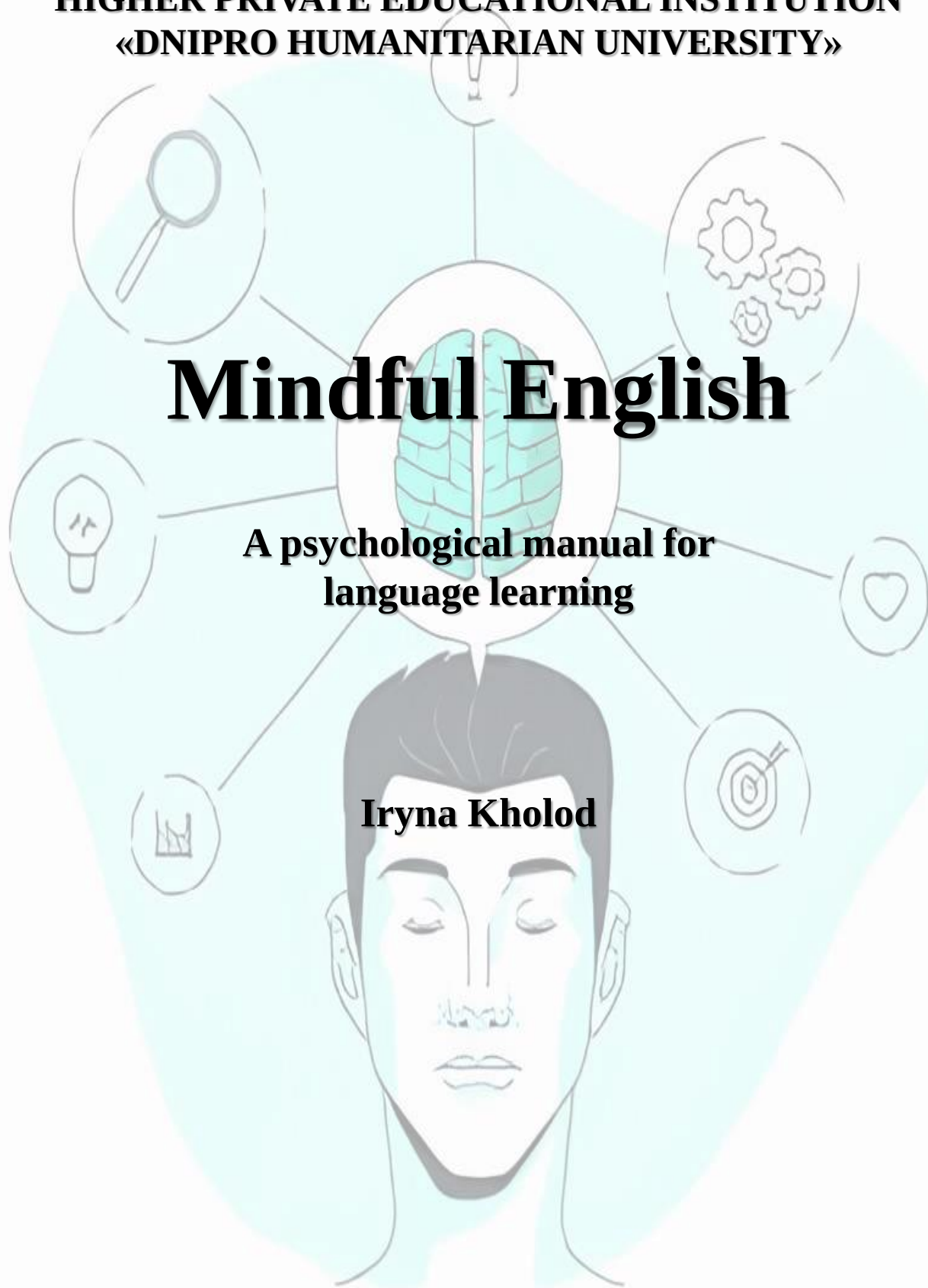


**HIGHER PRIVATE EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTION
«DNIPRO HUMANITARIAN UNIVERSITY»**

Mindful English

**A psychological manual for
language learning**

Iryna Kholod



**PRIVATE HIGHER EDUCATIONAL ESTABLISHMENT
«DNIPRO UNIVERSITY OF THE HUMANITIES»**

MINDFUL ENGLISH.
A PSYCHOLOGICAL MANUAL FOR LANGUAGE LEARNING

Compiled by Iryna Kholod

**Dnipro
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Навчальний посібник окреслює психологічні чинники у вивченні іноземної мови такі, як пам'ять, мотивація, стратегії та стилі навчання, а також авторські моделі навчання Б. Блума, Г. Гарднера, Д. Колба. Навчальний посібник рекомендовано для здобувачів вищої освіти гуманітарних спеціальностей та для викладачів закладів вищої освіти, оскільки дозволяє глибше зрозуміти психологічні аспекти вивчення мов, що є ключовим для успішної професійної діяльності.

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Topic 1. MEMORY

Learning Objectives:

- to understand the basic concepts of memory, including types and processes
- to explore how memory works
- to be engaged in activities that enhance memory retention and recall.

1. INTRODUCTION ACTIVITY: Memory Icebreaker

Look at the picture with icons for 1 minute. Then close it and make a list of applications you have managed to remember.



Look at the Mind map for 1 minute. Then close it and make a list of words you have managed to remember.



Discussion questions:

- How do you remember icons and words?
- Why it might have been difficult to remember all the items and how this relates to memory?
- Why some words were easier to remember than others?

Can you suggest some memorization techniques for images, words, spelling, sounds, tunes etc.?

Compare your findings with Appendix A.

2. Definition: Memory

Brainstorm some ideas about Memory. Give definition and discuss it within the group what MEMORY is.

What is Memory?



3. CONCEPT EXPLORATION ACTIVITY: Memory Types

Watch video introducing the different types of memory.

Discuss the questions below:



1. What are the two main dimensions along which memory systems differ?
2. How does sensory memory differ from short-term and long-term memory?
3. Can information in short-term memory be transferred to long-term memory? If so, how?
4. How can you access memories from your long-term memory into your short-term memory?
5. What is iconic memory and how long does it typically last?
6. Why is iconic memory compared to taking a mental screenshot?
7. What colour-coding system is used to differentiate between sensory memory, short-term memory, and long-term memory?

Compare your findings with Appendix B.

4. CONCEPT EXPLORATION ACTIVITY: Processes

Read the article «Storage» following the link below

<https://courses.lumenlearning.com/waymaker-psychology/chapter/reading-storage/>

Discuss the following questions within your groupmates after reading:

- *What are the three stages of memory storage?*
- *How does sensory memory function in the Atkinson-Shiffrin model?*
- *What is the difference between short-term memory and working memory?*
- *How long does information typically last in short-term memory?*
- *What is active rehearsal, and how does it help move information into long-term memory?*
- *Explain elaborative rehearsal and provide an example.*
- *What factors can affect short-term memory retention according to Peterson and Peterson's study?*

Compare your findings with Appendix C.

In order for a memory to go into storage (i.e., long-term memory), it has to pass through three distinct stages: Sensory Memory, Short-Term Memory, and finally Long-Term Memory. These stages were first proposed by Richard Atkinson and Richard Shiffrin (1968). Their model of human memory, called Atkinson and Shiffrin's model, is based on the belief that we process memories in the same way that a computer processes information.

Atkinson and Shiffrin's model is not the only model of memory. Others, such as Baddeley and Hitch (1974), have proposed a model where short-term memory itself has different forms. In this model, storing memories in short-term memory is like opening different files on a computer and adding information. The type of short-term memory (or computer file) depends on the type of information received. There are memories in visual-spatial form, as well as memories of spoken or written material, and they are stored in three short-term systems: a visuospatial sketchpad, an episodic buffer, and a phonological loop. According to Baddeley and Hitch, a central executive part of memory supervises or controls the flow of information to and from the three short-term systems.

Sensory Memory

In the Atkinson-Shiffrin model, stimuli from the environment are processed first in sensory memory: storage of brief sensory events, such as sights, sounds, and tastes. It is very brief storage – up to a couple of seconds. We are constantly bombarded with sensory information. We cannot absorb all of it, or even most of it. And most of it has no impact on our lives. For example, what was your professor wearing the last class period? As long as the professor was dressed appropriately, it does not really matter what they were wearing. Sensory information about sights, sounds, smells, and even textures, which we do not view as valuable information, we discard. If we view something as valuable, the information will move into our short-term memory system.

Short-Term Memory

Short-term memory (STM) is a temporary storage system that processes incoming sensory memory. The terms short-term and working memory are sometimes used interchangeably, but they are not exactly the same. Short-term memory is more accurately described as a component of working memory. Short-term memory takes information from sensory memory and sometimes connects that memory to something already in long-term memory. Short-term memory storage lasts 15 to 30 seconds. Think of it as the information you have displayed on your computer screen, such as a document, spreadsheet, or website. Then, information in STM goes to long-term memory (you save it to your hard drive), or it is discarded (you delete a document or close a web browser).

Rehearsal moves information from short-term memory to long-term memory. Active rehearsal is a way of attending to information to move it from short-term to long-term memory. During active rehearsal, you repeat (practice) the information to be remembered. If you repeat it enough, it may be moved into long-term memory. For example, this type of active rehearsal is the way many children learn their ABCs by singing the alphabet song. Alternatively, elaborative rehearsal is the act of linking new information you are trying to learn to existing information that you already know. For example, if you meet someone at a party and your phone is dead but you want to remember his phone number, which starts with area code 203, you might remember that your uncle Abdul lives in Connecticut and has a 203 area code. This way, when you try to remember the phone number of your new prospective friend, you will easily remember the area code. Craik and Lockhart (1972) proposed the levels of processing hypothesis that states the deeper you think about something, the better you remember it.

You may find yourself asking, «How much information can our memory handle at once?» To explore the capacity and duration of your short-term memory, have a partner read the strings of random numbers (Figure 8.5) out loud to you, beginning each string by saying, «Ready?» and ending each by saying, «Recall», at which point you should try to write down the string of numbers from memory.

Note the longest string at which you got the series correct. For most people, the capacity will probably be close to 7 plus or minus 2. In 1956, George Miller reviewed most of the research on the capacity of short-term memory and found that people can retain between 5 and 9 items, so he reported the capacity of short-term memory was the «magic number» 7 plus or minus 2. However, more contemporary research has found working memory capacity is 4 plus or minus 1 (Cowan, 2010). Generally, recall is somewhat better for random numbers than for random letters (Jacobs, 1887) and also often slightly better for information we hear (acoustic encoding) rather than information we see (visual encoding) (Anderson, 1969).

Memory trace decay and interference are two factors that affect short-term memory retention. Peterson and Peterson (1959) investigated short-term memory using the three letter sequences called trigrams (e.g., CLS) that had to be recalled after various time intervals between 3 and 18 seconds. Participants remembered about 80% of the trigrams after a 3-second delay, but only 10% after a delay of 18 seconds, which caused

them to conclude that short-term memory decayed in 18 seconds. During decay, the memory trace becomes less activated over time, and the information is forgotten. However, Keppel and Underwood (1962) examined only the first trials of the trigram task and found that proactive interference also affected short-term memory retention. During proactive interference, previously learned information interferes with the ability to learn new information. Both memory trace decay and proactive interference affect short-term memory. Once the information reaches long-term memory, it has to be consolidated at both the synaptic level, which takes a few hours, and into the memory system, which can take weeks or longer.

Long-term Memory

Long-term memory (LTM) is the continuous storage of information. Unlike short-term memory, long-term memory storage capacity is believed to be unlimited. It encompasses all the things you can remember that happened more than just a few minutes ago. One cannot really consider long-term memory without thinking about the way it is organized. Really quickly, what is the first word that comes to mind when you hear «peanut butter»? Did you think of jelly? If you did, you probably have associated peanut butter and jelly in your mind. It is generally accepted that memories are organized in semantic (or associative) networks (Collins & Loftus, 1975). A semantic network consists of concepts, and as you may recall from what you've learned about memory, concepts are categories or groupings of linguistic information, images, ideas, or memories, such as life experiences. Although individual experiences and expertise can affect concept arrangement, concepts are believed to be arranged hierarchically in the mind (Anderson & Reder, 1999; Johnson & Mervis, 1997, 1998; Palmer, Jones, Hennessy, Unze, & Pick, 1989; Rosch, Mervis, Gray, Johnson, & Boyes-Braem, 1976; Tanaka & Taylor, 1991). Related concepts are linked, and the strength of the link depends on how often two concepts have been associated.

Semantic networks differ depending on personal experiences. Importantly for memory, activating any part of a semantic network also activates the concepts linked to that part to a lesser degree. The process is known as spreading activation (Collins & Loftus, 1975). If one part of a network is activated, it is easier to access the associated concepts because they are already partially activated. When you remember or recall something, you activate a concept, and the related concepts are more easily remembered because they are partially activated. However, the activations do not spread in just one direction. When you remember something, you usually have several routes to get the information you are trying to access, and the more links you have to a concept, the better your chances of remembering.

There are two types of long-term memory: explicit and implicit (Figure 8.6). Understanding the difference between explicit memory and implicit memory is important because aging, particular types of brain trauma, and certain disorders can impact explicit and implicit memory in different ways. Explicit memories are those we consciously try to remember, recall, and report. For example, if you are studying for your chemistry exam, the material you are learning will be part of your explicit memory. In keeping with the computer analogy, some information in your long-term memory would be like the information you have saved on the hard drive. It is not there on your

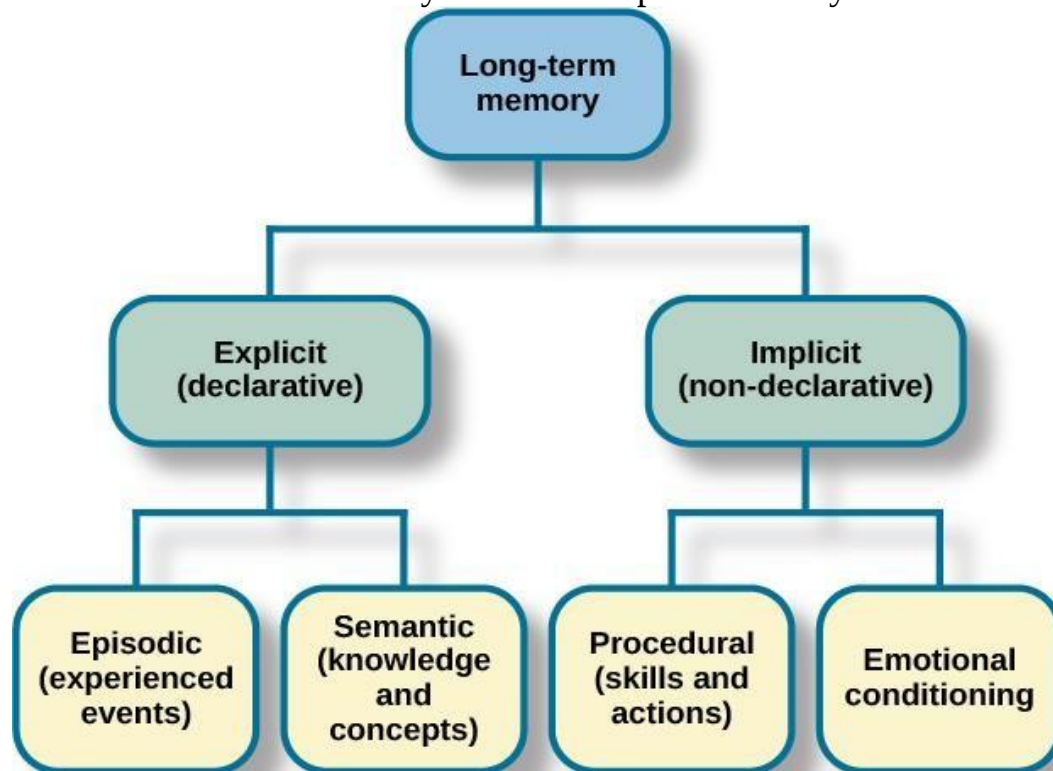
desktop (your short-term memory), but most of the time you can pull up this information when you want it. Not all long-term memories are strong memories, and some memories can only be recalled using prompts. For example, you might easily recall a fact, such as the capital of the United States, but you might struggle to recall the name of the restaurant at which you had dinner when you visited a nearby city last summer. A prompt, such as that the restaurant was named after its owner, might help you recall the name of the restaurant. Explicit memory is sometimes referred to as declarative memory, because it can be put into words. Explicit memory is divided into episodic memory and semantic memory.

Episodic memory is information about events we have personally experienced (i.e., an episode). For instance, the memory of your last birthday is an episodic memory. Usually, episodic memory is reported as a story. The concept of episodic memory was first proposed about in the 1970s (Tulving, 1972). Since then, Tulving and others have reformulated the theory, and currently scientists believe that episodic memory is memory about happenings in particular places at particular times – the what, where, and when of an event (Tulving, 2002). It involves recollection of visual imagery as well as the feeling of familiarity (Hassabis & Maguire, 2007). Semantic memory is knowledge about words, concepts, and language-based knowledge and facts. Semantic memory is typically reported as facts. Semantic means having to do with language and knowledge about language. For example, answers to the following questions like “what is the definition of psychology” and “who was the first African American president of the United States” are stored in your semantic memory.

Implicit memories are long-term memories that are not part of our consciousness. Although implicit memories are learned outside of our awareness and cannot be consciously recalled, implicit memory is demonstrated in the performance of some task (Roediger, 1990; Schacter, 1987). Implicit memory has been studied with cognitive demand tasks, such as performance on artificial grammars (Reber, 1976), word memory (Jacoby, 1983; Jacoby & Witherspoon, 1982), and learning unspoken and unwritten contingencies and rules (Greenspoon, 1955; Giddan & Eriksen, 1959; Krieckhaus & Eriksen, 1960). Returning to the computer metaphor, implicit memories are like a program running in the background, and you are not aware of their influence. Implicit memories can influence observable behaviours as well as cognitive tasks. In either case, you usually cannot put the memory into words that adequately describe the task. There are several types of implicit memories, including procedural, priming, and emotional conditioning.

Implicit procedural memory is often studied using observable behaviours (Adams, 1957; Lacey & Smith, 1954; Lazarus & McCleary, 1951). Implicit procedural memory stores information about the way to do something, and it is the memory for skilled actions, such as brushing your teeth, riding a bicycle, or driving a car. You were probably not that good at riding a bicycle or driving a car the first time you tried, but you were much better after doing those things for a year. Your improved bicycle riding was due to learning balancing abilities. You likely thought about staying upright in the beginning, but now you just do it. Moreover, you probably are good at staying balanced, but cannot tell someone the exact way you do it. Similarly, when you first learned to

drive, you probably thought about a lot of things that you just do now without much thought. When you first learned to do these tasks, someone may have told you how to do them, but everything you learned since those instructions that you cannot readily explain to someone else as the way to do it is implicit memory.



