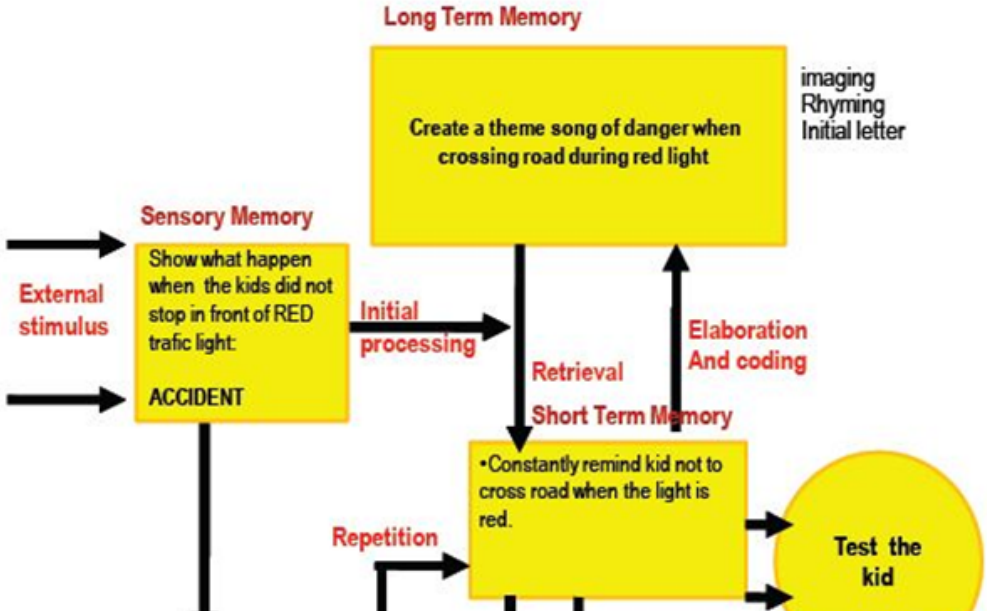
- Views learning as an internal process including insight.
- Information processing, memory and perception.
- Its locus of learning is internal mental structures.
- Its purpose in education is to develop capacity and skills.
- The educators' role is to structure the content of learning activity.

