Learning models

ERRATUM

Kit no 7 *Learning Models* was developed by Mr. Hermann Guy subsequent to an agreement between the Carrefour de la réussite au collégial and Performa: The texts included may be reproduced as long as their source in mentioned.

Preface

Le **Carrefour de la réussite au collégial** was created by the Fédération des cégeps to support cégeps in the implementation of programs geared toward student success. The means of achieving this include the organization of conferences, symposiums, thematic workshops, regional meetings and support for the development of learning tools with tracking and diagnostic purposes.

The Carrefour has identified a certain number of axes of improvement and entrusted **PERFORMA** with the preparation of learning kits showcasing activities on each of these axes. This kit consists of a single document that includes both the animation guide and the complementary texts.

Attentive readers will have noticed that learning kits # 6 *New educational strategies and* # 7, *Learning models* are connected. Indeed as concerns their content, both are inspired by the same teaching movement, cognitivism; their approach stems from a similar desire, that of 'practicing what they preach' and ensuring congruence from one to the other.

Although complementary, both kits remain different. The first encourages us to try out several approaches that place the learner at the heart of the learning process, the first principle of cognitive pedagogy. The second principle centers on the learning process with each learning activity sensitizing us to the concept as well as the practical side at each stage of the process. The kit also integrates the concept of competency and the construction of learning activities. There is no doubt that one and the other will prove helpful to college personnel who are concerned about pedagogical methods and success.

Special thanks

Contribution of authors:

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Section I
General presentation

> *"The educational transformations in the works won't work unless they are all in use and benefiting everyone, at levels that are carefully articulated in relation to each other. They must be based on a network of interwoven individual and local initiatives that are coherent, offer continuity and are supported by a culture of learning."* [1]

Why introduce learning models in education?

Theories in education evolved considerably during the twentieth century and particularly in the second half. Previously, behaviorism dominated. It was founded on the postulate of negation: If the mental states of an individual cannot be seen, they cannot be understood. On the other hand, general laws of behaviour can be discovered by linking the characteristics of stimulations to resulting behaviours. Behaviorists are interested in the "ins and outs" of the system, characterized by outward behaviour and they dismiss internal mental operations. Moreover, behaviorism dissects the complexity of behaviour into simple basic units reacting to elementary stimuli. It is an analytical approach. Unfortunately, we are more complex than behaviorists thought!

Toward the end of the fifties, psychologists, linguists, and computer specialists were already beginning to lay down the foundation for a transformation in psychology. The idea began with the premise that a computer, which is *a system that processes data* and analyzes symbols, behaves just like a person who solves problems. It is from this simple idea that cognitive sciences were born. Additionally, they evolved sufficiently to contribute to the creation of a theory applicable to learning and teaching. A science revolving around the mind is possible: It is knowledge about the way in which we perceive things, remember them, organize our thoughts, and plan our actions in advance, as well as our capacity for reason. A paradigm shift occurred that placed mental processes at the heart of the research on learning.

The work of linguist Noam Chomsky supports this assertion. For him, linguistics is clearly a branch of psychology. Our ability to master language results from our ability to process invisible cognitive structures. George Miller adds another argument in favour of the definition of psychology as a science that processes mental symbols (cognitive psychology), rather than a science that processes observable behaviour (behaviorism). He points out the many psychologists who have studied working memory, the faculty that allows us to remember a telephone number long enough to dial it, identified a maximum of 7 storage spaces in this memory. We can consciously remember no more than seven

[1] DELACOTE, Goéry, Savoir apprendre les nouvelles méthodes, Éditions Odile Jacob, Paris, 1996, p.21

different pieces of information. Our working memory retains *symbols,* not the amount of information processed. Miller then introduces the concept of "*units of information*". This ability to organize the material to be remembered into units of relevant information thus becomes the manner in which we overcome the limited capacity of short-term memory. For Miller, learning is an active collection of knowledge that is to be memorized. It is structured into different symbolic systems to identify the groupings most effective for retention.

Our mind processes symbols and engages cognitive activities to handle them and store them in memory. For this process, we need to encode external information and create cognitive symbols to encode variables. These symbolic structure systems are called *mental representations*. Cognitive sciences are interested in the nature of these representations built up within the various fields of knowledge and in their evolution. Learning models play an essential role in cognitive theories: They are the symbolic link between the external environment and the inner world. When we encode our experience of the world, we build learning models that play an essential role in our comprehension, our behaviour and our future learning. To manage these learning models, it is presupposed that the brain uses a language called "thinking" and in this case, propositional thinking. This in turn led to the distinctions between declarative, procedural and conditional knowledge that we will discuss later.

The transition from behaviorism to cognitive psychology appeared gradually, despite some acceleration in the 60's and 70's, when teaching research took an unprecedented leap forward. In the 80's, researchers tried to identify the processes of knowledge acquisition. Weinstein and Mayer (1986) proposed four principal components of data processing:

- **Selection** is attention directed towards specific stimuli or information in the environment and the transfer of this information to the working memory.
- **Acquisition** is the transfer of information from working memory to long-term memory for permanent storage.
- **Construction** is the stage where students actively construct links between the ideas in their working memory. A new organization results that resides in a coherent network of information.
- **Integration** is the stage where new information is linked to previously acquired knowledge.

These components were the models for later research. The work of Anderson (1983) on the flow of information in the environment in relation to long-term memory and that of Gagné (1985) was mainly centered on academic learning. Their work became the basis of the movement towards cognitive research. This "cognitive" revolution generated several models of learning that integrate human cognitive knowledge and the social dimension of learning. Recent learning models such as constructivism and socioconstructivism as well as the various reforms in the world of education, have made the review of learning models a very topical issue.

Questions to be discussed

When it comes to education and training, learning can be:

- The result of teaching; in which case a ***behaviorist*** theory is favoured, such as mastery learning and/or mastery teaching.
- A process by which knowledge is acquired; in which case it is more ***constructivist*** *or* socioconstructivist, that is to say a ***cognitive*** theory that accounts for student learning. From this point of view, the role of the teacher is in relation to the student who is placed at the “heart" of the process.
- A theoretical movement that considers teaching-learning to be a system: The ***historico-cultural*** approach stresses the importance of the process by which socially elaborated symbols and works are transmitted to us along with collective projects in our individual acquisition of knowledge. There are no sensitization activities relative to this model of learning in the kit. However, the principles which support this approach can be found in the socioconstructivist model under "social interaction".

To understand these concepts, several questions need to be discussed:

- What role is played by the learner’s conceptions?
- How is learning defined?
- What are the underlying learning models in our conception of learning?
- What are the teaching principles that guide the professional practice of teaching-learning?
- What are the significant changes that led to a paradigm shift from teaching to that of learning?
- What does "the students at the heart of their own learning" mean?
- What teaching visions ensue from this fact and what are the consequences on teaching practices?
- What is the teaching content?
- How do learning objectives that target competencies impact teaching at college level?
- Is it necessary to modify our teaching and learning strategies?

This kit on learning models provides information to nourish and enrich our reflection on these questions.

Section II
Sensitization activities

General presentation of the activities

The kit on “Learning models” includes three essential parts:

- Section II includes eleven sensitization activities
- Section III introduces the learning tools in support of the sensitization activities
- Section IV contains various documents that support and prolong the sensitization activities.