Mark the following sentences as True or False:

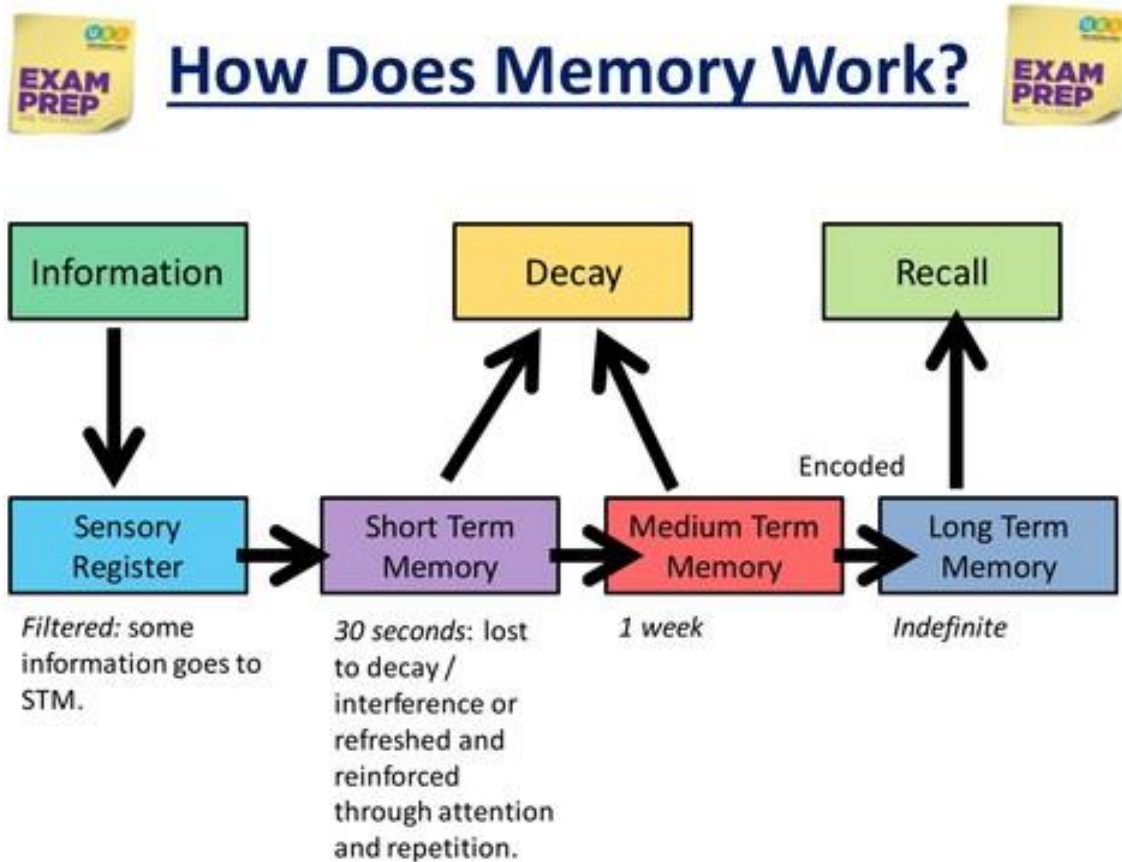
1. *Sensory memory can store information for several minutes.*
2. *Atkinson and Shiffrin's model suggests that memory processing is similar to how a computer processes information.*
3. *Baddeley and Hitch proposed that short-term memory has only one form.*
4. *Rehearsal is a method to transfer information from short-term memory to long-term memory.*
5. *The capacity of short-term memory is exactly 7 items.*
6. *Visual encoding is generally better for recall than acoustic encoding.*
7. *Peterson and Peterson found that participants remembered most trigrams after an 18-second delay.*

Compare your findings with Appendix D.

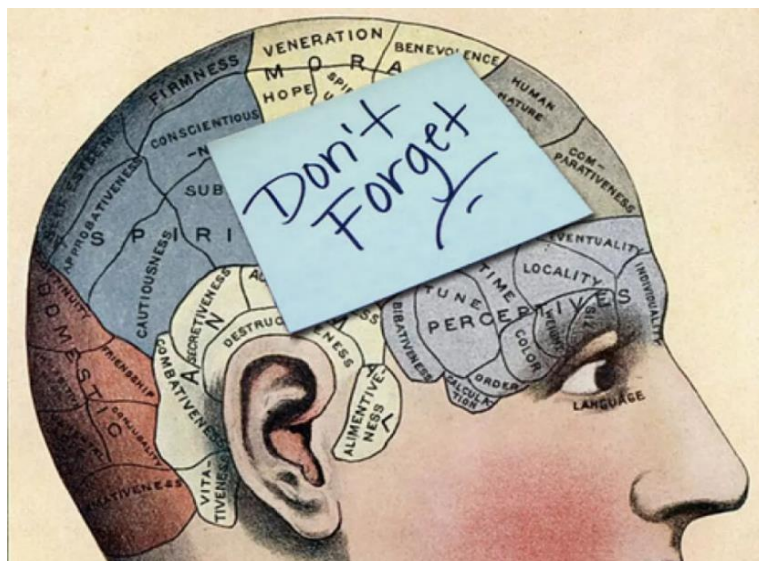
Summarize the article.

5. ACTIVITY: HOW MEMORY WORKS

Study the information on the slide below.



Imagine you are preparing for exam in English. Suggest some techniques to make your preparation effective. Make a list of difficulties you might have.



6. ACTIVITY: METHODS TO IMPROVE YOUR MEMORY

Study definitions of methods of improving memory. Match each method with its definition.

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| 1. Acoustic Code | a) is a component of working memory, responsible for holding and manipulating visual and spatial information. This system allows individuals to visualize objects and navigate their environment, such as mentally rotating an object or remembering the layout of a room. |
| 2. Rote Rehearsal | b) is a component of working memory, which deals with spoken and written material. It consists of two parts: the phonological store, which holds verbal information in speech-based form for a short duration, and the articulatory rehearsal process, which allows for the maintenance and repetition of this information to prevent decay. |
| 3. Phonetic Loop | c) is a memory strategy that involves grouping individual pieces of information together into larger, more manageable units or "chunks." This technique helps to increase the amount of information that can be held in short-term memory by reducing the cognitive load. For example, remembering a phone number as "123-456-7890" instead of "1-2-3-4-5-6-7-8-9-0" is an example. |
| 4. Visuo-Spatial Sketchpad | d) refers to the encoding of information into memory based on the sound of the information, such as remembering a phone number by repeating it out loud. This type of coding is especially prominent in short-term memory, where auditory information is often retained through repetition. |
| 5. Chunking | e) is a memory technique involving the continuous repetition of information, such as a word list or a set of numbers, to keep it in short-term memory or transfer it into long-term memory. It's a basic form of memorization, but often not the most effective for long-term retention without deeper processing. |

Compare your findings with Appendix E.

This image shows a single sheet of white paper with horizontal ruling lines. The lines are evenly spaced and run across the width of the page. There are no margins, text, or other markings on the paper.

Topic 2. MOTIVATION

Learning Objectives:

- to understand the basic concepts of motivation
- be aware of types of motivation and its role in language learning

1. INTRODUCTION ACTIVITY: Self-motivation quiz

For each statement, circle the score in the column that best describes you (based on the above scale). Please answer statements as you actually are (rather than how you think you should be), and don't worry if some statements seem to score in the 'wrong direction'.

STATEMENT	Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very often
I am confident in my ability to achieve the goals I set for myself.	1	2	3	4	5
I set daily, weekly and semester goals that pertain to my academic success.	1	2	3	4	5
I put in maximum effort on coursework related to my educational goals.	1	2	3	4	5
I think positively about goal setting exercises.	1	2	3	4	5
I believe that success is earned and not the result of luck.	1	2	3	4	5
I am not worried about deadlines.	1	2	3	4	5
I am not deterred by setbacks	1	2	3	4	5
I view myself as a creative person.	1	2	3	4	5
I set goals that are moderately difficult, and increase their difficulty as I reach them.	1	2	3	4	5
I regularly review my long-range career success goals and plans.	1	2	3	4	5
I know the exact reasons why I am attending college.	1	2	3	4	5
I am acquainted with most campus resources and regularly use them.	1	2	3	4	5
I am confident in my problem-solving skills.	1	2	3	4	5
I place myself in motivational and supportive environments.	1	2	3	4	5
TOTAL:					

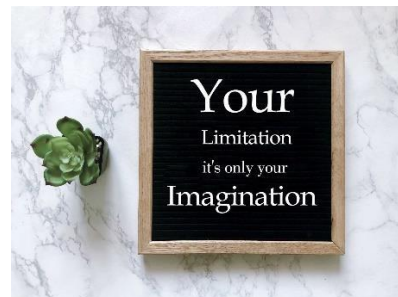
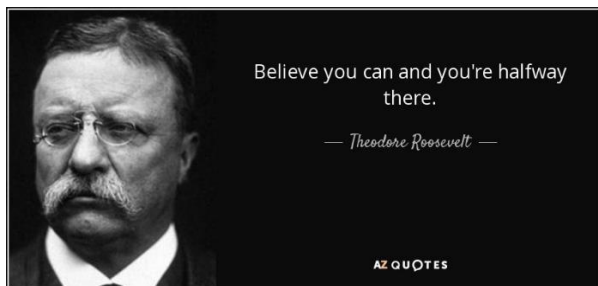
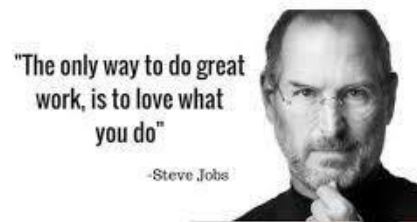
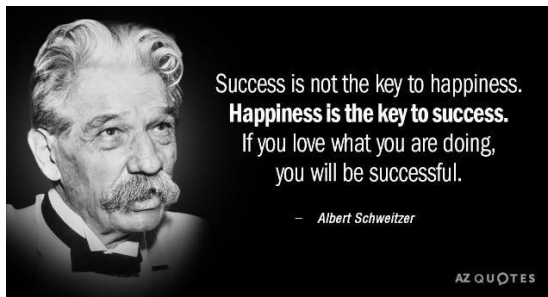
Check your score within the Appendix F.

Discussion questions:

- *What drives you to start or continue doing something difficult?*
- *Why do people set goals for themselves?*

Share their experiences or thoughts. Write key points on the board.

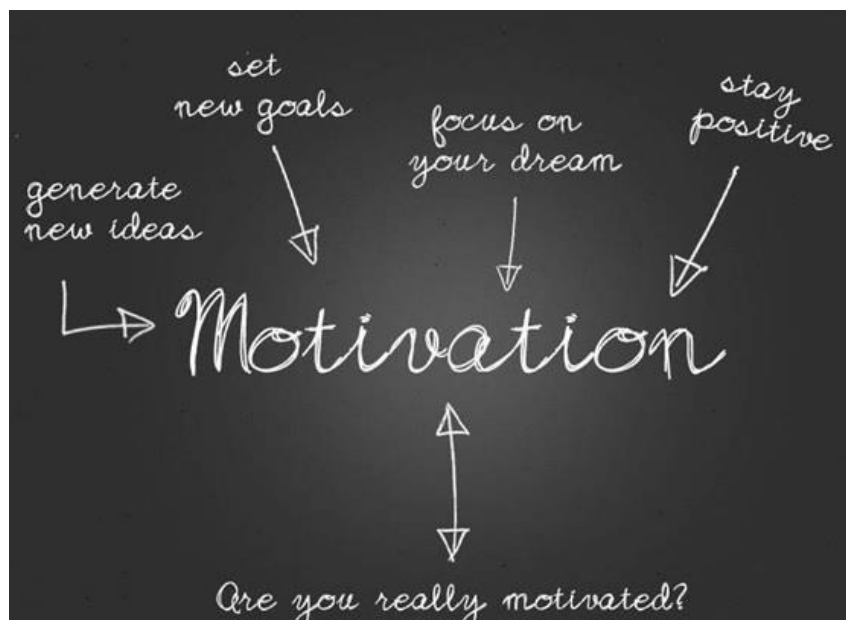
Read the quotes and choose one that you agree with the most:



2. DEFINITION: Motivation

Brainstorm some words relating to *motivation*. It can be helpful to define motivation using a list of words below:

1. **incentive** – something that encourages action or effort;
2. **drive** – an internal force that pushes towards a goal;
3. **ambition** – a desire or determination to achieve success;
4. **inspiration** – a feeling that encourages creativity or effort;
5. **desire** – a strong feeling of wanting to achieve something;
6. **determination** – a firm resolve to achieve a goal despite challenges;
7. **willpower** – the ability to control impulses and stay focused on a goal;
8. **energy** – the strength and vitality required to pursue goals;
9. **commitment** – dedication to achieving a specific task or goal;
10. **aspiration** – a hope or ambition of achieving something;
11. **purpose** – the reason for which something is done or created;
12. **focus** – the concentration or attention directed towards a goal;
13. **passion** – a strong, intense enthusiasm or excitement for something;
14. **effort** – a vigorous attempt or exertion towards a goal;
15. **persistence** – the continued effort to achieve something despite difficulties.



Make your own definition of motivation:

3. Read article about two main types of motivation. Highlight power phrases and word expressions you consider to be principal in motivation. Get ready to answer the following questions:

- 1. What is the difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation?*
- 2. Can you provide examples of internal rewards that drive intrinsic motivation?*
- 3. How does negative intrinsic motivation differ from positive intrinsic motivation?*
- 4. Why is intrinsic motivation considered more sustainable than extrinsic motivation?*
- 5. What are some examples of external rewards that drive extrinsic motivation?*
- 6. How can extrinsic motivation sometimes be negative?*
- 7. Why is it important to understand the specific types of motivation within the broad categories of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation?*

Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation are the two main types of motivation and represent all motivational drivers. Intrinsic motivation describes all motivational-types driven by internal rewards while extrinsic motivation describes all motivational-types driven by external rewards. However, within these two broad categories are more granular types of motivation that highlight specific motivating factors.

While it's important to have a baseline understanding of general internal and external rewards, the motivational-types that fall within these broad intrinsic or extrinsic categories better identify specific rewards and incentives you can use to motivate. We'll therefore start with the main categories of motivation and then dive deeper into their various types.

Intrinsic motivation represents all the things that motivate you based on internal rewards like self-improvement or helping a friend in need. For example, you may be motivated to get a promotion because you'll learn valuable skills. Conversely, you might be motivated to succeed because you want to positively affect the lives of the people around you.

However, while the above examples are positive, intrinsic motivation can also have negative drivers. For example, you can motivate yourself to learn new things because otherwise you'll feel unfulfilled. The outcome of your actions is positive, but the specific type of motivation you used was focused on stopping a negative outcome rather than creating a positive outcome. For this reason and more, there are many types of intrinsic motivation that all focus on a specific motivational reward or driver.

Regardless of positive or negative, intrinsic motivation is typically more sustainable than extrinsic motivation because it usually focuses on positive or altruistic things you can control. Conversely, extrinsic motivation typically focuses on things that are given to you by someone else and therefore is not directly within your control to achieve.

Extrinsic motivation represents all the things that motivate you based on external rewards like money or praise. These types of motivation are more common than intrinsic motivators and include achieving things due to a tangible incentive, fear, or expectation, all of which depend on external factors. For example, people want to get a promotion because of the expected raise.

Like intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation can sometimes be negative. For example, you can be motivated to perform better at your job due to fear of being fired. This shows that extrinsic motivation, like its high-level counterpart, has many different motivational-types that highlight a specific external motivational driver and explains how effective it is at motivation.

As you can see, motivation is more complex than simply categorizing it as either an internal or external incentive. For more information on general intrinsic and extrinsic rewards and how they compare and contrast, check out my article on intrinsic vs extrinsic motivation. Otherwise, keep reading for specific types of motivation that leverage these reward systems on a granular level and can help you excel in life.

<https://evantarver.com/types-of-motivation/>

Check your findings within the Appendix G.

Match these words to their definitions:

DEFINITIONS

WORDS

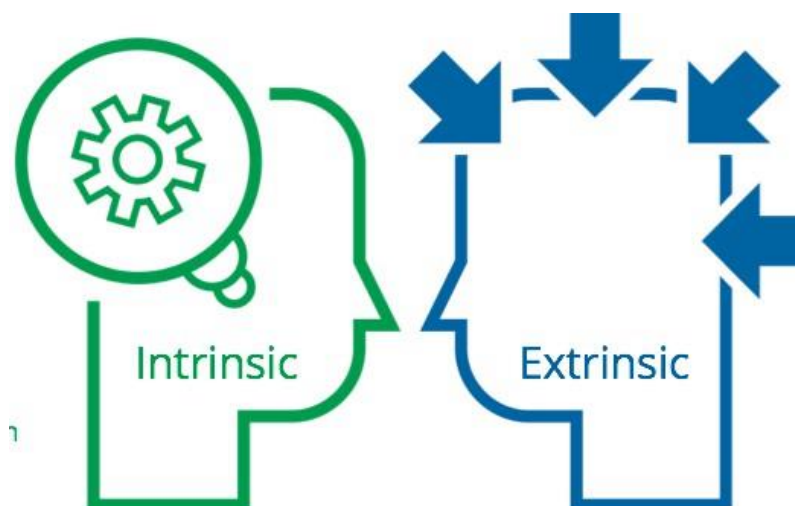
- | | |
|---|---|
| a. to produce a beneficial result or effect from an action or decision | 1) to categorize it as either an internal or external incentive |
| b. as a result of being afraid or anticipating something that may happen in the future | 2) driven by internal rewards |
| c. to show or symbolise every reason that encourages someone to act in a certain way | 3) to create a positive outcome |
| d. to sort or classify a motivation based on whether it comes from within oneself or from outside sources | 4) to represent all motivational drivers |
| e. because of a clear and measurable benefit that can be seen or touched | 5) driven by external rewards |
| f. motivated by personal satisfaction or feelings of achievement rather than outside influences | 6) due to a tangible incentive |
| g. to improve the understanding of particular benefits and motivations that encourage people | 7) to better identify specific rewards and incentives |
| h. encouraged by benefits or prizes that come from outside oneself, such as money or praise | 8) to highlight specific motivating factors |
| i. to draw attention to particular reasons that inspire action or behaviour | 9) due to fear, or expectation |

Check your results within the Appendix H.

4. INTRINSIC VS EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION

Read the list of words related to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Sort these words into two columns: Intrinsic and Extrinsic motivation.

Passion	Self-expression	Bonuses	Curiosity
Enjoyment	Pay raises	Winning	Promotions
Prizes	Fun	Benefits	Personal growth
	Perks	Purpose	



Discuss your results within the group mates, provide your own words related to intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Check your results within the Appendix I.

5. ACTIVITY: Motivation and second language learning

According to R.C. Gardner and W.E. Lambert (1972), there are two types of motivation: integrative and instrumental. The integrative motivation means learning the language with the intention of participating in the culture of its people. And instrumental motivation suggests and implies that a learner learns the language in support of a purpose relating to occupation or further useful motive. These two types of motivation can affect and control the procedure and outcome of learning.

V. Cook (2000) further believes that the integrative and instrumental motivation suggested by R.C. Gardner and W.E. Lambert is useful and effective factor for second language learning. R.C. Gardner (1985) and R. Ellis (1994) also introduce the mentioned types of motivation; The former occurs when the student likes to join or be a member of the certain crowd and the culture. The latter crops up when the learner anticipate numerous benefits that he proposes to have while learning some particular language. Comparing these two types of motivation with each other, R. Ellis (1994) believes that the best and the perfect motivation is the integrative motivation. He believes that integrative motivation is more competent and well-organized. Students who don't have instrumental or integrative motivation, in fact, will face with problems and difficulties to learn and gain knowledge of a second language in the classroom and generally, learning the language would be difficult for them (Cook, 2000).

https://ijbssnet.com/journals/Vol_3_No_24_Special_Issue_December_2012/24.pdf

Classify the following characteristics into two types of motivation instrumental and integrative

- The perfect force when stabilizing a new company or in situations of crisis.
- Task or goal-oriented, this type of motivation mainly focuses on expanding, reaching and growing.
- Always looks ahead and outside.
- The motivation of permanence and stability.
- Those whose motivation is mainly instrumental will set and pursue goals and objectives more than anything else.
- Always looks inside.
- Will strengthen the company's values and philosophy and will seek every opportunity to create greater internal Cohesion and team spirit.
- Used in departments seeking to consolidate the company: human resources, accounting, etc.
- Risk will be their number one enemy, paralyzing them.
- Routine will be their number one enemy, destroying their drive and desire the perfect driving force when looking to expand, grow or disseminate.
- A must in entrepreneurs and visionaries. No company can grow without it.

