CHALIMBANA UNIVERSITY

DIRECTORATE OF DISTANCE EDUCATION

PYS 4311: PSYCHOLOGY OF MOTIVATION AND LEARNING

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MODULE OVERVIEW

Introduction

In this course, you will investigate the major factors underlying human actions. We will cover the major areas that motivate our behaviour including genetic and environmental influences, pleasure and need seeking.

Rationale

This course will equip you with skills that will help you enhance human performance and regulate human emotions and learning.

Course aims

The course aims to equip students with tool for understanding and regulating motivation, emotions and learning.

Learning Outcomes

By the end of the course, you are expected to;

- Analyze major principles of principles of motivation, emotions and learning.
- Integrate theories and current research towards explaining the role of motivation in human behavior.
- Apply empirical findings related to motivation, emotions and learning to solve real world problems.
- Examine motivation, emotions and learning from an empirically based scholarly perspective.
- Apply a number of classical contemporary theoretical that characterize the scientific study of motivation, emotions and learning.

Study skills

As an adult learner, your approach to learning will be different to that of your school days you will choose when you want to study. You will have professional and/or personal motivation for doing so and you will most likely be fitting your activities around other professional or domestic responsibilities.

Essentially you will be taking control of your learning environment. As a consequence, you will need to consider performance issues related to time management, goals setting, stress management, etc. perhaps you will also need to reacquaint yourself in areas such as essay planning, coping with examinations and using the internet as a learning source.

Your most significant considerations will be time and space i.e. the time you dedicate to your learning and the environment in which you engage in that learning. It is recommended that you take time now before starting your self-study to familiarise yourself with these issues. There are a number of excellent resources on the web. A few suggested links are: http://www.how-to-study.com/ and http://www.ucc.vt.edu/stdysk/stdyhlp.html

Time frame

You are expected to spend at least three terms of your time to study this module. In addition, there shall be arranged contact sessions with lecturers from the University during residential possibly in April, August and December. You are requested to spend your time carefully so that you reap maximum benefits from the course. Listed below are the components of the course, what you have to do and suggestions as to how you should allocate your time to each unit in order that you may complete the course successfully and no time.

Required resources

Text books and module.

Need help

In case you have difficulties in studying this module don't hesitate to get in touch with your lecturers. You can contact them during week days from 08:00 t0 17:00 hours. Mr Moono Maurice mmoono.75@gmail.com Tutorial Room 3,. You are also free to utilise the services of the University Library which opens from 08:00 hours to 20:00 hours every working day.

Assessment

Continuous Assessment	**50%**
One Assignment	25%
One Test	25%
Final Examination	**50%**
Total	**100**

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Required Readings

Robinson, J. (2004). Emotion: Biological fact or social construction? In R. C. Solomon (Ed.), *Thinking about feeling: Contemporary philosophers on emotions* (pp. 28–43). New York: Oxford University Press.

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Roseman, I. J. (2001). A model of appraisal in the emotion system: Integrating theory, research, and applications. In K. R. Scherer, A. Schorr, & T. Johnstone (Eds.), *Appraisal processes in emotion: Theory, methods, research* (pp. 68–91). New York: Oxford University Press.

Recommended Readings

Griffiths, P. E. (2004). Is emotion a natural kind? In R. C. Solomon (Ed.), *Thinking about feeling: Contemporary philosophers on emotions* (pp. 233–249). New York: Oxford University Press.

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UNIT 1: MOTIVATION THEORIES

1.1 Introduction

Welcome to the first unit of this module, in this unit you will learn about theories of motivation. The major theories you will learn about are: maslow hierarch, of needs, Alderfer – ERG theory, Mc Clelland need for achievement, affiliation and power theory, Herzberg two factor theory, skinner reinforcement theory, Vroom expectancy theory, locke's goal-setting theory and the attribution theory learning outcomes.

1.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you are expected to;

- Distinguish between content and process motivation theories.
- Apply theories of motivation in real life situations.
- Evaluate various theories of motivation.

1.3 Time Frame

You need about three (3) hours per week to interact with this material.

1.4 Content

- Content and process theories of motivation
- Maslow –hierarchy of needs theory
- Alderfer –ERG theory of motivation.
- Mc Clelland theory of motivation
- Herzberg –two factor theory of motivation
- B.F Skinner reinforcement theory
- Vroom expectancy theory
- Adams' equity theory
- Locke's goal-setting theory
- Attribution theory

We can distinguish between **content** and **process** motivation theories. Content theories focus on WHAT, while process theories focus on how human behaviour is motivated. Content theories are the earliest theories of motivation. Within the work environment they have had the greatest impact on management practice and policy, whilst within academic circles they are the least accepted. Content theories are also called needs theories: they try to identify what our needs are and relate motivation to the fulfilling of these needs. The content theories cannot entirely explain what

motivate or demotivate us. Process theories are concerned with "*how*" motivation occurs, and what kind of process can influence our motivation.

The **main content theories** are: Maslow's needs hierarchy, Alderfer's ERG theory, McClelland's achievement motivation and Herzberg's two-factor theory.

The **main process theories** are: Skinner's reinforcement theory, Victor Vroom's expectancy theory, Adam's equity theory and Locke's goal setting theory (Figure 1).

No single motivation theory explains all aspects of people's motives or lack of motives. Each theoretical explanation can serve as the basis for the development of techniques for motivating.A

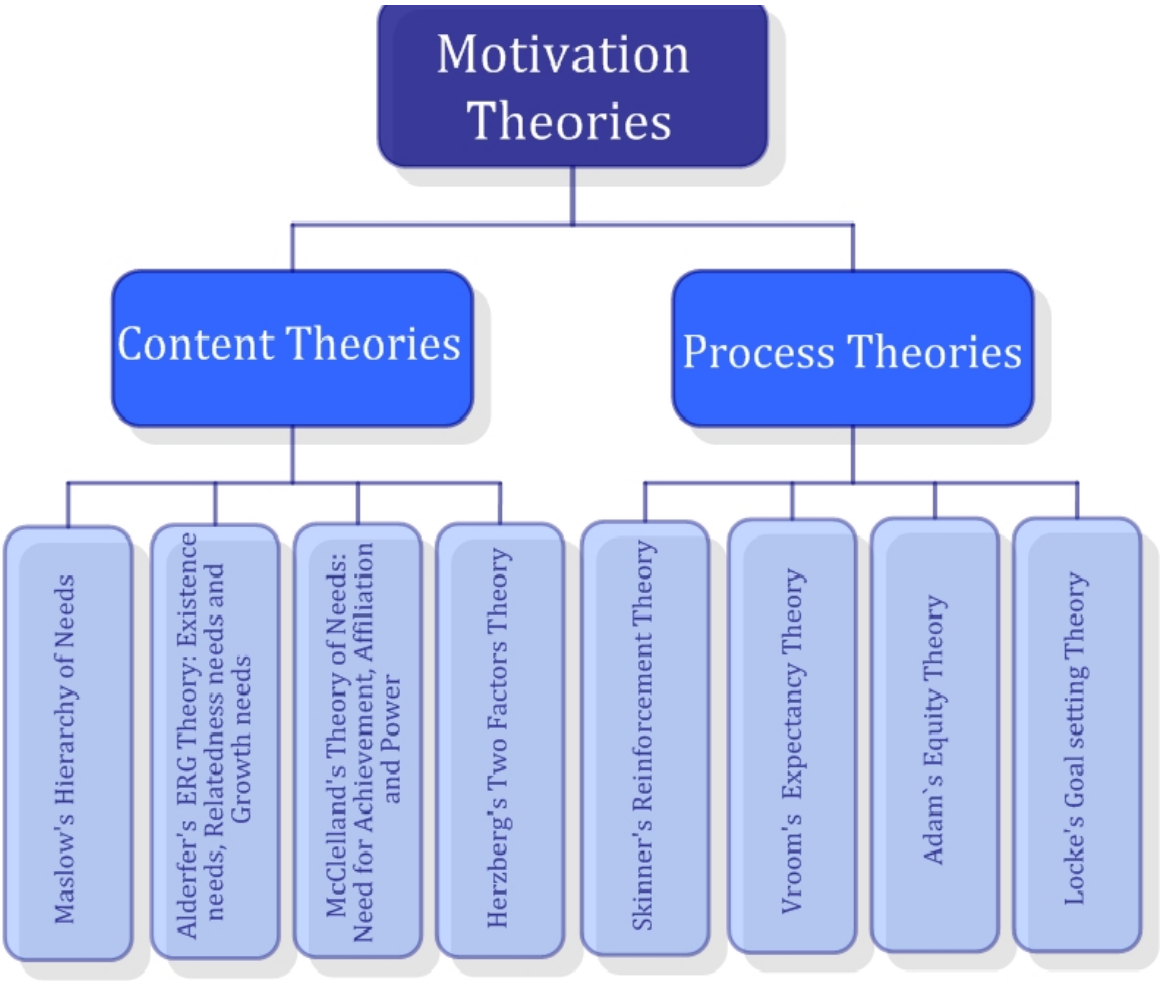

Figure 1. Motivation theories (Source: Author's own figure)

1.5 Maslow – hierarchy of needs

This is the earliest and most widely known theory of motivation, developed by Abraham Maslow (1943) in the 1940s and 1950s.

This theory condenses needs into five basic categories. Maslow ordered these needs in his hierarchy, beginning with the basic psychological needs and continuing through safety, belonging and love, esteem and self-actualization (Figure 2). In his theory, the lowest unsatisfied need becomes the dominant, or the most powerful and significant need. The most dominant need activates an individual to act to fulfil it. Satisfied needs do not motivate. Individual pursues to seek a higher need when lower needs are fulfilled.

Maslow's hierarchy of needs is often shown in the shape of a pyramid: basic needs at the bottom and the most complex need (need for self-actualization) at the top. Maslow himself has never drawn a pyramid to describe these levels of our needs; but the pyramid has become the most known way to represent his hierarchy.

Figure 2. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Source: Author's own figure)

1. **Physiological needs** (e.g. food, water, shelter, sleep)

It includes the most basic needs for humans to survive, such as air, water and food. Maslow emphasized, our body and mind cannot function well if these requirements are not fulfilled.

These physiological needs are the most dominant of all needs. So if someone is missing everything in his/her life, probably the major motivation would be to fulfil his/her physiological needs rather than any others. A person who is lacking food, safety, love (also sex) and esteem, would most probably hunger for food (and also for money, salary to buy food) than for anything else.

If all the needs are unsatisfied, and the organism is then overruled by the physiological needs, all other needs may turn into the background. All capacities are put into the attendance of satisfying hunger. Any other things are forgotten or got secondary importance.

2. **Safety and security** (secure source of income, a place to live, health and well-being)

If the physiological needs are relatively well contented, new needs will appear, the so called safety needs. Safety needs refer to a person's desire for security or protection. Basically everything looks less important than safety and protection (the physiological needs even sometimes). The healthy and fortunate adults in our culture are largely satisfied in their safety needs. The peaceful, sure, safety and unwavering society makes us feel in safety enough from criminal assaults, murder, unbelievable natural catastrophes, and so on. In that case people no longer have any safety needs as first-line motivators.

Meeting with safety needs demonstrated as a preference for insurance policies, saving accounts or job security, etc., we think about the lack of economic safety. Children have a greater need to feel safe. That is the reason why this level is more important for children.

Safety and security needs include: Personal security; Financial security; Health and well-being; Safety mesh against accidents, illnesses and their adverse impacts.

To tell the truth, in real dangers and traumas – like war, murder, natural catastrophes, criminal assault, etc. -, the needs for safety become an active, first-line and dominant mobilizer of human beings.

3. **Belongingness and love** (integration into social groups, feel part of a community or a group; affectionate relationships)

If both the physiological and the safety needs are fulfilled, the affection, love and belongingness needs come into prominence. Maslow claimed people need to belong and accepted among their social groups. Group size does not mean anything: social groups can be large or small. People need to love and be loved – both sexually and non-sexually – by others. Depending on the power and pressure of the peer group, this need for belonging may overbear the physiological and security needs.

Love needs involve giving and receiving affections (love is not synonymous with sex – sex is a physiological need). When they are unsatisfied, a person will immediately eliminate the lack of friends, peers and partner. Many people suffer from social nervousness, loneliness, social isolation and also clinical depression because of the lack of this love or belongingness factor.

4. **Esteem** (respect for a person as a useful, honourable human being)

In our society most people long for a stable and high valuation of themselves, for the esteem of others and for self-respect or self-esteem.

