EDU-C 203
Psychological Foundations of Education II

Unit I

Approaches to Learning-II
- Constructivistic Approach; Jean Piaget
- Social Constructivistic Approach; Lev Vygotsky
- Humanistic Approach; Carl Rogers and Abraham Maslow

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Contributor’s Name: Ismail Thamarasseri
Email: ismailktkl@gmail.com
Contact:
Designation: Assistant Professor
Introduction

At the time of birth, every human baby has limited number of responses. As s/he grows and matures s/he becomes capable of making different type of responses – such as identifying mother and father, how to eat food, learn to alphabet, to write and combine them in to words, observes others doing and imitate them. Similarly, learning of name for objects such as book, orange, mango, cow etc, drive a scooter, car, bus etc. These modes of behaviour or responses are the result of certain experiences, i.e., learning. Therefore learning refers to a spectrum of changes that takes place as result of one’s experiences. In other words, it may be defined as any relatively permanent change in behaviour or behavioural potential produced by an experience. Some Definitions of Learning are shown below;

- Learning is the acquisition of new behaviour or strengthening of old behaviour as result of experience - Kingsley and Garrey.
- The term learning covers every modification in behaviour to meet environmental requirements - Gardner Murphy.
- Learning is the process by which behaviour is originated or changes through practice or training - Kingsley and Garry.

Constructivism

What is meant by constructivism? The term refers to the idea that learners construct knowledge for themselves-each learner individually (and socially) constructs meaning as he or she learns. Constructing meaning is learning; there is no other kind. The dramatic consequences of this view are twofold;
• we have to focus on the learner in thinking about learning (not on the subject/lesson to be taught):
• There is no knowledge independent of the meaning attributed to experience (constructed) by the learner, or community of learners. Knowledge is dependent to the experiences/constructions of the learner.

However, constructivist theory requires that we turn our attention by 180 degrees we must turn our back on any idea of an all-encompassing machine which describes nature and instead look towards all those wonderful, individual living beings-the learners-each of whom creates his or her own model to explain nature. If we accept the constructivist position we are inevitably required to follow a pedagogy which argues that we must provide learners with the opportunity to:

a) interact with sensory data, and
b) construct their own world.

This second point is a little harder for us to swallow, and most of us constantly think twice between faith that our learners will indeed construct meaning which we will find acceptable (whatever we mean by that) and our need to construct meaning for them; that is, to structure situations that are not free for learners to carry out their own mental actions, but "learning" situations which channel them into our ideas about the meaning of experience.

**Constructivist Principles of learning**

What are some guiding principles of constructivist thinking that we must keep in mind when we consider our role as educators? Let us outline a few ideas, all predicated on the belief that learning consists of individuals’ constructed meanings and then indicate how they influence education.

• Learning is an active process in which the learner uses sensory input and constructs meaning out of it.
• *People learn to learn as they learn*
• *The crucial action of constructing meaning is mental*
• *Learning involves language*
• Learning is a social activity
• Learning is contextual
• One needs knowledge to learn
• It takes time to learn
• Motivation is a key component in learning

Constructivist Approach to Learning

Constructivism is a new approach in education that claims humans are better able to understand the information they have constructed by themselves. According to constructivist theories, learning is a social advancement that involves language, real world situations, and interaction and collaboration among learners. The learners are considered to be central in the learning process. Learning is affected by our prejudices, experiences, the time in which we live, and both physical and mental maturity. When motivated, the learner exercises his will, determination, and action to gather selective information, convert it, formulate hypotheses, test these suppositions via applications, interactions or experiences, and to draw verifiable conclusions. Constructivism transforms today’s classrooms into a knowledge-construction site where information is absorbed and knowledge is built by the learner.

With the use of the web, the learner can now conduct research, interact with diverse populations, share ideas, and work on group projects. The assessment tool in a constructivist classroom is not a test or a quiz, rather it is the learner product; most of the time this is in a Portfolio format that has been designed by the learner.

Jean Piaget and Lev Vygotsky are two eminent figures in the development of constructivist theories. They share the common belief that classrooms must be constructivist environments; however, there are differences in terms of their theories and variations as to how constructivism should be carried out in classrooms.

JEAN PIAGET (1896-1980)

Jean Piaget was born in Newchatel, Switzerland. At an early age he showed a keen interest in observing animals in their natural environment. At the age of 10 he published his first article, a description of an albino sparrow which he had observed in the park; before he was 18 years old, journals had accepted several of his papers on the subject of molluses (snail). During his
adolescent years a second major intellectual interest grew from his study of philosophy, in particular the branch of philosophy concerned with knowledge - Epistemology. His undergraduate studies however were in the field of biology and his doctoral dissertation was on molluses.

Figure 4.a. Jean Piaget

Jean Piaget stressed the importance of biological maturation in the thinking process. He saw human being as an integrated whole and assumed that there must be some common denominators in biological and mental functioning. One of these, he suggested, is the concept of adaptation. Most living creatures are capable of adaptation when they compelled to do so. Adaptation is the act of changing your behaviour to make it suitable for a new purpose or situation. The human body adapt to its environment in the process of intellectual growth. The whole sequence of change that Piaget saw in a child’s cognitive development is the result of a gradual process of adaptation to experiences. In this way Piaget emphases the role of learning as well as biology. He viewed the development of cognitive skills as an interaction between the child’s maturational level and its learning experiences.

Piaget’s-Constructivism

Jean Piaget remembered for his extensive research on developmental psychology, explains the learning process by schemes (the organization of information on how things work), assimilation (the placing of new information into schemes), and accommodation (transforming existing schemes or creating new ones). The motivation for learning is the predisposition of the learner to adapt to his environment, hence to
institute equilibrium between schemes and the environment. Continuous interactions among existing schemes, assimilation, accommodation, and equilibrium create new learning.

Piaget’s developmental theory of learning and constructivism are based on discovery. According to his constructivist theory, in order to provide an ideal learning environment, children should be allowed to construct knowledge that is meaningful for them.

**Cognitive learning theory of Piaget**

Piaget had profound interest in epistemology – branch of philosophy concerned with nature of knowledge. He asserts that learning is a function of development. Piaget introduced a number of concepts in order to explain the cognitive development theory. These include;

**Schema**

Piaget used the term ‘schema’ (plural, ‘schemas’ or ‘schemata’) to mean a component of the cognitive structure or the pattern of behaviour used by individuals while dealing with objects or situations in the environment. This is the result of the individuals forming a mental image of experiences and registering it in their cognitive structure. As development proceeds each pattern enlarges and changes in accordance with the nature of the mental images formed. A ‘schema’ is something like a computer programme that people construct for dealing with complex problems. Just as a particular programmes in a computer provides the same response in different situations, each specific schema in the cognitive structure of an individual leads him to similar responses on different occasions. Babies learn about objects by sucking on them, biting them, banging them and throwing them. when the infant encounters a new object how are they to know what the object is all about? According to Piaget they will use the schema they have developed and will find out whether it gives milk, whether it moves or makes a loud or soft sound.