Instrumental motivation	Integrative motivation

You can check your results following the link <https://www.customerservicemanager.com/the-difference-between-instrumental-and-integrative-motivation/>

Watch Slide Player presentation “Motivation” prepared by Izabela Świć and Renata Zdanowska following the link: <https://slideplayer.com/slide/3010683/>

Reflect on the concepts of motivation and their application in real-life contexts:

- *What are some examples of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation in your personal or professional life?*
- *How do intrinsic and extrinsic motivators impact your performance differently?*
- *How do hunger, thirst, or other biological needs influence your motivation in daily activities?*
- *Can you think of a situation where a biological need affected your decision-making process?*
- *How do cultural and societal expectations shape your motivation to achieve certain goals?*
- *How does your environment (e.g., family, work, or social circle) affect your motivation levels?*
- *What personal goals have you set that are driven by achievement motivation?*
- *How does fear of failure or the desire for success influence your*
- *Among the different theories presented (Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, Drive Theory, Arousal Theory), which one resonates most with your personal experiences of motivation? Why?*
- *How could understanding these theories help professionals in fields like psychology, education, or management?*
- *How does your belief in your own abilities (self-efficacy) impact your motivation to take on new tasks?*
- *What strategies can you use to increase your self-efficacy in areas where you feel less confident?*
- *What factors keep you motivated to pursue long-term goals, even when challenges arise?*
- *How do you stay motivated during periods of low energy or discouragement?*

Analyze the following situations, identifying the type of motivation (intrinsic vs. extrinsic, integrative vs. instrumental) involved in each. Explain your reasoning for each case.

MOTIVATION	INTRINSIC	EXTRINSIC
INTEGRATIVE	A language learner wants to integrate with language culture.	Someone else wishes the learner to know language for integrating reasons.
INSTRUMENTAL	A language learner wishes to achieve goals (e.g. for a career).	External power wants a language learner to study language (e.g. for business cooperation).

Michael is learning English because his boss told him it's necessary for his upcoming promotion. He's not personally interested in the language, but he knows it will benefit his career.
Sophie takes extra online English lessons because she loves participating in international forums on topics related to environmental protection and wants to communicate better with activists from different countries.
Luis is learning English because he wants to travel around Europe and interact with locals in different countries. He enjoys learning about various cultures and wants to connect with people on a deeper level.
Anna has to pass her English course to graduate from her university program, so she studies hard even though she doesn't enjoy the subject. Her main goal is to fulfill the academic requirement.
Tom started learning English because he fell in love with British TV shows and wants to understand them without subtitles. Over time, he has become passionate about the language and enjoys using it to make friends online.
Yuna is learning English because she needs to take an exam to qualify for a study-abroad scholarship. She doesn't feel a personal connection to the language but knows it's necessary to achieve her academic goals.
Lisa is preparing for the IELTS exam to apply for a university program in Australia.
John is taking English classes because his company requires all employees to speak English fluently for client communication.
Maria is learning English because she enjoys reading English literature and watching English-language films.

Take part in a round-up discussion sharing your own types of motivation in learning English. Discussion questions:

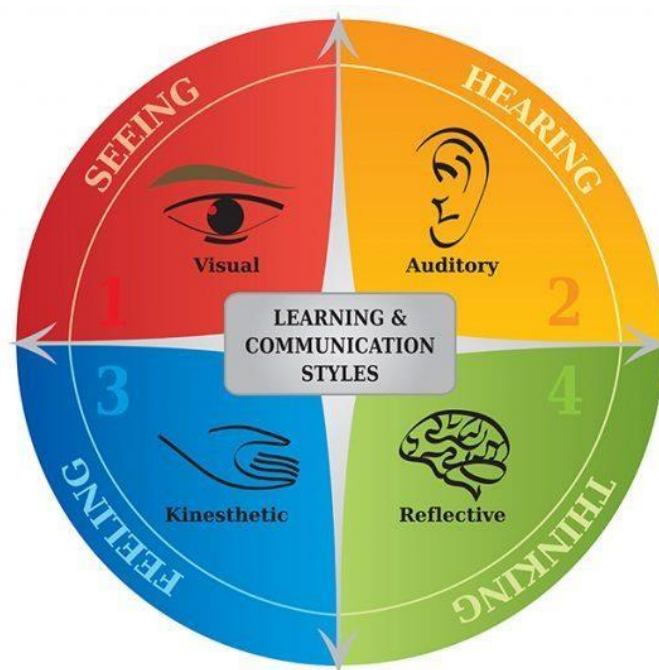
1. *What type of motivation primarily drives your learning? Is it more intrinsic, extrinsic, or a mix of both? Why do you think that is?*
2. *Can you recall a specific moment when you felt highly motivated to improve your English? What triggered that motivation?*
3. *How do your goals for learning English impact your level of motivation? Are they short-term (e.g. passing an exam) or long-term (e.g. career advancement)?*
4. *Do you find that social interactions in English, whether online or in person, motivate you to learn more? How does being able to communicate with others drive your efforts?*
5. *How do you overcome moments when you feel less motivated to study English? What strategies help you regain your focus and interest?*
6. *Does learning English for professional purposes (extrinsic motivation) feel different from learning for personal enjoyment (intrinsic motivation)? Which is more sustainable in the long term for you?*
7. *How do you celebrate your progress in learning English? Does acknowledging your achievements help boost your motivation to continue?*
8. *Do you think the environment where you learn (e.g., classroom, online, social settings) affects your motivation? How so?*

Topic 3. LEARNER'S TYPE. THE VARK MODEL.

Learning Objectives:

- to understand learning styles
- be aware of types of motivation and its role in language learning

1. INTRODUCTION



Discussion questions:

1. *Do you think people have a dominant learning style?*
2. *How do you prefer to study – visually, audibly, through reading/writing, or kinaesthetically?*
3. *Can learning styles change over time or in different situations?*
4. *How important is it for educators to consider different learning preferences in the classroom?*
5. *Have you ever experienced a situation where your preferred learning style did not match the teaching method?*

Watch video introducing the different learners' styles.
Discuss the questions below:



https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=UyULK3XE0Ac&ab_channel=HelpfulProfessorExplains%21

1. *What does the acronym VARK stand for in relation to learning styles?*
2. *How do visual learners best absorb information?*
3. *What are some characteristics of auditory learners?*
4. *How do reading-writing learners engage most effectively with information?*
5. *What type of activities do kinaesthetic learners prefer when learning?*
6. *What is a strength of the VARK model according to the video transcript?*
7. *What criticism has the VARK model faced from educational researchers?*

Compare your findings within the Appendix J.

2. Read the article. Discover VARK theory – the 4 different learning styles that explain how we process and understand new information.

4 Different Learning Styles: The VARK Theory by Katie Broadbent

Over the past century, much interest in the subject of Psychology has been around education. Understanding the different learning styles and being able to better identify how people can learn best has been at the forefront of research, with many theorists projecting their ideas.

One of the most prominent was developed by Neil Fleming in 1987. Named the **VARK model** of learning, Fleming theorised that we are all one of four main types of learners: visual, auditory, reading/writing, and kinaesthetic.

Understanding our brain's psychology and how we best process information is one of the most crucial building blocks for educational success. Not only does it make day-to-day learning easier, you'll also find the time you spend revising is far more effective and rewarding.

Outside of the classroom, VARK learning styles can also be used to explain the behaviours of your relatives and friends, helping you to better understand those around you and make more effective decision-making.

In this guide, we're going to take a look at the four different VARK learning styles, discover how to assess what type of learner you are, as well as how you can use your learning style to benefit your online classes.

The VARK learning styles

Although educators have known for centuries that students have their own individual learning styles, it wasn't until the 1970s and 1980s that these began to be systematically recognised and understood. In 1987, educational theorist Neil Fleming set out to help students and teachers adapt their practices to better help them retain new information. And so, he created the **VARK learning styles**.

The acronym "VARK" stands for **V**isual, **A**ural, **R**ead, and **K**inaesthetic - and refers to the different learning styles we as humans have when learning new information. Individuals are identified by the style they identify with the most when learning.

What are the 4 types of learning styles? Fleming categorised learning into 4 different types of learning styles. These are: **V**isual, **A**ural, **R**ead/Write, and **K**inaesthetic.

1. Visual Learners

Do you find yourself drawing pictures of chemical bonds as you study for an exam? Do you sometimes find yourself distracted in class, but are extra-attentive when watching videos or demonstrations? If so, then you may be a visual learner.

As the name suggests, visual learners understand and retain information best by **seeing**. They would prefer to see information presented in a visually appealing way, rather than in a written format. Individuals that learn in this way tend to pay close attention to detail and body language, and often imagine situations in their mind to help them process the information better.

In terms of learning, graphic displays are most effective for visual learners. Some of these include:

- Charts, illustrations, graphs and diagrams
- Animated videos, documentaries, and other learning shows
- Paper hand-outs with lots of images
- Demonstrations
- Colour-coded notes, incorporated with plenty of white space

2. Aural Learners

Do you have that one friend that remembers *everyone's* names and birthdays? Or who can recite every snippet of conversation they've had with someone and relay it back to you?

Aural – or auditory – learners tend to learn information best by **hearing** it. Rather than getting actively involved in class or writing out notes, they prefer to listen to others present the information and then are usually able to recite that back to them.

This is usually through the format of conversation, but can also include recordings and music. Some learners also find that reading information out loud to themselves can help them recall it better.

Because of the need for auditory learners to listen intently to lectures or information, it's vital that they are able to study in a quiet environment, away from distractions and any other noises which could distract or disrupt their learning.

However, once they've found the peace and quiet to study, some of the best ways to study which benefit aural learners include:

- Lectures or large classroom environments, where tutors present information;
- Transcribing handwritten notes into recordings;
- Listening to podcasts, audio books or class recordings;
- Personal, one-on-one tutoring where new information can be talked through;
- Using mnemonics, listening to or creating songs about new content.

3. Reading (and Writing) Learners

We've all had note-envy; those students who have beautifully hand-written, colour-coded notes that have been divided perfectly topic-by-topic. And it's because they tend to benefit most from **reading** and **writing** about new information.

Those with a preference for reading and writing learning styles tend to take in new information best when it's displayed as words and text. They'll often produce lists, read definitions, and enjoy summarising information in ways that best make sense to them.

In this way, reading and writing learners tend to understand and memorise new information best by:

- Reading textbooks and summarising with notes;
- Writing notes in class and highlighting important details;
- Creating presentations;
- Studying alone, avoiding all distractions;
- Story-writing and getting creative with their notes.

4. Kinaesthetic Learners

Finally, the fourth VARK learning style refers to kinaesthetic (or tactile) learners. That is, individuals who learn best by **practically** touching and doing things.

Hands-on experience is an important component for kinaesthetic learners, who have a "trial and error" approach to their learning. They enjoy having physical practice and directly manipulating objects and materials to better understand how things work. Usually, movement and short bursts of studying are important to keep them engaged, rather than sitting at a desk for sustained periods of time.

In this respect, kinaesthetic learners tend to enjoy and thrive at more practical-based subjects, such as Art, Sports, and Design and Technology. They are most engaged while moving, therefore it makes sense to try to incorporate an

activity into studying, even if it's for a subject that requires a more traditional note-taking approach.

Some study methods kinaesthetic learners can try include:

- Conducting experiments and constructing projects;
- Doing a «physical» activity whilst learning – e.g. walking and reading a textbook or bouncing a tennis ball while reciting information;
- Creating flash cards and being tested by a friend or classmate;
- Taking regular breaks during studying to stretch their legs.

What type of learning style is right for me?

In order to identify and understand what type of learner people are, Fleming developed a self-report inventory that presents a series of scenarios. Individuals select from a multiple-choice selection of answers the one that best describes their preferred approach to learning.

At the end of the questionnaire, your scores for each learning style are added up. The learning style which you selected the most when answering is then considered to be your learning preference.

Example VARK Question

Imagine you are learning to assemble a piece of flat-pack furniture. In which way would you be able to assemble the furniture best?

- Look at diagrams which show each stage of assembly. (Visual)
- Listen to advice from someone who has done it before. (Auditory)
- Read the full written instructions that come with the furniture. (Reading)
- Watch a video of someone assembling the furniture and then trying it for yourself. (Kinaesthetic)

The disadvantages of VARK learning styles

Although the VARK learning styles have been widely regarded as helpful for students who have a better understanding of themselves and how to direct their studying, it has also faced some criticism – with the largest being the limitations of categorising learning in this way.

Despite one learning style making it easier for you to study, it can in some ways be a hindrance. What if you struggle to learn a particular subject using a specific learning style? It can often lead you to feel as though you'll never be able to understand the information - rather than thinking another approach might work better.

Or perhaps, what if you don't fit the conventional VARK model? How can you be an «effective» learner if you don't necessarily fit one specific style? Fear not.

As you complete your own self-report inventory, you may discover that you tick more than one answer in the multiple choice questions. It's not uncommon for learners to benefit from more than one learning style; e.g. watching a video of someone assembling furniture (kinaesthetic) and then following the diagram themselves (visual).

So, although the VARK learning styles may be a great way to better understand how best you learn, it's important to play around with different study

methods to see which works best for you. Especially when approaching different subjects. Kinaesthetic learning might be great for helping you understand how gravity works, but it might not be so helpful for poetry analysis.

Trying a combination won't only help you improve your concentration and study motivation, but you'll also become a more effective learner, spending time on the activities that are going to help you achieve the most impact.

When it comes to revising for your exams, especially when revising for those all-important A-Levels, you want to ensure that you're studying in the most productive way possible. Revision time is scarce, and you want to make sure you're making the most out of any study time you have.

Using VARK learning styles to benefit online learning

Over the past year, learning has faced unprecedented challenges, with students, teachers and tutors alike having to find new and adaptive ways to make learning effective remotely.

For students, having an understanding of the learning style which best suits them is one of the crucial building blocks to ensure they are still able to study effectively, while learning online.

Still studying at home? Now is the perfect opportunity to explore your learning style and find a new study method that works for you.

Online learning has many benefits, with one of them being the flexibility to study at a pace that suits you and your schedule. And with this, you have the opportunity to try out some new study methods to see what learning style best suits you.

Think you may be more of an auditory learner? Ask your tutor if they would be willing to record your webinars and send them after class for you to listen again? Alternatively, if you think you're more of a visual learner, you could take your notes from online class and then spend your independent study time condensing them into easily digestible diagrams and illustrations.

Then, as you return to the classroom (or even if you continue to study from home) you'll be a far more effective learner, equipped with the tools and study methods needed to help you learn in the most rewarding way possible.

Here at Melio, we use a combination of learning approaches to benefit students of all different learning styles and abilities.

For example, in our Online Courses, students will learn in small online classes where they can join in on discussions and learn new material from their tutor (reading, writing, and auditory).

But, there are also quizzes, mini-tests, and independent study assignments issued to each student too (kinaesthetic), where they can work on a project of their own for the end of their online course to demonstrate what they have learned during the two weeks.

This can incorporate all different learning styles, depending on what suits you best - and your tutor will be happy to accommodate this as part of your course.

Meanwhile, our one-on-one Tutorials offer students and tutor the opportunity to discuss their subject in detail (auditory) through hour-long online tutoring sessions.

However, like our online courses, students will also be asked to complete independent assignments and projects during this tutoring to monitor how well they know and understand this new information. Your tutor can work with you and your learning style to set projects tailored around your specific learning style – making it work in a way that benefits you.

Summary

Over the past century, more and more psychologists have turned their attention to the education sector - looking at how to create learning environments that help students to learn information in the most effective way possible.

One of the biggest contributors is education theorist Neil Fleming, who introduced the VARK learning theory, which attributes students either as visual, auditory, reading/writing, or kinaesthetic learners.

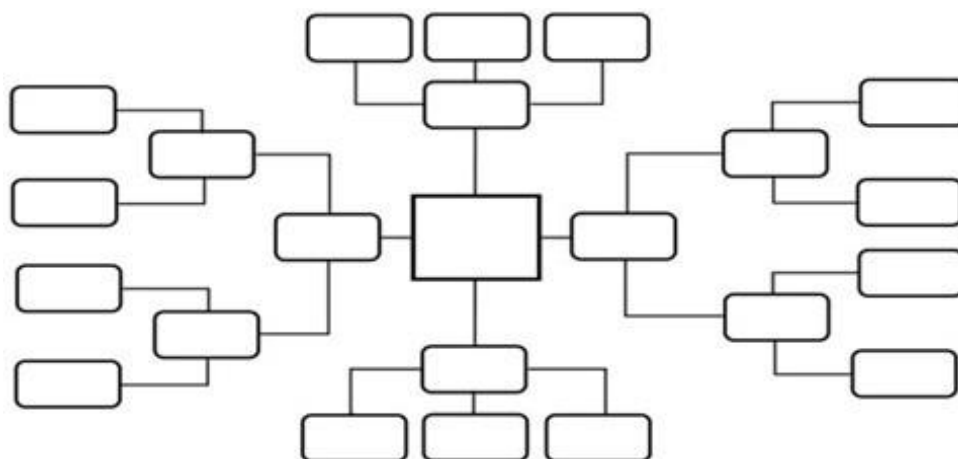
With a quick and easy-to-complete questionnaire, students can better understand the way their mind processes information and retains it for the long-term. Over time, they can equip themselves with the tools and techniques best suited to their learning style to make classes, homework, and revision time more effective.

This is particularly important for today's climate, where students have had to adapt to finding a new «normal» to studying, with many finding themselves learning themselves from home. It's never been more important for students to harness this independence and discover the most effective ways to continue their learning over the coming months.

<https://www.melioeducation.com/blog/vark-different-learning-styles/>

3. ACTIVITY: MIND MAP OF VARK CONCEPTS

Create a mind map summarizing the VARK model, including its advantages and disadvantages. You can add examples of activities or teaching methods that fit each style. This visual summary can reinforce key concepts and encourage creative thinking.



4. ACTIVITY: APPLICATION TO PERSONAL LEARNING

Imagine you are a teacher of psychology, you have all types of learners in your classroom. Classify tasks below into 4 types of activities due to VARK theory:

Visual	Auditory	Reading/Writing	Kinaesthetic

1. Create a hands-on classroom activity where participants simulate tasks that correspond to different stages (e.g., object permanence, conservation tasks).
2. Create a series of posters that depict the symptoms, causes, and treatments of common mental health disorders (e.g., depression, anxiety).
3. Record an interview or podcast with a mental health professional discussing treatment approaches.
4. Create an infographic that outlines key motivation theories (e.g., Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs, Self-Determination Theory).
5. Record a podcast explaining the different theories and providing real-world examples.
6. Create a narrated video or audio presentation explaining Piaget's theory and how children move through different stages.
7. Write a case study that illustrates a child's progression through Piaget's stages, including analysis.
8. Write a detailed summary comparing and contrasting different motivational theories.
9. Design a mind map that explains types of memory (sensory, short-term, long-term) and common reasons for forgetting (e.g., interference, decay).
10. Write a comprehensive guide summarizing different mental health disorders and therapeutic interventions.
11. Record an audio lesson explaining how memory works, including tips for improving memory retention.
12. Design an interactive role-playing activity where students explore different motivational factors in various scenarios.
13. Design a flowchart or diagram showing Piaget's stages of development, with key characteristics of each stage.
14. Develop a role-playing activity where students act as therapists and clients, practicing different therapy techniques (e.g., Cognitive Behavioral Therapy).
15. Write an article about the key models of memory (e.g., Atkinson-Shiffrin model) and factors that impact memory retrieval.
16. Create a memory game where students test their recall abilities, incorporating memory techniques like chunking or mnemonics.

6. ACTIVITY: Create VARK Learning Resources

Create one learning resource (e.g., infographic, video, written summary, or hands-on activity) for each of the four learning styles on a chosen topic (Emotional Intelligence, Stress and Coping, Culture etc.)

Topic 4. MULTIPLE INTELLIGENCE

Learning objectives:

- be aware of the theory of multiple intelligences and its application in the classroom

1. INTRODUCTION: Brainstorming

Work in small groups to come up with words or phrases they associate with intelligence.

What qualities or abilities do intelligent people have?

Is intelligence only about being good at school subjects, or can it be something else?

Write down the key points on the board/ paper, clustering similar ideas together.

Look at the definitions of Intelligence, discuss them with your groupmates.

Definitions of Intelligence

Intelligence is the ability to judge well, reason well and act well (Binet).

- Intelligence is the global or aggregate capacity of an individual to think rationally, act purposefully, and to deal effectively with her/his environment (Wechsler).