INFORMATION PROCESSING THEORY



Example: Road safety for kidsHow to teach kid not to cross road during red light

How to teach kid not to cross road during red light

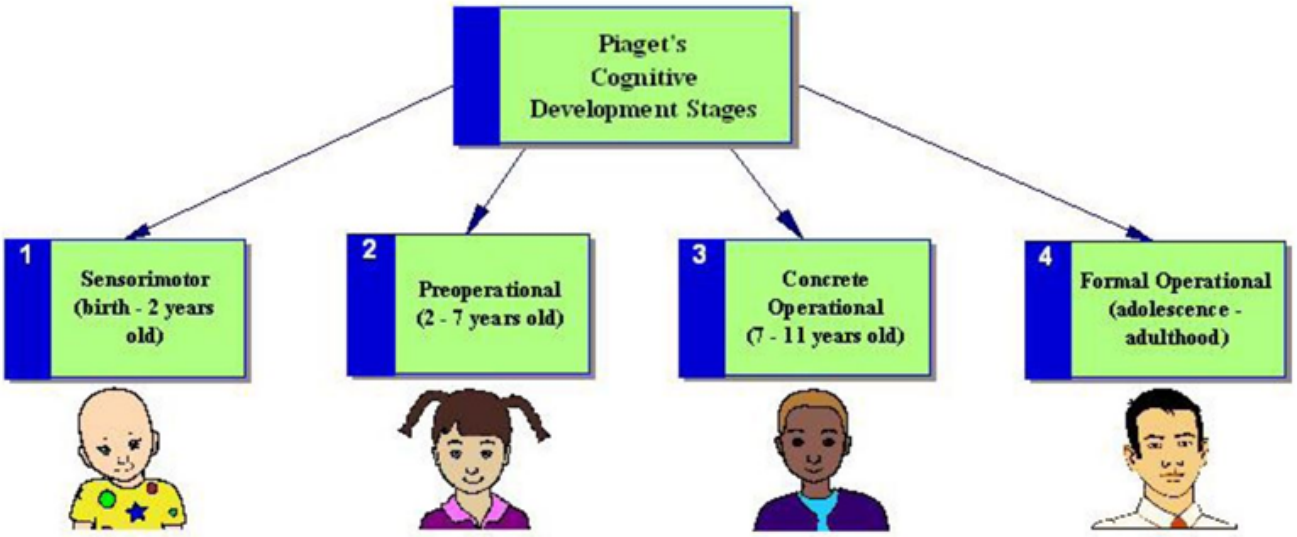


Cognitive Developmental Theory

Jean Piaget (1896-1980) was one of the 20th century's most influential researchers in the area of developmental psychology Known for his work studying children. Piaget originally trained in the areas of biology and philosophy and considered himself a "genetic epistemologist."

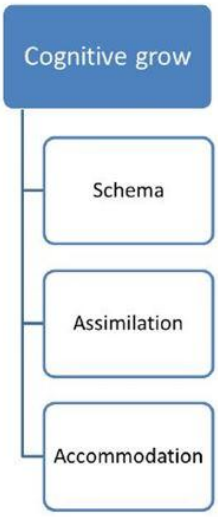
He was mainly interested in the biological influences on "how we come to know." Concerned with manipulative behavior of children—how they come to know things. Piaget believed that what distinguishes human beings from other animals is our ability to do "Abstract symbolic reasoning."

Stages of Cognitive Development



Sensori-motor (Birth-2 yrs)	Pre-operational (2-7 years)	Concrete operational (7-11 years)	Formal operational (11 years and up)
Differentiates self from objects	Learns to use language and to represent objects by images and words	Can think logically about objects and events	Can think logically about abstract propositions and test hypotheses systemtically
Recognizes self as agent of action and begins to act intentionally: e.g. pulls a string to set mobile in motion or shakes a rattle to make a noise	Thinking is still egocentric: has difficulty taking the viewpoint of others	Achieves conservation of number (age 6), mass (age 7), and weight (age 9)	Becomes concerned with the hypothetical, the future, and ideological problems
Achieves object permanence: realises that things continue to exist even when no longer present to the sense (pace Bishop Berkeley)	Classifies objects by a single feature: e.g. groups together all the red blocks regardless of shape or all the square blocks regardless of colour	Classifies objects according to several features and can order them in series along a single dimension such as size.	

COGNITIVE GROWTH:



Schema	A schema describes both the mental and physical actions involved in understanding and knowing. Schemas are categories of knowledge that help us to interpret and understand the world.
Assimilation	The process of taking in new information into our previously existing schema's is known as assimilation. The process is somewhat subjective, because we tend to modify experience or information somewhat to fit in with our preexisting beliefs.
Accommodation	Another part of adaptation involves changing or altering our existing schemas in light of new information, a process known as accommodation. Accommodation involves altering existing schemas, or ideas, as a result of new information or new experiences. New schemas may also be developed during this process.

c) Social Learning THEORY

Bandura's Social Learning Theory

People learn from one another, via observation, imitation, and modeling. The theory has often been called a bridge between behaviorist and cognitive learning theories because it encompasses attention, memory, and motivation. Many individuals believed that aggression will produce reinforcements. These reinforcements can formulate into Reduction of tension, Gaining financial, Reward or Gaining the praise of others.

Aggression reinforced by family members was the most prominent source of behavior modeling. Children use the same aggressive tactics that their parents illustrate when dealing with others. (1976)

Bandura considered personality as an interaction between three components: the environment, behavior, one's psychological processes (one's ability to entertain images in minds and language).

Necessary conditions for effective modeling:

There are four component processes influenced by the observer's behavior following exposure to models:

Attention:

Various factors increase or decrease the amount of attention paid. Includes distinctiveness, affective valence, prevalence, complexity, functional value. One's characteristics (e.g. sensory capacities, arousal level, perceptual set, past reinforcement) affect attention.