Esteem means being valued, respected and appreciated by others. Humans need to feel to be valued, such as being useful and necessary in the world. People with low self-esteem often need respect from others. Maslow divided two types of esteem needs: a 'lower' version and a 'higher' version. The 'lower' version of esteem is the need for respect from others: for example attention, prestige, status and loving their opinion. The 'higher' version is the need for self-respect: for example, the person may need independence, and freedom or self-confidence.

The most stable and therefore the healthiest self-esteem is based on respect from others. External fame or celebrity and unwarranted adulation won't cause self-esteem, although you feel better for a while.

5. **Self-actualization** (individual's desire to grow and develop to his or her fullest potential)

'What humans can be, they must be.' (Maslow, 1954)

Self-actualization reflects an individual's desire to grow and develop to his/her fullest potential. People like opportunities, choosing his/her own versions, challenging positions or creative tasks. Maslow described this level as the '*need to accomplish everything that one can, to become the most that one can be*'. Maslow believed that people must overcome their other needs – described above -, not only achieve them. At this level, individual differences are the largest.

As each level is adequately satisfied, we are then motivated to satisfy the next level in the hierarchy, always new and higher needs are coming. This is what we mean, when the basic human needs are drawn like a pyramid, a hierarchy. Life experiences, including divorce and loss of job, may cause an individual to fluctuate between levels of the hierarchy. These five different levels were further sub-categorised into two main groups: *deficiency and growth needs*.

Deficiency needs – The very basic needs for survival and security.

These needs include:

- *physiological needs*
- *safety and security needs*
- *social needs – belongingness and love*
- *esteem needs*

It may not cause a physical indication if these 'deficiency needs' are not fulfilled, but the individual will feel anxious and tense. So the most basic level of needs must be fulfilled before a person wants to focus on the secondary or higher level needs.

Growth needs – Personal growth and fulfilment of personal potential.

These needs include:

- *self-actualization needs*

This hierarchy is not as rigid as we may have implied. For example, there are some humans for whom self-esteem or self-actualization seems to be more important than love or belonging. The popularity of this theory of motivation rooted in its simplicity and logic.

1.6 Alderfer – ERG theory: Existence needs, relatedness needs and growth needs

Alderfer (Furnham, 2008) distinguished three steps or classes of needs: *existence, relatedness and growth*. Maslow's physiological and safety needs belong together to existence needs. Relatedness can be harmonised to belongingness and esteem of others. Growth is the same as Maslow's self-esteem plus self-actualization. Both Maslow and Alderfer tried to describe how these needs, these stages of needs become more or less important to individuals.

- **Existence needs:** These include needs for basic material necessities. In short, it includes an individual's physiological and physical safety needs.

• **Relatedness needs:** Individuals need significant relationships (be with family, peers or superiors), love and belongingness, they strive toward reaching public fame and recognition. This class of needs contain Maslow's social needs and external component of esteem needs.

• **Growth needs:** Need for self-development, personal growth and advancement form together this class of need. This class of needs contain Maslow's self-actualization needs and intrinsic component of esteem needs. Aderfer agreed with Maslow that unsatisfied needs motivate individuals. Alderfer also agreed that individuals generally move up the hierarchy in satisfying their needs; that is, they satisfy lower - order needs before higher- order needs. As lower needs are satisfied they become less important, but Alderfer also said: as higher - order needs are satisfied they become more important. And it is also said under some circumstances individuals might return to lower needs. Alderfer thought that individuals multiply the efforts invested in a lower category need when higher categorized needs are not consequent.

For a lower example, there is a student, who has excellent grades, friends, and high standard of living, maybe also work at the university. What happens if this individual finds that he or she is frustrated in attempts to get more autonomy and responsibility at the university, maybe also more scholarship that generally encourage individuals' growth? Frustration in satisfying a higher (growth) need has resulted in a regression to a lower level of (relatedness) needs ('*I need just my friends, some good wine, I do not want to go to the university anymore*.').

This event is known and called as the frustration-regression process. This is a more realistic approach as it recognises that, because when a need is met, it does not mean it will always remain met. ERG theory of motivation is very flexible: it explains needs as a range rather than as a hierarchy. Implication of this theory: Managers must understand that an employee has various needs that must be satisfied at the same time. ERG theory says, if the manager concentrates only on one need at a time, he or she won't be able to motivate the employee effectively and efficiently. Prioritization and sequence of these three categories, classes can be different for each individual.

1.7 McClelland – Need for achievement, affiliation and power

In the early 1960s McClelland – built on Maslow's work – described three human motivators. McClelland (Arnold et al., 2005) claimed that humans acquire, learn their motivators over time that is the reason why this theory is sometimes called the '*Learned Needs Theory'*. He affirms that we all have three motivating drivers, and it does not depend on our gender or age. One of these drives or needs will be dominant in our behaviour.

McClelland's theory differs from Maslow's and Alderfer's, which focus on satisfying existing needs rather than creating or developing needs. This dominant motivator depends on our culture and life experiences, of course (but the three motivators are permanent). The three motivators are:

- *achievement*: a need to accomplish and demonstrate competence or mastery
- *affiliation*: a need for love, belonging and relatedness
- *power*: a need for control over one's own work or the work of others

Achievement motivation – a need to accomplish and demonstrate competence or mastery. It pertains to a person's need for significant success, mastering of skills, control or high standards. It is associated with a range of actions. Individual seek achievement, attainment of challenging (and also realistic) goals, and advancement in the school or job.

This need is influenced by internal drivers for action (intrinsic motivation), and the pressure used by the prospects of others (extrinsic motivation). Low need for achievement could mean that individuals want to minimize risk of failure, and for this reason people may choose very easy or too difficult tasks, when they cannot avoid failure. In contrast, high need for achievement means that humans try to choose optimal, sufficiently difficult tasks, because they want to get the chance to reach their goals, but they have to work for it, they need to develop themselves.

Individuals with high need for achievement like to receive regular feedback on their progress and achievements; and often like to work alone; seek challenges and like high degree of independence.

Sources of high need for achievement can be: praise for success, goal setting skills, one's own competence and effort to achieve something, and it does not depend only on luck; of course positive feelings and also independence in childhood. McClelland said that training, teaching can increase an individual's need for achievement. For this reason, some have argued that need for achievement is not a need but a value.

Affiliation motivation – a need for love, belonging and relatedness

These people have a strong need for friendships and want to belong within a social group, need to be liked and held in popular regard. They are team players, and they may be less effective in leadership positions. High-need-for-affiliation persons have support from those with whom they have regular contact and mostly are involved in warm interpersonal relationships. After or during stressful situation individuals need much more affiliation. In these situations people come together and find security in one another. There are times when individuals want to be with others and at other times to be alone – affiliation motivation can become increased or decreased. Individuals do not like high risk or uncertainty.

Authority/power motivation – a need to control over one's own work or the work of others. These persons are authority motivated. There is a strong need to lead and to succeed in their ideas. It is also needed to increase personal status and prestige. This person would like to control and influence others. McClelland studied male managers with high need for power and high need for affiliation and found that managers with a high need for power tended to run more productive departments in a sales organization than did managers with a high need for affiliation.

It is important to speak about gender differences in need for power. It is said that men with high need for power mostly have higher aggression, drink more, act in sexually exploitative manner, and participate in competitive sports, and also political unrests. At the same time women with higher need for power show more socially acceptable and responsible manner, are more concerned and caring. These types of people prefer to work in big, multinational organisations, businesses and other influential professions.

McClelland argues that strong need for achievement people can become the best leaders – as we wrote it above. But at the same time there can be a tendency to request too much of their employees, because they think that these people are also highly achievement-focused and results-driven, as they are. Think about your teachers and professors! I am sure they all want the best for you, they would like to develop you, but I do not think you feel the same every time. McClelland said that most people have and show a combination of these characteristics.

1.8 Herzberg – Two factor theory

It is also called motivation-hygiene theory. This theory says that there are some factors (motivating factors) that cause job satisfaction, and motivation and some others also separated factors (hygiene factors) cause dissatisfaction. That means that feeling are not opposite of each other, as it always previously been believed.

Opposite of satisfaction is not dissatisfaction, but rather, no satisfaction. According to Herzberg (1987) the job satisfiers deal with the factors involved in doing the job, whereas the job dissatisfiers deal with the factors which define the job context.

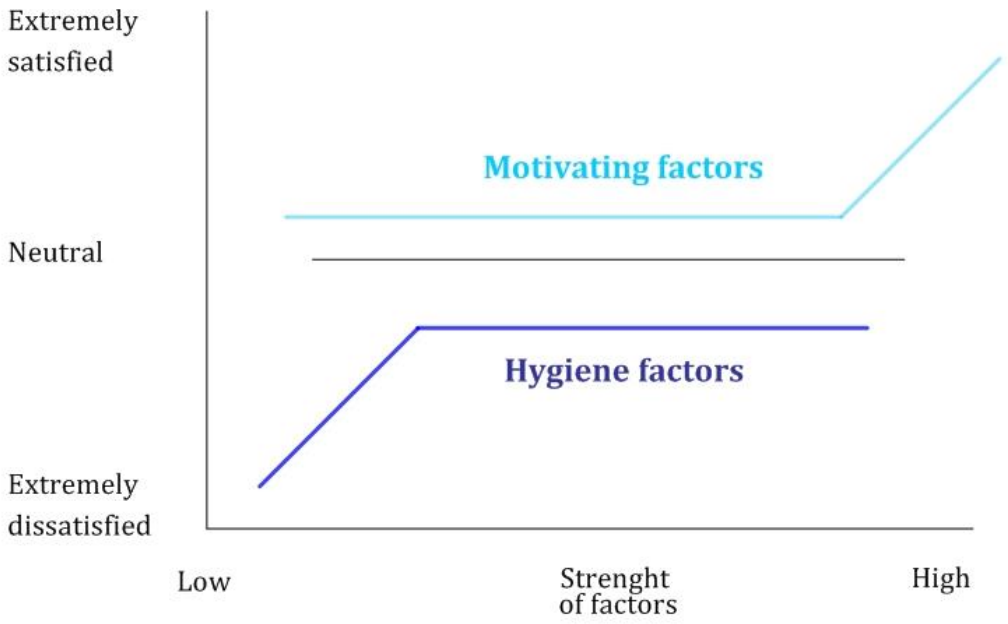

Figure 3. Herzberg's Two Factor Theory (Source: Author's own figure)

If the **hygiene factors**, for example salary, working conditions, work environment, safety and security are unsuitable (low level) at the workplace, this can make individuals unhappy, dissatisfied with their job. **Motivating factors**, on the other hand, can increase job satisfaction, and motivation is based on an individual's need for personal growth. If these elements are effective, then they can motivate an individual to achieve above-average performance and effort. For example, having responsibility or achievement can cause satisfaction (human characteristics) (Dartey-Baah, 2011).

Hygiene factors are needed to ensure that an employee is not dissatisfied. Motivation factors are needed to ensure employee's satisfaction and to motivate an employee to higher performance.

Table 1. Herzberg's Two Factory Theory (Source: Author's own table)

Dissatisfaction – Low level	Hygiene factors
No dissatisfaction-High level	
No satisfaction – Low level	Motivating factors
Satisfaction – High level	

1.8.1 Herzberg's five factors of job satisfaction (motivating factors):

• *achievement*

• *recognition*

• *work itself*

• *responsibility*

• *advancement*

Only these factors can motivate us. But at the same time we need the lack of dissatisfactions (we need hygiene factors, "*workpeace"*) to achieve more efficient work.

1.8.2 Herzberg's five factors of job dissatisfaction (hygiene factors – deficiency needs):

• *company policy and administration*

• *supervision*

• *salary*

• *interpersonal relationships*

• *working conditions*

Can we motivate with money, with higher salary? What did Herzberg and Maslow say? Is it just the same or something different?

Herzberg addressed salary not a motivator in the way that the primary motivators are, just like achievement and recognition. Salary can be a motivator, if you get always higher and higher salary, but we cannot say that it is an incentive. Maslow said, money or salary is needed to buy food to

eat, to have some place to live and sleep, etc. It can be a physiological need. Some differences between Herzberg and Maslow theory are described in Table 2.

Table 2. Differences between Maslow's and Herzberg's theory (Source: Author's own table)

Points of view	**Maslow's theory**	**Herzberg's theory**
Date of the theory	in 1940's	in 1960's
Study group	ordinary American people	well-situated American people
About needs	Every level of needs give us satisfaction and give the opportunity to move on to the next level of needs.	Not every type of needs can give us satisfaction, just motivating factors.