A schema is a cognitive framework or concept that helps organize and interpret information. Schemas can be useful because they allow us to take shortcuts in interpreting the vast amount of information that is available in our environment.
However, these mental frameworks also cause us to exclude pertinent information to instead focus only on things that confirm our pre-existing beliefs and ideas. Schemas can contribute to stereotypes and make it difficult to retain new information that does not conform to our established ideas about the world.

Schemas are mental images developed from experience or behavioural pattern formed from an experience. Different types of schemas are

- **Physical schema**: Idea of physical object. Object based- Early childhood is the best stage to develop physical schema.
- **Social schema**: Schemas developed from social experience is through interaction with society.
- **Physiological schemas**: bodily related schemas
- **Language schema**

Cognitive structure is the totality of these all schemas.

**Schema - Examples**

For example, a young child may first develop a schema for a horse. S/he knows that a horse is large, has hair, four legs and a tail. When the little boy/girl encounters a cow for the first time, s/he might initially call it a horse. After all, it fits in with her schema for the characteristics of a horse; it is a large animal that has hair, four legs and a tail. Once s/he is told that this is a different animal called a cow, s/he will modify his/her existing schema for a horse and create a new schema for a cow. Now, let's imagine that this very young boy/girl encounters a miniature horse for the first time and mistakenly identifies it as a dog. His/her parents explain to his/her that the animal is actually a very small type of horse, so the little boy/girl must this time modify his/her existing schema for horses. S/he now realizes that while some horses are very large animals, others can be very small. Through his/her new experiences, his/her existing schemas are modified and new information is learned.

**Organization**

Piaget used this term to refer to the inborn capacities to co-ordinate existing cognitive structures or schemas and combine them into more complex systems. E.g.: the infant of 3 months has learned to combine, *looking* and *grasping* with the earlier reflex of *sucking*. 
S/he can do all three together when feeding, an ability which the new born baby did not have.

**Adaptation**

By adaptation Piaget means the striving of the organism for balance or equilibrium with the environment, which is achieved through the complimentary processes of assimilation and accommodation.

- **Assimilation**: Assimilation means “taking in” or incorporating new experience (schema) and fits into an existing schema. In other words it is “the fitting in” new schema with already existing cognitive structure or making unfamiliar to familiar. It is similar to putting a new data into a computer as part of an existing programme. E.g.: a child may have learnt the words ‘dog’ and ‘car’. For a while all animals are called ‘dogs’ (i.e., different animals take into a schema related to child’s understanding of dog or all four-wheeled vehicles might be considered as ‘cars’). This process is balanced by accommodation.

- **Accommodation**: Accommodation means a change or modification in a person’s concepts or strategies because of the new information that has been assimilated. Accommodation is the process by which one’s thought patterns are modified in order to fit himself into the environment. Piaget uses the term accommodation to describe the changing of an existing schema to fit it with new experiences. Thus a baby assimilates when he internalizes and perceives the new experience in the light of his old perceptions. But when a baby forms a new schema by modifying or changing his old perceptions with a view to adjust with the new experience it is a process of accommodation. In this way a baby forms new structure or new schemata and consequently develops cognitively.

**Distinguish assimilation and accommodation**: According to Piaget, emergence of new cognitive abilities occurs as a result of the modification of the behaviour patterns that are present at the time of birth. These patterns of behaviour constitute the structural units of human mind that he called schemes. Schemas are the basic structural units of human mind. It is the mental model which incorporate the characteristics of a person, objects, events or procedures.
Table 4. a. Assimilation versus Accommodation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Assimilation</th>
<th>Accommodation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• It is a process of mental representation (schema) by modifying one’s environment or new experiences.</td>
<td>• It is a process of modification of existing sensory motor patterns with a new situation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• It takes place many previous experiences is used to comprehend a new experience in its familiar form.</td>
<td>• It involves transformation of an old schema or learning in new situation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Which is more appropriate for old experiences.</td>
<td>• Which is more appropriate for new experience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Integration of new information with existing internal mental structure.</td>
<td>• The process of the adjustment or change of mental structure.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E.g.: A child who has learned only red colours may identified a man wearing a pink shirt with red colour.</td>
<td>E.g.: The moment child learns to discriminate but a red shirt and pink shirt.</td>
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**Equilibration**

The cognitive structure which is built up with schemata changes from one developmental stage to another by the process of equilibration i.e., maintaining balance between the child and his changing environment. A baby who hangs an egg has to deal with a situation that cannot be fully handled by existing schemata. This creates a state of disequilibrium or an imbalance between what is understood and what is encountered. This results in distress. In such a case the individual tries to avoid the distress by reducing such imbalances. This is done by focusing attention on the stimuli that have caused the disequilibrium and by developing new schemata or adopting old one until equilibrium is restored. This is achieved by assimilation and accommodation. This process of restoring balance is called *Equilibration*. Piaget believes that learning depends on this process.

**Piaget’s Stages of Cognitive Development**
The sensory-motor stage (0-2 years)

This pre-language period is marked by motor actions and sensations. The child will be engaged mostly in the acquisition of motor skills. Simple learning occurs but the child does not think at this stage. But the early sensory-motor experiences of the child have a great bearing on the development of his later intellectual abilities. In the world of the child an object exists when it is physically present. S/he them gains some consciousness about the stability of the object.

S/he starts comprehending casually. It is sometimes said that the child’s mental development at this stage is equal to that of an intelligent animal. The development of the concept of object permanence is one of the major accomplishments of this period and is not fully complete until the child is about 18 months of age. By the end of 2 years the child develops a sense of the relationship among objects and between objects and his/her own body.

During this period, the intellectual development is characterized by four fundamental constructions.

a) **Object Concept Formation:** Here children come to realize that objects occupy space but it is concerned with present.

b) **Co-ordinated space:** The child acquires the special concept. He learns to grasp objects and thus becomes aware of the special relations between objects.

c) **Objectified casuality:** Any action of the child brings about an effect is taken as the cause of that event. E.g.: when the child kicks a ball, it, rolls off, then he realize kicking casuality with the effort produced.

d) **d) Objectification of time:** The child gets the perception obtained but it is concerned with the present. The child also acquire the ability to represent objects or events with the few words in their vocabularies.