The presentation of the activities respects an order that goes from an initial level of sensitization, to acquisition, application, and finally to integration. To structure the sequence of the sensitization activities, we referred to a typical learning process that is discussed in activity 10. This process can help us identify how we learn and consequently how we can structure interventions in an organized way. These sensitization activities were developed in accordance with accepted cognitive principles in order that participants may explicitly experience the typical learning process that they have their students go through.

This process has six stages:

A typical learning process	
Activation	Awakening of the subject’s cognitive and emotional acquisitions in relation to the competency or knowledge to be acquired.
Elaboration	Creation by subjects of links, correct or erroneous, between what they know, what they are learning, and what they seek to understand.
Organization	Clear and correct structuring of knowledge by the subject.
Application	Use of conceptual or declarative, procedural and conditional knowledge acquired in the organization stage with decreasing assistance and support.
Proceduralization	Use of structured acquisitions in increasingly complex situations to develop the ability to act quickly and effectively. This stage aims at making the implementation of problem solving stages increasingly automatic.
Integration	Implementation of acquisitions connected to the development of the competency in an increasingly autonomous fashion. The ultimate goal of learning is the integration of new acquisitions to the subject’s existing organization of knowledge and his way of approaching situations based on this new organization.

(Pôle de L’Est, 1996: 119-121)

A subject in a learning situation sets in motion a series of cognitive processes, as illustrated by the "typical learning process".

“When students learn, they must recall what they know about the subject (**activation of acquisitions**) and formulate explanatory assumptions about the phenomena they are trying to understand, based on these acquisitions (**elaboration**). The first two stages are not sufficient and students must also encounter the new learning so they can make it “their own” and with assistance, organize the information in the form of a cognitive network; establishing the relevant links between components (**organization**). If these relationships are not well established by the student, the information will be learned superficially (surface learning). After organizing it, the student must apply this organized knowledge to simple situations (**application**) before being able to apply it in an increasingly "automatic" way (**proceduralization**) to increasingly complex contextualized situations, by connecting it to increasingly rich (deep) knowledge (**integration**)".

Here the professor’s role consists of determining the learning situations and the sequence of teaching and learning activities most likely to support each stage in the development of a competency, then to organize them according to the learning process in question.

We have tried to establish the presentation order of the sensitization activities in accordance with a typical learning process. Reference to this process can be found in the presentation of an activity. Each activity is described on one or two pages and contains the following:

- title
- objective (s)
- reference to the learning process
- short description
- unfolding
- role of the moderator
- role of participants
- necessary material
- teaching equipment
- support documentation
- comments (if necessary)
- approximate duration

The role of the participants is mainly centered on the personal expression of their notions and representations, on their interactions with other participants and finally on metacognitive operations supporting the recognition of their own ways of learning.

The role of the moderator is to encourage the participants to express themselves freely, to facilitate exchanges and discussions between them, to clarify interpretations recognized in the group and to favour reflection. Although the material presented in the sensitization activities is complete, it requires meticulous preparation on behalf of the moderator, especially if inexperienced, in terms of both contents and process planning.

Moreover, even though it is preferable to organize further training following the activities outlined herein, many will benefit from one or more of these sensitization activities within the framework of a personal development program. Lastly, some readers may find it surprising that teamwork is often called into play, despite the assumption that learning is individual and the result of a personal construct. This is not a contradiction, but rather the application of one of the socioconstructivist principles according to which the "learner learns with the help of others" (see document 6).

Short description of the activities:

Activity 1 is an introduction to the subject matter that allows for the emergence of the participants' prior knowledge on learning models. It is the first stage of the typical learning process.

Activity 2 relates to the schematization of concepts. It orchestrates participants in the organization of knowledge. It does not relate specifically to learning models, but due to the importance of this learning technique, we thought it preferable to include it in the initial sensitization activities. This technique will be necessary to carry out activity 3.

Activities 3 and 4 make it possible to draft an overview of learning models. The activities must be carried out in order: Activity 3 describes the models while activity 4 deepens knowledge on the principles that distinguish the models.

Activities 5 and 6 make it possible to shed light on the significant changes brought about by the learning paradigm. Research on the various learning models has led the educational decision-makers to create pedagogical applications based on the learning paradigm as opposed to the teaching paradigm. This change puts students at the heart of their own learning. Activity 6 covers this aspect and is designed to have the participants reflect on their own concept of learning.

Activities 7 and 8 are centered primarily on teaching practices. The choice of teaching methods reveals the professor's vision of teaching. Activity 7 makes it possible to compare our pedagogical concepts with those of others. Moreover, since the knowledge taught in colleges deals with competencies, activity 8 offers an opportunity to evaluate the impact on our teaching of principles based on the nature of a competency.

The three last activities (9, 10, and 11) are more complex. Their goal is the application and integration of learning strategies and techniques supporting the construction of knowledge in the learner. They make it possible to describe learning via a problem situation, to apply a typical learning process in a lesson plan and to determine promising leads for the creation of learning activities.

Activity 1

Title	**My beliefs on learning models**
Objective	To elicit the emergence of prior knowledge on learning models.
Learning process	Stage 1: *Activation,* awakening of cognitive and emotional acquisitions relative to the development of knowledge.
Description	To produce a teaching poster depicting the personal knowledge of the participants. Prior knowledge is knowledge that the students already have on a subject, before the start of the new activity or project. This knowledge can be right, partially correct, and erroneous. Spontaneous ideas can also reflect prior knowledge. The activation of prior knowledge is an important stage. The professor brings about the emergence of the students' prior knowledge through activities that support the acquisition of new knowledge.
Unfolding	1. Individually, participants write down what they know about learning models and teaching approaches. 2. In teams of four, participants then use these individual notes to create a poster depicting the participants' beliefs and knowledge on a specific subject. Limit of one poster per team. 3. The posters are posted on the walls of the meeting room. 4. The participants of all teams circulate to see the content of other posters. 5. Pooling and creation of a collective poster to depict the spontaneous ideas of participants.
Role of moderator	▪ To foster a climate favourable to reflection. ▪ To encourage questioning. ▪ To be receptive to a wide range of answers. ▪ To display and re-use the knowledge collected when all information is pooled.
Role of participant s	▪ To express their concepts openly. ▪ To support interaction among participants. ▪ To look within and identify their own concepts relative to learning models. ▪ To establish links.
Necessary material	▪ Large sheets of approximately 60 cm x 85 cm. ▪ Colour pencils, post-its and adhesive paper
Pedagogical material	Tool 1.A: Prior knowledge Tool 1.B: Teaching is not learning

Supporting document	Document 1: The learner's concepts are the starting point for learning. "Work with to go against".
Comment	The activity ends with the production of a collective poster. A consensus on all components in the poster is not necessary. What counts is the identification and expression of participants' personal concepts.
Approximate duration	Minimum 2 hours