Retention:

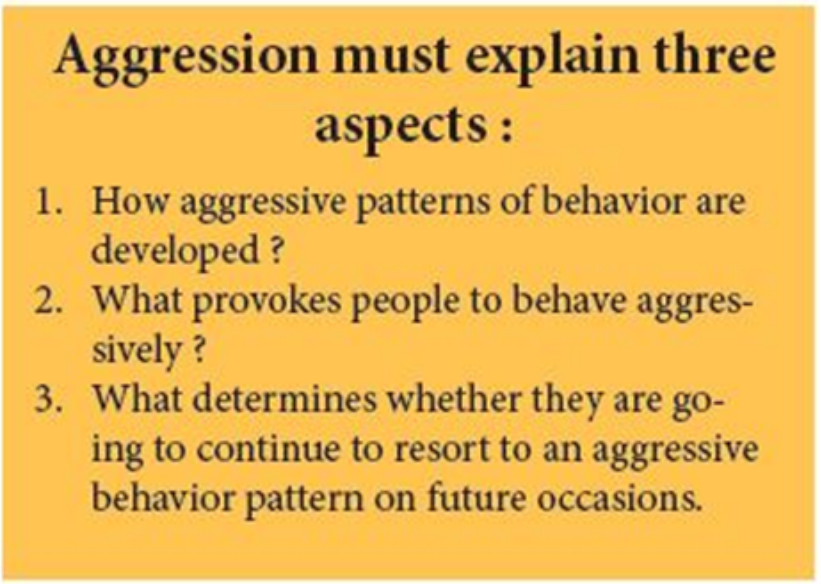
Remembering what you paid attention to. Includes symbolic coding, mental images, cognitive organization, symbolic rehearsal, motor rehearsal

Reproduction:

reproducing the image. Including physical capabilities, and self-observation of reproduction.

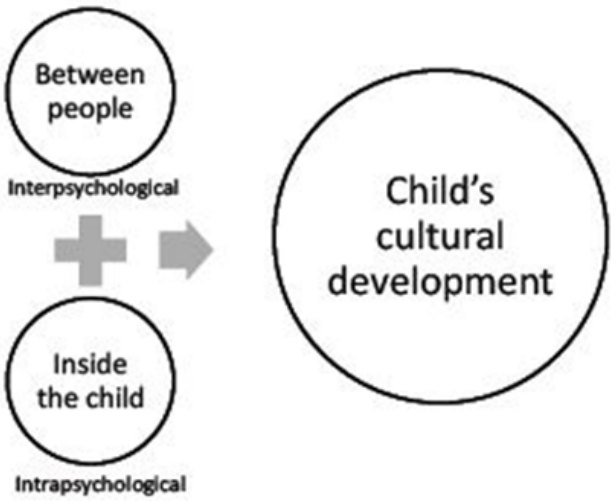
Motivation:

Having a good reason to imitate. Includes motives such as A past (i.e. traditional behaviorism), promised (imagined incentives) and vicarious (seeing and recalling the reinforced model)



Social interaction leads development; consciousness and cognition are the outcome of socialization and social behavior.

Social interaction plays a fundamental role in the process of cognitive development. In contrast to Jean Piaget's understanding of child development (in which development necessarily precedes learning), Vygotsky felt social learning precedes development. He states: "Every function in the child's cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first, between people (interpsychological) and then inside the child (intrapsychological)." (Vygotsky, 1978) and vicarious (seeing and recalling the reinforced model).



Three ways learning is passed along to an individual

Imitative Learning	Instructed Learning	Collaborative Learning
A child simply copies another person	A child recalls direction given by a teacher & puts it into play	A peer group cooperates to learn or achieve a specific goal while working to understand one another

Educational implication of social learning theory

d) Humanistic Theory of Learning

Humanistic movement in education is seen as the third force in psychology. It emphasizes the uniqueness and importance of the individual. It is also seen as a reaction against overly mechanistic and dehumanizing approaches.

It Principles are:

- Current and future welfare of students
- Worth and rights of children
- Openness, honesty, selflessness, altruism

The challenge faced is to be a humanistic teacher in a traditional classroom.