Pre-Operational period (2-7 years)

Piaget divided this stage into the pre-conceptual period (2-4 years) and the intuitive period (4-7 years).

a) **The pre-conceptual period (2-4 years):** The pre-conceptual period builds on the capacity for internal or symbolic, thought which was developed in the sensory motor
period. There is a rapid increase in children’s language which results from the development or symbolic thought. His triangle may be used as racing car, a stick may be used as a gun and so on. The child now becomes ego centric that is primarily concerned about oneself.

b) **Intuitive stage (4-7 years):** During this period, cognitive behaviour of the child is still controlled by perception. The thinking of the child is not logical; it will be based mostly on intuition. Intuitive thought is primarily concerned with static conditions, but the child is able to use concepts as stable generalizations of his past and present experiences. He however cannot adequately link a whole set of successive conditions into a integrated totality. The child can grasp only one relationship at a time because he has not developed the ability for reversibility. While, thinking i.e., in the thinking process, the child is unable to lecture to his starting point. If you have an intuitive idea/feeling about something, you feel that, it is true although you have no evidence or proof of it. During this stage intelligence intuitive in nature.

**The Concrete Operational Period (7-11 years)**

This, is the stage when child develops logical thought Piaget uses the term operational thought to indicate this change. Operation investment to represent action which can be manipulated in the mind, which are reversible and which form part of an integrated system of mental actions. The child develops logical operations from simple associations.

S/he learn to add, substract, multiply and divide. S/he is in a position to classify concrete objects. These operations are called *concrete* because they relate directly to objects. Then these operations do not involve abstract thinking Piaget has coined a new term ‘*grouping*’ to describe a set of operations. S/he has given a long list of operations which make it possible to handle numbers in tune with various relations to each other, to group objects into classes and subclasses and to seriate objects according one or more attributes.

**Formal Operational Stage (After 11 years)**

At this stage the thought process of the child becomes quite systematic and reasonably well integrated. The individual no longer requires concrete material for thinking for he has required a capacity for abstract thought and he can reasoning using hypothesis.
They begin from observations and figure out some theory or system, but until they are about 12 or 13, they cannot reverse the process and go from the theory to hypothesizing something that ought to be seen beyond their own specific, concrete observations. By about 12 years, the child starts to employ a form of hypothetic deductive reasoning. Now he can approach problems by reflecting and determining. All possible solutions before testing to see which of them is correct. He shows particular orientation to problem solving. He isolates and controls the relevant variables and seeks logical justification and verification of his solutions.

**Educational implications of Piaget’s theory**

- It provides a broad development perspective to the educator for building a curriculum for the children.
- The description of developmental stages and qualitative aspects of intellectual growth is very useful in providing suitable educational practices.
- The cognitive theory states that the child is to be actively involved in the teaching-learning process for his intellectual growth.
- Piaget based curriculum requires that children should not skip any stage.
- The pre-school child is at the pre-operational level. The educational programme at this stage should provide concrete operations.
- Educational programme should enable the child to integrate the information.
- A child should be helped to develop internal consistency of the system.
- Drilling un skills us to be avoided.

**Criticism towards Piaget’s theory**

- Some psychologists do not agree with the view of Piaget that infants are born with some elementary mental structures that are starting points for their attempts to deal with their environment.
- More recent researchers have found that child can perform tasks either earlier than Piaget predict (for concrete operations) or only later than he predicted (for formal operation). His stage model has clearly been “stretched” well away from its original periods.
Social Constructivist Approach to Learning

Lev Semenovich Vygotsky (1896 – 1934) Vygotsky's social constructivism is considered as one of the milestones in the advancement of psychology and education. It paved the way for pedagogical reforms in the current practice.

Lev Semenovich Vygotsky (1896-1934) was born in Bylorussia, USSR studied at the University of Moscow to become a teacher of literature. His first research as a young scholar focused on artistic creation. It was only from 1924 on that his career changed dramatically as he started working in the areas of developmental Psychology, Education and Psychopathology. He pursued these interests at a highly productive pace until he died of tuberculosis in 1934 at a very young age (38 years). In his brief life-span he acquired vast knowledge not only of Psychology but also of the Social Sciences, Philosophy, Linguistics and Literature.

Figure 5.a. Lev Vygotsky

During his student days at the University of Moscow, he read widely in linguistics, sociology, psychology, philosophy and the arts. His systematic work in psychology did not begin until 1924. Ten years later he died of tuberculosis at the age of 38. His works were published after his death in 1934 and suppressed in 1936 and were not known in the west until 1958.
His most famous work is *Thought and Language* published shortly after his death, developed for the first time a theory of language development. Because Vygotsky's focus was on cognitive development, it is interesting to compare his views with those of Bruner and Piaget.

**Vygotsky's Constructivism**

Vygotsky, known for his theory of social constructivism, believes that learning and development is a collaborative activity and that children are cognitively developed in the context of socialization and education. The perceptual, attention, and memory capacities of children are transformed by vital cognitive tools provided by culture, such as history, social context, traditions, language, and religion. For learning to occur, the child first makes contact with the social environment on an interpersonal level and then internalizes this experience. The earlier notions and new experiences influence the child, who then constructs new ideas. Vygotsky's (1978, p. 56) example of being able to point a finger displays how this behavior, which begins as a simple motion, becomes a meaningful movement when others react to the gesture.

**The Vygotskian Classroom**

A Vygotskian classroom emphasizes creating one's own concepts and making knowledge one's property; this requires that school learning takes place in a meaningful context, alongside the learning that occurs in the real world. As seen earlier in the Piagetian classroom, this model also promotes the active participation and collaboration of distinctive learners. The Vygotskian classroom stresses assisted discovery through teacher-student and student-student interaction. Some of the cognitive strategies that group members bring into the classroom are questioning, predicting, summarizing, and clarifying.

In a Vygotskian classroom, dynamic support and considerate guidance are provided based on the learner's needs, but no will or force is dictated. Students are exposed to discussions, research collaborations, electronic information resources, and project
groups that work on problem analysis. Some examples of classroom activities that might be used in a constructive classroom are as follows:

**Language Development**

Language is tool to organize thought (Vygotsky, 1962). He says that language is very important for the development of thought (cognition). He says that language develops from, social speech (external idea exchange speech) then to private speech and last to inner speech. It can be said as stage of language development.

**First Stage (Social Speech)**

Here the child interact with the society (outer environment) through meaningless general verbal prompts and body actions. Social speech increases when there is someone to hear him/her, and reduces when there nobody and the social speech is acquired from society.

According to Vygotsky, children's skills and personalities develop as they take part in co-operative dialogue with skilled parents on tasks that are within their zone of proximal development. Zone of Proximal Development is Vygotsky's term for the range of tasks that are too complex to be mastered alone but can be accomplished with guidance and encouragement from a more skillful partner.

**Second Stage (Private Speech)**

Vygotsky says that private speech is self-directed speech that children use to plan and guide their own behaviour. It is children's frequent talks to theirselves as they play and explore the environment.