Activity 2

Title	**The concept of a diagram**
Objective	To learn how to make a diagram or schema of a concept.
Learning process	Stage 3: *Organization,* clear and correct structuring of knowledge.
Description	To produce a diagram or a graphic representation. Graphic representations are visual models of verbal statements. They help the learner understand, summarize, and synthesize complex ideas. A fundamental rule underlying the construction of graphic models is that the structure of the model should reflect the structure of the text it represents. A good graphic model can show at a glance the key parts of the unit and their relationships and thus enable a global comprehension that words alone cannot convey. This activity makes it possible to acquire the procedures necessary to create a graphic representation.
Unfolding	1. In the following paragraph, select two general abstract concepts and two specific concepts. Underline them. *"All that is alive needs energy. Plants and animals use energy for their vital activities. Certain vital activities common to plants and animals are growth, reproduction, breathing, and the transport of materials. Only green plants produce food. Animals cannot produce their own food; thus they need to displace themselves to find their food."* 2. On a sheet of paper, each individual writes these four concepts in separate rectangles, placing the more general and abstract concepts at the top of the page and the specific statements at the bottom. Separate the concepts so that you can trace lines of relationships between them and write them on the paper. You might want to assign the same rank to certain concepts by placing them on the same horizontal level. 3. Draw the lines to show relationships between the concepts and write what connects the concepts to each other. This stage is crucial and can involve a rearrangement of the concepts. The relationships are usually expressed by verbs and are read from top to bottom, to show their hierarchical structure. Try to establish the most links possible, but do not cross the lines of relationships already in place. 4. Compare your diagram with that of a partner and discuss the differences. Make sure that the most abstract, general and important concepts are placed at the top, and that the more concrete and vivid concepts are placed at the bottom of the sheet. 5. Now, go back to the first stage, underline four other concepts,

	and repeat steps 2 and 3. 6. Presentation of some diagrams in front of the group of participants, then discussion on the schema presented by the moderator. 7. Discussion in groups on the usefulness, the relevance, and the procedures involved in producing diagrams of concepts.
Role of moderator	▪ To model the strategy of concept organization ▪ To provide examples of concept organization ▪ To help participants develop graphic representations with particular attention to the creative process.
Role of participants	▪ To engage actively in the process of concept organization. ▪ To become aware of the usefulness of the organization strategy. ▪ To engage actively in the completion of the activity. ▪ To account for the use of their own personal strategy.
Pedagogical material	Tool 2: Schema of a concept
Supporting document	Document 23: The schematization of concepts: A tool for developing conceptual skills in college.
Approximate duration	Minimum 2 hours

Activity 3

Title	**Various learning models**
Objectives	1. To experiment using an organizational model for knowledge. 2. To establish links with personal prior knowledge. 3. To sketch a global portrait of the subject to be mastered.
Learning process	Stage 3: *Organization,* correct structuring of knowledge.
Description	To produce a diagram of concepts on the various models. Organizing knowledge in memory makes it possible to get a better mental representation of old and new knowledge that, consequently, increases recall ability. The selection of information requires that participants distinguish relevant information from superfluous and irrelevant information. Thus, they can add this new knowledge to their initial organizational structure, establish links with their prior knowledge, and reach a global overview of the learning models to be mastered.
Unfolding	1. Discussion of the spontaneous concepts of the participants. 2. In teams of three or four, produce a schema of concepts on the four learning models: behaviorism, cognitivism, constructivism, and socioconstructivism. 3. Display the schema on an index card. 4. When the information is pooled, each team presents its own index card. 5. Discussion: What each individual retains in relation to the spontaneous concepts.
Role of moderator	▪ To provide diversified tools for organizing knowledge. ▪ To plan specific moments for organizing knowledge throughout the project. ▪ To model strategies regarding knowledge organization.
Role of participants	▪ To engage actively in the process of knowledge organization. ▪ To become aware of the usefulness of the various organizational strategies. ▪ To choose an organizational strategy relevant to the context in which it is used.

Pedagogical material	Tool 2: The schema of concepts Tool 3. A: The behavioural concept Tool 3. B: Cognitivism Tool 3. C: Historico-cultural or sociohistoric approach (Vygotsky) Tool 3. D: Constructivism Tool 3. E: Socioconstructivism Tool 3. F: Distinctions between three approaches: cognitivism, constructivism and socioconstructivism
Comment	The level of difficulty of this activity is relatively high for participants who are not already aware of the various learning models. The important thing is to characterize each model and to recognize what applies to it particularly. Precise information is not the goal here.
Approximate duration	The duration varies according to the degree of complexity. However, three hours are usually set aside for this activity. It is advisable to request that the texts be read prior to their study in teams.

Activity 4

Title	**Principles relative to learning models**[2]
Objectives	▪ To classify the principles as belonging to behaviorism or constructivism. ▪ To identify the principles relative to these models that support professional practices.
Learning process	Stage 3: *Organization*, the structuring of knowledge by the learner.
Description	As we acquire experience, we develop our own intervention models with different groups. A difficulty experienced in some situations and with specific groups or within an innovative teaching approach can lead to a reflection on the foundations of our teaching practices, i.e. their essence. The goal of this activity is to become aware of the principles guiding our practice while making it possible to distinguish the principles put forth by behaviorism from those inherent to constructivism, and socioconstructivism.
Unfolding	1. Orally reply to the questions and write down the answers: 1.1 What is behaviorism? 1.2 What is constructivism? 1.3 What is socioconstructivism? The answers are used to review the activity. 2 Participants rate a series of statements (tool 3.A), indicating the concepts of teaching and learning that best describe participating professors (1: Statement that does not describe their concept at all and 5: Statement that describes their concept perfectly). 3 Produce a synthesis of the answers given by the group. The moderator can use this opportunity to clarify the statements used in the activity and highlight different and opposing interpretations. 4 To determine which statements best describe behaviorism and constructivism respectively. Here again, care should be taken to ensure that erroneous interpretations are discussed so that the members of the group can reach agreement on them, i.e. by confronting them to widely recognized interpretations in literature so as to make the appropriate adjustments. (Use Tool 3.B) How have your definitions of behaviorism and constructivism evolved? (See stage 1 above)
Role of moderator	▪ To foster a climate where participants feel at ease to express themselves. ▪ To facilitate exchanges and discussion.

[2] Adaptation of Lafortune, 2001: 71-77

	▪ To outline the most recognized interpretations on the principles and professional practices of the learning models presented.
Role of participant s	▪ To freely express their concepts. ▪ To actively participate in group discussions to confront and validate their own concepts.
Teaching material	Tool 4.A: Guiding principles for teaching practices Tool 4.B: Synthesis of principles and professional actions within the behaviorist and constructivist movements
Supporting documentation	Tool 3. B: Cognitivism Tool 3. C: Historico-cultural or sociohistoric approach (Vygotsky) Tool 3. D: Constructivism Tool 3. E: Socioconstructivism Tool 3. F: Distinctions between three approaches: cognitivism, constructivism and socioconstructivism Document 14: Abstract of current theories on new approaches
Comment	This activity raises questions on the "true definition" and consequently on "truth" and "reality". Implicitly, the selected training approach brings about the experience of a constructivist principle, whereby each person builds his own reality. For this reason, it is necessary to clarify the concept of "viability" of a given construct. This viability can be tested by confronting a given structure with those of other members of the group or various authors. The supporting documentation serves as an extension of a personal reflection on the theme. Reading this documentation is a complementary activity that is not essential to carry out the activity.
Approximate duration	Three hours

Activity 5

Title	**Paradigm shift**
Objective	To recognize the significant changes present in the learning paradigm.
Learning process	Stage 2: *Elaboration,* participants establish links, more or less accurate, between what they know, what they want to learn or a phenomenon they wish to understand.
Description	Activity: To complete a comparative table. Participants establish links between what they know, what they want to learn or a phenomenon they seek to understand .This activity provides explanations for the phenomenon and makes it possible to confront the information provided by the participants on the paradigm shift The cognitive capacity called into play is "to “compare”, which makes it possible to recognize the characteristics of the teaching paradigm and the learning paradigm according to various indicators.
Unfolding	1. In teams of three or four, participants initially discuss the concept of paradigm and specify how it can facilitate a reflection on a given frame of reference for teaching. This introduction to the subject matter could also work well in a collective setting i.e. in a large group. 2. Each team is given a table (Tool 5.B) containing various information categories relative to the characteristics of the two paradigms written on cardboard cutouts (Tool 5.C). 3. The task consists of completing the table using the correct cardboards at the appropriate places. 4. We must reach consensus on the classification of the characteristics. 5. When the teams have completed the task, the moderator gives them the answer sheet containing the correct answers (Tool 5.D). 6. Pooling of information in a group to answer the following questions: What defines my professional practice? In addition, is this concentration on learning really something new for participants?
Role of moderator	• To foster a climate favourable to reflection. • To explain the instructions clearly. • To encourage questioning. •To support exchanges rather than a search for the correct answer.