Humanistic theorists concentrate upon the development of the child's self-concept. It involves knowledge of one's strengths and weaknesses and a belief in one's abilities to improve. Learning is seen not as an end in itself but as a means to progress towards the pinnacle of self-development which Maslow terms as self- actualization. The child is seen to learn because he/ she is inwardly driven, and derives his /her reward from the sense of achievement that having learned some- thing affords. Rewards here are seen as intrinsic i.e. are within oneself ,rather like satisfaction of a need .In humanistic approach, education is really about creating a need within the child or instilling within the child self -motivation.

Role of the Teacher

1. Put much effort in developing the child's self- esteem

   Education should be child centered, typified by the child taking responsibility for their education and owning their learning. Both praise and blame are rejected by the humanists.

2. The humanist teacher is a facilitator, not a disseminator of knowledge.

Participatory and discovery methods would be favored instead of traditional didacticism.

3. The humanistic teacher is concerned with the child's affective needs as well as the academic. Feelings and thinking are seen as interlinked.

Instructional Implications of Humanistic Theory:

1. Seen as student centered teaching
2. Emphasize on social-personal development
3. De-emphasise rigorous, performance oriented test dominated approaches. -provide opportunity for success
4. Use discovery learning
5. Respect student's feelings and aspirations and right to self-determination.

Approaches to Humanistic Education

Content:

1. Content–curricula: teaching topics that are directly relevant to the students' lives (e.g. drug awareness)
2. Process–curricula: focus on the whole student and can include teaching assertiveness
3. Humanistic school and group structures: restructuring the whole time-table and school environment in order to facilitate humanistic teaching or just individual classes.

Practice:

These include:

- ★ Open classrooms-its goals are individual growth, critical thinking, self-reliance, co-operation, commitment to lifelong learning.
- ★ Cooperative Learning: its goals; It combines cognitive and affective aspects of learning, as well emphasizing participatory and active engagement It also stresses academic achievement and clearly defined goals.

Groups:

- ★ Requires face to face interaction usually 4-6 students
- ★ Relationship between group members are one of positive interdependence
- ★ Assigns individuals responsibility for sharing, co-operating and learning
- ★ Goals and rewards are contingent on the performance and contribution of all group members
- ★ Interpersonal skills necessary e.g. taking turns, facilitating, collaborating etc.

Types of Groups Used Are:

I. Circles of knowledge
II. Students teams –Achievement Division
III. Teams –Games –Tournaments
IV. Jig-saw
V. Group investigation
VI. Reciprocal Teaching

Advantages of Cooperative Learning

1) It requires no major restructuring of the school day.

2) Fosters cooperation among students of different abilities, ethnic backgrounds, ages, and sexes.

How much?

Cooperative learning can be used in conjunction with traditional lessons for 60-90 minutes a day. Others recommend 70% of class time be used in this way, 20% to individualistic and 10% to competitive learning.

Disadvantages;

Cooperative learning needs careful preparation of materials, worksheets, questions and resource materials etc.

Reactions to Humanistic Education

1) Humanistic teachers' aim for good things, but these are not clearly defined and not easily measured.

2) Highly dependent on the capabilities of the teacher OVERALL

3) Open schools do not deliver academic performance, but non-graded schools (no age /grade, placement, /no report card) have positive effects on achievement.

4) Present structured curriculum in an ungraded, no fail environment.

5) Criticism cannot be directed at learning styles –oriented schools and cooperative learning. Many schools use group methods which involve cooperative learning.

23.3. How to Teach Teenage Learners

Young learners, those attending preschool and kindergarten, will not have any personal reason for studying English.
It is simply another subject that they have to study at school or that their parents have told them they need to learn. At this point in their lives, they may not know or comprehend how important these classes can be. They might view your classes as simply another fun daily activity and that is just fine. Even at this early age, you can **encourage them to develop an interest in learning English** which will stay with them long after they have finished your classes.