If the task is difficult or complex the intensity of private speech increases. He reasoned that children speak to themselves for self guidance and self-direction. Because language help children think about their own behaviour and select course of action. Vygostsky regarded it as the foundation for complex cognitive skills such as controlled, sustained attention, deliberate memorization and recall, categorization, planning, problem solving and self-reflection. Here the child gives to sound to the acquired social speech.
Third Stage (Inner Speech/Verbal thought)

As children get older and tasks become easier, their self-directed speech declines and is internalized as salient, inner speech. It can be said as the verbal dialogues we carry on with ourselves while thinking and acting in everyday situations.

Meaning of Words

Meaning of words, says Vygotsky, are the smallest element of thought and language. Word’s meaning is active and changing according to circumstances. Word meaning is only a part of word consciousness. Word consciousness includes all mental actions in our cognition produced by a word. The relation between moral thought goes on changing. Thought get stability through words by fixing connection with matter (things).

The Major Principles

a) Children construct knowledge: Learners create their own representations of knowledge.

b) Learning can lead development
   • Maturational pre-requests are needed for certain learning. E.g. Age, Previous knowledge.
   • Great value to assisting children to use strategies to further their intellectual capacities.
   • Zone of Proximal Development [ZPD], i.e. the distance between the child’s actual development level and his potential level of development.
   • Scaffolding and reciprocal teaching: Scaffolding is the hand support to be given by the teacher to the child until the child becomes able to study independently. Reciprocal teaching allows for the creation of a dialogue between students and teachers.

c) Development cannot be separated from its social context.
   • Similar structure of mind in all human being
   • Two levels of mental functioning – lower and higher
• For Vygotsky, the social context influences more than just attitudes and beliefs. They have profound influence on how we think, as well as what we think.

d) Languages plays a central role in mental development.
• Languages as the transmitter of the cultural tools.
• Languages as the medium that carries experience into mind.

e) Semiotic Mediation (Semiotic is the academic study of relationships of language and other signs to their meaning)
• Learning from outside through psychological tools such as languages systems, counting systems, writing etc.
• Psychological tools to control behaviour.
• According to Vygotsky some of the examples for semiotic means are: Language, various systems of counting, mnemonic techniques, work of art/painting, writing, diagrams, maps and so on. E.g. Traffic signal/symbols.
• Mediation is the key in his approach to understanding how human mental functioning is tied to cultural, institutional and historical settings.

f) Internalization
• A representational activity that occurs simultaneously in social practice and in the human mind.
• Transformation of communicative language into inner speech and further into verbal thinking. E.g. Result of listening to a spiritual speech.

The Origins of Thought and Language According to Vygotsky

Like in animals, thought and speech have different roots in humankind. Thought being non verbal and language being non-intellectual in an early stage. But their development lines are not parallel - they cross again and again. At a certain moment around the age of two, the curves of development of thought and speech until then separate, meet and join to initiate a new form of behaviour. That is when thought
becomes verbal and speech becomes rational, a child first seeks interaction, but at some point this language goes underground to become the structure of the child's thinking.

**Vygotsky’s Social Constructivism**

According to Vygotsky, all fundamental cognitive activities take shape in a matrix of social history and form the products of socio-historical development. That is, cognitive skills and patterns of thinking are not primarily determined by innate factors, but are the products of the activities practiced in the social institutions of the culture in which the individual grows up. Consequently, the history of the society in which a child is reared and the child's personal history are crucial determinants of the way in which that individual will think. In this process of cognitive development, language is a crucial tool for determining how the child will learn how to think because advanced modes of thought are transmitted to the child by means of words.

**Thought, Language and Intellectual Development**

To Vygotsky, a clear understanding of the interrelations between thought and language is necessary for the understanding of intellectual development. Language is not merely an expression of the knowledge the child has acquired. There is a fundamental correspondence between thought and speech in terms of one providing resource to the other. Language becoming essential in forming thought and determining personality features.

**Educational implications of Zone of Proximal Development -ZPD**

According to Vygotsky all fundamental cognitive activities take shape in a matrix of social history and form the products of socio-historical development i.e., cognitive skills and patterns of thinking are not primarily determined by innate factors, but are the product of activities practiced in a social institutions of the culture, in which the individual grows up.

**Level of actual development** is the level of development that the learner has already reached, at a given time. It is the level at which the learner is capable of solving problems independently at a given time. The **level of potential development** is the
level that the learner is capable of reaching under the guidance of teacher or in collaboration with peers. **ZPD** is the gap between the levels of actual development and that of potential development.

One essential tenet in Vygotksy's theory is the notion of the existence of what he called the "zone of proximal development". Zone of proximal development is the difference between the child's capacity to solve problems on his own, and his capacity to solve them with assistance. In other words, the actual developmental level refers to all the functions and activities that a child or a learner can perform only with the assistance of someone else. The person in this scaffolding process, providing non-intrusive intervention, could be an adult (parent, teacher, caretaker, language instructor) or another peer who has already mastered that particular function.

**Styles of Learning**

The term "learning style" has been used in the literature in two distinct ways: (1) It has been used to indicate a broad description of relatively consistent behaviours related to ways of going about learning. It is treated as an individual difference of generality comparable to intelligence or personality, but describing consistency in the ways people tackle learning tasks. (2) The definition has been narrowed considerably to parallel the idea of cognitive style, with the use of bipolar traits, but described in relation to the learning tasks commonly found in educational contexts, as opposed to scores on psychological tests. Both uses of the term imply that learning style is related to both to cognitive processes and to personality, but in the broader definition, the emphasis is more cognitive, while the narrower definition is closer to personality. In both senses, the term has been used to cover a range of concepts which have emerged from attempts to describe aspects of student learning.

**Why should teachers follow Vygotskyan view points?**

If teachers apply the principles put forward by Vygotsky, effective learning takes place which results in better output.

- Provide ample opportunities to the pupil to learn on their own.
- Give scaffolding at the suitable time and lead the child to self study.
• Provide group learning environments in the classroom.
• Collaborative learning and co-operative learning will enhance effective learning.
• The physical classroom based on Vygotsky’s theory, would provide clustered desks or tables and provide space for peer instruction, collaboration and small group instruction.
• Classroom should become a community of learning.

Examples of constructivist activities
Some activities encouraged in constructivist classrooms are:
• Experimentation: students individually perform an experiment and then come together as a class to discuss the results.
• Research projects: students research a topic and can present their findings to the class.
• Field trips. This allows students to put the concepts and ideas discussed in class in a real-world context. Field trips would often be followed by class discussions.
• Films. These provide visual context and thus bring another sense into the learning experience.
• Class discussions. This technique is used in all of the methods described above. It is one of the most important distinctions of constructivist teaching methods.