1.8.3 Limitations of this theory:

- *This theory oversees situational variables.*
- *Herzberg supposed a correlation, linear between productivity, performance and satisfaction.*
- *The theory's reliability is uncertain.*
- *No comprehensive measure of satisfaction was used.*
- *The theory ignores blue-collar workers; only white-collar men's opinion was discussed.*

However, Herzberg tried to bring more humanity and caring into companies' life. His intention was not to develop a theory that is used as a 'motivational tool', but to provide a guidance to improve organisational performance.

Table 3. Summary of Content Theories of Motivation (Source: Author's own table)

Maslow	**Alderfer**	**McClelland**	**Herzberg**
Physiological	Existence		Hygiene
Safety and security			
Belongingness and love	Relatedness	Need for Affiliation	

Self-esteem		Need for power	
Self-actualization	Growth	Need for achievement	Motivators

There are some critics for all need theories. Although, there is a consensus for the general concept: human behaviour is motivated by the strong wish for fulfilling a human need. Critics are:

• *Universality*: they do not care about gender, age, culture, religious or other factor differences.

• *Research support and methodology problems*: these theories were not based on reliable and creditable research results.

• *Work focus*: individuals have needs only at their workplaces, but not at any other places of their life.

• *Individual differences and stability over time.*

• *Process simplicity.*

1.9 Skinner's reinforcement theory

The Reinforcement theory, based on Skinner's operant conditioning theory, says that behaviour can be formed by its consequences (Gordon, 1987).

Positive reinforcements, for example praise, appreciation, a good mark/grade, trophy, money, promotion or any other reward can increase the possibility of the rewarded behaviours' repetition.

If a student gets positive verbal feedback and a good grade for his test, this reinforcement encourages the performance of the behaviour to recur. If the teacher doesn't tell precisely what he expects, then the positive reinforcements can drive the behaviour closer to the preferred. For example, when a student who is usually late to class gets positive feedback when he arrives on time, the student becomes more and more punctual. Positive reinforcement motivates to get the anticipated reinforcement of required behaviour. We use **negative reinforcement** when we give a meal to a hungry person if he behaves in a certain manner/way.

In this case the meal is a negative reinforcement because it eliminates the unpleasant state (hunger). Contrary to positive and negative reinforcement**, punishment** can be undesired reinforcement, or reinforce undesired behaviour.

For example, if a student is always late to class and thus he gets negative verbal feedback and also always has to tidy up the classroom at the end of the day, in this case the undesirable behaviour is reinforced with an undesirable reinforcer. The punishment declines the tendency to be late.

According to the theory, positive reinforcement is a much better motivational technique than punishment because punishment:

• *tries to stop undesirable behaviour and does not offer an alternative behaviour*

• *creates bad feelings, negative attitudes toward the activity, and the person who gives the punishment*

• *suppresses behaviour, but does not permanently eliminate it.*

Once certain behaviour has been conditioned through repetitive reinforcement, elimination of the reinforcement will decline the motivation to perform that behaviour. Therefore it is better not to give a reward every time. Reinforcement in the workplace usually takes place on a partial or irregular reinforcement schedule, when reward is not given for every response.

The reinforcement theory is included in many other motivation theories. Reward must meet someone's needs, expectations, must be applied equitably, and must be consistent. The desired behaviour must be clear and realistic, but the issue remains: which reinforcements are suitable and for which person?

1.10 Vroom's expectancy theory

The expectancy theory places an emphasis on the process and on the content of motivation as well, and it integrates needs, equity and reinforcement theories.

Victor Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory aims to explain how people choose from the available actions. Vroom defines motivation as a process that governs our choices among alternative forms of voluntary behaviour. The basic rationale of this theory is that motivation stems from the belief that decisions will have their desired outcomes.

The motivation to engage in an activity is determined by appraising three factors. These three factors are the following (Figure 4):

• **Expectancy** – a person's belief that more effort will result in success. If you work harder, it will result in better performance.

In this case the question is: "*Am I capable of making a good grade on a math test if I learn more?"* Appraisal of this factor is based on the effort to learn math, on knowledge of math, on the previous experience of math test results, on self-efficacy and specific self-rated abilities.

• **Instrumentality** – the person's belief that there is a connection between activity and goal. If you perform well, you will get reward.

In this case the question is that: "*Will I get the promised reward (a good mark) for performing well on a math test?*" Appraisal of this factor is based on the accuracy and consistency of marking. If one day I get a good grade and another day I get a bad grade for the same performance, then the motivation will decrease.

• **Valence** – the degree to which a person values the reward, the results of success.

In this case the question is that: "*Do I value the reward that I get?*" Appraisal of this factor is based on the importance of its subject (math), the good mark, and the good performance in general.

Vroom supposes that expectancy, instrumentality and valence are multiplied together to determine motivation. This means that if any of these is zero, then the motivation to do something will be zero.

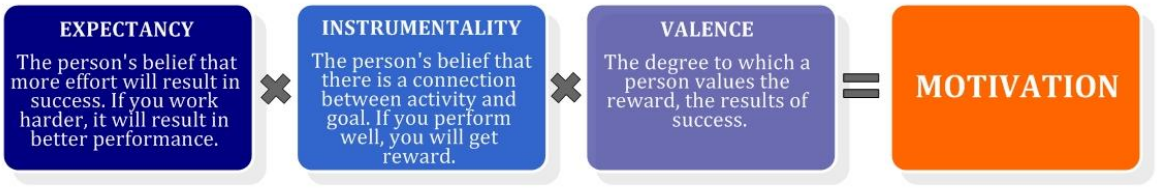

Figure 4. Vroom's expectancy theory (Source: Author's own figure)

A person who doesn't see the connection between effort and performance will have zero expectancy. A person who can't perceive the link between performance and reward will have zero instrumentality. For a person who doesn't value the anticipated outcome, reward will have zero valence.

For example, if I think:

- *that no matter how hard I'm studying I can't learn math due to lack of necessary skills or*
- *that no matter how good I perform on the test I don't always get good mark so the reward is unpredictable, not dependent on my success or*
- *the good mark from math is not important for me, and I'm not interested in math, so the reward is not attractive, then I won't be motivated to learn for the exam.*

The expectancy theory highlights individual differences in motivation and contains three useful factors for understanding and increasing motivation. This theory implies equity and importance of consistent rewards as well (Konig & Steel 2006).

1.11 Adams' equity theory

The equity theory states that people are motivated if they are treated equitably, and receive what they consider fair for their effort and costs.

The theory was suggested by Adams (1965) and is based on Social Exchange theory. According to this theory, people compare their contribution to work, costs their actions and the benefits that will result to their contribution and the benefit of the reference person. If people perceive that the ratio of their inputs-outputs to the ratio of referent others' inputs-outputs is inequitable, then they will be motivated to reduce the inequity

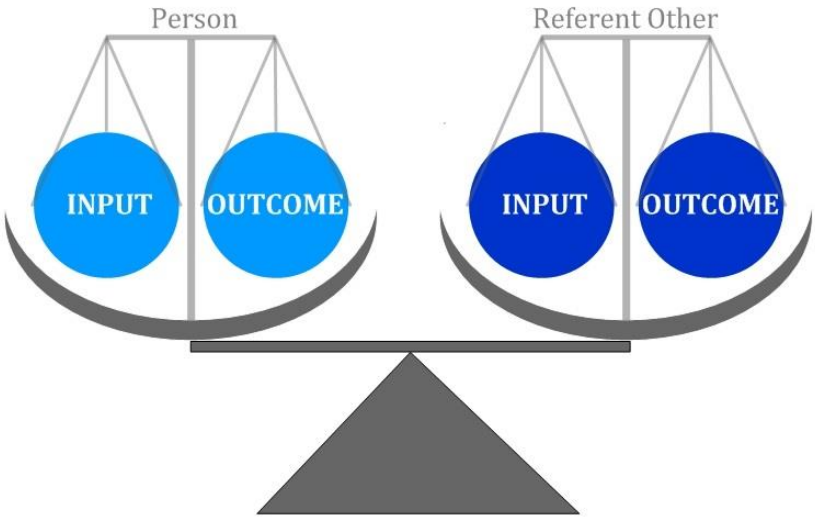

Figure 5. Adams' equity theory (Source: Author's own figure)

At the workplace the workers put inputs into the job, such as education, experience, effort, energy, and expect to get some outcomes such as salary, reward, promotion, verbal recognition, and interesting and challenging work each in equal amounts (Figure 6).

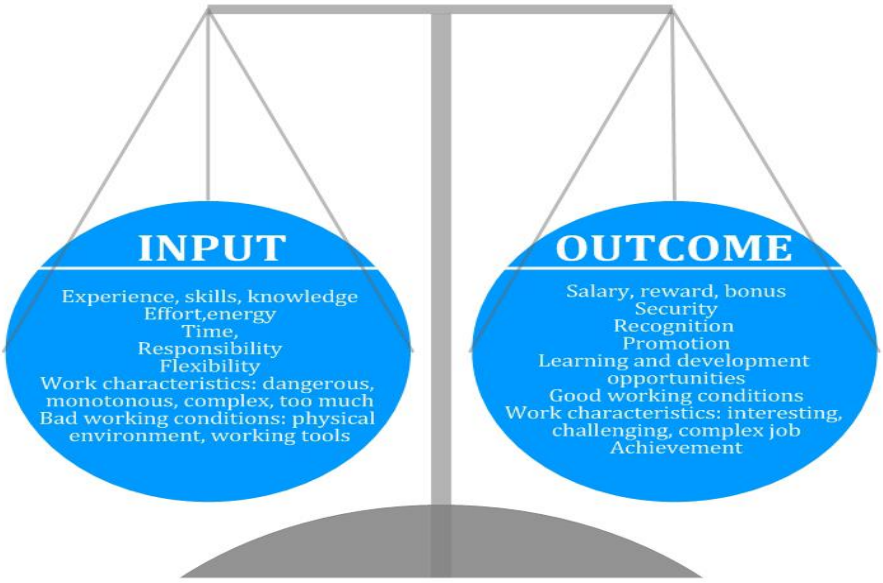

Figure 6. Examples for the inputs and outcomes in the equity theory (Source: Author's own figure)

The equity theory works not just in the workplace, but at school as well. For example, when for the same oral exam performance two students get different marks, then inequity exists. In this case, the student who gets the worse mark may lose his/her motivation to learn (reduce his/her efforts), or persuade the teacher to give him/her a better mark, or change the perception of the reference person's performance ("*I did not know everything, but my classmate could answer all the questions*"). At the school it can demotivate students if someone who never studies or who never performs better than the others always gets good mark. The greater the inequity the greater the distress an individual feels, which will motivate the endeavour to make the outcomes and the inputs equal compared to the reference person.

When inequity exists, a person might…

• *reduce his/her inputs, efforts, quantity or quality of his/her work*

• *try to increase his/her outputs* (ask for better mark, or pay raising)

• *adjust his/her perception of reference person or his/her outcomes or inputs* (re-evaluate his/her or the reference person's effort or outcome)

• *change the reference person*

• *quit the situation.*

The problem with equity theory is that it does not take into account differences in individual needs, values, and personalities. For example, one person may perceive a certain situation as inequitable while another does not. Nevertheless, ensuring equity is essential to motivation.

1.12 Locke's goal-setting theory

Locke's (1990) goal setting theory is an integrative model of motivation just like the expectancy theory. It emphasizes that setting specific, challenging performance goals and the commitment to these goals are key determinants of motivation. Goals describe a desired future, and these established goals can drive the behavior. Achieving the goals accomplishment further motivates individuals to perform.

We can distinguish goals according to specificity, difficulty and acceptance. A specific goal can be measured and lead to higher performance than a very general goal like "*Try to dmotivateso your best!*" A difficult, but realistic goal can be more motivational than easy or extremely difficult ones. The acceptance of the goal is very important as well, therefore involvement in the goal setting is recommended.

For example, if I decide to pass a medium level language exam in German in six months – this goal is specific and difficult enough – because I want to work in Germany – this goal is very important for me, therefore the goal commitment is high – then I will be motivated to learn, and to pass the exam.

The following guidelines have been useful in the goal-setting (Figure 7):

• *Set challenging but attainable goals*. Too easy or too difficult/unrealistic goals don't motivate us.

• *Set specific and measurable goals*. These can focus toward what you want, and can measure the progress toward the goal.

• *Goal commitment should be obtained*. If people don't commit to the goals, then they will not put effort toward reaching the goals, even specific, or challenging ones. Strategies to achieve this could include participation in the goal setting process, use of extrinsic rewards (bonuses), and encouraging intrinsic motivation through providing workers with feedback about goal attainment. Pressure to achieve goals is not useful because it can result in dishonesty and superficial performance.