Role of participants	• To identify all the knowledge they possess. • To reflect rather than confront. • To establish links.
Necessary material	Cardboard cut-outs and answer sheet
Teaching material	Tool 5.A: The paradigms of teaching and learning (useful for the moderator) Tool 5.B: Form 1: Table to be completed Characteristics of the learning paradigm versus the teaching paradigm Tool 5.C: Form 2: Cardboard cut-outs Tool 5.D: Form 3: Answer sheet
Supporting documentation	Document 11: From a teaching paradigm… to a learning paradigm Document 12: Consensus on the new learning paradigm
Approximate duration	Minimum: two hours

Activity 6

Title	**Students at the heart of their own learning**
Objectives	1. To reflect on our own concept of learning. 2. To recognize the underlying teaching principles relative to our professional practice. 3. To evaluate the impact of our own concept of learning on our teaching practices.
Learning process	*Stage 2: Elaboration,* the participant formulates explanatory assumptions on his professional practice based on his acquisitions and the experiences of other participants.
Description	Activity for reflection and construction of knowledge via interactions within the group.
Unfolding	1. Each participant completes a personal index card that provides answers to these questions: - What is learning? - What are the general pedagogical principles that guide my professional practice? 2. In teams of four or five people, participants work towards a consensus on the definition of learning. Then they compare it to the definition presented by the moderator (tool 6.A). 3. Each participant writes down the pedagogical principles that guide his professional practice. Then, using these individual answers, a list of general pedagogical principles is created using those that received approval from the majority of the participants. To this list, we add the principles presented by the moderator (tool 6.B) dealing with the teaching principles that guide participants. 4. Group discussion on the consequences of these principles on teaching. Use of the statements presented by the moderator according to two perspectives: cognitive and constructivist. (Tool 6.C). 5. Collective evaluation of the value of the exchanges in this activity.
Role of moderator	▪ To facilitate personal reflection. ▪ To create conditions that facilitate participation. ▪ To present new pedagogical material mainly by answering questions from the participants. ▪ To assist participants in clarifying their own idea of learning

	and its consequences on teaching.
Role of participants	▪ To engage actively in a personal reflection. ▪ To facilitate the interactions in the group. ▪ To seek to formulate a personal synthesis. ▪ To evaluate the learning strategies they used in the activity.
Pedagogical material	Tool 6.A: A learning concept Tool 6.B: Teaching principles that guide my practice Tool 6.C: The learner at the heart of teaching
Supporting documentation	Document 3: Learning principles Document 4: Planning the development of a competency based on a typical learning process Document 5: Application of educational principles in the implementation of study programs Document 6: Students at the center of their own learning
Approximate duration	Minimum: two hours This does not include reading the supporting documentation as an extension of the activity.

Activity 7

Title	**Visions of teaching**[3]
Objectives	1. To identify our own pedagogical practices. 2. To compare our pedagogical practices with those of others. 3. To study various teaching practices relative to the spirit of reform. 4. To compare our own pedagogical concepts with those of others.
Learning process	Stage: *Elaboration*, understanding based on our own experiences. And *Organization*: To establish links between our own pedagogical practices and our own visions of teaching.
Description	From an instruction perspective, it seems essential to question our own pedagogical practices and ideas. We often have the impression we know who we are, but our self-knowledge is not always true to reality. Our own approach is not always diversified enough to reach all types of learners. By reflecting on various pedagogical methods and by discussing them with colleagues, we recognize that some practices are beneficial and worthwhile incorporating into our own practices.
Unfolding	1. Initial individual reflection: To better understand their own pedagogical practices, participants complete tool 7.A that lists teaching methods. They initially measure the frequency of use of each method relative to their practice and those of the teaching personnel at their college. 2. To understand one's own pedagogical practices, Tool 7.B is completed individually. This tool contains a list of statements describing the actions of a person in a teaching situation. 3. Using Tool 7.B from the previous step, solicit the feedback of those whose response is different from yours. Place their initials in the signature box. The objective is to collect the greatest number of signatures and the greatest number of different signatures. This is one way of fostering a climate of security within members of the group. 4. Initiate a reflection on the different responses provided. For which statements did we find it difficult to get signatures? Which were easy? 5. Working in teams, participants identify those pedagogical practices that strongly support the

[3] Adaptation of Lafortune, 2001:91-96

	socioconstructivist approach. The use of Tool 7.C initiates a reflection on pedagogical methods and their links to teaching approaches recommended by socioconstructivism. 6. In a group discussion, stress the reasons why a specific pedagogical method seems to favour one learning model over another.
Role of moderator	▪ To pay attention to what is expressed, without being judgmental. ▪ To promote communication. ▪ To encourage personal reflection on our own pedagogical practices. ▪ To present other visions of teaching to enrich participants' construction of knowledge.
Role of participants	▪ To participate actively in exchanges with others. ▪ To engage themselves personally in metacognitive reflection.
Pedagogical material	▪ Tool 7.A: Methods of teaching: a guide to self-reflection ▪ Tool 7.B: A signature for a teaching style ▪ Tool 7.C: Methods and their connection to the socioconstructivist model
Supporting documentation	Document 15: Learning and teaching strategies Document 16: Strategic teaching measures Document 17: A frame of reference for strategic teaching Document 18: Ten fields of competency recognized as a priority in the continuing education of professors Document 20: Multiple intelligences
Comment	The supporting documentation contains additional information to complement the documentation used in the activity.
Approximate duration	Three hours. This does not include reading the supporting documentation as an extension of the activity.

Activity 8

Title	**A concept of competency**
Objectives	▪ To establish the essential characteristics of a competency. ▪ To evaluate the impact on teaching of the principles derived from the nature of a competency.
Learning process	Stage *of Elaboration*: Learners establish links between what they know, what they want to learn, and what they seek to understand.
Description	Learning in college means developing competency. The construction of knowledge benefits from a pedagogical environment characterized by a high degree of complexity. Contexts characterized by complexity require entry by competency where knowledge is subordinated to the competency itself. This activity offers an opportunity to validate our own idea of competency and identify characteristics that influence teaching. This project concludes with a discussion on the principles resulting from the nature of a competency and their impact on teaching.
Unfolding	1. Individually, participants establish the characteristics of a competency based on various definitions of a competency (Tool 8.A). Your own personal definition (Tool 8.B). 2. Pooling of personal definitions. Participants try to reach consensus on the characteristics using Tool 8.C. Producing a schema would also be extremely appropriate to illustrate the different characteristics. *3.* Individually, participants complete the form in Tool 8.D on the *principles arising from the nature of competencies and their impact on my teaching.* 4. Pooling: characterize what seems the most useful for the teaching of competencies. 5. Synthesis and evaluation of the learning.
Role of moderator	▪ To promote personal reflection. ▪ To achieve consensus. ▪ To use strategies that help structure knowledge.
Role of participants	▪ To express their own concepts freely. ▪ To commit themselves to group discussions, to compare and validate their own concepts.
Pedagogical material	▪ Tool 8.A: What are the essential characteristics of competencies as a learning objective?