Constructivist approaches can also be used in online learning. For example, tools such as discussion forums, wikis and blogs can enable learners to actively construct knowledge. A contrast between the traditional classroom and the constructivist classroom is illustrated below:

Role of teachers
David Jonassen identified three major roles for facilitators to support students in constructivist learning environments:
• Modeling
• Coaching
• Scaffolding
A brief description of the Jonassen major roles are:

- **Modeling** – Jonassen describes Modeling as the most commonly used instructional strategy in classes. Two types of modeling exist: behavioural modeling of the overt performance and cognitive modeling of the covert cognitive processes. Behavioural modeling in Constructivist Learning Environments demonstrates how to perform the activities identified in the activity structure. Cognitive modeling articulates the reasoning (reflection-in-action) that learners should use while engaged in the activities.

- **Coaching** – For Jonassen the role of coach is complex and inexact. She acknowledges that a good coach motivates learners, analyzes their performance, provides feedback and advice on the performance and how to learn about how to perform, and provokes reflection and articulation of what was learned. Moreover, she posits that coaching may be solicited by the learner. Students seeking help might press a “How am I Doing?” button. Or coaching may be unsolicited, when the coach observes the performance and provides encouragement, diagnosis, directions, and feedback. Coaching naturally and necessarily involves responses that are situated in the learner’s task performance (Laffey, Tupper, Musser, & Wedman, 1997).

- **Scaffolding** - Scaffolding is a more systemic approach to supporting the learner, focusing on the task, the environment, the teacher, and the learner. Scaffolding provides temporary frameworks to support learning and student performance beyond their capacities. The concept of scaffolding represents any kind of support for cognitive activity that is provided by an adult when the child and adult are performing the task together (Wood & Middleton, 1975).

### Humanistic Approach to Learning

Humanistic psychology, also often referred to as humanism, emerged during the 1950s as a reaction to the psychoanalysis and behaviorism that dominated psychology at the time. Psychoanalysis was focused on understanding the unconscious motivations that drive behavior while behaviorism studied the conditioning processes that produce behavior. Humanist thinkers felt that both psychoanalysis and behaviorism were too
pessimistic, either focusing on the most tragic of emotions or failing to take into account the role of personal choice.

Humanistic psychology was instead focused on each individual’s potential and stressed the importance of growth and self-actualization. The fundamental belief of humanistic psychology is that people are innately good and that mental and social problems result from deviations from this natural tendency.

Some of the major ideas and concepts that emerged as a result of the humanist movement include an emphasis on things such as:

- Self-concept
- Hierarchy of needs
- Unconditional positive regard
- Free will (do thing by choice, not because of forced to do it)
- Client-centred therapy
- Self-actualization
- Fully-functioning person
- Peak experiences

**Major Thinkers in Humanistic Psychology**

The early development of humanistic psychology was heavily influenced by the works of a few key theorists, especially Maslow and Rogers.

- Abraham Maslow (1908-1970) - American psychologist
- Carl Rogers (1902-1987) - American psychologist
- Rollo May (1909-1994) - American psychologist
- Erich Fromm (1900-1980) - German psychologist

**Important Events in Humanistic Psychology**

- 1943 - Abraham Maslow described his hierarchy of needs in "A Theory of Human Motivation" published in Psychological Review.
- 1951 - Carl Rogers published Client-Centered Therapy, which described his humanistic, client-directed approach to therapy.
• 1961 - The American Association for Humanistic Psychology is formed and the Journal of Humanistic Psychology was established.
• 1962 - American Association for Humanistic Psychology was formed.
• 1971 - Humanistic psychology becomes an APA division.

Carl Ransom Rogers (1902-1987)

With his emphasis on human potential, Carl Rogers had an enormous influence on both psychology and education. Beyond that, he is considered by many to be one of the most influential psychologists of the 20th century. More therapists cite Rogers as their primary influence than any other psychologist. As described by his daughter Natalie Rogers, he was "a model for compassion and democratic ideals in his own life, and in his work as an educator, writer, and therapist."

Timeline of Events:
• Born January 8, 1902
• 1902 - Carl Rogers was born in Oak Park, Illinois.
• 1919 - Enrolled at University of Wisconsin.
• 1924 - Graduated from University of Wisconsin and enrolled at Union Theological Seminary.
• 1926 - Transferred to Columbia.
• 1931 - Earned Ph.D. from Columbia.
• 1940 - Began teaching at University of Ohio.
• 1946 - Elected president of American Psychological Association (APA).
• 1951 - Published Client-centered Therapy.
• 1961 - Published On Becoming A Person.
• 1980 - Published A Way of Being.
• 1987 - Nominated for Nobel Peace Prize.
• Died February 4, 1987
Selected Works By Carl Rogers:


According to Carl Rogers, a fully functioning person is one who is in touch with his or her deepest and innermost feelings and desires. These individuals understand their own emotions and place a deep trust in their own instincts and urges. Unconditional positive regard plays an essential role in becoming a fully functioning person.

Carl Rogers (1902-1987) was a humanistic psychologist who agreed with the main assumptions of Abraham Maslow, but added that for a person to "grow", they need an environment that provides them with genuineness (openness and self-disclosure), acceptance (being seen with unconditional positive regard), and empathy (being listened to and understood). Without these, relationships and healthy personalities will not develop as they should, much like a tree will not grow without sunlight and water. Rogers believed that every person can achieve their goals, wishes and desires in life. When, or rather if they did so, self actualization took place. This was one of Carl Rogers
most important contributions to psychology and for a person to reach their potential a number of factors must be satisfied.

**Self Actualization**

"The organism has one basic tendency and striving - to actualize, maintain, and enhance the experiencing organism" (Rogers, 1951, p. 487).

Rogers rejected the deterministic nature of both psychoanalysis and behaviorism and maintained that we behave as we do because of the way we perceive our situation. "As no one else can know how we perceive, we are the best experts on ourselves."

Carl Rogers (1959) believed that humans have one basic motive, that is the tendency to self-actualize - i.e. to fulfill one's potential and achieve the highest level of 'human-beingness' we can. Like a flower that will grow to its full potential if the conditions are right, but which is constrained by its environment, so people will flourish and reach their potential if their environment is good enough.

However, unlike a flower, the potential of the individual human is unique, and we are meant to develop in different ways according to our personality. Rogers believed that people are inherently good and creative. They become destructive only when a poor self-concept or external constraints override the valuing process. Carl Rogers believed that for a person to achieve self-actualization they must be in a state of congruence (similarity, equivalence, resemblance).

**The Fully Functioning Person**

Rogers identified five characteristics of the fully functioning person:

1. Open to experience: both positive and negative emotions accepted. Negative feelings are not denied, but worked through (rather than resort to ego defence mechanisms).