• *Support elements should be provided*. For example, encouragement, needed materials, resources, and moral support.

• *Knowledge of results is essential* – so goals need to be quantifiable and there needs to be feedback.

Goal-setting is a useful theory which can be applied in several fields, from sport to a wide range of work settings. Sports psychology in particular has adopted its recommendations. The concept of goal-setting has been incorporated into a number of incentive programmes and management by objectives (MBO) techniques in a number of work areas. Feedback accompanying goal attainment may also enhance a worker's job performance and ability to become more innovative and creative on the job through a trial-and-error learning process. Since goal-setting is a relatively simple motivational strategy, it has become increasingly popular.

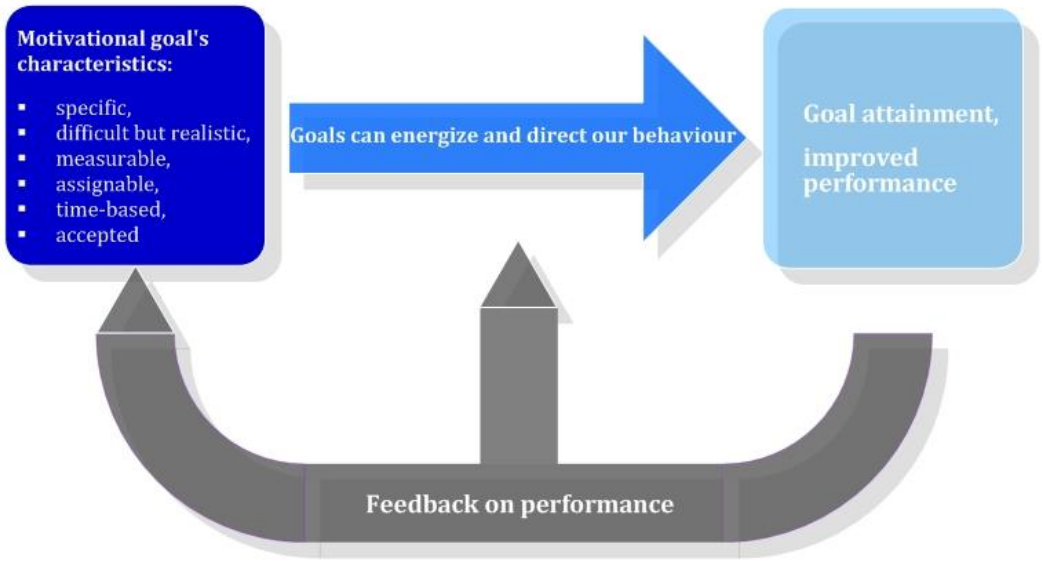

Figure 7. Process of motivation according to goal-setting theory (Source: Author's own figure)

1.13 Attribution Theory

According to attribution theory, the explanations that people tend to make to explain success or failure can be analysed in terms of three sets of characteristics. Causes of failure or success may be:

Internal or external, i.e. we may succeed or fail because of factors that we believe have their origin within us or because of factors that originate in our environment.

Stable or unstable, i.e. If we believe cause is stable, then the outcome is likely to be the same if we perform the same behaviour on another occasion. If cause is unstable the outcome is likely to be different on another occasion controllable or uncontrollable. A controllable factor is one which we believe we ourselves can alter if we wish to do so. An uncontrollable factor is one that we do not believe we can easily alter.

An important assumption of attribution theory is that people will interpret their environment in such a way as to maintain a positive image.

The basic principle of attribution theory as it applies to motivation is that a person's own perception or attribution for success or failure determine the amount of effort the person the amount of effort the person will expend on that activity in future.

There are four factors related to attribution theory that influence motivation in education and these are ability, task difficulty, effort and luck. In terms of the characteristic discussed previously, these four factors can be analysed in the following way.

- Ability - is a relatively internal and stable factor over which the learner does not exercise direct control.

- Task – difficult – is an internal and stable factor that is largely beyond the learner's control.

- Effort – is an internal unstable factor over which the learner can exercise a great deal of control.

- Lack – is an external and unstable factor over which the learners exercise very little control.

Note that it is the learner's perception that determines how attribution will influence future effort. Pupils will be most persistent at academic tasks under the following circumstances:

1. If they attribute their academic successes to either:

    - Internal, unstable factor over which they have control |(e.g. effort) or

    - Internal, stable factors over which they have little control but which may sometimes be disrupted by other factors (e.g. ability disrupted by occasional bad luck) and

2. If they attribute their failures to internal, unstable factors over which they have control (e.g. effort).

1.14 Implication of this theory in Education

1) If you want pupils to persist at academic tasks, we should help them establish a sincere belief that they are competent and the occasional imperfection or failures are the result of some other factors such as bad luck or lack of sufficient effort).

2) It is not beneficial for pupils to attribute their success entirely to ability. If they think they have all the ability they need, they may feel that the additional effort is not necessary. The ideal attribution for success should be Í succeed because I am a competent person who worked hard.

3) It is extremely important that when pupils perceive themselves as unsuccessful, teachers must help them to develop the conviction that they can still succeed if they give it their best shot.

4) Teachers must avoid excessive competitive grading and evaluation systems because they may impair the learning of may students. Competition will encourage pupils to persist only to the extent that they believe additional effort will enable them to succeed within the competitive atmosphere.

1.15 Activity

1. How are attributions communicated to the learners by
    a) Teachers
    b) Parents
    c) Fellow learners

1.16 Reflection

1. What do you think is the difference between content and process theories of motivation?

1.17 Summary

In this unit, you have learnt the following theories of motivation: Maslow's hierarchy theory, Aderfer,-ERG theory, Mc Clelland theory, Herzberg –two factor theory, Skinner reinforcement theory, Vroom expectancy theory, Adam' Equity theory, Locke' goal-setting theory and the attribution theory we hope you are now able to apply these theories in real life situations to enhance human performance. In the next unit, we will look at yet another interesting topic about human Emotions.

UNIT 2: EMOTIONS

2.1 Introduction

What are Emotions? In psychology, emotion is often defined as a complex state of feeling that results in physical and psychological changes that influence thought and behavior. Emotionality is associated with a range of psychological phenomena, including temperament, personality, mood, and motivation. According to author David G. Meyers, human emotion involves "...physiological arousal, expressive behaviors, and conscious experience." The major theories of motivation can be grouped into three main categories: physiological, neurological, and cognitive. Physiological theories suggest that responses within the body are responsible for emotions. Neurological theories propose that activity within the brain leads to emotional responses. Finally, cognitive theories argue that thoughts and other mental activity play an essential role in forming emotions.

We all have emotions, and yet most of us can't explain them. Do people really know why they have them, when they have them, how to control them, etc.? Like so many other aspects of our psychological makeup, emotions are comprised of several components. We will discuss emotions in terms of the cognitive, physiological, and behavioral components.

2.2 Learning outcomes

By the end of this unit, you will be expected to;

- Explain basic component of Emotions.
- Discuss major theories of emotion.

2.3 Time Frame

You need about three (3) hours per week to interact with this material.

Content

- Evolutionary theory of emotions
- The James –lauge theory of emotion
- The cannon-Bard theory of emotions
- Schachter – singer theory
- Cognitive appraisal theory
- Social feed back theory of Emotions

- The universal expression of Emotions
- Cultural variations in emotional expression

2.4 Components of Emotions

There are four basic components of emotions: 1. The physiological aspect, which involves active changes in the body physically, e.g, tachycardia, tachypnea, dilated pupils, and many others. 2. The cognitive component, which emphasizes the importance of thoughts, beliefs, and 50 expectations in determining the type and intensity of emotional response. 3. The behavioral component, which involves the various forms of expressions that emotions may take, such as, facial expressions, bodily postures, gestures, and tone of voice which changes with anger, joy, fear, sorrow and others. 4. The subjective experience, which includes elements of pleasure, or displeasure and intensity of feeling. What one individual experiences as intensely as pleasurable may be boring for another.

2.5 Major theories of emotions

2.5.1 Evolutionary Theory of Emotion

It was naturalist Charles Darwin who proposed that emotions evolved because they were adaptive and allowed humans and animals to survive and reproduce. Feelings of love and affection lead people to seek mates and reproduce. Feelings of fear compel people to either fight or flee the source of danger. According to the evolutionary theory of emotion, our emotions exist because they serve an adaptive role. Emotions motivate people to respond quickly to stimuli in the environment, which helps improve the chances of success and survival. Understanding the emotions of other people and animals also plays a crucial role in safety and survival. If you encounter a hissing, spitting, and clawing animal, chances are you will quickly realize that the animal is frightened or defensive and leave it alone. By being able to interpret 51 correctly the emotional displays of other people and animals, you can respond correctly and avoid danger.

2.6 The James-Lange Theory of Emotion

The James-Lange theory is one of the best-known examples of a physiological theory of emotion. Independently proposed by psychologist William James and physiologist Carl Lange, the James-Lange theory of emotion suggests that emotions occur as a result of physiological reactions to events. This theory suggests that when you see an external stimulus that leads to a physiological reaction. Your emotional reaction is dependent upon how you interpret those physical reactions. For example, suppose you are walking in the woods and you see a grizzly

bear. You begin to tremble, and your heart begins to race. The James-Lange theory proposes that you will interpret your physical reactions and conclude that you are frightened ("I am trembling. Therefore, I am afraid"). According to this theory of emotion, you are not trembling because you are frightened. Instead, you feel frightened because you are trembling.

2.7 The Cannon-Bard Theory of Emotion

Another well-known physiological theory is the Cannon-Bard theory of emotion. Walter Cannon disagreed with the James-Lange theory of emotion on several different grounds. First, he suggested, people can experience physiological reactions linked to emotions without actually feeling those emotions. For example, your heart might race because you have been exercising and not because you are afraid. Cannon also suggested that emotional responses occur much too quickly for them to be simply products of physical states. When you encounter a danger in the environment, you will often feel afraid before you start to experience the physical symptoms associated with fear such as shaking hands, rapid breathing, and a racing heart. Cannon first proposed his theory in the 1920s and his work was later expanded on by physiologist Philip Bard during the 1930s. According to the Cannon-Bard theory of emotion, we feel emotions and experience physiological reactions such as sweating, trembling, and muscle tension simultaneously. 52 More specifically, it is suggested that emotions result when the thalamus sends a message to the brain in response to a stimulus, resulting in a physiological reaction. At the same time, the brain also receives signals triggering the emotional experience. Cannon and Bard's theory suggests that the physical and psychological experience of emotion happen at the same time and that one does not cause the other.

2.8 Schachter-Singer Theory

Also known as the two-factor theory of emotion, the Schachter-Singer Theory is an example of a cognitive theory of emotion. This theory suggests that the physiological arousal occurs first, and then the individual must identify the reason for this arousal to experience and label it as an emotion. A stimulus leads to a physiological response that is then cognitively interpreted and labeled which results in an emotion. Schachter and Singer's theory draws on both the James-Lange theory and the Cannon-Bard theory of emotion. Like the James-Lange theory, the Schachter-Singer theory proposes that people do infer emotions based on physiological responses. The critical factor is the situation and the cognitive interpretation that people use to label that emotion. Like the Cannon-Bard theory, the Schachter-Singer theory also suggests that

similar physiological responses can produce varying emotions. For example, if you experience a racing heart and sweating palms during an important math exam, you will probably identify the emotion as anxiety. If you experience the same physical responses on a date with your significant other, you might interpret those responses as love, affection, or arousal.

2.9 Cognitive Appraisal Theory

According to appraisal theories of emotion, thinking must occur first before experiencing emotion. Richard Lazarus was a pioneer in this area of emotion, and this theory is often referred to as the Lazarus theory of emotion. According to this theory, the sequence of events first involves a stimulus, followed by thought which then leads to the simultaneous experience of a physiological response and the emotion. For example, if you encounter a bear in the woods, you might immediately begin to think that you are in great danger. This then leads to the emotional experience of fear and the physical reactions associated with the fight-or-flight response.

2.10 Facial-Feedback Theory of Emotion

The facial-feedback theory of emotions suggests that facial expressions are connected to experiencing emotions. Charles Darwin and William James both noted early on that sometimes physiological responses often had a direct impact on emotion, rather than simply being a consequence of the emotion. Supporters of this theory suggest that emotions are directly tied to changes in facial muscles. For example, people who are forced to smile pleasantly at a social function will have a better time at the event than they would if they had frowned or carried a more neutral facial expression.