	▪ Tool 8.B: What is your definition of a competency? Similarities and differences with other definitions? ▪ Tool 8.C: Characteristics of a competency ▪ Tool 8.D: Principles arising from the nature of competencies and their impact on my teaching
Supporting documentation	Document 7: Differentiating types of knowledge Document 8: Categories of knowledge Document 9: The learning of competencies within the school environment Document 10: Principles pursuant to the nature of a competency
Approximate duration	Two hours. This does not include reading the supporting documentation as an extension of the activity.

Activity 9

Title	**Learning by problem situation**
Objectives	▪ To know what problem-based learning is. ▪ To use a problem situation as an activity.
Learning process	Stage *of Application*: To use our own knowledge in the implementation of acquisitions relative to the development of our own competency.
Description	Description of the problem situation of this activity. "In the last two years, the success rate in a study program has dropped by 7%. Following an analysis by the program team, several assumptions were retained to correct the situation. One is to invest more time in new educational strategies that support better learning. As members of a special committee elected by the program team, you are charged with recommending new learning strategies, particularly problem-based learning, and to convince your colleagues of the benefits of such a pedagogical method."
Unfolding	1. Presentation of the theme: Understanding the mandate, evaluating what is at stake. 2. Personal reflection: Individuals briefly jot down their thoughts on: - What they know about the learning strategies proposed in the mandate. - What they recommend for the study of problem-based learning - The arguments they will use to convince their colleagues of the benefits of the pedagogy. 3. Division of the group in teams of 4 or 5 people 4. Drafting of common proposals: 4.1 Description of a problem situation and examples (tool 9.A). 4.2 Acquisition of instructions to solve the problem situation (Tool 9.B). 4.3 Study of the characteristics and advantages of using this learning strategy (Tool 9.C). 4.4 Study of an example of a problem situation used for this activity (Tool 9.D). 4.5 Drafting of common proposals to convince colleagues of the teaching benefits of a specific pedagogy. 5. Pooling: 5.1 Each group presents its proposals and justifies them. 5.2 Compilation of the presentations by each group.

	6. Synthesis: Group discussion to synthesize team presentations. 7. Evaluation of personal learning.
Role of moderator	▪ To facilitate the engagement of participants. ▪ To present instructions explicitly. ▪ To support interactions within teams.
Role of participants	▪ To engage actively in the activities. ▪ To carry out the tasks reserved for them. ▪ To be attentive to their own learning strategies.
Pedagogical material	Tool 9.A: A problem situation, what and why Tool 9.B: Problem situations: French at secondary level Tool 9.C: Characteristics of a problem situation Tool 9.D: Learning by problem situation
Supporting documentation	Document 19: Methodological guide for elaborating a problem situation Document 21: Problem-based learning Document 22: From theory to practice. Bank of methodological tools. The problem situation.
Approximate duration	From two to three hours. This does not include reading the supporting documentation as an extension of the activity.

Activity 10

Title	**To apply a typical learning process**
Objectives	▪ To plan a teaching sequence based on the cognitivist theory. ▪ To write a lesson plan.
Learning process	Stage *of Integration*, to support the transfer of acquisitions to increasingly new situations.
Description	To write a lesson plan based on the application of a typical learning process.
Unfolding	1. To form teams of four people. 2. To individually review the problem situation (Tool 10.A). 3. Discussion on the comprehension of the mandate. 4. To establish a work plan for the team. 5. To complete the proposed form (Tool 10.B). 6. To present this report to the group. 7. To collectively evaluate the meeting and the learning.
Role of moderator	▪ To explain the instructions clearly and clarify the task. ▪ To answer all requests for information. ▪ To facilitate interactions within the teams. ▪ To provide feedback on both the process and the product.
Role of participants	▪ To engage actively in the activity. ▪ To cooperate toward the completion of the task. ▪ To openly express their own concepts and opinions.
Pedagogical material	Tool 10.A: Problem situation: To write a lesson plan Tool 10.B: Form for lesson planning Tool 10.C: A typical learning process and sequence of interventions associated with a typical process from a cognitivist perspective.
Supporting documentation	See **Additional Resources**: Document 4.2: Practical consequences of cognitivist theories Tool 3.A: Guiding principles in professional practices Tool 3.B: Synthesis and professional practices relating to behaviorist and constructivist movements *Tool* 6.C: The learner at the heart of teaching

Comment	The completion of this activity implies the participation in prior activities. Some declarative and procedural knowledge is necessary to produce the lesson plan; participants' prior experience in lesson planning makes it possible to carry out the activity within the required period. The problem situation allows for complete flexibility as to the means used to solve the problem.
Approximate duration	Three hours. It is recommended that the pedagogical material be placed at the disposal of participants before the activity. This does not include reading the supporting documentation as an extension of the activity.

Activity 11

Title	**Promising leads to the creation of learning activities**
Objectives	1. To recognize the pedagogical principles present in our own practices. 2. To compare our pedagogical practices with those of others. 3. To identify improvements to our own professional practice.
Learning process	Stage *of Elaborations*: To understand based on our own experience. And *Organization*: To establish links between our own practices and pedagogical principles.
Description	Within an educational perspective, it seems essential to occasionally stop and take stock of the underlying principles that guide our pedagogical practices. Initially, participants identify possible paths leading to the creation of learning tasks. In the second part of the activity, participants reflect on conditions favourable to learning. By reflecting on various pedagogical principles and by discussing these with colleagues, we can realize that some practices seem highly beneficial and thus, we may wish to incorporate them into out own practices.
Unfolding	1. Period of initial reflection: To better define our own pedagogical practices. Individually, each participant identifies the principles that guide the creation of learning tasks. 2. Pooling of personal reflections. 3. Use of Tool 11.A, and work in teams: 3.1 The pedagogical principles are presented one by one. 3.2 Discussion on the comprehension of the principle. 3.3 Participants share their personal experience as to the integration of each principle in their professional practice. 3.4 Possible paths for taking action are identified to improve our own practice. 4. In the second part, discussions continue on conditions favourable to learning, using Tool 11.B. 4.1 The favourable conditions are presented one by one. 4.2 The understanding of each condition is discussed. 4.3 Each participant shares his personal experience as to the integration of each condition in his practice. 4.4 Possible leads for taking action are identified to improve

	our own practice. 5. Pooling of information and discussion of the question: “I am teaching, but are they learning?” 6. Evaluation of the learning.
Role of moderator	▪ To support communication. ▪ To encourage a personal reflection on our own pedagogical practices. ▪ To present the principles and conditions favourable to learning for the benefit of all participants.
Role of participants	▪ To take an active part in the exchanges between participants. ▪ To engage themselves personally in a metacognitive reflection.
Pedagogical material	▪ Tool 11.A: Five ways to create learning activities for students ▪ Tool 11.B: Five conditions conducive to learning
Supporting documentation	Document 3: Learning principles Document 5: Educational principles behind the implementation of study programs
Approximate duration	Approximately two hours

Section III
Support tools

Support tools are necessary for carrying out the sensitization activities. They help define the unfolding of the activity, provide instructions for completing it, and introduce documents and texts that help moderate the various activities.