2. Existential living: in touch with different experiences as they occur in life, avoiding prejudging and preconceptions. Being able to live and fully appreciate the present, not always looking back to the past or forward to the future (i.e. living for the moment).
3. Trust feelings: feeling, instincts and gut-reactions are paid attention to and trusted. People's own decisions are the right ones and we should trust ourselves to make the right choices.

For Rogers, fully functioning people are well adjusted, well balanced and interesting to know. Often such people are high achievers in society. Critics claim that the fully functioning person is a product of Western culture. In other cultures, such as Eastern cultures, the achievement of the group is valued more highly than the achievement of any one person.

**Personality Development**

Central to Rogers' personality theory is the notion of self or self-concept. This is defined as "the organized, consistent set of perceptions and beliefs about oneself".

The self is the humanistic term for who we really are as a person. The self is our inner personality, and can be likened to the soul, or Freud's psyche. The self is influenced by the experiences a person has in their life, and out interpretations of those experiences. Two primary sources that influence our self-concept are childhood experiences and evaluation by others.

The humanistic approach states that the self is composed of concepts unique to ourselves. The self-concept includes three components:

- **Self worth (or self-esteem)** – what we think about ourselves. Rogers believed feelings of self-worth developed in early childhood and were formed from the interaction of the child with the mother and father.

- **Self-image** – How we see ourselves, which is important to good psychological health. Self-image includes the influence of our body image on inner personality. At a simple level, we might perceive ourselves as a good or bad person, beautiful or ugly. Self-image has an effect on how a person thinks feels and behaves in the world.

- **Ideal self** – This is the person who we would like to be. It consists of our goals and ambitions in life, and is dynamic – i.e. forever changing. The ideal self in childhood is not the ideal self in our teens or late twenties etc.

**Self Worth and Positive Regard**
Carl Rogers (1951) viewed the child as having two basic needs: positive regard from other people and self-worth.

How we think about ourselves, our feelings of self-worth are of fundamental importance both to psychological health and to the likelihood that we can achieve goals and ambitions in life and achieve self-actualization.

**What is Unconditional Positive Regard?**

"It means caring for the client, but not in a possessive way or in such a way as simply to satisfy the therapist's own needs," explained in Rogers in a 1957 article published in the *Journal of Consulting Psychology*. "It means caring for the client as a separate person, with permission to have his own feelings, his own experiences."

Rogers believed that it was essential for therapists to show unconditional positive regard to their clients. He also suggested that individuals who don't have this type of acceptance from people in their life can eventually come to hold negative beliefs about themselves.

**Self Theory (1947)**

Carl Rogers, American psychologist propounded the self theory based on his idea of client-centred therapy. He stresses the importance of an individual's self in determining the process of his growth, development and appropriate adjustment to his environment. 

*Structure of Personality:* Rogers considers that two basic systems are operating in the personal reality (phenomenological field) of an individual- the organism and the self. 

*Phenomenological Field* is a world of subjective experience, the personal and separate reality of each individual. Phenomenology is the branch of philosophy, which deals with consciousness, thought and experience.

1. **The Organism:** It represents the totality of one’s experience both conscious and unconscious, is an entire frame of reference.

2. **The Self:** It is the accepted conscious part of experience. In other words, self is the concept developed by an person about himself i.e., self concept. The self as a system of one's phenomenological field can perhaps best understood in terms our concept of 'I', 'me', or 'myself'.
Three Themes of Rogers and Dynamics of Personality

The three major themes in Rogers theory is; *Self actualization*, *Self maintenance* and *Self enhancement*. If a person fulfils self actualization, he is a fully functioning individual. Unconditioned positive reward is essential for self actualization. Roger advocates continuity of growth in terms of a continues evolution of the concept of ‘self’. Once a concept ‘self’ is formed the individual strives to maintain by regulating his behaviour.

Non-Directive Counselling/Therapy and the role of teachers in classroom

The development runs into trouble when the self tails for some reason to incorporate, and learns to live with its own new thoughts, feelings or behaviour. The goal of a therapist, in such cases lies in bringing the individual in a united way, from what he or she is not, to what he/she really is. The pre-requisites of Non-Directive Counselling is that; Minimum Willingness, Ability to communicate each other and Readiness and opportunity to receive communication. The teachers in classroom; Always try to make congruence in children and give equal importance is desire of self-esteem.

Conditions of Self-Actualization

1. The person must respect and have faith in himself, his abilities to achieve his goal.
2. The person must be respected and loved by others.
3. The choices available to the individual must be clearly perceived.
4. The choices must be clearly symbolized.

Nineteen propositions in Rogers’ theory of the self

- All individuals (organisms) exist in a continually changing world of experience (phenomenal field) of which they are the center.
- The organism reacts to the field as it is experienced and perceived. This perceptual field is "reality" for the individual.
- The organism reacts as an organized whole to this phenomenal field.
- A portion of the total perceptual field gradually becomes differentiated as the self.
As a result of interaction with the environment, and particularly as a result of evaluational interaction with others, the structure of the self is formed - an organized, fluid but consistent conceptual pattern of perceptions of characteristics and relationships of the "I" or the "me", together with values attached to these concepts.

The organism has one basic tendency and striving - to actualize, maintain and enhance the experiencing organism.

The best vantage point for understanding behavior is from the internal frame of reference of the individual.

Behavior is basically the goal-directed attempt of the organism to satisfy its needs as experienced, in the field as perceived.

Emotion accompanies, and in general facilitates, such goal directed behavior, the kind of emotion being related to the perceived significance of the behavior for the maintenance and enhancement of the organism.

The values attached to experiences, and the values that are a part of the self-structure, in some instances, are values experienced directly by the organism, and in some instances are values introjected or taken over from others, but perceived in distorted fashion, as if they had been experienced directly.

As experiences occur in the life of the individual, they are either, a) symbolized, perceived and organized into some relation to the self, b) ignored because there is no perceived relationship to the self structure, c) denied symbolization or given distorted symbolization because the experience is inconsistent with the structure of the self.

Most of the ways of behaving that are adopted by the organism are those that are consistent with the concept of self.

In some instances, behavior may be brought about by organic experiences and needs which have not been symbolized. Such behavior may be inconsistent with the structure of the self but in such instances the behavior is not "owned" by the individual.

Psychological adjustment exists when the concept of the self is such that all the sensory and visceral experiences of the organism are, or may be, assimilated on a symbolic level into a consistent relationship with the concept of self.

Psychological maladjustment exists when the organism denies awareness of significant sensory and visceral experiences, which consequently are not symbolized
and organized into the gestalt of the self structure. When this situation exists, there is a basic or potential psychological tension. Visceral feelings are feelings that you feel very deeply and find it difficult to control or ignore, and that are not the result of thought.