2.11 The Universal Expression of Emotion

Emotions play an important role in our daily lives. Each and every day we spend a tremendous amount of time witnessing the emotions of others, interpreting what these signals might mean, determining how to respond and deal with our own complex emotional experiences. Emotions in Psychology and Research Emotions are also an important topic in psychology and researchers have devoted a great deal of energy toward understanding the purpose of emotions and theories about how and why emotions occur. Researchers have also learned a great deal about the actual expression of emotion. We express our emotions in a number of different ways including both verbal communication and nonverbal communication. Body language such as a slouched posture or crossed arms can be used to send different emotional signals. One of the most important ways that we express emotion, however, is through facial expressions. Are Emotional Expressions

Universally? You have probably heard that body language signals and gestures sometimes have different meanings in different cultures, but does the same idea apply to facial expressions as well? Do people in other countries and cultures express emotions in the same way? In his 1872 book The Expression of the Emotions in Man and Animals, famed naturalist Charles Darwin argued that human expressions of emotion were both innate and universal across cultures. Researcher and emotion expert Paul Eckman has found that, for the most part, the facial expressions used to convey basic emotions tend to be the same across cultures. 54 While he has found that the human face is capable of creating an astonishing variety of expressions (more than 7,000!), there are six key basic emotions: 1. Happiness 2. Surprise 3. Sadness 4. Anger 5. Disgust 6. Fear Researchers have shown photographs of people expressing these emotions to individuals from different cultures, and people from all over the world have been able to identify the basic emotions behind these expressions. Eckman believes that not only are these basic emotions probably innate, they are most likely hard-wired in the brain.

2.12 Cultural Variations in Emotional Expression

There are important cultural differences in how we express emotions. Display rules are the differences in how we manage our facial expressions according to social and cultural expectations. In one classic experiment, researchers watched Japanese and American participants as they viewed grisly images and videos of things such as amputations and surgeries. People from both backgrounds showed similar facial expressions, grimacing and conveying disgust at the gory images. When a scientist was present in the room as the participants viewed these scenes, however, the Japanese participants masked their feelings and kept neutral facial expressions. Why would the presence of the scientist change how these viewers responded? In Japanese culture, it is considered offensive to reveal negative emotions in the presence of an authority figure. By masking their expressions, the Japanese viewers were adhering to the display rules of their culture. The ability to express and interpret emotions plays an essential part of our daily lives. While many expressions of emotion are innate, and likely hard-wired in the brain, there are many other 55 factors that influence how we reveal our inner feelings. Social pressures, cultural influences, and past experience can all help shape the expression of emotion.

2.13 Terminologies

1. Intrinsic motivation: Refers to motivation that is driven by interest or enjoyment of doing the task.

2. Extrinsic motivation: Is when a person engages in a behavior believed to be instrumental to some consequences.

3. Emotions: Are defined as a complex state of feeling that results in physical and psychological changes that influence throughout and behavior.

2.14 Activities

1. Evaluate the following theories of emotions; James Lange, the Cannon Bard theory and Schaditer and Singer two factor theory.

2. Examine components of emotions.

3. Discuss the attribution theory and show how it is used in real life situations.

4. Explain the emotions expressed below.

2.15 Reflection

Do you think it is possible to hide your emotions?

2.16 Summary

This unit has outlined the basic approaches to explaining the emotions, it has reviewed a number of important theories, and it has discussed many of the features that emotions are believed to have. One tentative conclusion that can now be drawn is that it is unlikely that any single theory will prevail anytime soon, especially since not all of these theories are in direct competition with each other. Some of them are compatible, for instance, an evolutionary theory and a theory that describes the emotion process can easily complement each other; Griffiths' theory of the affect program emotions demonstrates that these two perspectives can be employed in a single theory. On the other hand, some of the theories are simply inconsistent, like the cognitive and non-cognitive theories, and so the natural expectation is that one of these positions will eventually be eliminated. Many of the theories, however, fall somewhere in between, agreeing about some features of emotion, while disagreeing about others.

The empirical evidence that exists and continues to be collected is one topic that has not been discussed in this article. Being familiar with this research is central to analyzing and critiquing the theories. In the past forty years, a vast amount of data has been collected by cognitive and social psychologists, neuroscientists, anthropologists, and ethologists. This empirical research has made

theorizing about the emotions an interesting challenge. A problem that remains for the theorist of emotion is accounting for all of the available empirical evidence.

UNIT 3: THEORIES OF LEARNING: CLASSICAL CONDITIONING, OPERANT CONDITIONING AND OBSERVATIONAL LEARNING THEORIES

3.1 Introduction

In the broadest sense, learning is when an experience causes a relatively permanent change in an individual's knowledge or behavior. The change may be deliberate or un intentional, for better or for worse, correct or incorrect, and conscious or un conscious on the other hand, comes simply caused by maturation, such as acquire teeth, growing taller do not qualify as learning. Temporal changes resulting from illness, fatigue or hunger are excluded from a general definition of learning.

In this unity you will particularly learn about the following theories of learning; classical conditioning, operant conditioning observation learning.

3.2 Learning outcomes

By the end of this unity, you will be expected to:

- Apply principles of classical conditioning in the real life situation.
- Discuss observational learning theory
- Apply schedules of reinforcement in real life learning.

3.3 Time frame

You need about three (3) hours per week to interact with this material.

3.4 Content

- Contiguity and classical conditioning
- Classical conditioning theory
- Application of classical conditioning in teaching
- Limitation of classical conditioning
- Operation conditioning theory
- Types of reinforcement
- Reinforcement schedules
- Observational learning theory
- Element of observational learning

- Factors that influences observational learning

(i) Contiguity and Classical Conditioning

One of the earliest explanations of learning came from Aristotle (384 – 322: BC). He said that we remember things:

i) When they are similar

ii) When they contrast and

iii) When they are contiguous (presented together). The last principle is the most important, because it is included in all explanations of learning by association. The principle of contiguity (association of two events because of repeated pairing) states that, whenever two or more sensations occur together often enough they will become associated later, when only one of these sensations (a stimulus) occurs together, the other will be remembered too. (a response)

- A stimulus is an event that activates behaviour while a response is the observable reaction to a stimulus.
- Contiguity also plays a major role in another learning process best known as classical conditions.

3.5 Classical Conditioning theory

Classical conditioning is learning through association. It was identified in the 1920s by Iran Pavlov, a Russian physiologist who tried to determine how long it took a dog to secrete digestive juices after it had been fed. But the intervals of time kept on changing (Pavlov, 1927). At first, the dogs salivated as expected while they were being fed. Then the dogs began to salivate as soon as they saw the food and then as soon as they saw the scientist walking towards the lab. Pavlov decided to move away from his original experiments and examined these unexpected interferences in his work.

In one of his first experiments, Pavlov began by sounding a bell and recorded a dog's response. As expected there was no salivating at this point, the sound of a bell was a;

1. Neutral Stimulus – (a stimulus not connected to a response) because it brought forth no salivation. Then Pavlov fed the dog. The response was salivation.

The food was an **unconditioned** stimulus (US) because no prior training or conditioning was needed to establish the natural connection between food and salivation (the unconditioned stimulus is a stimulus that automatically produces an emotional or physiological response).

The salivation was **unconditioned response** (UR) again because it was elicited automatically no conditioning was required.

Using these three elements – the food, the salivation and the bell – Pavlov demonstrated that a dog could be conditioned to salivate after hearing the bell. He did this by continuously paring the sound of the bell will food. At the beginning of the experiment, he sounded the bell and then quickly fed the dog. After Pavlov repeated this several times, the dog began to salivate after hearing of the bell, but before receiving the food. Now the sound had because a **Conditioned Stimulus** – (a stimulus that evokes an emotional or physiological response after conditioning) a conditioned stimulus can bring forth salivation by itself. The salivating response after the sound was now a **Conditioned Response (Cr**) – this is a learnt response to a previously neutral stimulus.

3.6 Application of Classical Conditioning in Teaching

- Associate positive, pleasant events with learning tasks. e.g. emphasize group competition and cooperate over individual competition.
- Many learners have negative emotional responses to individual competition because they may have repeatedly lost or been embarrassed and that may generalize to other learning.

- Help learners to reduce anxiety – producing situation voluntarily and successfully in class.

- E.g. Devise small steps towards a larger goal give practice tests daily, and then weekly, to learners who tend to 'freeze' in test situation.

- Help learners recognize differences and similarities among situations so that they can discriminate and generalize appropriately. E.g. Assure learners who are anxious about taking important tests (such as G.C.E. that this test is like all other achievement tests they have taken.

3.7 Limitations of Classical Conditioning

Critics of classical conditioning argue that it assumes humans to be simple machine like creatures who simply respond to stimuli without thinking.

3.8 Operant Conditioning: Trying New Responses

People act or 'operate' on their environment to produce different kinds of consequences. Operant is a voluntary (and generally go directed) behaviour emitted by a person or an animal. The learning process involved in operant behaviour is called operant conditioning because we learn to behave in certain ways (become conditioned) as we operate on the environment.

The person generally thought to be responsible for developing the concept of operant conditioning is B.F Skinner (1953). Skinner began with a belief that the principles of classical conditioning account for only a small portion of learnt behaviours. Many human behaviours are operates (voluntary behaviours, emitted by a person) not respondents.

Classical conditioning described only how existing behaviours may be paired with new stimuli; it does not explain how new operant behaviours are acquired.

Behaviour, like response or action is simply a word for what a person does in a particular situation. Conceptually, we may think of behaviour as sandwiched between two sets of environmental influences: Those that precede it (its antecedents) (and events the follow it (its consequences) (Skinner, 1950).

This relationship can be shown by simply as antecedent – behaviour consequence, A – B, - C. As behaviour is ongoing, a given consequence becomes an antecedent for the next ABC sequence.

According to the behavioural view, consequence determines a great extent whether a person will repeat the behaviour that led to the consequence. The type and timing of consequences can either strength or weaken behaviours.

3.9 Reinforcement (Use of Consequence To Strengthen Behaviour)

Although reinforcement is commonly understood to mean 'reward' this term has a particular meaning in psychology. **A Rein forcer**; is any consequence that strengthen the behaviour it follows. So reinforced behaviours increase in frequency or duration. The reinforcement process can be shown below;

Consequence effect

Behaviour → reinforcer → strengthened or repeated action. Sometimes whether the consequence of an action is reinforcing probably depends on individual perception of the event and the meaning it holds for him or her.

3.10 There are two types of reinforcement,

iv) The first one is called **positive reinforcement** (strengthening behaviour by presenting a desired stimulus after the behaviour). This occurs when the behaviour produces a new stimulus e.g. wearing a new outfit producing many compliments. Notice that positive reinforcement can occur even when the behaviour which is being reinforce (like falling out of the chair) is not 'positive' from the teacher' point of view, in fact, positive reinforcement of inappropriate behaviours occurs unintentionally in many classrooms.

When the consequence that strengthens a behaviour is the **appearance** (addition) of a new stimulus, the situation is defined as positive reinforcement. Contrary, when the consequence that strengthens a behaviour is the **disappearance** (subtraction) of a

stimulus, the process is called **Negative Reinforcement** (Strengthening behaviour by removing **an aversive** stimulus when the behaviour occurs). If a particular action leads to avoiding or escaping an aversive (irritating an unpleasant) situation, the action is likely to be repeated in a similar situation. A common example is a car seat belt buzzer. As soon as you put on your seat belt, the irritating buzzer stops. You are likely to repeat this behaviour (putting on the seat belt) in the future because the action made an aversive stimulus (buzzer) disappear. This type of reinforcement is called **negative reinforcement** because the stimulus disappears, it is reinforcement because the behaviour that caused the stimulus to disappear increases or repeats.

Punishment (the Process that weakens or suppresses behaviour)

Negative reinforcement is often confused with punishment. The process of reinforcement (positive or negative) always involves strengthening behaviour. Punishment on the other hand, involves, decreasing or suppressing behaviour. A behaviour followed by punishment is less likely to be repeated in similar situations in future.

Consequence Effect

The process of punishment is: Behaviour → punisher → weakened or decreased behaviour.

Like reinforcement, punishment may take one of the two forms. The first type is presentation (or positive) punishment (sometime called type 1 punishment) presentation or positive punishment is decreasing the chances that a behaviour will occur again by presenting an aversive stimulus following the behaviour (also called type 1 punishment as stated above). This occurs when the appearance of a stimulus following the behaviour suppresses or decreases the behaviour. When teachers give out extra work, running laps, detentions and so on, they are using presentation punishment.