- Intelligence is the capacity to learn and adjust to relatively new and changing conditions (Wagnon).

- Intelligence is the the ability to adapt, to shape and select environment to accomplish one's goals and those of one's society and culture (Sternberg).

2. H. Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligence

Watch video introducing Theory of Multiple Intelligences.

Discuss the questions below:



https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=H1J2fzzYWic&ab_channel=Faculti

1. What populations did the speaker work with in the research?
2. How did the speaker observe differences in abilities among children and brain damage patients?
3. Why did the speaker feel that there was something fundamentally wrong with the concept of intelligence?
4. What was the main insight that led the speaker to pluralize the word «intelligence»?
5. How did the book «Frames of Mind» impact the field of education?
6. How did the speaker test for different intelligences in individuals?
7. How have schools and educators around the world found the concept of multiple intelligences useful in practice?

Compare your results with Appendix K.

3. ACTIVITY: TYPES OF INTELLIGENCE

A. Match intelligence type in the box with appropriate picture.

Interpersonal

**Logical-
Mathematical**

Existential

Linguistic

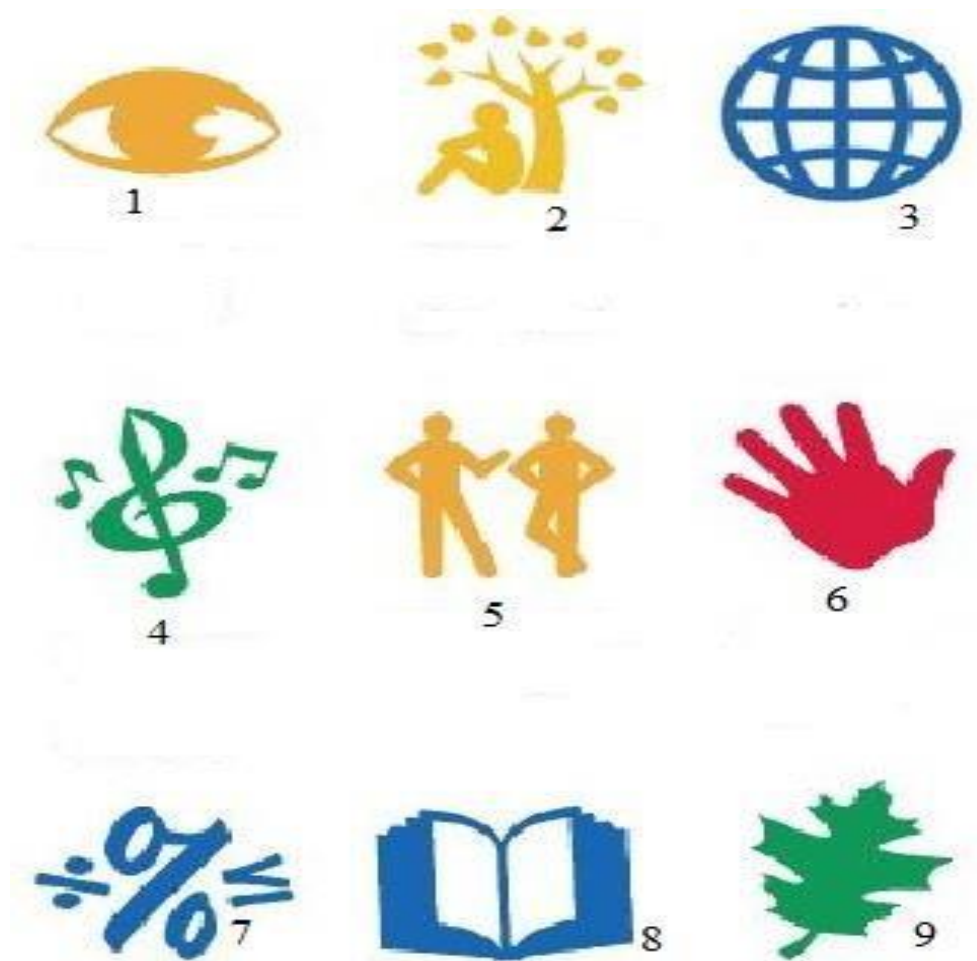
Intrapersonal

Spatial

Musical

**Bodily-
Kinaesthetic**

Naturalistic



Compare your results with Appendix L.

B. Select professions to each intelligence type from the box below:

<i>public speakers, engineers, scientists, artists, architects, designers, farmers, theologians, teachers, therapists, athletes, surgeons, dancers, spiritual leaders, musicians, writers, poets, composers, politicians, philosophers, psychologists, biologists, conservationists, mathematicians</i>	
Interpersonal	
Linguistic	
Musical	
Logical-Mathematical	

Intrapersonal	
Bodily-Kinaesthetic	
Existential	
Spatial	
Naturalistic	

C. Match related tasks, activities or tests to each intelligence type:

1. Interpersonal

a. Learn Morse Code and practice communicating with it; Use different kinds of music for different kinds of writing; Create song/raps to teach grammar, syntax, phonetics semantics, and other language concepts; Learn and practice «phonetic punctuation» (a la Victor Borge); Illustrate a story/poem with appropriate sounds, music, rhythms, and vibrations

2. Linguistic

b. Predict what will happen next in a story or play; Create an outline with 4 main points x 4 sub points x four sub-sub points; Learn to read, write, and decipher «code language»; Analyze similarities and differences of various pieces of literature; Use a «story grid» for creative writing activities

3. Musical

c. Teach «concept mapping» to help remember content; Write a sequel/next episode to a story or play; Create crossword puzzles/word jumbles for vocabulary words; Play «New Word for the Day» – learn a new word and use it frequently during the day; practice impromptu speaking and writing

4. Logical-Mathematical

d. Experiment with joint story-writing one starts then pass it on; Analyse the message or moral of a story with a group-reach a consensus; Use a «human graph» to see where a group stands on an issue; Read poetry from different perspectives and in different moods; Conduct language drill exercises with a partner (make it into a game)

5. Intrapersonal

e. Nature scene recreation/simulations for literature and poetry; Poetic/descriptive essay writing based on nature experiences; Learn and practice using the vocabulary, idiom, jargon, and vernacular of the nature and the naturalist; Understand influences of climate/environment on various authors; Creative story-writing using animal characters and their characteristics

6. Bodily-Kinaesthetic

f. Write an autobiographical essay entitled: «My Life to Date»; Write an autobiographical essay entitled: «My Life in the Future»; Analyze literature for «connections to our lives today»; Write a new poem each day for a week on «Who am I?» and «Where Am I Going?»; Imagine being a character in a story/novel – what would you do differently or the same

7. Existential

g. Play vocabulary words «Pictionary»; Teach «mind mapping» as a note taking process; Draw picture of the different stages of a story you're reading; Learn to read, write, and decipher code language; Use highlight markers to «colorize» parts of a story or poem;

8. Spatial

h. Plan a charity event and present it using a poster; maintain a current events notebook with a focus on humanitarian stories; locate and read romantic poetry

9. Naturalistic

i. Play «The Parts of a Sentence» charades; «Embodiment» (act out) the meaning of vocabulary words; Act out a story or play that you are studying; Learn the alphabet and/or spelling through body movements and physical gestures; Make up a «Parts of Speech» folk dance

Summing up the session and assigning follow-up task

Write a reflective essay about the tasks you were good at as a learner. How did they relate to the definite type of intelligence?

Topic 5. COGNITIVE STYLE

Objectives: be aware of:

- field independence and field dependence
- reflective and impulsive
- analytical and holistic

1. INTRODUCTION

Work in two groups to come up with a brief outline of how you would tackle the problem, focusing on your thought process.

Task:

Group 1. *Imagine you're organizing a charity event. What steps would you take to plan it successfully?*

Group 2. *You've just been assigned a difficult project with a tight deadline. How would you approach getting it done?*

Group Discussion. Share your approaches. Facilitate a discussion on the different ways people approached the same problem.

Reflection questions:

- *Did anyone start by gathering information?*
- *Did some jump straight into planning specific steps?*
- *Did others prefer a more flexible, creative approach?*
- *Did you rely on logic or facts to guide their decisions, or did you trust their instincts and intuition?*
- *Did you focus on specific details and smaller tasks, while others focused on the overall vision or big picture?*
- *Did you mention asking others for input or working with a team, while others preferred to work through the problem alone?*
- *Were there individuals who followed a strict step-by-step process, and others who left room for adjustment or flexibility in their approach?*
- *Did some approach the problem quickly and make decisions right away, while others took more time to carefully evaluate the situation before acting?*
- *Did anyone take emotions (their own or others') into account when making decisions, or did they focus purely on logical outcomes?*
- *Did anyone choose a bold or unconventional approach, or did they prefer to minimize risk and follow a safer, more traditional path?*
- *Did anyone think about their plan visually (e.g., creating a mental image of the event), while others may have outlined it in words or steps?*

2. ACTIVITY: Cognitive styles introduction

Reflect on your own problem-solving approaches from the earlier icebreaker activity.

Questions:

- *What was your natural inclination when faced with the task? Why do you think you approached it this way?*
- *How do you think this cognitive style could influence your work as a psychologist?*
- *Can you identify a situation where your cognitive style might be beneficial or challenging in a therapy setting?*

Cognitive styles:

- **Field-dependent vs. Field-independent:** Field-dependent thinkers rely more on external cues, while field-independent individuals tend to focus on internal references.
- **Reflective vs. Impulsive:** Reflective individuals take their time to consider all options, while impulsive people make quick decisions.
- **Analytical vs. Holistic:** Analytical thinkers break problems into smaller components, while holistic thinkers look at the overall situation.

Cognitive Style Self-Assessment

Instructions: For each pair of statements, choose the one that best describes how you typically approach tasks, problems, or decision-making. If both apply to some extent, choose the one that feels most true.

1. When working on a new project or task:
 - A) I start by gathering as much information as possible from others.
 - B) I prefer to rely on my own understanding and start independently.
2. When faced with a decision:
 - A) I like to take my time, carefully weighing all options before deciding.
 - B) I tend to decide quickly, trusting my instincts.
3. When solving a problem:
 - A) I break the problem into smaller, manageable parts.
 - B) I look at the problem as a whole to find a solution.
4. In group settings:
 - A) I rely on feedback and opinions from others to make sense of the situation.
 - B) I prefer to form my own understanding first and then discuss it with the group.
5. When completing a task:
 - A) I like to follow a structured, step-by-step plan.
 - B) I prefer to keep things flexible and adjust as I go.
6. When interpreting information:
 - A) I focus on details and specifics to understand a situation.

B) I look for overarching patterns and connections.

7. When reflecting on my actions:

A) I often reconsider my decisions after reflecting on the outcome.

B) Once a decision is made, I rarely second-guess it.

8. When solving puzzles or problems:

A) I focus on the logical sequence of steps needed to solve the problem.

B) I rely on intuition or a “gut feeling” to guide me to a solution.

Check your score within the Appendix M.

Reflection Questions:

- *Based on your results, which cognitive style do you lean towards?*
- *How might your cognitive style impact your role as a psychologist, both in assessing clients and in conducting therapy sessions?*
- *Are there any situations where you might need to adapt or adjust your cognitive style to better connect with a client?*

3. FIELD DEPENDENCY VS. FIELD INDEPENDENCE

Field dependence and field independence are two fundamental concepts in the field of psychology that describe the way in which people process information from their environment. These terms were introduced by British psychologist Richard Gregory in the 1960s and have been the subject of numerous studies and research since then.

Field Dependence

Field dependence refers to the tendency of some people to rely heavily on stimuli from the environment to guide their perception and understanding of the world. People with high field dependence tend to process information globally, paying more attention to contextual and relational elements than to specific details. This holistic approach allows them to grasp the totality of a situation or problem, but often at the expense of precision of detail.

People with high field dependence are often sensitive to emotional and social cues in their environment, which can make them more empathetic and understanding. However, this sensitivity can also lead to misinterpretations or errors in judgment if they are overridden by the objective information available.

Characteristics of Field Dependency

Some common characteristics of people with High field dependence include:

- Sensitivity to the emotions of others;
- Propensity to follow social norms and group expectations;
- Ease to perceiving complex patterns and relationships in large sets of information;
- Difficulty focusing on specific details or tasks that require an analytical approach.

Field Independence

In contrast, field independence refers to the ability of some people to separate stimuli from the environment and process information in a more analytical and detailed way. People with high field independence tend to focus on the individual elements of a situation or problem, largely ignoring the context or relationships between them. This analytical approach allows them to identify and address specific problems more accurately, but often at the expense of a more global understanding.

People with high field independence tend to be more objective in their thinking and they are less influenced by the opinions or emotions of others. Your detailed and analytical approach can result in a greater ability to solve complex problems or perform tasks that require critical and objective thinking.

Characteristics of Field Independence

Some common characteristics of people with high field independence include:

- Ability to focus on specific details and tasks that require careful analysis;
- Objectivity in decision making and evaluation of information;
- Tendency to question social norms and group expectations;
- Difficulty perceiving complex patterns or relationships in large sets of information.

Differences in Cognitive Processing

Field dependence and field independence represent two cognitive processing styles that influence how people perceive, interpret, and respond to information from the environment. These styles are not mutually exclusive and most people present a combination of both to different degrees.

Field dependence is associated with more global and contextual cognitive processing, while field independence is associated with more detailed and analytical processing. People with high field dependence tend to approach problems from a holistic perspective, considering how different elements are interrelated. On the other hand, people with high field independence tend to decompose problems into their individual components and analyse them separately.

Impact on Learning and Problem Solving

These differences in cognitive processing can have a significant impact on learning and problem solving. People with high field dependence may benefit from teaching approaches that emphasize context and relationships between concepts, while people with high field independence may excel in tasks that require detailed, analytical thinking.

In the educational field, it is important to take into account students' processing preferences to adapt teaching strategies and maximize their learning. For example, students with high field dependence may benefit from instructional methods that encourage exploration and connection of concepts, while students with high field independence may prefer tasks that challenge their analytical and problem-solving abilities.

Relationship with Other Psychological Variables

Field dependence and independence are related to several psychological variables and personality characteristics, and have been the subject of research in various psychological contexts. Some studies have found associations between field dependence and independence and factors such as creativity, emotional intelligence and decision making.

Field Dependence and Creativity

Some researchers have suggested that field dependence can be related to creativity, especially in the artistic and creative field. People with high field dependence tend to be more sensitive to emotions and aesthetic experiences, which can influence their ability to generate innovative and original ideas.

On the other hand, field dependence can also limit creativity in certain contexts, as people may be more susceptible to external influences and less likely to challenge established norms. The combination of field dependence and field independence can be beneficial for creativity, as it allows people to integrate diverse perspectives and approaches into their creative process.

Field Independence and Decision Making

Field independence has been related to a more objective and rational decision-making style. People with high field independence tend to analyse information in more detail and consider multiple perspectives before making a decision. This analytical approach can result in more informed decisions that are less influenced by cognitive or emotional biases.

On the contrary, field independence can also lead to excessive analysis and make decision-making difficult in complex situations. or ambiguous. People with high field independence may have difficulty integrating contradictory information or reaching a definitive conclusion when there is uncertainty. The combination of field independence and field dependence can be beneficial for decision making, as it allows people to consider both specific details and the big picture before deciding.

Practical Applications in Psychology and Science Education

Understanding field dependence and independence has important implications in various fields of psychology and education. These concepts can help professionals adapt their intervention and teaching approaches to meet the individual needs of people with different cognitive processing styles.

In Clinical Psychology

In Clinical psychology, field dependence and independence can influence how people perceive and respond to therapy. Therapists should take these cognitive processing styles into account when designing therapeutic interventions that fit their patients' preferences. For example, people with high field dependence may benefit from therapeutic approaches that focus on the exploration of emotions and interpersonal relationships, while people with high field independence may prefer more structured and analytical interventions.

In Education and Training

In the educational field, field dependence and independence can influence academic performance and the way students learn. Educators can use differentiated teaching strategies that take into account their students' cognitive processing styles to maximize their learning. For example, students with high field dependence may benefit from collaborative learning activities that encourage exploration and interaction with peers, while students with high field independence may prefer individual tasks that allow them to analyse information in detail. .

Conclusions

In summary, field dependence and field independence are two cognitive processing styles that influence the way people perceive, interpret, and respond to information. of the environment. These concepts represent two ends of a continuum and most people present a combination of both to varying degrees. Understanding field dependence and independence is essential for adapting intervention and teaching approaches in psychology and education, and maximizing individual learning and development.

<https://www.mentesabiertaspsicologia.com/blog-psicologia/field-dependency-vs-field-independence-definition>

Answer the questions:

1. What is the main difference between field dependency and field independence?
 - a) Field-dependent individuals prefer abstract thinking, while field-independent individuals rely on external cues.
 - b) Field-dependent individuals rely on external cues for decision-making, while field-independent individuals are more self-reliant.
 - c) Field-independent individuals prefer working in groups, while field-dependent individuals prefer working alone.
 - d) There is no significant difference between the two.
4. Which of the following is a characteristic of field-independent individuals?
 - a) They have difficulty focusing in highly structured environments.
 - b) They rely on external feedback to guide their decisions.
 - c) They prefer to work independently and solve problems analytically.
 - d) They are more influenced by social situations when making decisions.
5. In what type of environment are field-dependent individuals likely to thrive?
 - a) In unstructured settings with minimal external input.
 - b) In highly structured, collaborative environments.
 - c) In environments where abstract reasoning is required.
 - d) In situations that require analytical problem-solving.

Compare your results within the Appendix N.

True or False

- *Field-independent individuals are more likely to focus on details rather than the overall context.*
- *Field-dependent people rely heavily on external cues for decision-making.*
- *Field-independent individuals are more easily influenced by the opinions of others when solving problems.*

Compare your results within the Appendix O.

4. ACTIVITY: Cognitive styles: impulsive vs reflective

Watch video introducing Cognitive Styles: Impulsive vs Reflective.



Discuss the questions below:

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=qIkILPLhMf8&ab_channel=inGeniusly

Questions:

1. What is the difference between being reflective and impulsive in decision-making?
2. How can being too impulsive affect problem-solving accuracy?
3. What is analysis paralysis, and how does it relate to being overly reflective?
4. Why is finding a balance between being reflective and impulsive important in decision-making?
5. How can understanding your cognitive profile help you improve your decision-making style?
6. What mantra can impulsive individuals use to avoid jumping to conclusions too quickly?
7. In what areas of life can being either too reflective or too impulsive be detrimental?

Compare your results within the Appendix P.

5. ACTIVITY: ANALYTICAL VS. HOLISTIC

Before we read the poem, think about how we make sense of things in our daily lives. Sometimes, we focus on small details to figure out what's happening, and other times, we try to see the bigger picture. These two ways of thinking are called **Analytical** and **Holistic** styles.

Now, imagine six blind men who have never encountered an elephant before. Each one touches a different part of the elephant and tries to figure out what it is. This story shows us how people with different thinking styles can see the same thing in very different ways.

While reading the poem, pay attention to how each blind man focuses on a different part of the elephant, like someone with an analytical style, and think about how their separate ideas could be combined into a larger picture, like someone with a holistic style. This will help us understand both approaches better.

The Blind Men and the Elephant by John Godfrey Saxe (1872)

I It was six men of Indostan
To learning much inclined,
Who went to see the Elephant
(Though all of them were blind),
That each by observation
Might satisfy his mind.

II. The First approached the Elephant,
And happening to fall
Against his broad and sturdy side,
At once began to bawl:
«God bless me! – but the Elephant
Is very like a **wall**»

III. The Second, feeling of the tusk,
Cried: «Ho! – what have we here
So very round and smooth and sharp?
To me it is mighty clear
This wonder of an Elephant
Is very like a **spear**!»

IV. The Third approached the animal,
And happening to take
The squirming trunk within his hands,
Thus boldly up and spake:
«I see», quoth he, «the Elephant
Is very like a **snake**!»