- Any experience which is inconsistent with the organization of the structure of the self may be perceived as a threat, and the more of these perceptions there are, the more rigidly the self structure is organized to maintain itself.
- Under certain conditions, involving primarily complete absence of threat to the self structure, experiences which are inconsistent with it may be perceived and examined, and the structure of self revised to assimilate and include such experiences.
- When the individual perceives and accepts into one consistent and integrated system all his sensory and visceral experiences, then he is necessarily more understanding of others and is more accepting of others as separate individuals.
- As the individual perceives and accepts into his self structure more of his organic experiences, he finds that he is replacing his present value system - based extensively on introjections which have been distortedly symbolized - with a continuing organismic valuing process.

**Abraham Maslow (1908-1970)**

Born and raised in Brooklyn, New York, Maslow was the oldest of seven children and was classed as "mentally unstable" by a psychologist. His parents were first generation Jewish immigrants from Russia who fled from Czarist persecution in the early 20th century. They had decided to live in New York City and in a multiethnic, working-class neighbourhood. His parents were poor and not intellectually oriented, but they valued education.

Maslow attended the City College of New York after high school. In 1926 he began taking legal studies classes at night in addition to his undergraduate course load. He hated it and almost immediately dropped out. In 1927 he transferred to Cornell, but he left after just one semester due to poor grades and high costs. He later graduated from City College and went to graduate school at the University of Wisconsin to study psychology. In 1928, he married his first cousin Bertha, who was still in high school at
the time. The pair had met in Brooklyn years earlier. Maslow's psychology training at University of Wisconsin was decidedly experimental-behaviourist. At Wisconsin he pursued a line of research which included investigating primate dominance behaviour and sexuality. Maslow's early experience with behaviourism would leave him with a strong positivist mindset. Upon the recommendation of Professor Hulsey Cason, Maslow wrote his master's thesis on "learning, retention, and reproduction of verbal material". Maslow regarded the research as embarrassingly trivial, but he completed his thesis the summer of 1931 and was awarded his master's degree in psychology. He was so ashamed of the thesis that he removed it from the psychology library and tore out its catalog listing. However, Professor Carson admired the research enough to urge Maslow to submit it for publication.

![Abraham Maslow](image)

Figure 6.3.a. Abraham Maslow

He continued his research at Columbia University, on similar themes. There he found another mentor in Alfred Adler, one of Sigmund Freud's early colleagues. From 1937 to 1951, Maslow was on the faculty of Brooklyn College. His family life and his experiences influenced his psychological ideas. After World War II, Maslow began to question the way psychologists had come to their conclusions, and though he did not completely disagree, he had his own ideas on how to understand the human mind. He called his new discipline humanistic psychology. Maslow was already a 33-year old father and had two children when the United States entered World War II in 1941. He was thus ineligible for the military. However, the horrors of war instead inspired a vision of peace
in him and this led to his groundbreaking psychological studies of self-actualizing people. These studies began with his two mentors, anthropologist Ruth Benedict and Gestalt psychologist Max Wertheimer, whom he admired both professionally and personally. These two were so accomplished in both realms, and such "wonderful human beings" as well, that Maslow began taking notes about them and their behavior. This would be the basis of his lifelong research and thinking about mental health and human potential. He wrote extensively on the subject, borrowing ideas from other psychologists but adding significantly to them, especially the concepts of a hierarchy of needs, metaneeds, metamotivation, self-actualizing persons, and peak experiences.

Maslow was a professor at Brandeis University from 1951 to 1969, and then became a resident fellow of the Laughlin Institute in California. In 1967, Maslow had an almost fatal heart attack, and knew his time was limited. Maslow considered himself to be a psychological pioneer. He gave future psychologists a push by bringing to light different paths to ponder. He built the framework that later allowed other psychologists to add in more information. Maslow long believed that leadership should be non-intervening. Consistent with this approach, he rejected a nomination in 1963 to be president of the Association for Humanistic Psychology because he felt that the organization should develop an intellectual movement without a leader. While jogging, Maslow suffered a severe heart attack and died on June 8, 1970 at the age of 62 in Menlo Park, California.

**Humanistic Theory of Learning**

Maslow’s theory of learning highlighted the differences between experiential knowledge and spectator knowledge. He regarded spectator, or scientific, knowledge to be inferior to experiential. Properties of experiential learning include:

- immersion in the experience without awareness of the flow of time
- momentarily not being self-conscious
- transcending time, place, history, and society by being beyond and unaffected by them
- merging with that which is being experienced
- being innocently receptive, as a child, uncritical
• suspending temporarily evaluation of the experience in terms of its importance or unimportance
• lack of inhibition, subsiding of selfishness, fear, defensiveness
• experience unfolds naturally without striving or effort
• suspending criticism, validation, and evaluation of the experience
• trusting experience by passively letting it happen; letting go of preconceived notions
• disengaging from logical, analytical, and rational activities

**Humanistic Psychology**

Abraham Maslow wasn't satisfied with the way things had always been done. He was a psychologist, but he didn't like the way other psychologists viewed people. In the first half of the 20th century, most psychologists believed one of two things about humans. Behaviourists believed that people's behaviours were purely determined by rewards and punishments. They viewed people as simply the product of conditioning; that is, if they got rewarded for doing something, people would keep doing it over and over. On the other hand, psychoanalysts believed that people were slaves to their urges. They believed that subconscious desires drove our behaviours and feelings.

He developed **humanistic psychology**, which focuses on the potential of people to become all that they can be. Other psychologists helped develop different elements of humanistic psychology, but Maslow is largely considered to be the father of the humanist movement in psychology. Let's look closer at his primary contributions to humanism, including his 'hierarchy of needs' and his work to make humanism a recognized psychological model.

**Humanistic theories of self-actualization**

Humanistic psychologists believe that every person has a strong desire to realize his or her full potential, to reach a level of "self-actualization". The main point of that new movement, that reached its peak in 1960s, was to emphasize the positive potential of human beings. Maslow positioned his work as a vital complement to that of Freud; "It is
as if Freud supplied us the sick half of psychology and we must now fill it out with the healthy half."

This informed his theory that a person enjoys "peak experiences", high points in life when the individual is in harmony with himself and his surroundings. In Maslow's view, self-actualized people can have many peak experiences throughout a day while others have those experiences less frequently.