The other type of punishment is removal (or **Negative Punishment**) – decreasing the chances that a behaviour will occur again by removing a pleasant stimulus following

the behaviour; also called punishment type II. This type of punishment as stated involves removing a stimulus. When teachers and parents take away privileges after a young person has behaved inappropriately, they are applying removal punishment, perhaps with holding pocket money. The effect is to decrease that behaviour that led to the punishment.

3.11 Reinforcement Schedules

When people are learning a new behaviour, they will learn it faster if they are reinforced for every correct response. This is a **continuous reinforcement schedule.** Then, when the new behaviour has been mastered, they will maintain it best if they are reinforced intermittently rather than every time. (**Intermittent reinforcement schedule** is presenting reinforcer after some but not all responses). This type of reinforcement schedule helps learners to maintain skills without expecting constant reinforcement.

There are two basic types of intermittent schedules, one

(i) is called **interval ratio schedule** (length of time between reinforcers) is based on the amount of time that passes between the reinforcers.

(ii) The other- is the **ratio schedule** (reinforcement based on the number of responses between reinforcers) – is based on the number of responses learners give before reinforcement.

3.11.1 Reinforcement Schedules

Schedule	Definition	Example	Response	Reaction When Reinforcement Stop
Continuous reinforcement	Every single response reinforced	(1) Receiving a grade for every piece of work	Rapid learning of responses	Disappears rapidly
Fixed interval	Reinforcement after a set period of time	Giving yourself a 15 minutes break after every hour of study	Response rate speeds up as next reinforcement approaches, but drops afterwards	Little resistance
Variable interval	Reinforcement after varying length of time	Finally receiving an answer after dialling busy number	Slow, steady rate of response	- greater persistence - slow decline in response rate
Fixed ratio	Reinforcement after set number of responses	Credit/grades awarded for completion of set number of assignments	- rapid response rate – pause after reinforcement	Little persistence rapid drop in response when expected number of responses given but no reinforcement occurs
Variable ratio	Reinforcement after varying number of responses	Receiving an A grade after a number of Cs - Slot machine	Very high response rate – little pause after reinforcement	Highest persistence response rate stays high and gradually drops off.

3.12 Observation Learning

Over 30 years ago, Albert Bandura noted that the traditional behavioural views of learning were accurate – but incomplete – because they gave only a partial explanation of learning and over looked important elements, particularly social influences.

His early work was grounded in the behavioural principles of reinforcement and punishment, but he added a focus on learning from observing others. This expanded view was labelled **Social Learning Theory** (a theory that emphasizes learning through observation of others) social learning theory was considered neo behavioural approach (Bandura, 1977, Hill, 2002).

To explain some limitations of the behavioural model, Bandura distinguished between the acquisition of knowledge (learning) and the observable performance based on that knowledge (behaved) in other ways Bandura suggested that we all may know more than we may show in our behaviour. An example is found in Bandura's early studies (1965). Pre-school children saw a film on a model kicking and punching an inflatable 'bobo' doll. One group saw the model rewarded for the aggression, another group saw the model punished and a third group saw no consequences. When they were moved to a room with a 'Bobo' doll, the children who had seen the punching and kicking reinforced on the film were the most aggressive on the doll. Those who had seen the attacks punished were the least aggressive. However, when the children were promised rewards for imitating the models aggression, all of them demonstrated had leant the behaviour.

Thus, we can see that incentives can affect performance. Even though learning might have occurred, it may not be demonstrated until the situation is appropriate or there are incentives to perform.

Recently, Bandura has focused on cognitive factors such as belief, self-perceptions and expectations, so his theory now is called (Hill 2002) **Social Cognitive Theory** the theory that adds cognitive factors such as beliefs, self-perceptions and expectations to the social learning theory. This theory distinguishes between enactive and vicarious learning. Enactive is learning by doing and experiencing the consequence of your action. This may sound like operant conditioning all over again. But it is not, and the difference has to do with the role of consequences. Proponents of operant conditioning believe that consequences strengthen or weaken behaviour. In **enactive**

learning, consequences are seen as providing information. Our interpretation of the consequences creates expectation, influence motivation and shape beliefs (Schunk 2004).

Vicarious learning is learning by observation. People and animals can learn by merely observing another person or animal. And this fact challenges the behaviourist idea that cognitive factors are unnecessary in an explanation of learning.

Observational learning includes 3 elements and these are:

(ii) Attention
(iii) Retention
(iv) Production

3.13 Bandura identified 3 forms of reinforcement that can encourage

3.13.1 Observational learning

1. **Reproduce**; the behaviours of the model and receive direct reinforcement as when a gymnast successfully executes a flip/round off combination and the coach says excellent.
2. **Vicarious**; reinforcement: increasing the chances that will repeat a behavior by

observing another person being reinforced for that behavior.

3. **Self – reinforcement** – controlling your own reinforcer.

3.13.2 Factors That Influence Observational Learning

(1) Developmental level of the observer
(2) Status of the model
(3) By watching others
(4) If observers have a high level of self – efficacy (a person's sense of being able to deal effectively with a particular task.)

3.13.3 How to Promote Observational Learning

1. Directing attention to new behavior to be learnt.
2. Fine – tuning already – learnt behaviour

3. Strengthening or weakening inhibition

- Deal with a rule breaker and breaking that rule will inhibit others from breaking that particular rule. You can use the ripple effect (this is the contagious spreading of behaviour through imitation.)

4. Teaching new behaviours

3.14 Encouraging desired behaviour

(1) Teach self-management, use of behavioural learning principles to change your own behaviour.

(a) Goal setting

(b) Monitoring and evaluating progress

(c) Self – reinforcement - reward yourself for the Job well done.

3.15 Activity

1. Discuss classical conditioning theory and show how you can use it in the education setting.
2. Discuss operant conditioning and clearly show how you can use schedules of reinforcement to promote human behaviour.
3. Discuss observational learning theory.

3.16 Reflection

1. What do you think is the difference between classical conditioning and operant conditioning?

3.17 Summary

In this unity, you have covered three learning theories namely; classical conditioning, operant conditioning and observational learning theory, we believe that at this point you are able to apply each of the principles you have learnt in human learning. In the next unit, you will look at situated learning theory.

UNIT 4: SITUATED LEARNING THEORY

4.1 Introduction

Jean Lave is a faculty member at the University of California, Berkeley. She completed her doctorate in Social Anthropology at Harvard University in 1968. She is a social anthropologist with a strong interest in social theory. She has worked extensively on the re-conceiving of learning, learners, and educational institutions in terms of social practice. Lave was influenced by many previous thinkers including John Dewey's famous ideas, which stated that learning developed from experience and social interaction. Other psychologists who included Vygotsky, Piaget, Wenger and Bandura had also professional influence on Lave's work (Brown et al. 2000).

As the name suggests the idea of situated learning involves a deepening process of participation in a community of practice, a theory that has gained significant ground in recent years. Community of practice has also become an important focus within organizational development and has considerable value when thinking about working with groups, (Lave, 1991). This unit therefore, discusses an overview of situated cognition learning. It will further discuss the method of teaching, and practices, concepts and elements of situated learning theory. Some critiques of the theory and methodologies for informal educators and those concerned with lifelong learning will also be discussed.

4.2 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you are expected to;

- Discuss concepts of situated learning
- Explain elements of situated learning
- Discuss characteristics of communities of practice
- Apply principles of situated learning in the classroom situation
- Explain weaknesses of the situated learning theory

4.3 Time frame

You have two (2) hours to interact with this material.

4.4 Content

- Concepts of situated learning
- Elements of situated learning
- Characteristics of communities of practice
- Application of the principles of situated learning in the classroom situation
- Critics of the situated learning theory
- Summary of situated learning concepts

4.5 Situated Learning Theory

A lot of scholars have tried to talk ably about situated learning and coin in theoretical perspectives that explain what situated learning is all about. Situated learning is defined as a process of enculturation, emphasizing the socio-cultural setting and the activities of the people within that setting. In other words, learning is not an accumulation of information, but a transformation of the individual who is moving towards full membership in the professional community. (Hmelo & Evensen, 2000). Jean Lave and Etienne Wenger, (1991), also defined situated learning as learning that takes place in the same context and environment in which it is applied. Lave's theory of situated learning advocates for learners participation in day-to-day learning activities. This implies that the routine involvement in every day skills acquisition which are community based would holistically shape a learner who would become a useful member of the community thereafter. Activities may involve physical, emotional, intellectual and moral shaping. For instance, fishing, sheparding of animals, making reed mats, dancing during traditional ceremonies, hunting, constructing mud and pole houses etc. During all these events, people learn various skills un intentionally by taking part in the activity as a matter of adventure. The duo in addition argue that, learning should not be viewed as simply the transmission of abstract and decontextualized knowledge from one individual to another, but a social process whereby knowledge is co-constructed. They suggest further that such learning is situated in a specific context and embedded

within a particular social and physical environment. Situated Learning theory therefore, posits that learning is unintentional.

Lave' theory of situated learning as deduced above, allows students to have the opportunity to participate, interact and inject their own ideas as a way to obviously grow and make informed decision thereafter. It enables the learner to build their social and communication skills as they develop their cognition abilities. This is mostly done through learner internalization of what they see and act upon as they participate in actual community events.

In the situated learning approach, knowledge and skills are learned in the contexts that reflect how knowledge is obtained and applied in everyday situations. Situated cognition theory conceives of learning as a sociocultural phenomenon rather than the action of individual acquiring general information from a decontextualized body of knowledge (Kirshner & Whitson, 1997).

4.6 The concept of situated learning

As you can see, the concept of situated learning as an instructional strategy has been seen as a means for relating subject matter to the needs and concerns of learners (Shor, 1987). Learning is essentially a matter of creating meaning from the real life and activities of daily living. By embedding subject matter in the ongoing experiences of the learners and by creating opportunities for learners to learn subject matter in the context of real-world challenges, knowledge is acquired and learning transfers from the classroom environment to the realm of practice.

To situate learning in other words simply means:

- To place thought and action in a specific place and time.
- To involve other learners, the environment, and the activities to create meaning.
- To locate in a particular setting the thinking and doing processes used by experts to accomplish knowledge and skill tasks (Lave and Wenger, 1991).

In the learner's classroom situation, to situate learning means to create the conditions in which participants will experience the difficulty and uncertainty of learning in the real world. Participants will create their own knowledge out of the raw materials of experience, i.e., the relationships with other participants, the activities, the environmental cues, and the social organization that the community develops and maintains must be as friendly as possible to the learner so that the learners are not feeling out of place.

A situated learning experience has four major premises guiding the development of classroom activities (Anderson, Reder, & Simon 1996, Wilson, 1993):

- Learning is grounded in the actions of everyday situations
- Knowledge is acquired situationally and transfers only to similar situations
- Learning is the result of a social process encompassing ways of thinking, perceiving, problem solving, and interacting in addition to declarative and procedural knowledge and
- Learning is not separated from the world of action but exists in healthy, complex, social environments made up of actors, actions and situations.

These four premises differentiate situated learning from other experiential forms of acquiring knowledge. In situated learning, students learn content through activities rather than acquiring information in disconnected packages organized by instructors. Content is in born in the doing of the task and not separated from the noise, confusion, and group interactions prevalent in real work environments. Learning is not dilemma driven but rather content driven. Situations are presented that challenge the intellectual and psychomotor skills that learners will eventually apply at home, in the community, or the workplace (Lankard, 1995).

Situated learning uses cooperative and participative teaching methods as the means of acquiring knowledge. Knowledge is created or negotiated through the interactions of the learner with others and the environment. Subject matter emerges from the cues provided by the environment and from the dialogue among the learning community. The structure of the learning is understood in the experience rather than in the subject matter structured by the instructor. Knowledge is obtained by the processes described (Lave, 1997, P.21) as "way in" and "practice." Way in is a period of

observation in which a learner watches a master and makes a first attempt at solving a problem. Practice is refining and perfecting the use of acquired knowledge. Applied to the classroom, situated learning is not only reflecting upon and drawing implications from previous experiences but is immersion (interest through participation) in and with the experience.

4.7 Elements of situated learning

Situated learning places the learner in the centre of an instructional process consisting of content, the facts and processes of the task, context, the situations, values, beliefs, and environmental cues by which the learner gains and masters content, community, the group with which the learner will create and negotiate meaning of the situation and participation in the process by which learners working together with experts in a social organization to solve problems related to everyday life circumstances (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989, Lave 1988, Shor, 1987). Learning becomes a social process dependent upon transactions with others placed within a context that resembles as closely as possible the learning environment. Situated learning in the classroom integrates content, context, community of practice and participation.