V. The Fourth reached out his eager hand,
And felt about the knee.
«What most this wondrous beast is like
Is mighty plain,» quoth he;

«IT is clear enough the Elephant
Is very like a **tree!**»

VI. The Fifth, who chanced to touch the ear,
Said: «E'en the blindest man
Can tell what this resembles most;
Deny the fact who can,
This marvel of an Elephant
Is very like a **fan!**»

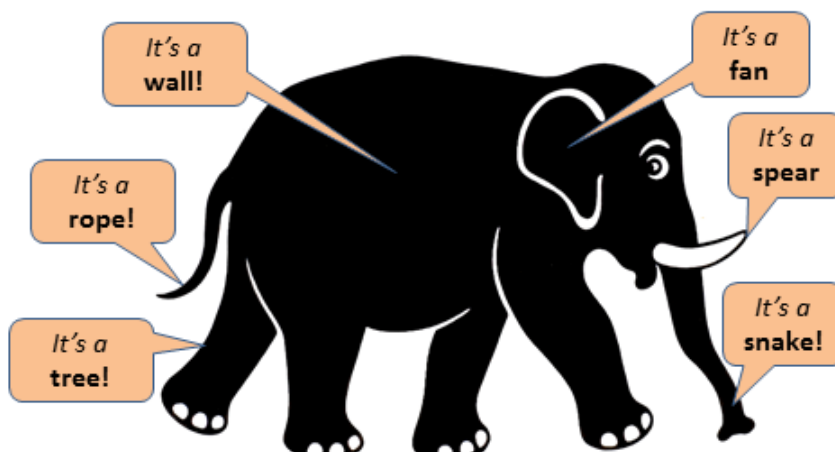
VII. The Sixth no sooner had begun
About the beast to grope,
Than, seizing on the swinging tail
That fell within his scope,
«I see,» quoth he, «the Elephant
Is very like a **rope!**»

VIII. And so these men of Indostan
Disputed loud and long,
Each in his own opinion
Exceeding stiff and strong,
Though each was partly in the right,
And all were in the wrong!

MORAL. So, oft in theologic wars
The disputants, I ween,
Rail on in utter ignorance
Of what each other mean,
And prate about an Elephant
Not one of them has seen!

What an Elephant Look Like?

HOLISTIC VIEW and Functional Perceptions



«It was an argument that they were never able to resolve. Each of them was concerned only with their own idea. None of them had the full picture, and none could see any of the other's point of view. Each man saw the elephant as something quite different, and while in part each blind man was right, none was wholly correct.»

https://www.1000ventures.com/business_guide/crosscuttings/knowning_people_perceptions_elephant.html#gsc.tab=0

Discussions:

A. Brainstorm examples of complex, real-world problems (e.g., climate change, health care, etc.) where analytical and holistic thinking might be applied. Each group presents their «elephant» and explains how different approaches could be used to solve the problem.

B. Identify real-life situations where you have used analytical thinking (focusing on details) and holistic thinking (seeing the bigger picture). You can write down these examples on a worksheet divided into two sections: «Analytical Moments» and «Holistic Moments».

C. In small groups you can share your examples and discuss when each style is more effective.

Topic 6. LEARNING STRATEGIES

Objectives:

- surface, deep and strategic approaches to learning, their similarities and differences
- the reasons for students' choosing a surface or deep approach
- teaching and learning strategies to encourage a deep approach to learning
- memorization and rote learning their own approaches to learning English

1. INTRODUCTION

Answer the following questions:

- *What was your most / least favourite subject at school?*
- *Why did / didn't you like it?*
- *How well did you prepare your home assignments in this subject? What did you do?*



Look at the picture, generate a definition of «learning strategies» and discuss it within your group.

2. ACTIVITY: Learning strategies

Read the article.

Learning strategies refer to methods that students use to learn. A learning strategy is an individual's way of organizing and using a particular set of skills in order to learn content or accomplish other tasks more effectively and efficiently in academic and non-academic settings.

These may range from techniques for improved metacognition to better studying or test-taking strategies. Learning strategies allow educators to teach students how to learn, as opposed to teaching them specific content or skills.

This helps ensure that learners are active participants in the classroom. They are not receiving information from the teacher and passively using this in assessments as they'll learn how to address all aspects of the learning process. This active use of learning strategies helps learners develop skills, increase confidence, and build motivation in the learning process. Strategy use enhances independent learning and helps learners take responsibility for their own learning.

Weinstein & Mayer indicate that the aim of using strategies is to «affect the learner's motivational or affective state or the way in which the learner selects, acquires, organizes, or integrates new knowledge».

Oxford expands on this by explaining, «Strategies are especially important for language learning because they are tools for active, self-directed involvement, which is essential for developing communicative competence».

Oxford also defines language learning strategies as «the often-conscious steps of behaviours used by language learners to enhance the acquisition, storage, retention, recall, and use of new information».

Categories of Learning Strategies

As students shift from the skills emphasis of elementary grades to the content emphasis of secondary grades, they face greater demands to read information from textbooks, take notes from lectures, work independently, and express understanding in written compositions and on paper and pencil tests. As they move to higher education, they become life-centered learners as opposed to subject-centered. They increasingly are motivated to devote time and energy to address problems or deal with tasks.

There are a multitude of ways to categorize learning strategies. Strategies can be grouped into classifications based on a focus on memory, metacognitive, affective, cognitive, social, and compensation.

Stern developed a list of ten strategies used by good language learners. Even though these are focused on language learners, they provide a good framework for seeing the complexity of learning strategies:

Planning strategy – a personal learning style or positive learning strategy;

Active strategy – an active approach to the learning task;

Empathic strategy – a tolerant and outgoing approach to the target language and its speakers;

Formal strategy – technical know-how about how to tackle a language;

Experimental strategy – a methodical but flexible approach, developing the new language into an ordered system and constantly revising it;

Semantic strategy – constant searching for meaning;

Practice strategy – a willingness to practice;

Communication strategy – willingness to use the language in real communication;

Monitoring strategy – self-monitoring and critical sensitivity to language use;

Internalization strategy – developing a second language as a separate reference system and learning to think in it.

Oxford developed a detailed classification model of learning strategies based on the synthesis of the previous work on good language learning strategies. The model is divided into direct strategies and indirect strategies. Once again, these are focused on language learners, they provide a good framework for understanding the cognitive processes involved in learning strategies:

Direct strategies involve direct learning and require mental processing of the language, which includes:

memory strategies – help learners store and retrieve new information, such as grouping, creating mental linkages, applying images and sound, reviewing, and employing action;

cognitive strategies – enable learners to understand and produce new language, such as reasoning, practicing, receiving and sending messages, analysing and summarizing;

compensation strategies – allow learners to use the new language for comprehension or production despite limited knowledge, and they are used to make up for «an inadequate repertoire of grammar and, especially, of vocabulary».

Indirect strategies support learning indirectly but are powerful to the learning process, which includes:

metacognitive strategies – help learners to regulate their learning, such as paying attention, planning, self-evaluating and monitoring one's errors or the learning process;

affective strategies – help learners to deal with their own emotions, motivation, and attitudes, such as lowering anxiety, self-rewards, self-encouragement;

social strategies – refers to ways in which learners learn the language through interactions with native speakers of the target language, such as asking questions, cooperating with peers, and improving cultural understanding.

To simplify the selection of learning strategies for classroom teachers, Torgenson provides five recommendations for improving content area instruction.

Provide explicit instruction and supportive practice in the use of effective comprehension strategies throughout the school day.

Increase the amount and quality of open, sustained discussion of reading content.

Set and maintain high standards for text, conversation, questions, and vocabulary.

Increase students' motivation and engagement with reading.

Teach essential content knowledge so that all students master critical concepts.

Kelly B. Cartwright further simplifies this grouping of learning strategies, by outlining how strategies are used by students and can be taught and supported by teachers before reading, during reading, and after reading. Cartwright unpacks these strategies in *Executive Skills and Reading Comprehension: A Guide for Educators* and this post on Edutopia.

Before Reading – while preparing for learning, students should make connections to their own prior knowledge, ask questions about the text, make predictions, and preview the text structure.

During Reading – while processing learning, students should draw on prior knowledge, juggle multiple kinds of information, suppress non-essential information, manage these processes, and summarize.

After Reading – while consolidating learning, students should reflect on the text, adapt their knowledge structure to assimilate/accommodate what they learned, and draw conclusions about predictions they had for the text.

Keep in mind, how you will use the strategy (**before reading – preparing, during reading – processing, after reading – consolidating**) will be determined by you. It will depend on how you plan on using it in instruction. Some strategies work better than others for specific purposes, but it depends on your purposes.

How do you teach a learning strategy?

The more strategies a learner uses, the more the learner feels confident, motivated, and self-efficacious. Teachers are encouraged to choose appropriate teaching techniques and learning strategies for students and teach them how to understand learning strategies to enhance levels of self-directed learning.

Learning strategies should be used multiple times with students to help enhance learning through the storage, retention, recall, and application of information about the content.

Schumacher & Deshler have validated an instructional sequence in which students learn each strategy following these teacher-directed steps:

Pretest – the teacher assesses the current level of student performance on a strategy pretest. Students commit to learning a new strategy.

Describe – the teacher then describes the characteristics of the strategy and when, where, why, and how the strategy is used. Each strategy has multiple parts that students remember with the aid of a mnemonic.

Model – the teacher models how to use the strategy by «thinking aloud» as the strategy is applied to content material.

Verbal practice – the students memorize the strategy steps and other critical use requirements.

Controlled practice – teacher enables students to become proficient strategy users with ability level materials. Teachers provide specific feedback on performance.

Grade-appropriate practice – students use the strategy with grade-appropriate or increasingly more difficult materials.

Post-test – the teacher assesses the current level of student performance on a strategy post-test.

Generalization – teachers facilitate student generalization of strategy use in other academic and non-academic settings.

If students need to learn prerequisite skills, such as finding main ideas and details, teachers teach those before teaching the strategy and reinforce student mastery of those skills during strategy instruction. Students typically learn to use a learning strategy in small groups, sometimes in a resource room, through short, intensive lessons over several weeks.

<https://wiobyne.com/learning-strategies/>

Work in small groups of 3–4 students. Each group should choose one topic and decide how they will apply each of the learning strategies:

Summarize Key Points – write or present a brief summary of the different learning strategies discussed in the article, focusing on the key points and how each strategy supports learning.

Personal Reflection – reflect on their own learning experiences and identify which of the strategies they already use. You can share how these strategies have worked for them or areas where they might improve.

Create a Mind Map – you can create a visual representation (mind map) of the learning strategies, showing connections between them, benefits, and potential challenges of each.

Strategy Implementation Plan – choose one or two strategies they haven't used before and create an action plan for how they can incorporate them into their study routines.

Compare with other theories – compare the learning strategies from the article with other learning theories or models they have studied (e.g. Gardner's multiple intelligences).

Quizzes or Games – create a quiz or game where students identify different learning strategies and their applications based on scenarios you provide.

3. ACTIVITY: SURFACE, DEEP AND STRATEGIC LEARNING

Watch video introducing Surface, Deep and Strategic Learning.



Discuss the questions below:

- What are the key characteristics of Surface Learning?
- How does it differ from Deep Learning?
- How does Strategic Learning combine elements of both Surface and Deep Learning?
- What motivates students to engage in Deep Learning? How can educators encourage this approach?
- How do students decide when to use a Strategic Learning approach?
- How can Strategic Learning be beneficial in academic or professional settings?
- What teaching methods or assessment types promote Deep Learning?
- How can educators help students shift from Surface to Deep Learning?
- What role do exams and grading systems play in shaping students' learning approaches?
- Do you consider yourself more of a Surface, Deep, or Strategic learner? Why?

4. ACTIVITY: The characteristics of deep, surface and strategic approaches to learning

Match the characteristics on cut-up slips with the corresponding approach to learning and then place them in the right space in the grid:

Actively seek to understand the material /the subject

Make active use of context, reference materials, dictionaries while reading authentic texts

Can identify key ideas and find details/facts to illustrate them in the texts for reading /listening

Interact vigorously with the content

Use various strategies to memorise new words and practise grammar patterns

Use previous exam papers to predict questions
Relate new ideas to previous knowledge
Interview students from other groups to find out the questions of the test
Take a narrow view and concentrate on detail
Are motivated by fear of failure
Relate concepts to everyday experience
Tend to read and study beyond course requirements
Make use of rote learning
Fail to distinguish main ideas from details
Ensure that the conditions and materials for studying are appropriate
Learn in order to repeat what they have learnt
Memorise information needed for assessment
Tend to stick closely to the course requirements
Take a broad view and relate ideas to one another;
Organize their time and distribute effort to greatest effect
Are motivated by interest
Intend to obtain high grades

	CHARACTERISTICS
Deep approach	
Surface approach	
Strategic approach	

Compare your findings with the keys in Appendix Q.

5. PRACTICE: *Deep Learning Strategies: Teaching & Learning Activity*

Students will analyse different learning cases and propose effective **teaching and learning strategies** to promote **deep learning**. This activity encourages critical thinking and practical problem-solving, helping students and educators foster a deeper approach to learning.

Instructions:

1. **Form Small Groups**
 - Divide into **groups of 3-5 students**.
 - Each group receives a **case card** describing a learning challenge.
2. **Analyse the Case**
 - Discuss why students might be using **surface learning** in this case.
 - Identify barriers preventing **deep learning**.
3. **Develop Solutions**
 - Create **teaching strategies** (what educators can do) and **learning strategies** (what students can do) to encourage deep learning.
 - Write your strategies on the worksheet below.
4. **Present and Discuss**
 - Each group presents their strategies to the class.
 - Other students provide feedback and suggest improvements.

Cases Cards

1. **Memorization Over Understanding**

Students are preparing for an exam and only focus on memorizing facts rather than understanding concepts.

Question: How can teachers encourage deeper engagement with the material?

3. **Lack of Real-World Application**

Students struggle to see the relevance of what they are learning to real life or future careers.

Question: How can educators integrate real-world examples and practical applications?

5. **Overemphasis on Grades**

Students focus only on getting high grades rather than understanding and enjoying the subject.

Question: How can assessments be designed to reward deep learning instead of rote memorization?

2. **Passive Learning in Lectures**

Students attend lectures but rarely ask questions or connect new information to previous knowledge.

Question: What strategies can make lectures more interactive and thought-provoking?

4. **Fear of Making Mistakes**

Students avoid deep exploration of topics because they fear failure or getting the “wrong answer.”

Question: What kind of classroom environment fosters risk-taking and critical thinking?

Worksheet: Deep Learning Strategies

Group Name: _____

Case Number: _____

1. What are the key problems in this case?

2. Teaching Strategies (What can educators do to promote deep learning?)

3. Learning Strategies (What can students do to engage deeply with the material?)

4. Final Reflection: How will these strategies impact student learning?

SUMMING UP AND ASSIGNING FOLLOW-UP TASK

Write a reflective essay about the tasks you were good at as a learner.

Think of your own experience as a student and answer the following questions by way of reflection:

1. Can you identify examples of rote learning at the University?
2. Was this rote learning useful for your understanding of the subject?
3. Were you engaging in rote learning in order to comply with a distasteful or uninteresting course requirements?
4. What steps can you take to make a transition from surface to deep learning?

Give recommendations for further reading:

Topic 8. BLOOM'S TAXONOMY

Learning Objectives:

- to understand the main ideas of Bloom's taxonomy and its application in the learning

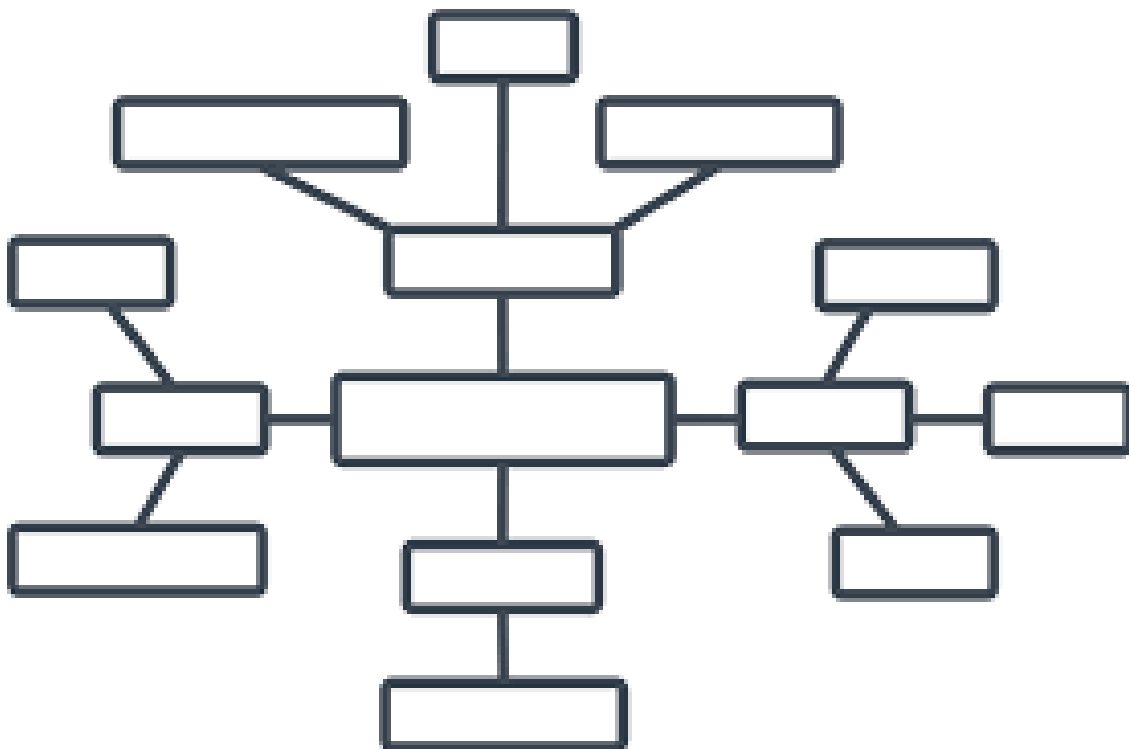
1. INTRODUCTION

Answer the question:

What skills do teachers help students develop?

Write responses in list format:

Write responses in a mind map:



Do all these skills require the same level of thinking?

1. ACTIVITY:

Watch video introducing 5 Most Useful Skills for the Jobs of the Future

Discuss the question below:



<https://www.weforum.org/videos/these-are-the-5-most-useful-skills-for-the-jobs-of-the-future/>

What skills do you need to develop for the jobs of the future?

Do the skills needed for the jobs coincide with those you develop in classes at university?

What can be done to develop the skills needed in XIX century?

BRAINSTORMING «TAXONOMY»

Have you heard the word taxonomy before?

What do you think it means?

Can you guess from any related words?

Does «tax-» remind you of «classification» or «categories»?

Does «-onomy» sound like other fields of study (e.g., astronomy, economy)?

Work in pairs to come up with a possible definition of taxonomy in your own words. (1-2 minutes to write down a short definition).