Different support tools correspond to different sensitization activities.

For example:

- For Activity 1, use: Support tool 1.A and 1.B
- For Activity 2, use: Support tool 2
- Etc.

Support tool 1.A
Prior knowledge

Presentation

In *Le Bourgeois Gentilhomme* by French playwright Molière, a 'nouveau riche' named Jordan, aspires to be part of the aristocracy. Along the way, however, he makes an important discovery: "I am prosaic. I have always been prosaic. I have been prosaic all my life". This sudden self-awareness highlights the fact that our actions are not always guided by a conscious understanding of their meaning. This is why professors often adopt a specific teaching approach and/or method without necessarily knowing on which theory it is based or to which frame of reference it may relate. Intuition, past successes and observation play an important role in the behaviour of professors; in fact, these elements often become the dictates of their professional practice.

The fact that a teaching practice can be linked to a theory without being guided by it, underscores the complexity of the relationship between theory and practice. It seems that the more a theory is general in scope, the easier it is to apply directly or indirectly to practice. An expert rarely restricts himself to one teaching and learning approach and usually chooses methods that do not have a direct connection to any single theory of learning. Several even adopt teaching formulas that encompass several learning models.

Before presenting current learning models, let us examine the knowledge that teachers may have on these models.

"Many teachers in training believe that the concept of prior knowledge means knowledge acquired during preceding courses. This reflects an incomplete comprehension of the knowledge base that anchors learning. Astolfi (1992) states "that before any teaching occurs, it is vital to identify what learning model the student already possesses, and if this model coincides with the new one." Research has shown that a learning model is forged through experience, imagination, feelings, information, etc., and, it can be partially accurate, completely accurate, or erroneous. This is what we refer to when we say that the construction of personal knowledge rests on the prior knowledge of the learner."[4]

The personal construction of knowledge rests primarily on the prior knowledge acquired by the learner. Prior knowledge acts as a filter in the processing of data and in determining the degree of credibility given to the new information. This filter can also transform knowledge into something that will be stored until the summative evaluation, after which it will become inoperative or completely discarded. Recognition of prior knowledge provides advantages on the emotional plane: this recognition helps provide an objective view of our evolving competencies; it can help us avoid the negative energy that results from thinking the new learning is "just more of the same".

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[4] Tardif, Jacques, *Intégrer les nouvelles technologies de l'information*, ESF éditeur. p.44, 1998

Instructions for carrying out the activity

1. General presentation using the preceding text.
2. Individual reading to stimulate reflection. Suggested reading “Teaching is not learning" (Support tool 1.B). This text could also be used as a synthesis at the end of the learning activity; it is up to the discretion of the moderator.
3. Individually, participants identify what they know about learning models and educational approaches (duration: 15 minutes).
   3.1. To stimulate reflection, participants think back on all the choices that have guided their teaching practices; on learning theories they are familiar with; the beliefs that are the basis of their professional practice; the learning principles that guide their choice of learning activities; and, finally, which teaching formulas they favour.
4. Teams of three or four people are formed. Discussion, exchange of ideas on the results of the previous step. Using the notes taken by participants, a **pedagogical poster** is produced that itemizes the beliefs and knowledge they have of the learning models that reflect their pedagogical thinking.
   Only one poster per team.
5. All posters are displayed on the walls of the meeting room. Participants circulate to familiarize themselves with the contents of other teams’ posters.
6. Working all together, participants create a collective poster identifying the spontaneous ideas that reflect the pedagogical thinking of the group.

Support tool 1.B

Teaching is not learning

By André Giordan [5]

Students already possess concepts, albeit more or less adequate, on the questions they will be studying. The teacher must consider this and create the conditions for self-learning.

Teaching does not necessarily mean making someone learn. We have been saying this for 10 years now. It is quite the opposite. For all sorts of reasons, teaching can block learning. Worse yet, teaching can bore students, stifle their motivation, and prevent their progress. Teachers keep saying, "Students don't want to study anymore", without however looking into the reasons behind this attitude.

Our research, known as "allosteric learning", shows that people learn through what they are and from the knowledge they have already acquired. Before taking any course, learners already have tons of questions, ideas, and ways of reasoning on society, school, knowledge, the environment, and the universe. All these elements condition their approach. These concepts, as we call them, present a certain amount of stability.

The acquisition of knowledge and thought processes depends entirely on these concepts. When the schooling system does not consider this fact, these concepts remain in place and the new content goes right over the head of the students without ever entering. Contrary to popular belief, teaching is not something straightforward or easy. In any case, nothing can be learned by direct teacher-student transmission or through memorization by the student. The students themselves need to understand, learn, and mobilize the information; and no one can do it for them.

Only learners can construct their knowledge bit by bit. To do this, they must rely on their own ideas and thought processes.

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[5] Excerpt from: Giordan, André, http://www.ldes.unige.ch/ang/publi/articles/IUBS_AG_97/IUBS97.htm and http://www.ldes.unige.ch/ang/publi/articles/beyond-AG-95/beyconst.htm and http://www.ldes.unige.ch/ang/rech/th_appGB.htm http://www.ldes.unige.ch/ang/rech/i_rech.htm

However, this process can be facilitated indirectly by an allosteric environment, which is a paradox that schooling must cope with today. Schools must facilitate the conditions of self-teaching. Knowledge is only mobilized when it acquires meaning for the learner. To achieve this, teaching has an active role to play by making it possible for the learner to be confronted with challenging learning situations, information and tools (symbols, diagrams, models, concepts…) that help him think.

How can we create urgently needed conditions of self-teaching? First, we must reduce the number of hours in class where the student sits passively in front of the professor. The school must support activities of investigation, self-documentation, the confrontation of ideas, as well as the elaboration and production of work by the students themselves. The teachers are the creators of the learning conditions. Their role is to motivate the students, to guide them in the acquisition of skills, provide them with reference points or approaches, and support tools. They must also act upon the concepts of the students so they may move beyond them. It is necessary to question and discuss ideas, frames of reference, and the logic of the learners. It is out of the question for the learner to remain inert.

To define our approach we use the term allosteric learning. "Allosteric learning" is a chemical metaphor that refers to the structure and function of certain “allosteric” proteins. English and American researchers, who are very interested in the pragmatic aspects of our ideas, used the phrase 'allosteric learning model' and confirmed that we were the originators of the approach.

FOR A VERY LONG TIME NOW, one of the primary foundations of education can best be described using a statement popularised by Condillac whereby “a child is like soft wax that needs to be given shape".

REASONING "ERRORS" OR "ERRONEOUS" NOTIONS of students persist with baffling regularity, even after numerous teaching courses.

STUDENTS’ “CONCEPTIONS”

Explanations are not enough

Faced with an error based on a prior concept and not due to the simple ignorance of specific knowledge, any explanation provided by the professor is ineffective.

The professors can adopt a number of attitudes relative to the concepts the students already have. They can:

- "*do without*" as do 99% of pedagogues, by using a dogmatic or professorial approach with the class. This practice yields mediocre results;
- "*work with* " by advocating free expression;

- *" work against"* while trying to convince learners that they are mistaken and then offering the "appropriate knowledge".
  The idea that we develop throughout our allosteric learning model is that they must
- "*work with to work against* ", which is not contradictory in the present context.