How to Understand and Teach Young Learners Better

1. **What Young Learners Want**

   Students at this level are just starting their academic careers. School may be intimidating for some of the students in your class so, in order to encourage everyone to participate, it is important to **make your lessons relaxed and fun**. YL Students will be learning very basic material but you can design creative lessons that get students moving around and speaking with one another. Young learners are generally very enthusiastic about **songs**, especially if they can

sing along, and play active games. Be sure to **provide lots of encouragement** and positive feedback. You want to create a safe, stress-free environment that everyone can enjoy learning in.

2. **How Young Learners Behave**

Keep exercises fun and short because these students have **short attention spans** and are **easily distracted**. Overacting and projection will help keep the focus on you. Teach students how to behave in a classroom by asking them to be quiet while you are talking and raise their hands if they have questions or want to answer a question. This may not be directly related to ESL but it is important that students learn good behavior early on; it will make their transition to primary school easier. Teach them to respond to **basic classroom English phrases** such as "*Please sit down.*" because these are expressions that they will hear repeatedly throughout their study of English. For students at this age, you are responsible not only for starting to teach them English, but also for preparing them for their next level of education. Students will perform better in their classes if they behave well and have a good understanding of basic principles.

What To Focus On

The primary focus of these lessons will be on communication and laying a solid foundation for further English coursework. Students should practice the different sounds of the English language and learn material such as the **alphabet**, **numbers**, **colors** and **shapes**. You will introduce vocabulary words gradually and may choose to study some simple structures that relate to everyday life too. It could be that reading and writing never enter into your classes but a focus on speaking and listening will help students become more comfortable and confident with English.

23.4 Tips for Teaching Teenagers/ Young Learners

When approaching any lesson with young learners you should always consider how old they are, how much prior second language (L2) experience they have and their interests. You should consider what is being taught and how you can make it familiar to them.

Always remember that young learners, no matter their age, are only children. Their attention span is short and their ability to concentrate is relatively low. All of them love to play and they are often still much attached to their parents.

A lot of the younger learners you teach, especially between the ages of 2 – 4 years old, have likely never had previous L2 experience. This means that everything will be new to them and understanding things in a new language can be scary if not approached from an engaging perspective.

If a student does have prior experience with their L2, this does not always mean they will be as confident or as motivated as an older student. It is still beneficial for these students to learn through

the same methods of approach, as they will, like any student, become demotivated if they lose interest.

Here are 5 tips that you can take into any lesson with your young learners. These tips will help you to:

- Focus the attention of your students on the lesson.
- Help your students to focus on your teaching.
- Help your students with an understanding of vocabulary, concepts and topics.
- Foster motivation and engagement of your students in those lessons.

1. Active Learning

In every lesson, you should try to consistently use **Total Physical Response** (TPR). This is a method that uses **physical movement** matched with words and phrases. In the classroom, it reduces student inhibitions and lowers stress, allowing them to **play** and to be in a **safe and fun** environment while they learn.

It is a great tool for helping young learners to understand new words, questions you are asking or instructions you give. But it can also be used to include your learners in the lesson, by getting them to **move and speak** together you can make your lessons **more engaging**, and they will be able to **retain** the information a lot better.

2. Props, Realia, and Toys

As young learners absorb their new L2, they need **consistent engagement** and **excitement** in the classroom. Everything that they see, hear, smell, touch and even taste can be used as a tool to help them understand and retain new information.
Props are an endless resource available to teachers, which can enable young learners to be physically involved in the learning process. They create a very **child-friendly**, **student-centered** lesson. Props and other teaching aids can make the learning experience more fun and engaging but will also serve to **elicit responses** from learners and help **improve their fluenc**y

3. Student-Talk-Time (STT)

It should always be the main aim of an ESL teacher to help their students produce language in real or natural conversational settings. Even from a young learner's perspective, they need the chance to notice their own mistakes and learn from speaking freely in every lesson.
Lessons should always aim to be student-centered, to give them some agency in their own learning and to allow them as many opportunities to use their L2 as possible. In every lesson plan you make, you should think about ways you can increase STT by asking further concept checking questions or comprehension style questions. With young learners, you can start by asking them to simply make their own sentences with the target language of the lesson. This challenges them to use the vocabulary and allows you to gauge their understanding.