Where else do we use classification systems in daily life?

library book categories / levels in video games

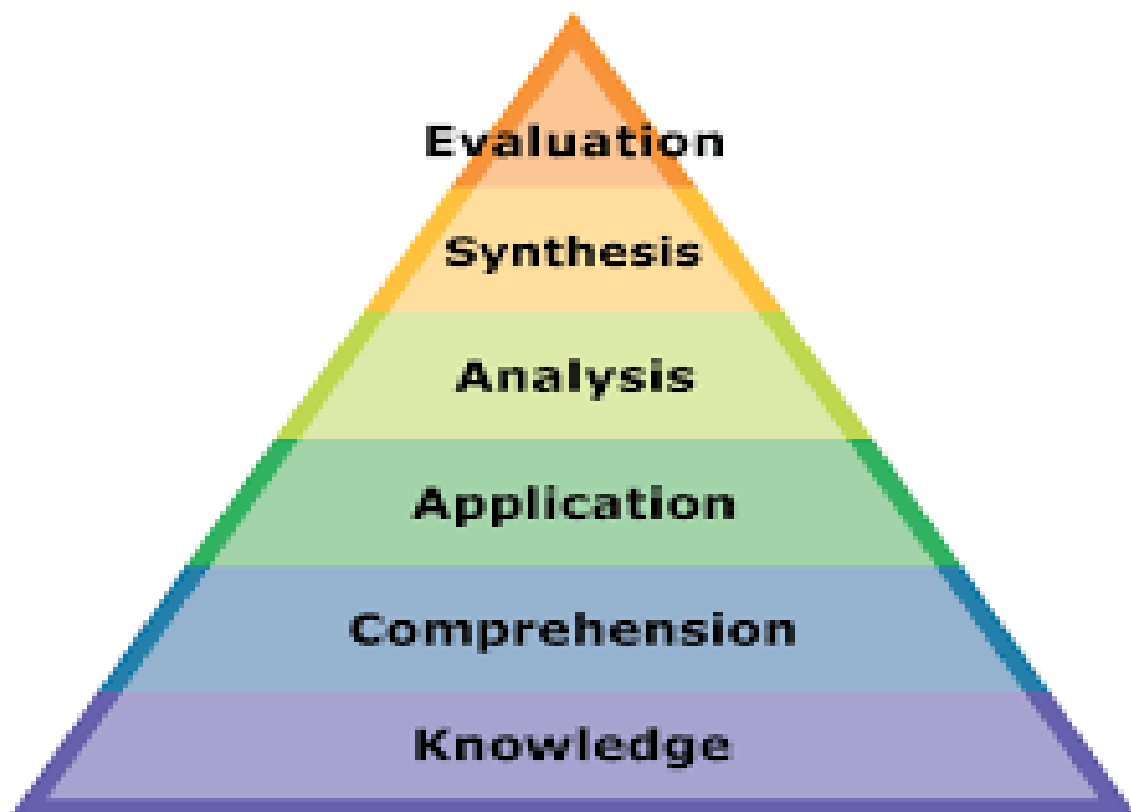
Just like books are organized into fiction/non-fiction, thinking skills can be organized into levels – from simple to complex.

Bloom's Taxonomy is a way to classify different levels of thinking and learning.

2. BLOOM'S TAXONOMY BACKGROUND

Bloom's Taxonomy was created in 1956 in order to promote higher forms of thinking in education. So, it is the classification of thinking.

There are six levels of learning according to Dr. Bloom:



The levels build on one another. All six levels have to do with thinking. Level one is the lowest level of thinking. Level six is the highest level of thinking.

3. ACTIVITY:

Match the term with its definition:

Level 1. Knowledge	A) Grasping (understanding) the meaning of informational materials
Level 2. Comprehension	B) Judging the value of material based on personal values/opinions, resulting in an end product, with a given purpose, without real right or wrong answers.
Level 3. Application	C) remembering of previously learned material; of terminology; specific facts; ways and means of dealing with specifics (conventions, trends and sequences, classifications and categories, criteria, methodology); universals and abstractions in a field (principles and generalizations, theories and structures)
Level 4. Analysis	D) Creatively or divergently applying prior knowledge and skills to produce a new or original whole
Level 5. Synthesis	E) The breaking down of informational materials into their component parts, examining (and trying to understand the organizational structure of) such information to develop divergent conclusions by identifying motives or causes, making inferences, and/or finding evidence to support generalizations
Level 6. Evaluation	F) The use of previously learned information in new and concrete situations to solve problems that have single or best answers

Compare the results and discuss controversial points, if any.

Compare their answers with the key (Appendix).

Inquire of the prompt words that helped to define the notions.

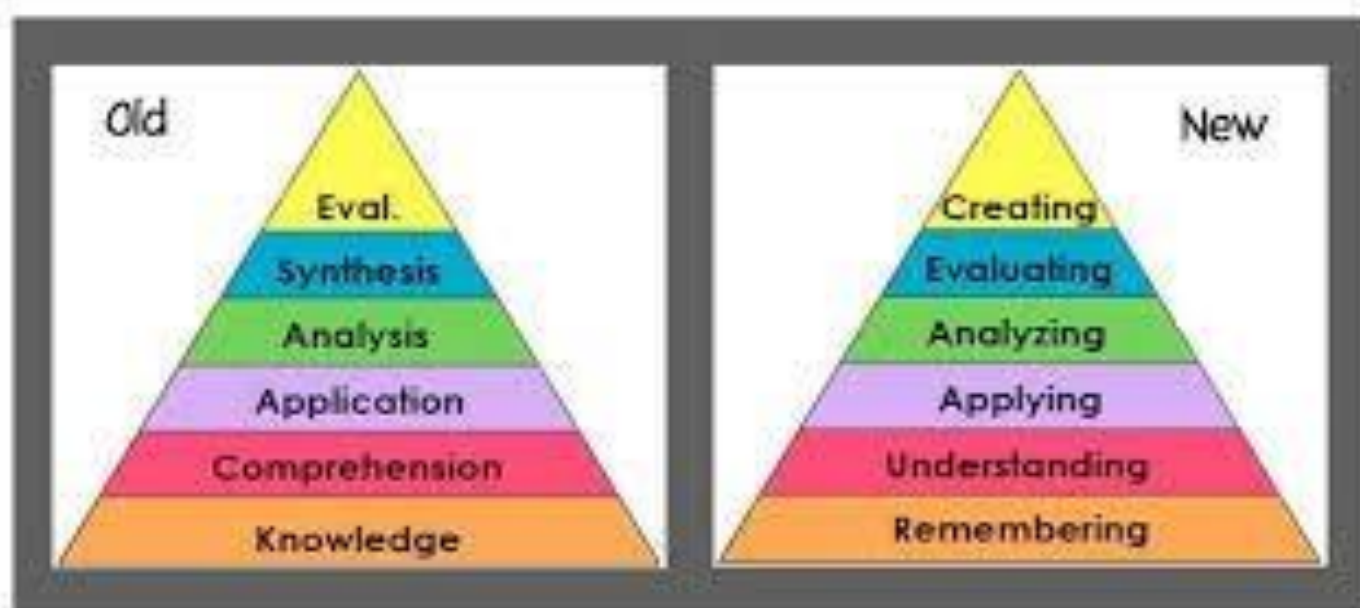
4. DIFFERENCES BETWEEN OLD AND REVISED TAXONOMY

A group of psychologists, curriculum theorists and instructional researchers, and testing and assessment specialists published in 2001 a revision of Bloom's Taxonomy with the title *A Taxonomy for Teaching, Learning, and Assessment*.

(https://haqaa2.obsglob.org/wp-content/uploads/2020/11/2001_Anderson_A-taxonomy-for-learning-teaching-and-assessing.-A-Revision.pdf)

In small groups, compare old and new Taxonomies and make a list of differences which they have noticed.

Present the poster with the findings.



Compare your results with keys in Appendix R

5. ACTIVITY: THE DESCRIPTION OF BEHAVIOUR AND THE RELATED ACTIVITIES

Fill in the table with the description of behaviour and the related questions that can be used in the language class on different thinking levels:

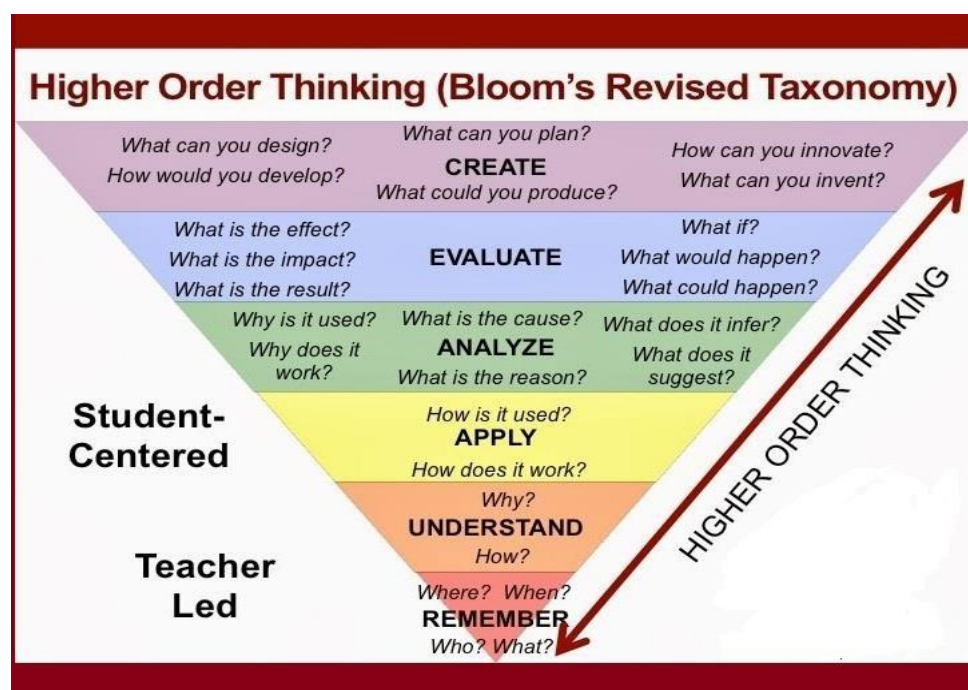
Knowledge/ remembering	Comprehension/ understanding	Application/ applying	Analysis/ analysing	Synthesis/ creating	Evaluation/ evaluating

BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTORS	
<i>1. Present and defend opinions by making judgments about information, validity of ideas or quality of work based on a set of criteria.</i>	<i>2. Compile information together in a different way by combining elements in a new pattern or proposing alternative solutions.</i>
<i>3. Solve problems in new situations by applying acquired knowledge, facts, techniques and rules in a different, or new way</i>	<i>4. Demonstrate understanding of facts and ideas by organizing, comparing, translating, interpreting, giving descriptors and stating main ideas.</i>
<i>5. Examine and break information into parts by identifying motives or causes. Make inferences and find evidence to support generalizations.</i>	<i>6. Exhibit memory of previously learned material by recalling fundamental facts, terms, basic concepts and answers about the selection.</i>

Questions A:	Questions B:	Questions C:
What are the parts or features of X? How is X related to Y ? Why do you think ... ? What is the theme...? What motive is there ? Can you list the parts. ? What inference can you make ... ? What conclusions can you draw ... ? How would you classify ... ? How would you categorize ... ? Can you identify the different parts ... ? What evidence can you find ... ?	What changes would you make to solve...? How would you improve...? What would happen if...? Can you elaborate on the reason...? Can you propose an alternative...? Can you invent...? How would you adapt _____ to create a different...? How could you change (modify) the plot (plan)...? What facts can you compile...? What way would you design...? What could be combined to improve (change)...? Suppose you could ... what would you do...? How would you test...?	Do you agree with the actions ...? What is your opinion of...? How would you prove/disprove...? Can you assess the value or importance of...? Would it be better if...? Why did they (the character) choose...? What would you recommend...? How would you rate the...? How would you evaluate...? How would you compare the ideas...? the people...? What choice would you have made...? What would you select...? How would you justify...? What judgment would you make about...?

Questions D:	Questions E:	Questions F:
What is...? Can you select? Where is...? When did ____ happen? Who were the main...? Which one...? Why did...? How would you describe...? When did...? Can you recall...? Who was...? How would you explain...? How did ____ happen...? Can you list the three..?	How would you classify the type of...? How would you compare...? contrast...? Will you state or interpret in your own words...? How would you rephrase the meaning? What facts or ideas show...? What is the main idea of? Which statements support...? Which is the best answer...? What can you say about ...? How would you summarize... ? Can you explain what is happening...? What is meant by...?	How would you use...? How would you solve ____ using what you've learned...? What examples can you find to...? How would you show your understanding of...? How would you organize ____ to show...? How would you apply what you learned to develop...? What approach would you use to...? What other way would you plan to...?

Check the results with the key in Appendix S and discuss the controversial points if any.



Make a list of prompt verbs using the table with the description of behaviour and the related activities that can be used in the language class on different thinking levels.

Knowledge/ remembering	Comprehension/ understanding	Application/ applying	Analysis/ analysing	Synthesis/ creating	Evaluation/ evaluating

Check the results with the keys in Appendix T.

7. APPLYING BLOOM'S TAXONOMY IN THE CLASSROOM

Tick the level of thinking the activity corresponds to:

ACTIVITY	Knowledge/ remembering	Comprehension/ understanding	Application/ applying	Analysis/ analysing	Synthesis/ creating	Evaluation/ evaluating
☐ Psychology Jeopardy – Create a quiz game with categories like "Famous Psychologists", "Cognitive Theories", "Mental Disorders".						
 Think-Pair-Share – Discuss real-life examples of psychological theories in pairs, then share with the class.						
 Storytelling – Have students retell a famous psychology experiment (like Pavlov's dogs) in their own words.						
 Brain Puzzle – Give students a blank brain diagram and have them label different areas and functions.						

 Psychologist Matching – Students match famous psychologists to their theories (e.g. Freud → Psychoanalysis).						
 Flashcard Relay – Students race to match psychological terms with their definitions.						
 Write a Case Study – Students invent a fictional client with symptoms and propose a treatment plan.						
☐ Memory Experiment – Conduct a class experiment on memory recall (e.g., word list memorization under different conditions).						
 Analyse Media – Watch a movie clip and identify psychological concepts in action (e.g., cognitive biases in decision-making).						
 Therapy Role-Play – Students take turns playing therapist and client, practicing active listening and basic therapy techniques.						
 Concept Charades – Students act out psychological concepts (e.g. classical conditioning, stress response) while others guess.						
 Psychological Timeline – In groups, create a timeline showing major psychology theories and developments.						
 Case Study Workshop – Give students a fictional patient profile and ask them to suggest possible diagnoses and treatments.						
 Psychology in Film – Students create a short video explaining a psychological concept in a fun, engaging way.						
☐ Cognitive Bias Investigation – Students research different biases (confirmation bias, hindsight bias) and find real-life examples.						
 Psychology Ethics Trial – Hold a mock trial on a controversial psychological experiment (e.g., Stanford Prison Experiment).						
 Therapy Effectiveness Review – Compare different therapeutic approaches (CBT, psychoanalysis, humanistic) and debate their effectiveness.						

 Social Media & Mental Health Debate – Divide students into groups to argue for or against the impact of social media on self-esteem.						
 Dream Analysis – In pairs, analyse each other's recent dreams using Freudian or Jungian dream theory.						
☐ Escape Room: The Psychology Edition – Design an escape room with psychology-related clues and puzzles.						
 Great Psychology Debate – Assign students opposing views on topics like «Are humans naturally good or bad?»						
 Myth-Busting Psychology – Students investigate and debunk common psychology myths (e.g. «We only use 10% of our brain»).						
 Mental Health Awareness Campaign – Groups design posters, social media content, or a mini-podcast raising awareness about a mental health issue.						
☐ Personality Test Challenge – Have students take different personality tests (e.g., Big Five, MBTI) and analyse their accuracy.						

Check the results with the keys in Appendix U.

Study the case:

Sarah, a 40-year-old high school English teacher, has always been passionate about education. She enjoys helping students develop their critical thinking and writing skills. However, over the past year, she has started feeling emotionally drained and physically exhausted.

Sarah spends long hours grading assignments, preparing lesson plans, and attending meetings. She also mentors struggling students, often staying late to provide extra help. At home, she finds it hard to disconnect from work, frequently answering emails from students and parents.

Lately, Sarah has been experiencing headaches, difficulty sleeping, and feelings of frustration. She notices that she is becoming more impatient with students and is losing her enthusiasm for teaching. Her colleagues have observed that she is more withdrawn and no longer participates in staff discussions as much as before.

One day, after a difficult conversation with a demanding parent, Sarah feels overwhelmed and breaks down in the teacher's lounge. A supportive colleague encourages her to seek help from the school's counsellor. During her session, Sarah learns about teacher burnout and the importance of self-care, setting

boundaries, and seeking support. The counsellor helps her develop strategies to regain balance in her work and personal life.

Arrange the activities according to level of thinking they relate to from the lowest to the highest:

	The Story of Sarah (Teacher Burnout and Work-Life Balance)
Remember	
Understand	
Apply	
Analyse	
Evaluate	
Create	

- Role-play a conversation between Sarah and the school counsellor discussing burnout.
- List three symptoms of burnout that Sarah is experiencing.
- Describe why setting boundaries between work and personal life is important for educators.
- Debate whether teachers should have stricter limits on after-school work responsibilities.
- Create a weekly self-care plan for Sarah to improve her work-life balance.
- Explain how prolonged stress can affect a teacher's mental and physical health.
- Examine the role of school policies in preventing teacher burnout – what improvements could be made?
- Identify the main causes of Sarah's stress.
- Create a teacher's guide to burnout prevention, including strategies for stress management and self-care.
- Analyse Sarah's situation and identify unhealthy work habits.
- Evaluate the effectiveness of different stress-reduction strategies for educators.
- Design a mental health and well-being workshop for educators.

Check the results with the keys in Appendix V.

Topic 8. KOLB'S LEARNING CYCLE

Learning objectives:

- be able to explain Kolb's Learning Cycle
- be able to identify its four stages, and apply it to real-life learning experiences.

1. INTRODUCTION:

Answer the questions:

Think of a time when you learned something effectively. How did you do it?

Activity: Introduction Kolb's learning cycle

Watch video introducing the Kolb's learning cycle.

<https://youtu.be/rycjUldMl3k>



Read the article:

What is Kolb's Learning Cycle?

How humans learn is a fascinating phenomenon which involves a large spectrum of cognitive processes. Over the last few decades, this somewhat mysterious and hidden activity has been explained through many, sometimes competing theoretical models. One of the most influential models was proposed by David Kolb, the Experiential Learning Theory (ELT) in 1984. It is still seen as one of the most widely used learning styles model. ELT is based on the assumption that people learn by doing or from direct experience.

Pedagogical approaches come and go but in the advent of a new movement of evidence-informed practice, we are now in a stronger position to choose teaching practices that are more likely to have a stronger impact on student learning. Whichever phase of education you are working in, a strong pedagogical model about how we turn experience into knowledge is fundamental to improving pupil progress.

Traditionally, experiential learning has held a place in learning in the form of either job shadowing or internships to accompany a conventional program. But, due

to advances in communication technology and the advent of MOOCs, higher education intends to apply more experiential learning techniques. A good example is the popularity of competency-based degrees in current times, for which students build competence from real-world experiences.

In this article, we will explore the implications of David Kolb's theory and what it might mean in your classroom.

What is the difference between experiential, conventional, didactic learning?

First published in 1984, Kolb's learning styles are widely used as one of the most renowned learning styles theories. Kolb's theory focuses on the learner's personal development and perspective. Unlike the conventional, didactic method, the learner is responsible to guide his learning process in experiential learning.

Experiential learning is a great way to learn because it allows students to apply knowledge in real life situations. Experiential learning encourages active participation, critical thinking, creativity, problem solving, collaboration, and communication skills.

Conventional, didactic methods include lectures, textbooks, and homework assignments. These methods teach facts and concepts, but not necessarily how to apply them in real world situations.

While these two types of teaching styles work well for different purposes, there is no denying that experiential learning is superior when it comes to helping students retain information.

When teaching students, we often use Kolb's Learning Cycle to help them understand the importance of experiential learning. The following model helps illustrate this process:

1. Orientation – Students become familiar with the subject matter through experience (real world) and reflection.

2. Cognitive Processing – Students actively engage in the material through hands-on activities.

3. Retrieval – Students recall the content through memory and repetition.

4. Consolidation – Students integrate the new information into long term memory.

5. Motivation and Evaluation – Students evaluate whether the activity was worthwhile.

6. Integration – Students synthesize the new information into existing knowledge.

7. Application – Students apply the new information to solve problems.

8. Exploration – Students continue to explore the topic further.

What are KOLB's 4 learning dimensions?

Knowing someone's (or one's own) learning preferences enable the learning experience to be focused on the preferred method. That said, everyone responds to and needs the stimulus of all types of learning styles to one extent or another – it's a matter of using emphasis that fits best with the given situation and a person's learning preferences.

KOLB's 4 learning dimensions help to create a learning experience that improves people's capabilities and whole skill sets. **Kolb** uses these 4 components and adds to them to build 4 comprehensive learning dimensions, as given below:

1. **Diverging** – These individuals see things from different perspectives and can use their imagination to show creativity in their learning styles. People with a diverging style, prefer to watch rather than do and their learning characteristic is reflective observation and concrete experience.