To "*work with*", teachers creates a starting point by encouraging students to express their concepts and ask questions. Working in groups or with the entire class, they introduce the students to opposing concepts. This confrontation leads the students to take a step back, elaborate on their concepts or debate them and sometimes reformulate them.

These developments can be completed and enriched by means of investigations. Students are encouraged to observe, experiment when the contents allow it, investigate, or do mediation work on documents (books, articles, videos and eventually, films).
To "work with" prior concepts goes against traditional practices. Here, teaching begins with the learner and avoids any conditioning. Students try to go beyond their concepts by searching and debating. This pedagogy is very useful for initiation into a field and works as efficiently with young children as with adults.

Using conceptions

This practice restores and stimulates curiosity, reinforces self-confidence, develops communication and encourages learners to identify objectives they want to reach, according to their own interests. It even constitutes an essential stage in ridding oneself of inhibitions. It also plays an interesting role in situations that call for sharing experiences or confronting different viewpoints. However, this approach quickly shows its limitations. It does not bring about a surpassing of prior concepts. The acquisition of new basic concepts or new ways of thinking is seldom possible. This is because this approach assumes continuity between familiar knowledge and concepts and that a subject can pass from one to the other without any cuts or ruptures.

To learn does not only mean to enrich our concepts. Many obstacles hinder this enrichment. In order to go beyond concepts after they have been identified as the underlying cause of various obstacles, some authors eliminate them or "*go against*" them. Philosopher Gaston Bachelard had this to say on the subject: "It is not a question of acquiring culture but of changing culture, of overcoming obstacles accumulated in everyday life". To him, a "corrective" education approach seems more appropriate.

A question immediately comes to mind: Can we "destroy" a prior concept by providing a correct answer? It seems logical that having located an error, teachers will try to correct it while stressing the points they feel are problematic. We have all done this. However, after several attempts and ensuing evaluations, we conclude that it has all been in vain.

When an error corresponds to an underlying concept and is not the mere ignorance of some specific knowledge, it is utopian to believe that an explanation provided by a professor (regardless of how accurate) will systematically solve the problem. Teachers

continue to find this surprising because, according to them, their comments appear coherent, simple to understand and clearly well adapted. For instance, when the teaching is completed in a course on the structure of the digestive system, what really remains? Faced with poor results, Migne, an educator from Nancy, proposed a more detailed explanation. He went back to Bachelard's idea that "the transition from mental representation to concept can be achieved only with the elimination of subjective elements". Then he added an element that he felt, made it possible to solve the enigma: he stated that we must allow for the "emergence of representations" so that "exact knowledge" can be provided by the learner; thus allowing us to "to point out the errors in the original representation, and identify why they exist".

We tested this procedure with several subjects and in classrooms at different levels (from primary to finishing schools and in adult education). The results were very disappointing. This procedure may interest trainers who want to develop critical thinking, but it proved ineffective for the development of better-constructed knowledge.

The idea "of dismantling original concepts" to better destroy them and then in the final act provide the "true knowledge", corresponds to the 'expert' approach. The learners remain passive and have to learn what the teacher wants them to learn. However, students have constructed their own concepts and must continue to be the principal actors in their transformation; they must decide on the best replacement concept. Our research on concepts has uncovered many obstacles. They should be approached gradually without skipping any steps. It is utopian to think that a "good accurate explanation" and our insistence on it, is sufficient to transform a concept. A person convinced against their will is of the same opinion still.

This does not mean that professors should avoid using learning models. They must simply remember that a message can only be understood directly by students when they ask themselves the same question and use the same frame of reference.

Obstacles to the evolution of concepts

There are many obstacles to the evolution of concepts in learners. The main ones are:

1. Learners lack information.
2. Learners do not want to change their concepts.
3. Learners do not relate to the problem situation.
4. The questions learners ask are not the same as those raised by the teacher.
5. Learners do not ask questions because they believe they already possess the knowledge.
6. Learners think they understand or have sufficient grasp of some "words" to think they understand.
7. Learners possess knowledge that has proven effective in other situations; they are therefore satisfied and do not seek to go beyond this knowledge.

8. Learners have preconceived ideas that hinder their perception of the reality of the phenomenon and their integration of new information that goes against these ideas.
9. The learner does not have the support tools necessary for integration (cognitive capacities, strategies, peripheral knowledge) to understand what is being presented.

To validate these obstacles, ask your students to visualize the operations of a water treatment plant, a windmill… Ask them to provide as much detailed information as possible.

Ask questions (written or oral) on daily occurrences in the student's life: What happens to waste that we put in garbage pails? Who decides when and how a road will be built?

Support tool 2
The diagram of a concept

General presentation

Nature of a concept[6]

What is a concept? The dictionary defines concept as "a general mental learning model abstracted from an object". For the purposes of this discussion, let us extend the definition to include a consistency among objects or events that creates a meaningful entity. Thus, the concept of sound includes all that we have heard, read, and experienced about sound. In an adult, the concept of sound is more detailed, complete, and varied than in a newborn who has only heard hospital sounds. Humans invent concepts during childhood that are later expressed in a language that unifies thinking and facilitates communication. We create conceptual categories by grouping ideas that resemble each other. In a child for example, the idea of "dog" evolves from family pet to part of a whole race"; seeing ten different breeds of dogs in the neighbourhood facilitates this recognition.

We build hierarchical structures of concepts as soon as we start to understand the relationship between them. We learn that *animal* is a concept that contains fish, insects, reptiles, amphibians, mammals, and birds (in the game 20 questions, we ask, "Is it animal, mineral, or vegetable?"). It is the hierarchical structure accepted by our culture and we learn it very early in school.

Concepts can be concrete, i.e., connected to a physical object such as a table, an ice cube, a tree; or abstract, i.e., art, harmony and beauty. Generally, the most abstract concepts like evolution, life, personality, and health occupy the top levels in a hierarchy of concepts. For example, energy is considered the highest concept of all in science; it governs all scientific relationships.

A conceptual diagram

To which reality does a conceptual diagram correspond? The diagram refers to an organic schema that tries to represent the conceptual structure of one or more knowledge modules in a specific study domain. Traditionally, knowledge was visualized as sequential, like a storybook, as a list written on a blackboard or projected on screen using an overhead projector and acetates. For example, a table of contents is a one-dimensional list, which does not show the organic links connecting the ideas and the subjects to each other. Conversely, a diagram constitutes a two-dimensional schema including both the concepts and the relationships between them. The relationships are visualized using words written on the lines that connect them. The diagram in Figure 13-1 is the result of work done by a fourth year co-ed student in science of education within the framework of a planning exercise for teaching a subject to a grade four class at elementary level. She

[6] Translated from HENEMAND, Jacques, GAGNON, Dolorès, *Devenir enseignant*, tome2 : *D'une expérience de survie à la maîtrise d'une pratique professionnelle*, éditions Logiques, Montréal, chapter 13

used a rather unorthodox approach to the subject matter. We may not agree with her method of establishing relationships between concepts or some of her ideas, but this first version helped to create a more precise image of the subject that would be presented to the students. Figure 13-2 is a revised version of these ideas, presented in a more appropriate manner.