4. Learner interests

From the very first lesson that you have with a young learner, you should try your best to find out about their interests. You can ask them lots of questions (teaching and guiding them on how to answer these questions). Then you can include their interests in your lessons, by bringing in props or visual aids that you know will be engaging for them.
Or you could use specific topics you know they like to plan your lessons around when teaching new grammar or tenses. By showing your learners that you are listening to their interests and that you care about them having a good experience, you can ensure your students will be motivated and that they will want to come to class to learn.

5. Reward systems

Motivation through the use of praise and reward systems not only makes the learner feel happy when getting something right but can boost their confidence and help them remain focused and work effectively. With young learners, a lot of motivation comes from how much they are engaged or how much fun they are having in the classroom. If you simply say the same positive phrases, or always give the same reward, eventually the young learner loses interest and may become demotivated. Therefore, you should have varying physical reward systems as well as changing verbal praise throughout your lessons with young learners. As soon as you see something is not working, change your approach and use something new and exciting for them.

23.5 Activities and Photocopiable Resources

1. **Lessons for starter**
   - (a) Starter Unit Lesson 1
   - (b) Starter Unit Lesson 2
   - (c) Unit 1 Lesson 2
   - (d) Unit 1 Lesson 6
   - (e) Unit 1 Lesson 8
   - (f) Unit 2 Lesson 2
   - (g) Unit 2 Lesson 4
   - (h) Unit 2 Lesson 8
   - (i) Unit 3 Lesson 1
   - (j) Unit 3 Lesson 2
   - (k) Unit 3 Lesson 4
   - (l) Unit 3 Lesson 8
   - (m) Unit 4 Lesson 2
   - (n) Unit 4 Lesson 3
   - (o) Unit 4 Lesson 4

(p) Unit 4 Lesson 5
(q) Unit 4 Lesson 8
(r) Unit 5 Lesson 2
(s) Unit 5 Lesson 4
(t) Unit 5 Lesson 5
(u) Unit 5 Lesson 8
(v) Unit 6 Lesson 1
(w) Unit 6 Lesson 2
(x) Unit 6 Lesson 4
(y) Unit 6 Lesson 6

Happy Hearts 1

Unit 1 Lesson 2
Unit 1 Lesson 6
Unit 1 Lesson 10
Unit 2 Lesson 2
Unit 2 Lesson 3
Unit 2 Lesson 5
Unit 2 Lesson 6
Unit 2 Lesson 10
Unit 3 Lesson 1
Unit 3 Lesson 2
Unit 3 Lesson 5
Unit 3 Lesson 6
Unit 3 Lesson 10

Unit 4 Lesson 2
Unit 4 Lesson 5
Unit 4 Lesson 6
Unit 4 Lesson 8
Unit 4 Lesson 10
Unit 5 Lesson 2
Unit 5 Lesson 3
Unit 5 Lesson 4
Unit 5 Lesson 8
Unit 5 Lesson 10

Unit 6 Lesson 2
Unit 6 Lesson 6
Unit 6 Lesson 8
Unit 6 Lesson 9
Unit 6 Lesson 10

Happy Hearts 2

Starter Unit Lesson 1
Starter Unit Lesson 3

Unit 1 Lesson 2
Unit 1 Lesson 6
Unit 1 Lesson 10

Unit 2 Lesson 2
Unit 2 Lesson 4
Unit 2 Lesson 10
Unit 3 Lesson 2
Unit 3 Lesson 5
Unit 3 Lesson 6
Unit 3 Lesson 10

Unit 4 Lesson 2
Unit 4 Lesson 5
Unit 4 Lesson 6
Unit 4 Lesson 10
Unit 5 Lesson 2
Unit 5 Lesson 5
Unit 5 Lesson 6
Unit 5 Lesson 10

Unit 6 Lesson 2
Unit 6 Lesson 3
Unit 6 Lesson 5
Unit 6 Lesson 6
Unit 6 Lesson 10

2. English ESL video Lessons

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