2. **Assimilating** – They can analyse and explore learning styles model well. More than the people, they show interest in technical tasks with a logical format and conceptual framework. Their main characteristics mostly include reflective observation and abstract conceptualization.

3. **Converging** – They are efficient problem-solvers and are considered as being practical in their analytic approach to tasks and ideas. They are likely to converge on their desired answers and are characterized by active experimentation and abstract conceptualization.

4. **Accommodating** – They are more likely to be more practical in their learning experience and they mostly view problems from an intuitive perspective. These people may depend a lot on their gut feeling. They are fond of new-found challenges and are mostly characterized by active experimentation and concrete learning.

What are the educational Implications of Kolb's learning cycle?

David Kolb's 4 learning cycles and learning dimensions can be used to apply new ideas to instructional techniques according to students' choice of style.

1) It allows educators to target more specific learning outcomes for learners.

2) It enables to design coaching exercises, instructional techniques and training sessions that allow a lifelong learner to effectively understand the information in formal learning situations.

3) It helps teachers to personalize any instructional techniques intervention for learners in line with Kolb's 4 stages of the experiential learning cycle.

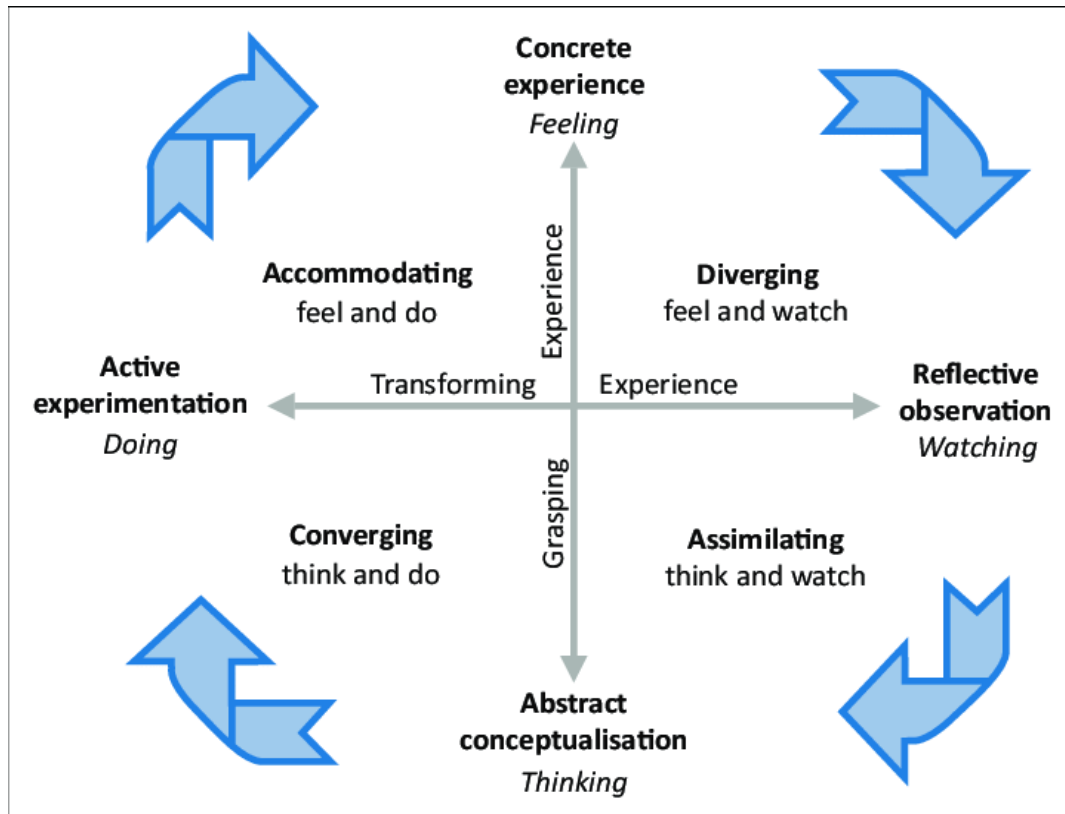
By offering some distinct learning styles initiatives and approaches to education, teachers can improve the chances of the school and adult college students assimilating the learning effectively and allowing them to create ideas that they might have ignored if the learning was carried out differently.

Teachers can assess students' preferred learning styles in a traditional classroom setting by using a distinct source of learning, observing learners during different activities or class discussions, or engaging with school and adult college students during class discussions. In the case of virtual world teaching, it is essential to keep students engaged all through the learning cycle and to add activities to a computer-based task to reveal each student's preferred style. Therefore, it is suggested to provide students with a wide range of learning experiences. By doing so, teachers can help students become more versatile, and adaptable

Kolb argues that each learning stage is a fragment of the experiential learning process. For example, classroom learning can be learners' abstract experience, but it may also become a concrete experience, if, for instance, a student imitates and

admires the teacher. Similarly, a student may work hard to develop an abstract model for making sense of an experiential exercise or internship experience. From the students' viewpoint, the act of computer programming can be a greatly abstract experience and solitary reflection can be a highly sentimental concrete experience.

<https://www.structural-learning.com/post/kolbs-learning-cycle>



2. ACTIVITY: THEORY AND CONCEPTS

Divide students into small groups (3–5 students per group).

Each group will choose a common learning experience.

The task is to analyse it using Kolb's four-stage cycle.

Topics:

- Learning to play an instrument
- Preparing for an important exam
- Learning a new software or tool
- Overcoming stage fright in public speaking

Each group follows these steps:

Concrete Experience (*What happened?*)

Describe a real or hypothetical experience related to learning.

Example: *A student struggled with public speaking and had to give a presentation in class.*

Reflective Observation (*What did they notice?*)

Discuss reactions, emotions, and observations.

Example: *They realized they felt nervous, avoided eye contact, and spoke too fast.*

Abstract Conceptualization (*What did they learn?*)

Connect the experience to theories or strategies.

Example: *They researched public speaking techniques and learned about breathing exercises and voice control.*

Active Experimentation (*How can they apply it?*)

Plan how to use the new knowledge in future situations.

Example: *They practiced in front of a mirror and rehearsed in small groups before their next presentation.*

Group Presentations (6–8 min, 3–4 min per group)

Each group presents their learning cycle in 4 clear steps.

Answer the question:

What did you notice about how learning happens?

Note! Different people might focus more on one stage, but the full cycle is necessary for deep learning.

3. ACTIVITY: CASE STUDY ANALYSIS

Read case study:

Emma is a psychology student who struggles with time management. She often procrastinates on assignments, finds herself cramming the night before exams, and feels overwhelmed with deadlines. Despite making to-do lists, she rarely follows them. She wants to improve her study habits but doesn't know where to start.

Instructions:

Students analyse Emma's situation using Kolb's Learning Cycle in pairs.

They will map out how Emma can move through the four stages to improve her time management.

1. Concrete Experience (What happened?)
2. Reflective Observation (What does she notice?)
3. Abstract Conceptualization (What can she learn from this?)
4. Active Experimentation (How can she apply it?)

Each pair shares their analysis and compare them with keys in Appendix W.

Discuss:

How might different learners approach this problem based on their learning preferences?

Summarize on how self-awareness and active experimentation drive learning.

Reflection

Think of a personal learning experience – academic, professional, or everyday life (e.g., learning a skill, overcoming a challenge).

Have them write a short reflection (5–6 sentences), structuring it around Kolb's

Learning Cycle:

Concrete Experience: What did you try to learn?

Reflective Observation: What did you notice about your approach?

Abstract Conceptualization: What did you learn from it?

Active Experimentation: How have you applied (or will you apply) this lesson?

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Appendices

Appendix A

10 Memorization Techniques

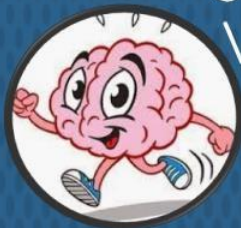
Gay Miller @
Book Units
Teacher



Association,
Chunking, and
Visualization



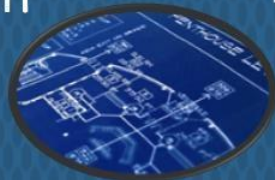
Name
Mnemonics



Physical
Movement



Acrostics



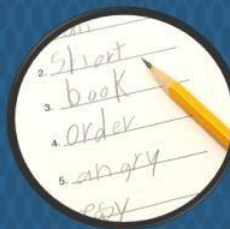
Method of
Loci



Acronyms



Rhymes



Spelling
Rules



Alliteration



Chaining

Appendix B

Concept Exploration Activity: Memory Types and Processes

Correct answers:

1. Memory systems differ in their memory span and memory duration.
2. Sensory memory is a brief form of memory focused on perceptual information before being passed on to short-term memory.
3. Information in short-term memory can either be lost or transferred to long-term memory through rehearsal and practice.
4. Memories from long-term memory can be accessed and brought back into short-term memory for use by rehearsing and recalling them.
5. Iconic memory is part of sensory memory and typically lasts about one second.
6. Iconic memory is compared to taking a mental screenshot because it allows you to briefly hold an image in your mind.
7. The colour-coding system uses green for sensory memory, yellow for short-term memory, and red for long-term memory.

Appendix C

Correct answers:

1. The three stages of memory storage are Sensory Memory, Short-Term Memory, and Long-Term Memory.
2. Sensory memory processes stimuli from the environment first by storing brief sensory events like sights, sounds, and tastes for a couple of seconds.
3. Short-term memory is a temporary storage system that processes incoming sensory memory, while working memory is more accurately described as a component of working memory.
4. Information typically lasts 15 to 30 seconds in short-term memory.
5. Active rehearsal involves repeating or practicing information to be remembered, helping move it from short-term to long-term memory.
6. Elaborative rehearsal links new information with existing knowledge to aid in remembering, such as associating a phone number with a familiar area code.
7. Factors affecting short-term memory retention include memory trace decay and interference, as shown in Peterson and Peterson's study on trigrams recall after various time intervals.

Appendix D

Statements:

1. Sensory memory can store information for several minutes.
2. Atkinson and Shiffrin's model suggests that memory processing is similar to how a computer processes information.
3. Baddeley and Hitch proposed that short-term memory has only one form.
4. Rehearsal is a method to transfer information from short-term memory to long-term memory.
5. The capacity of short-term memory is exactly 7 items.
6. Visual encoding is generally better for recall than acoustic encoding.
7. Peterson and Peterson found that participants remembered most trigrams after an 18-second delay.

Correct answers:

1. False - Sensory memory is very brief storage, up to a couple of seconds.
2. True - Atkinson and Shiffrin's model is based on the belief that we process memories in the same way that a computer processes information.
3. False - Baddeley and Hitch proposed that short-term memory has different forms.
4. True - Rehearsal moves information from short-term memory to long-term memory.
5. False - The capacity of short-term memory is 7 plus or minus 2 items.
6. False - Recall is often slightly better for information we hear (acoustic encoding) rather than information we see (visual encoding).
7. False - Peterson and Peterson found that participants remembered about 80% of the trigrams after a 3-second delay, but only 10% after an 18-second delay.

Appendix E

6. Acoustic Code	refers to the encoding of information into memory based on the sound of the information, such as remembering a phone number by repeating it out loud. This type of coding is especially prominent in short-term memory, where auditory information is often retained through repetition.
7. Rote Rehearsal	is a memory technique involving the continuous repetition of information, such as a word list or a set of numbers, to keep it in short-term memory or transfer it into long-term memory. It's a basic form of memorization, but often not the most effective for long-term retention without deeper processing.
8. Phonetic Loop	is a component of working memory, which deals with spoken and written material. It consists of two parts: the phonological store, which holds verbal information in speech-based form for a short duration, and the articulatory rehearsal process, which allows for the maintenance and repetition of this information to prevent decay.
9. Visuo-Spatial Sketchpad	is a component of working memory, responsible for holding and manipulating visual and spatial information. This system allows individuals to visualize objects and navigate their environment, such as mentally rotating an object or remembering the layout of a room.
10. Chunking	is a memory strategy that involves grouping individual pieces of information together into larger, more manageable units or "chunks." This technique helps to increase the amount of information that can be held in short-term memory by reducing the cognitive load. For example, remembering a phone number as "123-456-7890" instead of "1-2-3-4-5-6-7-8-9-0" is an example.

Appendix F

Self-motivation quiz

For each statement, circle the score in the column that best describes you (based on the above scale). Please answer statements as you actually are (rather than how you think you should be), and don't worry if some statements seem to score in the 'wrong direction'.

STATEMENT	Not at all	Rarely	Sometimes	Often	Very often
I am confident in my ability to achieve the goals I set for myself.	1	2	3	4	5
I set daily, weekly and semester goals that pertain to my academic success.	1	2	3	4	5
I put in maximum effort on coursework related to my educational goals.	1	2	3	4	5
I think positively about goal setting exercises.	1	2	3	4	5
I believe that success is earned and not the result of luck.	1	2	3	4	5
I am not worried about deadlines.	1	2	3	4	5
I am not deterred by setbacks	1	2	3	4	5
I view myself as a creative person.	1	2	3	4	5
I set goals that are moderately difficult, and increase their difficulty as I reach them.	1	2	3	4	5
I regularly review my long-range career success goals and plans.	1	2	3	4	5
I know the exact reasons why I am attending college.	1	2	3	4	5
I am acquainted with most campus resources and regularly use them.	1	2	3	4	5
I am confident in my problem-solving skills.	1	2	3	4	5
I place myself in motivational and supportive environments.	1	2	3	4	5
TOTAL:					

SCORING:

67-75 High - You make a conscious effort to stay self-motivated, and you spend significant time and effort on setting goals and acting to achieve those goals. Treasure this – and be aware that not everyone is as self-motivated as you are!

39- 66 Moderate- You're doing OK on self-motivation. To achieve what you want, try to increase the motivation factors in a few areas of your life. Pick one of two statements that you scored a 1 or 2 on and make a plan to improve in these areas.

0-38 Low – You may be allowing your personal doubts and fears to keep you from succeeding. Break this harmful pattern now, and start believing in yourself again. Motivation can be learned and modeled. Make an appointment with the Success Center and develop a plan with a staff member to increase your self-motivation.

*Adapted from the following sources: Student Development, Louisiana State University-Shreveport. Self-Motivation Quiz University Counseling and Consulting Services, University of Minnesota, Quick-Scoring Achievement Motivation Quiz

Appendix G

Correct answers: Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation:

1. Intrinsic motivation is driven by internal rewards, while extrinsic motivation is driven by external rewards.
2. Examples of internal rewards that drive intrinsic motivation include self-improvement and helping others in need.
3. Negative intrinsic motivation focuses on avoiding negative outcomes, while positive intrinsic motivation focuses on creating positive outcomes.
4. Intrinsic motivation is considered more sustainable because it usually focuses on things that individuals can control.
5. External rewards that drive extrinsic motivation include money, praise, and tangible incentives.
6. Extrinsic motivation can be negative when individuals are motivated by fear or expectations imposed by external factors.
7. It is important to understand the specific types of motivation within intrinsic and extrinsic categories to better identify and leverage different motivational drivers for success.

Appendix H

Definitions:

- a. to produce a beneficial result or effect from an action or decision.
- b. as a result of being afraid or anticipating something that may happen in the future.
- c. to show or symbolise every reason that encourages someone to act in a certain way.
- d. to sort or classify a motivation based on whether it comes from within oneself or from outside sources.
- e. because of a clear and measurable benefit that can be seen or touched.
- f. motivated by personal satisfaction or feelings of achievement rather than outside influences.
- g. to improve the understanding of particular benefits and motivations that encourage people.
- h. encouraged by benefits or prizes that come from outside oneself, such as money or praise.
- i. to draw attention to particular reasons that inspire action or behaviour.

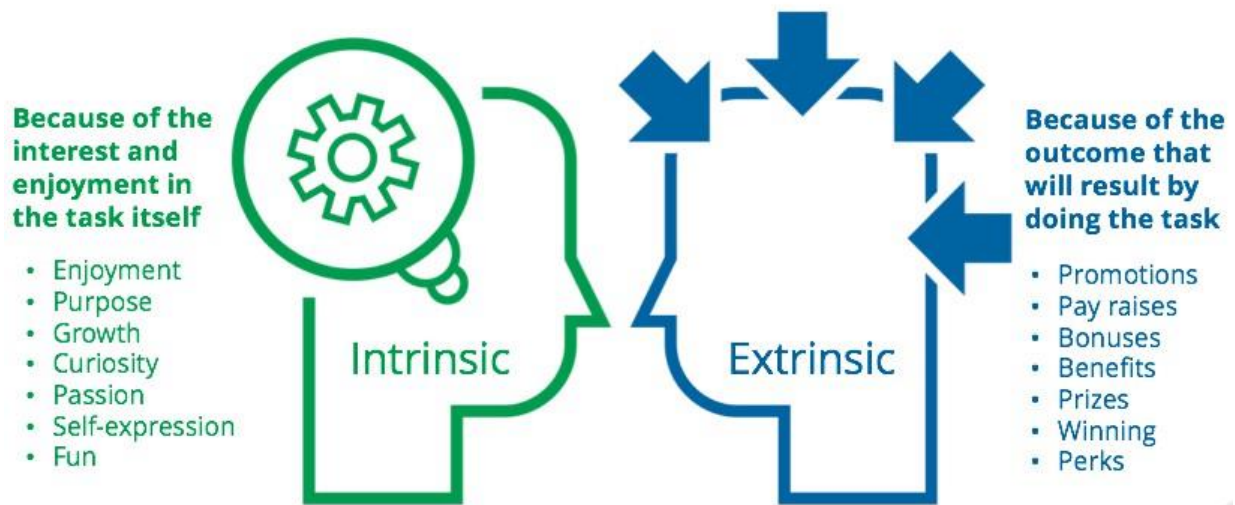
Words:

- 1. to create a positive outcome
- 2. driven by internal rewards
- 3. due to fear, or expectation
- 4. to represent all motivational drivers
- 5. to highlight specific motivating factors
- 6. driven by external rewards
- 7. to better identify specific rewards and incentives
- 8. due to a tangible incentive
- 9. to categorize it as either an internal or external incentive

Correct matches: 1. a 2. f 3. b 4. c 5. i 6. h 7. g 8. e 9. D

Appendix I

INTRINSIC VS. EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION: WHY WE DO WHAT WE DO



Appendix J

Questions:

1. *What does the acronym VARC stand for in relation to learning styles?*
2. *How do visual learners best absorb information?*
3. *What are some characteristics of auditory learners?*
4. *How do reading-writing learners engage most effectively with information?*
5. *What type of activities do kinesthetic learners prefer when learning?*
6. *What is a strength of the VARC model according to the video transcript?*
7. *What criticism has the VARC model faced from educational researchers?*

Correct answers:

1. The acronym VARC stands for Visual, Auditory, Reading-Writing, and Kinesthetic.
2. Visual learners absorb information best when it is presented visually, such as through diagrams, graphs, and maps.
3. Auditory learners thrive on listening to information, benefit from repeating information verbally, and remember details from conversations well.
4. Reading-writing learners engage most effectively with written words, excel at reading material and taking detailed notes, and are skillful writers.
5. Kinesthetic learners prefer to learn through movement and experience, engaging with material through hands-on activities or simulations.
6. A strength of the VARC model is its simplicity and practicality, making it easy to understand and apply in educational settings.
7. The VARC model has faced criticism from educational researchers who caution against rigidly categorizing students into specific learning styles and argue that focusing too much on learning styles may overlook other important factors affecting learning outcomes.

Appendix K

H. Gardner's Theory of Multiple Intelligence

Questions:

1. What populations did the speaker work with in their research?
2. How did the speaker observe differences in abilities among children and brain damage patients?
3. Why did the speaker feel that there was something fundamentally wrong with the concept of intelligence?
4. What was the main insight that led the speaker to pluralize the word "intelligence"?
5. How did the book "Frames of Mind" impact the field of education?
6. How did the speaker test for different intelligences in individuals?
7. How have schools and educators around the world found the concept of multiple intelligences useful in practice?