Content. Situated learning emphasizes higher-order thinking processes rather than the acquisition of facts independent of the real lives of the participants (Choi & Hannafin, 1995). Content situated in learner's daily experiences becomes the means to engage in reflective thinking (Shor, 1996). Retention of content is not the goal of learning. By placing content within the daily transactions of life, the instructor dialogues with learners, negotiates the meaning of content, frames it in terms of the issues and concerns within the learners in order to provide opportunities for learners to cooperate in investigating problem situations, and makes content applicable to the ways in which learners will approach the environment. Application rather than retention becomes the mark of a successful instructional encounter.

Context. Learning in context refers to building an instructional environment sensitive to the tasks learners must complete to be successful in practice. Context embraces notions of power relationships, politics and family (Courtney, Speck, & Holtorf, 1996). Boud (1994) describes context as drawing out and using experiences as a means of engaging with and intervening in the social, psychological, and material environment in which the learner is situated. Context is not just

bringing life events to the classroom but experiencing events from multiple perspectives. Learners are in the experience rather than being external to the event (Wilson, 1993). Context provides the setting for examining experience from the community that provides and shaping of the learning.

Community of practice. The basic argument here is that, communities of practice are everywhere and that we are generally involved in a number of them whether at place of work, school, home, or in our civic and leisure interest. Wenger (2007) says that, communities of practice are formed by people who engage in a process of collective learning in a shared domain of human endeavour. For example, a tribe learning some survival skills, a band of artists seeking new forms of expression, a group of engineers working on similar problems, a group of pupils defining their identity in the school, a network of surgeons exploring novel techniques, a gathering of first time-managers helping each other cope with work. In other words, communities of practices are groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly. However, characteristics of such communities of practice vary. Some communities of practice are quite formal in organizations, others are quite fluid and informal. Even so, members are brought together by joining in common activities and by what they have learned through their mutual engagement in these activities (Wenger 1998). This therefore, means that a community of practice is different from a community of interest or a geographical community in that it involves a shared practice.

4.8 The characteristics of communities of practice

According to Etienne Wenger (2007), three elements are crucial in distinguishing a community of practice from other groups and communities:

The domain, a community of practice is something more than a club of friends or a network of connections between people. It has an identity defined by a shared domain of interest. Membership therefore implies commitment to the domain, and therefore a shared competence that distinguishes members from other people.

The community. 'In pursuing their interest in their domain, members engage in joint activities and discussions, help each other, and share information. They build relationship that enables them to learn from each other'.

The practice. 'Member of community of practice are practitioners. They develop a shared repertoire of resources: experiences, stories, tools, and ways of addressing recurring problems-in short a shared practice. This takes time and sustained interaction'.

Participation. Participation describes the interchange of ideas that attempt to problem solving and active engagement of learners with each other and with the materials of instruction. It is the process of interaction with others that produces and establishes meaning systems among learners. From a situated cognition perspective, learning occurs in a social setting through dialogue with others in the community (Lave 1988). Learning becomes a process of reflecting, interpreting, and negotiating meaning among the participants of a community. Learning is the sharing of the narratives produced by a group of learners.

4.9 Application of situated learning theory in a classroom situation

What are the implications of this view of learning to instruction?

Before we answer this question, let us review some basic theoretical assumptions entailed in situated learning:

1. Learning-in-practice (lave, 1990): learning is conceived as increasing participation in communities of practice; Learning is a co-constitutive process in which all participants change and are transformed through their action and relations.

2. Knowledge accrues through the lived practices of the people in the society: knowledge remains inert and unused if taught in contexts that separate knowing from doing; one learns a subject matter by doing what experts in that subject matter do.

3. Learning involve social participation; hence, cognition takes place within the world and not in minds construed as somehow separate from or outside the World, a learning should take place in context and social situations.

4. Cognition is a matter of sign activity, or semiosis, i.e. continuously dynamic and productive activity of signs.

4.10 These assumptions give rise to some instructional principles and impacts to instruction:

1. Provide authentic tasks in the learning environment: authentic task are those ordinary practices in the culture. The authentic involves two levels: the objectives and data in the setting, and the degree to which the tasks that students are asked to perform are authentic.

2. Simulate apprenticeship that comprises authentic task: school children could acquire the knowledge and skills of historians, Mathematicians, or scientists by becoming apprentices in those disciplines.

3. Learning communities: change of learning culture in the classroom: change from knowledge dispenser into the learning community, in which teacher and learners work collaboratively to achieve important goals emphasizing distributed expertise (students come to the learning task with different interests and experiences and are provided the opportunity within the community to learn different things. For example, CSILE (Computer-Supported Intentional Learning Environment) provides a means for student to engage in knowledge-building within a learning community, i.e. students focus on a problem of interest and begin to build a communal database of information about the problem: discourse, reflection and peer review.

Wilson and Myers (2000) described the impact of this type of social interactional view on designers as follows:

- We as instructional designers must go into the community of the practitioners, using ethnographic methods of observation and reflection, and become participant observers. We develop a focus on how the community learns.

- Instructional designers must use methods of participatory design in which the worker participates in redesign practices with the designer.

Young (1993) described four broad tasks for the design of situated learning:

1. Selecting the situation: the general principle is to select the generator set of situations, which entail complex, realistic problem spaces that afford students to able detect the invariant concepts in the domain.

2. Providing scaffolding: students need to be active generators of both problems and solutions so that they can "crisscross the landscape of knowledge". The principle is "initially limit a novice's access to all the features of the context and the removing those constraints."

3. Determining and supporting the role of the teacher: in situated learning, students learn from different knowledge source distributed in the environment, e.g. the tools, the peers, themselves, the textbooks, and the teacher. The responsibility of the teacher is to constant asses the interaction of students and environment and to guide students to play attention to important attributes of the environment.

4. Assessing situated learning: Young pointed out several views of the assessment in situated learning:

    - The assessment methods should focus on "the process of learning, perception, and problem solving."

In designing a collaborative lesson in a classroom environment, some good organizational behavior must be displayed. Schell & Black (1997) created an environment to foster natural learning processes. Learners engaged in discussions simulated in group activities, verbalizing knowledge gained and comparing problem-solving approaches with that of experts. Courtney & Maben-Crouch (1996) found that learning transfers more easily in a natural learning environment. A natural learning environment engages learners in solving real life problems likely to be encountered on the job. Problem solving is collaborative with participants contributing to the dialogue and constructing novel solutions. Participants are encouraged by instructors to engage in critical reflection, questioning the values and assumptions behind answers suggested by other learners. Knowledge is acquired by framing problems in terms of conditions likely to be encountered on the job.

The main elements of situated cognition are content, context, community, and participation that offer exciting opportunities for instructors to engage with learners in novel and meaningful ways.

Situated cognition reminds us that adult learners are a rich and diverse source of stories and data that can transform the classroom from a source for transferring knowledge from instructor to learners to a resource for interpreting, challenging, and creating new knowledge. Interactions among the learners and the environment holds the promise of having learners directly intervene in and change the processes that surround their lives at home, in the community and at the workplace.

From the discussion above, Instructions in situated learning approach must be situated in an authentic context that resembles that of the classroom. The teacher should enrich the learning process by providing realistic experiences that are more easily transferred. Wilson (1993). This means that students process information by visualizing, hearing, reasoning and reflecting. Students then tend to learn more easily by having models to go by or imitate. In other words, teachers must create the classroom environment as homely as possible, whether it be computerized set up or a physical set up. Lessons for example, can be conducted in the workshop, kitchen, garden or green house etc. However, it should be noted that all these settings need to portray exactly conditions that exist in a classroom learning environment. This kind of environment gives students the look and feel of being at home in a comfortable setting which allows them to feel and learn freely.

Following the use of teacher provided scaffolds, the educator may then have the students engage in cooperative learning. In this type of environment, students help fellow students in small group settings but still have some teacher assistance in the real context and culture. This can serve as a step in the process of decreasing the scaffolds provided by the educator and needed by students (Hartman, 2002).

Teachers have also used scaffolding to engage students in research work and learning. In this context, scaffolding facilitates organization of and focus for students' research (McKenzie, 2000).The structure and clearly defined expectations are the most important component of scaffolding in this context. The teachers provide clarity and support but the students construct the final result through their research. The scaffolding is secondary. The building is primary. (McKenzie, 1999), According to McKenzie, scaffolding and participation in the community of practice help learners in the following ways:

- Provides clear direction and reduces students' confusion – Educators anticipate problems that students might encounter and then develop step by step instructions, which explain what a student must do to meet expectations.

- Clarifies purpose – Scaffolding helps students understand why they are doing the work and why it is important.
- Keeps students on task – By providing structure, the scaffold lesson or research project, provides pathways for the learners. The student can make decisions about which path to choose or what things to explore along the path but they cannot wander off of the path, which is the designated task.
- Clarifies expectations and incorporates assessment and feedback –Expectations are clear from the beginning of the activity since examples of exemplary work, rules, and standards of excellence are shown to the students.
- Points students to worthy sources – Educators provide sources to reduce confusion, frustration, and time wasting. The students may then decide which of these sources to use.
- Reduces uncertainty, surprise, and disappointment – Educators test their lessons to determine possible problem areas and then refine the lesson to eliminate difficulties so that learning is maximized (McKenzie, 1999).

4.11 Critiques of Situated learning

Anderson, Reder & Simon (1996) argued that situated learning is a biased theory and put up some arguments against Lave's theory of situated learning. Lave advocated as follows:

- Activity and learning are bound to the specific situations in which they occur.
- Knowledge does transfer well between tasks.
- Teaching in abstract is ineffective but real life teaching is the best.
- Instruction must happen in complex social contexts.

However, Anderson et al (1996) criticised that:

- Whether learning is bound to context or not depends on both the kind of learning and the way material is being presented.
- There is empirical evidence that successful transfer of knowledge happens between tasks and abstract instructions in the literature. Transfer depends on initial practice and the degree to which a successive task has with similar cognitive elements to a prior task.

- Abstract instruction can be made effective by combining it with abstract concepts and concrete real life examples.

Anderson, Reder & Simons summarize their concerns when they said that: "What is needed to improve learning and teaching is to continue to deepen our research into the circumstances that determine how narrower or broader contexts are required and when attention to narrower or broader skills are optimal for effective and efficient learning" (Anderson etal, p. 10). For example, as teachers, we must read widely and prepare lessons that would depict a real life situation. New teaching methodologies must be embraced any time they are introduced in teaching system.

In conclusion, Lave's concern here with learning through participation in group/collective life and engagement with the daily round makes their work of particular interest to inform educators and those concerned working with groups easily. She highlights three main points as follows:

4.12 Learning is in the relationships between people.

As McDermott in (Murphy 1999, P.17) argues Learning traditionally gets measured as on the assumption that it is possession of individuals that can be found in their heads. Learning is in the conditions that bring people together and organize a point of contact that allows for particular pieces of information to take on relevance. Learning does not belong to individual persons, but to the various conversations of which they are a part.

4.13 Educators work so that people can become participants in communities of practice. Educators need to explore with people in communities how all may participate to the full. One of the implications for schools, as Barbara Rogoff (1984) and her colleagues suggest that, they must prioritise instructions that build on children interests in a collaborative way. 'Such schools need also to be places where learning activities are planned by children as well as adults, and where parents and teachers not only foster children's learning but also learn from their own involvement with children' (2001, p. 3).

There is an intimate connection between knowledge and activity. Learning is part of living. Problem solving and learning from experience are central processes (Tennant, 1997). Educators need to reflect on their understanding of what constitutes knowledge and practice. Perhaps one of

the most important things to grasp here is the extent to which education involves informed and committed action to transform the learner into a citizen who can fit in any society without problems.

4.14 Summary of the situated learning concepts

1. **Si**tuated learning is an idea developed by laves and Wenger which essentially argues that learning occurs in a contexts or a culture.
2. Knowledge needs to be presented in an authentic context.
3. Learning requires social interaction and collaboration.
4. Learning involved a process of engagement in a community of practice.
5. Communities of practice: communities of practice are formed by people who engage in a process of collective learning in a shared domain of human endeavour. In other words communities of practice are groups of people who share a concern or a passion for something they do and learn how to do it better as they interact regularly.
6. Legitimate peripheral participation is a process of how a learner engages in the activity of a socio cultural practice and becomes increasingly competent in this practice.
7. It is legitimate because all parties accept the position of " un qualified" people an potential members of the community of practice.
8. Peripheral because they hang on the age of the important stuff, do the peripheral jobs, and gradually get entrusted with more important ones or is used to distinguish between new comers and old timers. The concept encompasses multiple, varied, more or less engaged and inclusive ways of being located in the field of participation defined by a community.
9. Participation, because it is through doing that knowledge is require, knowledge is situated within the practices of the community of practice, rather than something which exists "out there" in books,

4.15 Activities

1. Discuss four major premises guiding the classroom activities using situated learning experience.
2. Define the following elements of situated learning:
    - Content
    - Context
    - Community of practice
3. Explain three characteristics of the community of practice.
4. Explain how you can apply the situated learning theory to education.
5. What are the weaknesses of the situated learning theory?