**Qualities of self-actualizing people**

Maslow noticed that self-actualized individuals had a better insight of reality, deeply accepted themselves, others and the world, and also had faced many problems and were known to be impulsive people. These self-actualized individuals were very independent and private when it came to their environment and culture, especially their very own individual development on "potentialities and inner resources". According to Maslow, self-actualizing people share the following qualities:

- **Truth**: honest, reality, beauty, pure, clean and unadulterated completeness
- **Goodness**: rightness, desirability, uprightness, benevolence, honesty
- **Beauty**: rightness, form, aliveness, simplicity, richness, wholeness, perfection, completion,
- **Wholeness**: unity, integration, tendency to oneness, interconnectedness, simplicity, organization, structure, order, not dissociated, synergy
- **Dichotomy**: transcendence: acceptance, resolution, integration, polarities, opposites, contradictions
- **Aliveness**: process, not-deadness, spontaneity, self-regulation, full-functioning
- **Unique**: idiosyncrasy, individuality, non comparability, novelty
- **Perfection**: nothing superfluous, nothing lacking, everything in its right place, just-rightness, suitability, justice
- **Necessity**: inevitability: it must be just that way, not changed in any slightest way
- **Completion**: ending, justice, fulfillment
- **Justice**: fairness, suitability, disinterestedness, non partiality,
- **Order**: lawfulness, rightness, perfectly arranged
Dynamics of self-actualization

Maslow based his theory partially on his own assumptions about human potential and partially on his case studies of historical figures whom he believed to be self-actualized, including Albert Einstein and Henry David Thoreau. Consequently, Maslow argued, the way in which essential needs are fulfilled is just as important as the needs themselves. Together, these define the human experience. To the extent a person finds cooperative social fulfilment, he establishes meaningful relationships with other people and the larger world. In other words, he establishes meaningful connections to an external reality - an essential component of self-actualization. In contrast, to the extent that vital needs find selfish and competitive fulfilment, a person acquires hostile emotions and limited external relationships - his awareness remains internal and limited.

Methodology

Maslow based his study on the writings of other psychologists, Albert Einstein and people he knew who clearly met the standard of self-actualization. Maslow used Einstein's writings and accomplishments to exemplify the characteristics of the self-actualized person. But Ruth Benedict and Max Wertheimer were also Maslow's models of self-actualization. In this case, from a scientific perspective there are numerous problems with this particular approach. First, it could be argued that biographical analysis as a method is extremely subjective as it is based entirely on the opinion of the researcher. Personal opinion is always prone to bias, which reduces the validity of any data obtained. Therefore Maslow's operational definition of Self-actualization must not be blindly accepted as scientific fact.

Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow developed a hierarchy, which is usually represented as a pyramid or a ladder. On the bottom are the needs that must be fulfilled first. As you move up the hierarchy, the needs become less and less about survival and more about becoming the best 'you' possible. The levels of the hierarchy, listed from the lowest level and moving up, are:
- **Physical needs**, which are those that involve base biological or physiological needs. These are things like food, water, and shelter.

- **Safety needs** involve things like protection from the elements, security, law, and stability.

- **Social needs** fulfil the urge for love and belonging. This can come from romantic relationships or from friendships, family, or work groups.

- **Esteem needs** are related to your sense of self-worth. They include things like self-esteem, achievement, and prestige.

- **Self-actualization needs**, which are at the top of the hierarchy, focus on realizing your full potential. People who are working towards meeting these needs are looking for self-fulfilment and personal growth.

![Hierarchy of needs](image)

**Figure 6.3.b. Maslow's Hierarchy of needs**

An interpretation of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, represented as a pyramid with the more basic needs at the bottom

Human needs as identified by Maslow:
• At the bottom of the hierarchy are the "Basic needs or Physiological needs" of a human being: food, water, sleep and sex.

• The next level is "Safety Needs: Security, Order, and Stability". These two steps are important to the physical survival of the person. Once individuals have basic nutrition, shelter and safety, they attempt to accomplish more.

• The third level of need is "Love and Belonging", which are psychological needs; when individuals have taken care of themselves physically, they are ready to share themselves with others, such as with family and friends.

• The fourth level is achieved when individuals feel comfortable with what they have accomplished. This is the "Esteem" level, the need to be competent and recognized, such as through status and level of success.

Principles behind humanistic psychology
• Someone's present functioning is their most significant aspect. As a result humanists emphasize the here and now instead of examining the past or attempting to predict the future. 2. To be mentally healthy, individuals must take personal responsibility for their actions, regardless of whether the actions are positive or negative.

• Each person, simply by being, is inherently worthy. While any given action may be negative, these actions do not cancel out the value of a person.

• The ultimate goal of living is to attain personal growth and understanding. Only through constant self-improvement and self-understanding can an individual ever be truly happy.

Peak experiences
Beyond the routine of needs fulfilment, Maslow envisioned moments of extraordinary experience, known as Peak experiences, which are profound moments of love, understanding, happiness, or rapture, during which a person feels more whole, alive, self-sufficient and yet a part of the world, more aware of truth, justice, harmony, goodness, and so on. Self-actualizing people have many such peak experiences. In other
words, these “peak experiences” or states of flow are the reflections of the realization of one's human potential and represent the height of personality development.

Meta-motivation
Maslow used the term meta-motivation to describe self-actualized people who are driven by innate forces beyond their basic needs, so that they may explore and reach their full human potential.

Conclusion
Both Piaget and Vygotsky appreciated the essence of building constructs and internalizing the knowledge given, rather than accepting the information as presented through rote-memory. Constructivist learning environments promote the learner to gather, filter, analyze, and reflect on the information provided and to comment on this knowledge so that it will result in individualized comprehension and private learning. This type of group learning will reduce the dissemination of false data, prejudice, and atrocities among diverse groups and help build a moral, scientific, information society in the new millennium. Be it developmental or social as suggested by Piaget and Vygotsky respectively, learning is the central activity for humans in search for understanding the causes and effects of natural phenomena, the progress of social events, and the meaning of life. By using such learning approaches we can better introduce our children to the world that God has created for us, and lead them to think about the miracles that are all around us. Humanistic psychology is often seen as too subjective; the importance of individual experience makes it difficult to objectively study and measure humanistic phenomena. How can we objectively tell if someone is self-actualized? The answer, of course, is that we cannot. We can only rely upon the individual's own assessment of their experience. Another major criticism is that observations are unverifiable; there is no accurate way to measure or quantify these qualities.

Model Questions
1. “Cognitive development of an individual is the result of his successful attempt for equilibration”. – Explain the statement in terms of the key concept formulated by Piaget.
2. Compare the contribution of Piaget in Educational Psychology.
3. Describe the humanistic approach to educational psychology put forth by Carl Roger and Abraham Maslow.
4. Describe the humanistic approach to personality development, with special reference to the views of Carl Rogers.
5. Explain the concept of ZPD.
6. Mention the contribution of Piaget in Educational Psychology.
7. What are the implications of Vygotskian viewpoint?
8. Which are the important principles put forward by Vygotsky?
References


**Web Resources**

5. http://psychology.about.com/od/findex/g/fully-functioning-person.htm