Correct answers:

1. The speaker worked with children from different backgrounds and talents, as well as brain damage patients.
2. The speaker noticed that different individuals excelled in various areas such as music, art, athletics, language learning, math, science, etc.
3. The speaker believed that the traditional notion of intelligence being measured by a single IQ test was limited.
4. The speaker's insight was to pluralize the word "intelligence" into "intelligences" to describe the various human capacities individuals possess.
5. The book "Frames of Mind" influenced educators more than psychologists, leading to a shift towards focusing on different intelligences in education.
6. The speaker tested for different intelligences by observing if skills in one area correlated with skills in another; separate skills indicated separate intelligences.
7. Schools and educators worldwide have found the concept of multiple intelligences useful in developing curricula, pedagogy, and assessments tailored to individual strengths.

Appendix L



VISUAL/SPATIAL
navigator
sculptor
architect



INTRAPERSONAL
researcher
novelist
entrepreneur



EXISTENTIALIST
philosopher
theorist



**MUSICAL/
RHYTHMIC**
musician
composer
disk jockey



INTERPERSONAL
counselor
politician
salesperson



**BODILY/
KINESTHETIC**
athlete
firefighter



**LOGICAL/
MATHEMATICAL**
engineer
programmer
accountants



**VERBAL/
LINGUISTIC**
journalist
teacher
lawyer



NATURALIST
environmentalist
farmer
botanist

Appendix M

Cognitive Style Self-Assessment

Instructions: For each pair of statements, choose the one that best describes how you typically approach tasks, problems, or decision-making. If both apply to some extent, choose the one that feels most true.

9. When working on a new project or task:

- A) I start by gathering as much information as possible from others.
- B) I prefer to rely on my own understanding and start independently.

10. When faced with a decision:

- A) I like to take my time, carefully weighing all options before deciding.
- B) I tend to decide quickly, trusting my instincts.

11. When solving a problem:

- A) I break the problem into smaller, manageable parts.
- B) I look at the problem as a whole to find a solution.

12. In group settings:

- A) I rely on feedback and opinions from others to make sense of the situation.
- B) I prefer to form my own understanding first and then discuss it with the group.

13. When completing a task:

- A) I like to follow a structured, step-by-step plan.
- B) I prefer to keep things flexible and adjust as I go.

14. When interpreting information:

- A) I focus on details and specifics to understand a situation.
- B) I look for overarching patterns and connections.

15. When reflecting on my actions:

- A) I often reconsider my decisions after reflecting on the outcome.
- B) Once a decision is made, I rarely second-guess it.

16. When solving puzzles or problems:

- A) I focus on the logical sequence of steps needed to solve the problem.
- B) I rely on intuition or a “gut feeling” to guide me to a solution.

Scoring:

Count how many times you selected A and B for each of the following dimensions:

1. Field Dependence/Independence:

A responses for questions 1 and 4 = Field-dependent

B responses for questions 1 and 4 = Field-independent

2. Reflective/Impulsive Decision-Making:

A responses for questions 2 and 7 = Reflective

B responses for questions 2 and 7 = Impulsive

3. Analytical/Holistic Thinking:

A responses for questions 3, 6, and 8 = Analytical

B responses for questions 3, 6, and 8 = Holistic

4. Structured/Flexible Planning:

A responses for questions 5 and 3 = Structured

B responses for questions 5 and 3 = Flexible

Appendix N

Questions

2. **What is the main difference between field dependency and field independence?**

- a) Field-dependent individuals prefer abstract thinking, while field-independent individuals rely on external cues.
- b) Field-dependent individuals rely on external cues for decision-making, while field-independent individuals are more self-reliant.
- c) Field-independent individuals prefer working in groups, while field-dependent individuals prefer working alone.
- d) There is no significant difference between the two.

Answer: b

3. **Which of the following is a characteristic of field-independent individuals?**

- a) They have difficulty focusing in highly structured environments.
- b) They rely on external feedback to guide their decisions.
- c) They prefer to work independently and solve problems analytically.
- d) They are more influenced by social situations when making decisions.

Answer: c

4. **In what type of environment are field-dependent individuals likely to thrive?**

- a) In unstructured settings with minimal external input.
- b) In highly structured, collaborative environments
- c) In environments where abstract reasoning is required
- d) In situations that require analytical problem-solving

Answer: b

Appendix O

True or False Questions

Field-independent individuals are more likely to focus on details rather than the overall context.

True or False

Answer: True

Field-dependent people rely heavily on external cues for decision-making.

True or False

Answer: True

Field-independent individuals are more easily influenced by the opinions of others when solving problems.

True or False

Answer: False

Appendix P

Questions:

1. What is the difference between being reflective and impulsive in decision-making?
2. How can being too impulsive affect problem-solving accuracy?
3. What is analysis paralysis, and how does it relate to being overly reflective?
4. Why is finding a balance between being reflective and impulsive important in decision-making?
5. How can understanding your cognitive profile help you improve your decision-making style?
6. What mantra can impulsive individuals use to avoid jumping to conclusions too quickly?
7. In what areas of life can being either too reflective or too impulsive be detrimental?

Correct answers:

1. Reflective individuals take their time to find the right answer, while impulsive individuals jump straight into decisions.
2. Being too impulsive can lead to drawing inaccurate conclusions without considering all aspects of a complex problem.
3. Analysis paralysis refers to being stuck in over-analysis and never reaching a conclusion, which can happen when someone is overly reflective.
4. Finding a balance between being reflective and impulsive is important because certain problems require deep analysis, while others need quick decisions.
5. Understanding your cognitive profile can help you see how different thinking styles impact your decision-making process.
6. Impulsive individuals can use the mantra "Have I considered all the options? Have I taken everything into account?" to avoid rushing to conclusions.
7. Being too reflective or too impulsive can be detrimental in studying, working, and relationships, as it may lead to inaccuracies or missed opportunities.

Appendix Q

Deep Approach

- Actively seek to understand the material /the subject
- Interact vigorously with the content
- Use various strategies to memorise new words and practise grammar patterns
- Make active use of context, reference materials, dictionaries while reading authentic texts
- Take a broad view and relate ideas to one another;
- Can identify key ideas and find details/facts to illustrate them in the texts for reading /listening
- Are motivated by interest
- Relate new ideas to previous knowledge
- Relate concepts to everyday experience
- Tend to read and study beyond course requirements

Surface Approach

- Learn in order to repeat what they have learnt
- Memorise information needed for assessment
- Make use of rote learning
- Take a narrow view and concentrate on detail
- Fail to distinguish main ideas from details
- Tend to stick closely to the course requirements
- Are motivated by fear of failure

Strategic Approach

- Intend to obtain high grades
- Organize their time and distribute effort to greatest effect
- Ensure that the conditions and materials for studying are appropriate
- Use previous exam papers to predict questions
- Interview students from other groups to find out the questions of the test

Appendix Q

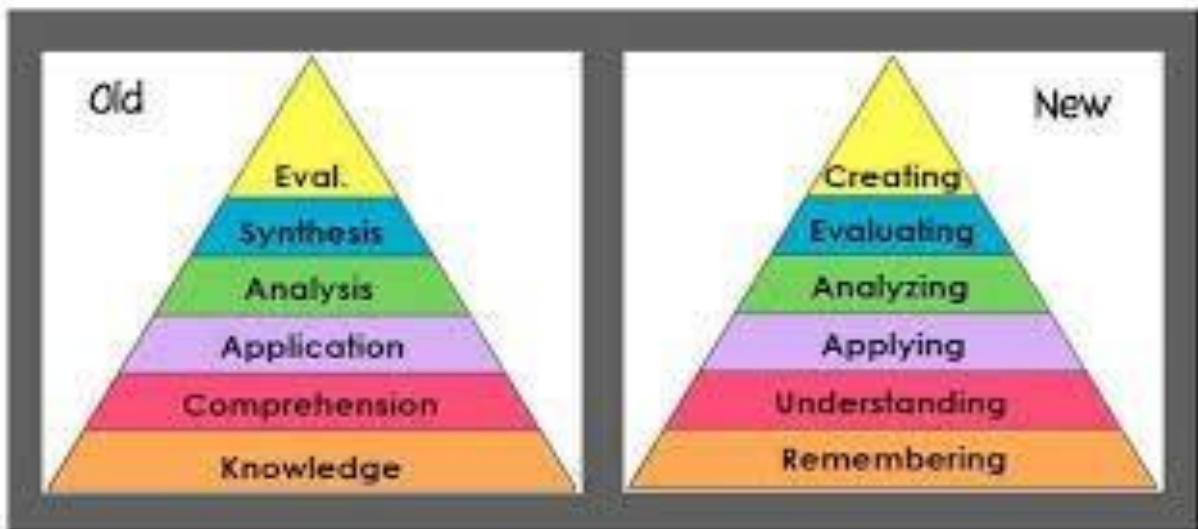
BLOOM'S TAXONOMY BACKGROUND

MATCH THE TERM WITH ITS DEFINITION

Level 1. Knowledge	A) Grasping (understanding) the meaning of informational materials
Level 2. Comprehension	B) Judging the value of material based on personal values/opinions, resulting in an end product, with a given purpose, without real right or wrong answers.
Level 3. Application	C) remembering of previously learned material; of terminology; specific facts; ways and means of dealing with specifics (conventions, trends and sequences, classifications and categories, criteria, methodology); universals and abstractions in a field (principles and generalizations, theories and structures)
Level 4. Analysis	D) Creatively or divergently applying prior knowledge and skills to produce a new or original whole
Level 5. Synthesis	E) The breaking down of informational materials into their component parts, examining (and trying to understand the organizational structure of) such information to develop divergent conclusions by identifying motives or causes, making inferences, and/or finding evidence to support generalizations
Level 6. Evaluation	F) The use of previously learned information in new and concrete situations to solve problems that have single or best answers

KEY: knowledge – C, comprehension – A, application – F, analysis – E, synthesis – D, evaluation – B.

Appendix R



Differences (key):

1. The names of six major categories were changed from *noun* to *verb* forms.
2. As the taxonomy reflects different forms of thinking and thinking is an *active* process verbs were more accurate.
3. The subcategories of the six major categories were also replaced by verbs
4. Some subcategories were reorganised.
5. The knowledge category was renamed. Knowledge is *a product of thinking* and was inappropriate to describe a category of thinking and was replaced with the word *remembering* instead.
6. Comprehension became *understanding* and synthesis was renamed *creating* in order to better reflect the nature of the thinking described by each category.
7. Former levels 5 (synthesis/creating) and 6 exchange places.

Appendix S

	Knowledge/ remembering	Comprehension/ understanding	Application/ applying	Analysis/ analysing	Synthesis/ creating	Evaluation/ evaluating
Behavior Descriptors	Exhibit memory of previously learned material by recalling fundamental facts, terms, basic concepts and answers about the selection.	Demonstrate understanding of facts and ideas by organizing, comparing, translating, interpreting, giving descriptors and stating main ideas.	Solve problems in new situations by applying acquired knowledge, facts, techniques and rules in a different, or new way	Examine and break information into parts by identifying motives or causes. Make inferences and find evidence to support generalizations.	Compile information together in a different way by combining elements in a new pattern or proposing alternative solutions.	Present and defend opinions by making judgments about information, validity of ideas or quality of work based on a set of criteria.
Questions	• What is...? • Can you select? • Where is...? • When did _____ happen? • Who were the main...? • Which one...? • Why did...? • How would you describe...? • When did...? • Can you recall...? • Who was...? • How would you explain...? • How did _____ happen...? • Can you list the three...? • How is...? • How would you show...?	• How would you classify the type of...? • How would you compare...? • Will you contrast...? • Will you state or interpret in your own words...? • How would you rephrase the meaning? • What facts or ideas show...? • What is the main idea of? • Which statements support...? • Which is the best answer...? • What can you say about ...? • How would you summarize...? • Can you explain what is happening...? • What is meant by...?	• How would you use...? • How would you solve _____ using what you've learned...? • What examples can you find to...? • How would you show your understanding of...? • How would you organize _____ to show...? • How would you apply what you learned to develop...? • What approach would you use to...? • What other way would you plan to...?	• What are the parts or features of . . . ? • How is _____ related to . . . ? • Why do you think . . . ? • What is the theme . . . ? • What motive is there . . . ? • Can you list the parts . . . ? • What inference can you make . . . ? • What conclusions can you draw . . . ? • How would you classify . . . ? • How would you categorize . . . ? • Can you identify the	• What changes would you make to solve...? • How would you improve...? • What would happen if...? • Can you elaborate on the reason...? • Can you propose an alternative...? • Can you invent...? • How would you adapt _____ to create a different...? • How could you change (modify) the plot (plan)...? • What facts can you compile...?	• Do you agree with the actions ...? • What is your opinion of...? • How would you prove/disprove...? • Can you assess the value or importance of...? • Would it be better if...? • Why did they (the character) choose...? • What would you recommend ...? • How would you rate the...? • How would you evaluate...? • How would you compare the ideas...? the people...?

			• What would result if...? • Can you make use of the facts to...? • What elements would you use to change...? • What facts would you select to show...? • What questions would you ask during an interview?	different parts . . . ? • What evidence can you find . . . ? • What is the relationship between . . . ? • Can you make a distinction between . . . ? • What is the function of . . . ?	• What way would you design...? • What could be combined to improve (change)...? • Suppose you could _what would you do...? • How would you test...?	• What choice would you have made...? • What would you select...? • How would you justify...? • What judgment would you make about...?
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Appendix T

Knowledge/ remembering	Comprehension/ understanding	Application/ applying	Analysis/ analysing	Synthesis/ creating	Evaluation/ evaluating
Match List Arrange Recall Count Define Describe Draw Identify Label Name Outline Point Quote Read Recall Recite Recognize Record Repeat Reproduce Select State Write	• Interpret • Explain. • Draw • Predict • Construct • Explain Ask Calculate Convert Describe Discuss Give examples Identify Locate Observe Recognize Report Research Retell Review Summarize Tell	• Classify • Transfer • act out • Select • apply • Give examples Adapt Calculate Change Compute Demonstrate Dramatize Draw Experiment Illustrate Make Manipulate Practice Produce Sequence Show Solve Teach Use	• Identify • Distinguish • Select • Differentiate • Compare Calculate Categorize Classify Compare Contrast Diagram Differentiate Discover Distinguish Examine Experiment Group Interpret Investigate Order Organize Question Relate Research Sequence Solve	• Create • imagine • Restructure • Compose • Write Act Combine Construct Design Develop Formulate Generate Improve Infer Invent Imagine Plan Predict Prepare Revise Show Write	• Decide • Judge • Justify • Persuade Argue Assess Choose Compare Conclude Criticize Debate Defend Determine Evaluate Prioritize Rate Recommend Support Tell why Value

Appendix U

1. Remember (Recall facts, basic concepts) – Interactive Activities

☐ **Psychology Jeopardy** – Create a quiz game with categories like «Famous Psychologists», «Cognitive Theories», «Mental Disorders.»

 **Flashcard Relay** – Students race to match psychological terms with their definitions.

 **Brain Puzzle** – Give students a blank brain diagram and have them label different areas and functions.

 **Psychologist Matching** – Students match famous psychologists to their theories (e.g., Freud → Psychoanalysis).

2. Understand (Explain ideas, summarize, describe in own words) – Interactive Activities

 **Concept Charades** – Students act out psychological concepts (e.g., classical conditioning, stress response) while others guess.

 **Think-Pair-Share** – Discuss real-life examples of psychological theories in pairs, then share with the class.

 **Storytelling** – Have students retell a famous psychology experiment (like Pavlov's dogs) in their own words.

 **Psychological Timeline** – In groups, create a timeline showing major psychology theories and developments.

3. Apply (Use knowledge in a new situation, demonstrate, model) – Hands-on Activities

 **Therapy Role-Play** – Students take turns playing therapist and client, practicing active listening and basic therapy techniques.

☐ **Memory Experiment** – Conduct a class experiment on memory recall (e.g., word list memorization under different conditions).

 **Analyse Media** – Watch a movie clip and identify psychological concepts in action (e.g., cognitive biases in decision-making).

 **Case Study Workshop** – Give students a fictional patient profile and ask them to suggest possible diagnoses and treatments.

4. analyse (Break information into parts, compare, categorize) – Group Work & Investigations

☐ **Personality Test Challenge** – Have students take different personality tests (e.g. Big Five, MBTI) and analyse their accuracy.

 **Social Media & Mental Health Debate** – Divide students into groups to argue for or against the impact of social media on self-esteem.

 **Dream Analysis** – In pairs, analyse each other's recent dreams using Freudian or Jungian dream theory.

☐ **Cognitive Bias Investigation** – Students research different biases (confirmation bias, hindsight bias) and find real-life examples.

5. Evaluate (Judge, justify, argue a viewpoint) – Debates & Critical Thinking

 **Psychology Ethics Trial** – Hold a mock trial on a controversial psychological experiment (e.g., Stanford Prison Experiment).

 **Great Psychology Debate** – Assign students opposing views on topics like «Are humans naturally good or bad?»

 **Myth-Busting Psychology** – Students investigate and debunk common psychology myths (e.g., «We only use 10% of our brain»).

 **Therapy Effectiveness Review** – Compare different therapeutic approaches (CBT, psychoanalysis, humanistic) and debate their effectiveness.

6. Create (Design, invent, produce something new) – Creative & Project-Based Activities

 **Psychology in Film** – Students create a short video explaining a psychological concept in a fun, engaging way.

 **Mental Health Awareness Campaign** – Groups design posters, social media content, or a mini-podcast raising awareness about a mental health issue.

 **Write a Case Study** – Students invent a fictional client with symptoms and propose a treatment plan.

 **Escape Room: The Psychology Edition** – Design an escape room with psychology-related clues and puzzles.

Appendix V

1. Remember (Recall facts, basic concepts)

- List three symptoms of burnout that Sarah is experiencing.
- Define key psychological terms (e.g., burnout, emotional exhaustion, work-life balance).
- Identify the main causes of Sarah's stress.

2. Understand (Explain ideas, summarize, describe in own words)

- Summarize Sarah's situation in your own words.
- Explain how prolonged stress can affect a teacher's mental and physical health.
- Describe why setting boundaries between work and personal life is important for educators.

3. Apply (Use knowledge in a new situation, demonstrate, model)

- Role-play a conversation between Sarah and the school counsellor discussing burnout.
- Create a weekly self-care plan for Sarah to improve her work-life balance.
- Write a response Sarah could send to a demanding parent while maintaining professionalism and boundaries.

4. Analyse (Break information into parts, compare, categorize)

- Compare teacher burnout with burnout in other professions (e.g., healthcare, corporate jobs).
- Analyse Sarah's situation and identify unhealthy work habits.
- Examine the role of school policies in preventing teacher burnout—what improvements could be made?

5. Evaluate (Judge, justify, argue a viewpoint)

- Assess whether Sarah's school is providing enough support for teachers.
- Debate whether teachers should have stricter limits on after-school work responsibilities.
- Evaluate the effectiveness of different stress-reduction strategies for educators.

6. Create (Design, invent, produce something new)

- Write a letter from Sarah to the school administration suggesting wellness initiatives for teachers.
- Design a mental health and well-being workshop for educators.
- Create a teacher's guide to burnout prevention, including strategies for stress management and self-care.

Appendix W

1. Concrete Experience (What happened?)

Emma struggles with time management, leading to stress and poor academic performance.

2. Reflective Observation (What does she notice?)

She realizes that procrastination leads to last-minute stress and lower-quality work. She observes that to-do lists alone don't help because she doesn't follow them.

3. Abstract Conceptualization (What can she learn from this?)

She explores different time management strategies (e.g., Pomodoro technique, prioritization, scheduling).

She understands that breaking tasks into smaller steps and setting deadlines in advance could help.

4. Active Experimentation (How can she apply it?)

She creates a structured weekly plan with set study hours.

She experiments with the Pomodoro technique to stay focused.

She sets reminders and checks progress daily.