4.16 Reflection

1. What do you think are factors that influence situated learning?

4.17 Summary

In this unit you have learnt that situated learning is the type of learning where learners are taught in an environment where they are able to apply whatever, they have been taught in that same environment. You have also learnt about elements of involved situated learning. In the next unit, you will learn about invitation learning theory.

UNIT 5: INVITATIONAL LEARNING THEORY

5.1 Introduction

Invitational Learning Theory is a humanistic theory because it supports perception as a determinant of behaviour and the growth of the individual in worthwhile endeavour. This unit will look at, historical background of William Purkey's assumptions of invitational learning theory, how invitational learning theory works, the Five Ps and the relevance of this theory to Zambia. According to Munsaka (2011, p53) "humanistic psychology takes positive view of all people. It assumes that every human being possesses some inner propensity to grow and develop".

5.2 Time frame

You need to have two (2) to interact with this material.

5.3 Terminologies Used:

Invitation theory, invitation, respect, trust, optimism, intentionality, five Ps (places, people, policies, programs and processes.

5.4 Learning Outcomes

By the end of this unit, you are expected to;

- Explain terminologies used in the Purkey's Invitational Theory
- Discuss assumptions of Invitational Learning Theory
- Apply Invitational Learning Theory to the Zambian situation

5.5 Content

- Historical background of William Purkey
- Assumptions of Invitational Learning theory
- How Invitational Learning theory works
- The five Ps
- Relevance of Invitational theory to Zambia.

5.6 Historical background

William Watson Purkey was born on August 22, 1929. He is an author and professor emeritus at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. Invitation theory was firstly introduced by William Purkey in 1978. He is the developer of a model of communication called "invitational Education". His professional career ranges from, service as a public school teacher, a U.S park ranger and a bomb disposal specialist in the US Air Force.

Purkey received his bachelors, masters and doctorate from the University of Virginia. He was tenured full professor at the University of Florida. During his career, he received awards that included the University of Florida "Award for Instructor Excellence". "Good Teaching Award". Outstanding Teacher award". "The Board of Governors Award for Excellence in Teaching" and the "Excellence in Education Award" from the Royal Conservatory of Music for his work in learning the arts. Other authors, such as Novak (2000), have expanded the application of invitational theory and application.

It is obvious that invitational theory is an evolving rather than static conceptual model. Invitational theory has been most often applied to the concerns of schools: teaching, counselling, staff and administrative functioning. It appears that invitational education first focused on how to develop schools that encouraged positive self-concept development in children and increased equality of staff and teacher functioning.

In 1990, the invitational model became a structure for research and practice in changing school climate, (Purkey & Lehr, 1996). Specific plans and programs developed at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro were designed to improve school environments enhance self-concept of staff and create a more positive climate for learning. For example, "the Five-Relays" (Purkey & Lehr, 1996) describes in detail how a school can examine the programs, policies, people, processes and places characteristic of the school and make changes that improve the quality of learning and student development.

Jouard (1971) outlined that the invitational model had its origin in the study of self-concept and perceptual psychology. As the importance of self-concept and perception became more accepted

as important for behaviour, invitational theory emerged. It was developed as a method of creating environments in which self-concept could be enhanced and human potential more fully developed.

It is a self-correcting theory of practice based on ideas borrowed from John Dewey's "democratic ethos" Carl Rogers "client-centered psychotherapy, Sidney Jourard's self-disclosure, "Albert Bandura's self-efficacy" and Martin Seligman's learned optimism. Based on these and other research-based concepts, Purkey & Novak (1996), Purkey & Schmidt (1996) and colleagues have developed a model for understanding and communicating messages planned to summon forth the realization of human potential as well as for identifying and changing those forces that destroy potential. Perceptual psychology postulates that each person creates their own reality through their perceptions of what they believe to be real (Combs, Richards & Richards, 1988; Combs & Gonzales, 1994; Kelly, 1955, 1963; Jourard

, 1971). Furthermore, a person's behaviour is contingent on how an individual perceives and interprets his/ her experiences. Purkey and Novak (1996) identified three assumptions of the perceptual psychology approach that are relevant to working with individuals in a school setting:

Behaviour is based on perception. Individuals behave according to their subjective perception of the environment (internal and external)

Perceptions are learned. Ones' interpretation of the environment is learned and therefore can be unlearned given new information and new experiences. This particular assumption embraces the idea that a change in perception will bring about a change in behaviour.

Perceptions can be reflected upon. Being aware of one's past and present perception and being able to go beyond them allows for further development and understanding of oneself other, and the world.

Accordingly, from the point of view of perceptual psychology it is clear that to understand an individual's behaviour we need to know how that individual perceives and interprets his /her life experiences. An individual's personal interpretation is more important than "objective reality" because an individual responds to their perception of reality and not to reality itself

(Purkey & Schmidt, 1996, Seligman, 1991).

"Self-concept consists of each person's unique system of perceptions about the self in relation to one's environment. A person seeks to maintain a consistent self-concept by assimilating or rejecting perceptions that do or do not fit preconceptions, but a person's self-concept can change and develop as a result of inviting or encouraging acts"(Jourard,1971:p25).

5.7 Introduction of Invitational Learning Theory:

Invitational learning describes an educational frame work of learning/teaching relationships based on human value, responsibility and capabilities. The word invitation was chosen because it comes from a Latin word ***invitare*** which means to "offer something beneficial for consideration" Purkey (1991, p32), but its definition involves an ethical process involving uninterrupted communications among and between human beings. Invitation here is described by Purkey (1991,p32) as a "summary of messages, verbal and non-verbal, formal and informal, that are sent to students with the intention of affirming for them that they are responsible, able and valuable". Learning is in the context of invitational learning observed in social frame work, where learners should be invited by the teacher to develop their potentialities.

Invitational learning theory, maintains that every person and everything in and around schools and other organizations adds to, or sub tracts from, the process of being a beneficial presence in the lives of human beings. Preferably, the factors of people, places, policies, programs and processes should be so intentionally inviting as to create a world in which each individual is cordially summoned to develop intellectually, socially, physically, physiologically and spiritually.

Invitational Education is an approach to the teaching-learning process on interrelated assumptions presented to understand several positive and negative signal systems that exist within the total educational environment. Invitational theory is a way of thinking about positive and negative signal system that exist in all human interactions. It is a theory of practice for communicating caring and appropriate messages intended to summon forth the realization of human potential as well as for identifying and changing those forces in schools which would defeat and destroy potential (Purkey & Novak, (1996).

5.8 Concepts and Assumptions of Invitational Learning Theory

The following are the basic assumptions of Invitational Theory and Practice (ITP)

- People are able, valuable, and capable of self-direction and should be treated accordingly
- Helping is a cooperative, collaborative alliance in which process is as important as product
- People possess relatively untapped potential in all areas of human development
- Human potential can best be realized by places and programs that are intentionally designed to invite development and by people who consistently seek to realize this potential in themselves and others, personally and professionally.

Also Invitation theory is based on four operations that give consistency and direction for action: These are respect, trust, optimism, and intentionality.

Trust that one will find his/ her own best way of accomplishing things, respect for other people since they are able, valuable and responsible, optimism about people as possessing practically unlimited potential in all areas of human endeavour and intentionality which is a purposeful act aimed at offering something beneficial to others. Purkey & Novak (1996). Invitational Education is an important and valid theoretical model for application by teachers. It is a theory that addresses the total educational environment: social, physical, cognitive, spiritual, and emotional. Invitational Educational is democratically oriented, perceptually anchored, self-concept approach to the educative process (Purkey & Novak, 1996).

The human potential should be developed through the educational process, which is characterized by the five Ps. The five Ps represent environmental factors which influence one's success or failure in the educational process, depending on how inviting they are and these are people, places, policies, programs and processes. **People**, refers to teachers and support staff in the school, **places** relates to the physical aspects of the school. **Policies** refers to the procedures, codes, rules written and unwritten, used to regulate the ongoing functions of individuals and organisations. **Programs**, refers to the curriculum for students to develop academically, physically and socially in the inviting environment. **Processes,** refers to such issues as cooperative spirit, democratic activities, values and attitudes of students, teachers, administrators and support staff. (Purkey & Novak, 1996).

Invitation education emphasizes that human potential can best be realized by creating and maintaining, places, policies, processes, and programs, specifically designed to invite development and by people who are intentionally inviting with themselves and others, personally and professionally, (Cloer, & Alexander, 1992).

According to Purkey and Fuller (1995), Invitation learning emphasizes that teacher's beliefs and attitudes about people including trust, respect, optimism and intentionality (positively enhancing) are paramount in enabling the learner become his/her best self. School should be an inviting place that stresses the importance and uniqueness of students, encourages parental involvement and nurtures the creativity of all. The intentionally inviting teacher listens with care; acts "real" with students, possess self-understanding and self-acceptance, handle rejection well and effectively manages stress.

How Invitational Learning Theory Works

The "Fives P's" of Invitational Education, standing for people, place, policies, programs, and processes, provide the means to address the global nature and symbolic of the school. It expands the educative process by applying steady and continuous pressure from a number of points, much like a starfish conquers oysters.

The Five P's

According to Cloer, & Alexander, (1992), the following activities illustrate how invitational learning is woven into the culture of the school:

1. **People**: Teachers, pupils and support staff work as a family. Activities include training in stress reduction and conflict management, long term relationships between teacher and pupils, courteous staff, and respect for everyone. Special attention is given to person grooming and professional dress.

2. **Places**: Careful attention is given to the physical environment, including adequate lighting, well-maintained building and grounds, clean rest rooms, attractive classroom and canteens, and displays celebrating student accomplishments. Ways are found to enhance the physical environment of the school, no matter how old the building.

3. **Policies**: Attendance, grading, promotion, discipline and other policies are developed and maintained within a circle of respect for everyone involved. Families are kept informed through newsletters, bulletins, phone calls and meeting. Every school policy is democratically developed easy to understand, and made available to everyone involved.

4. **Programs:** Among the many programs that help to create safe schools are community outreach, wellness, and enrichment opportunities for everyone in the school (Morrissey, 1998). Programs that involve parents are strongly encouraged. Guidance and counsellors play a central role in arranging beneficial programs.

5. **Processes**: process is the way in which things are done in the school. A democratic culture is valued along with an academic orientation. All activities and procedures are designed to honour and include everyone. Ideas suggestions, and concerns are welcomed in the inviting school, (Turkey & Novak, 1996).

Relevance to Zambia

Zambia is a liberal democracy and comprises of people of different tribes and ethnicity. A democratic society is ethically committed to seeing all people as able, valuable, and responsible, to valuing cooperation and collaboration, to viewing process as product in the marking, and to developing untapped possibilities in all worthwhile areas of human endeavour.

A country with so much socio-cultural diversity like Zambia needs to embrace invitational education in order to inculcate values of respect, trustworthiness, caring, optimism and intentionality in the young generation. The growing population of young Zambians needs to understand the tenets of effective communication that sends positive signal that summons the realization of potentialities of all citizens in order for them to develop in all areas of human endeavour. The earlier the young Zambians learn to be both inviting individuals and professionals, and to create inviting environments the better for the future of our great nation because all schools will be inviting environment in which all citizens are summoned to realize their full potential.

Invitational education expands the education process by applying steady and continuous pressure from a number of points. Rather than relying on one program, one policy, or one process, Invitational Learning Theory addresses the total spirit within a school. Juhnke, & Purkey (1995) state that invitational learning is concerned with more than grades, attendance, academic

achievement, discipline, and test scores, and even student esteem. It is concerned with the skills of becoming a decent and productive citizen in a democratic society.

Invitational Education provides a framework for making school a more exciting, satisfying, and enriching experience for everyone – all pupils, all teachers and support staff, and all visitors. Its goal is to transform the fundamental character of the school.

5.9 Activity

1. Discuss the role the five Ps in the academic performance of learners?

5.10 Reflection

1. Which of the 5 Ps do you think is more critical in promoting learning?

5.11 Summary

In this unit, you have learnt about assumptions and operations of invitational learning theory. You have also learnt about 5Ps such as people, places, policies, programme and process. We believe that you now understand how to make your lessons/teaching inviting for the benefit of learners.

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