Figure 13.1
Initial outline of a conceptual diagram

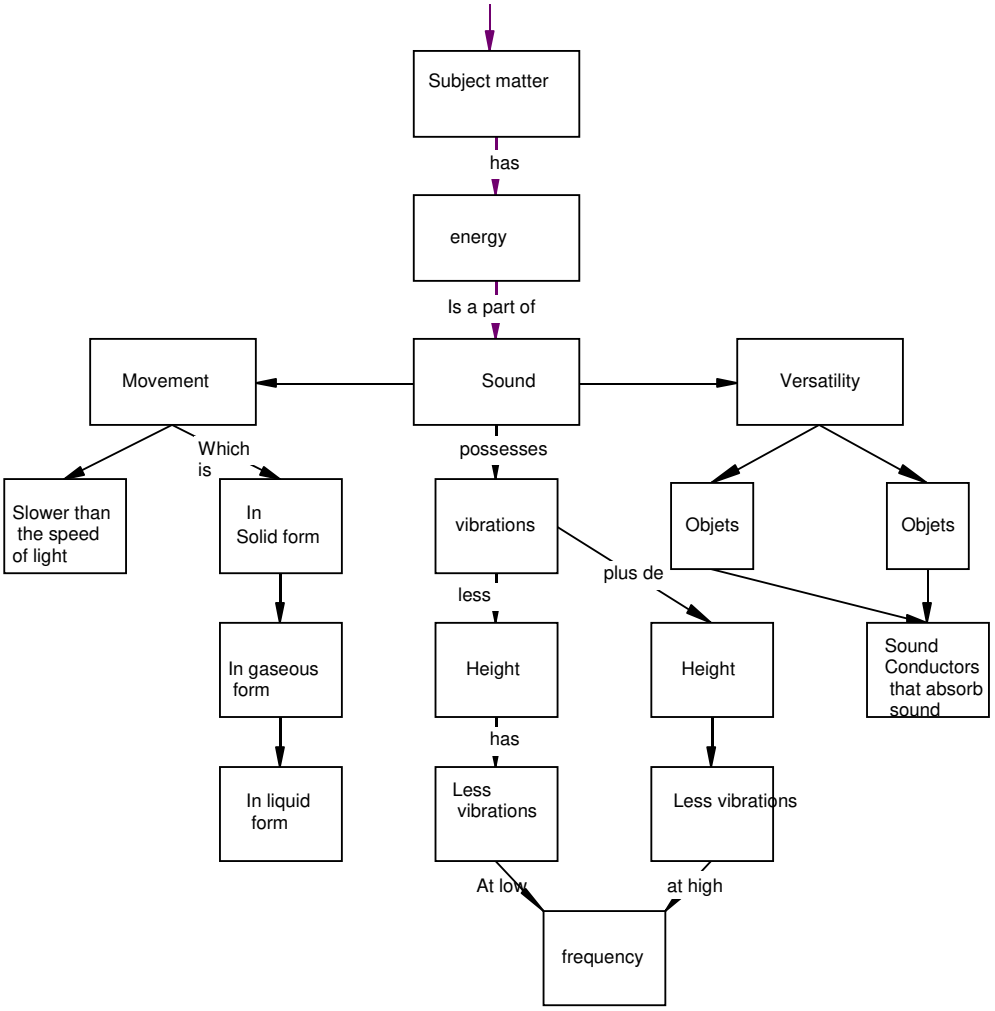
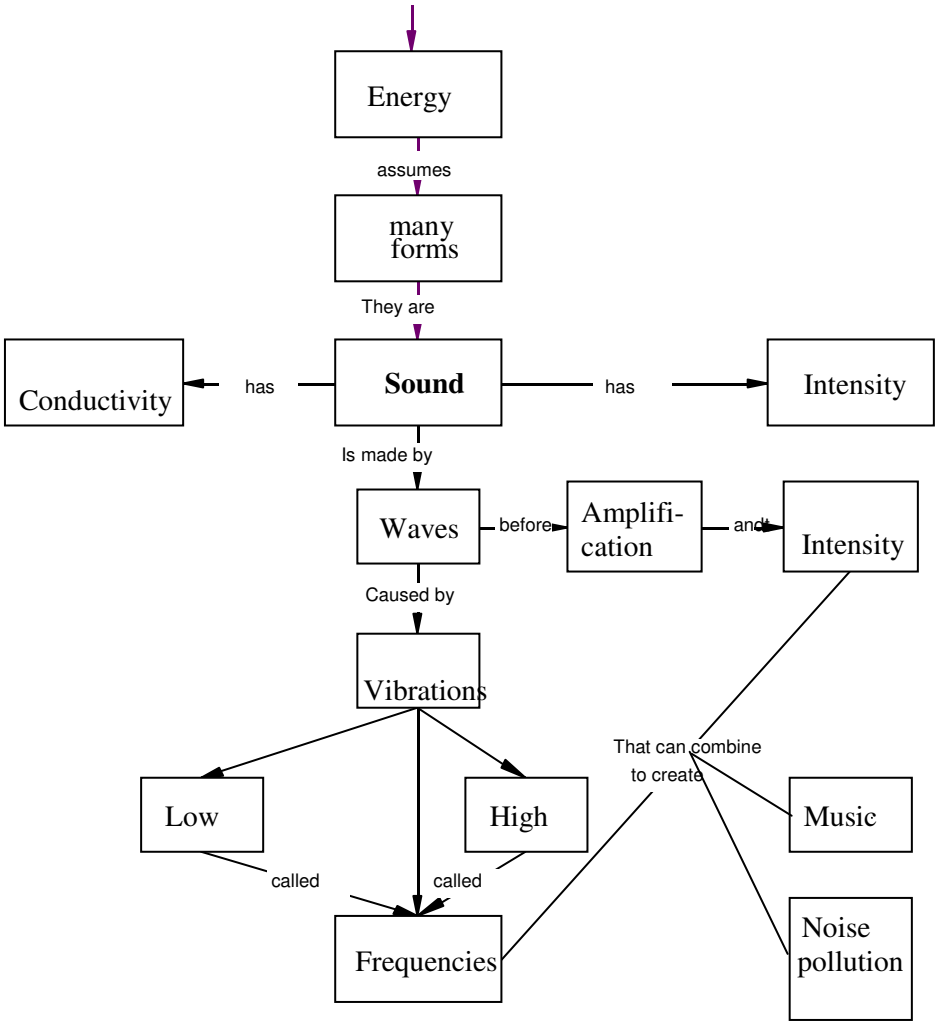


Figure 13.2
Revised diagram of a concept



Production stages of a conceptual diagram

1. Produce a diagram of the concept provided below.
   In the following paragraph, select two general abstract concepts and two specific concepts. Underline them.

   > *"Everything that lives needs energy. Plants and animals require energy for their vital needs. Certain vital needs common to plants and animals are growth, reproduction, breathing, and the transport of materials. Only green plants produce food. Animals cannot produce their own food; therefore they need to search to find their food."*

2. On a sheet of paper, insert each of these four concepts into a rectangle, placing the most general and abstract concepts at the top of the page and the most specific ones at the bottom. Separate the concepts so that you can add connecting lines to show a relationship and include descriptors for the lines. You may want to assign a similar rank to concepts by placing them at the same horizontal level.

3. Draw the connecting lines between the rectangles and add a descriptor for what links them. This stage is crucial and can include the rearrangement of the concepts. The relationships are usually expressed by verbs and are read from top to bottom, to respect their hierarchical structure. Try to establish the greatest number of links possible, but do not cross the lines of already established connections.

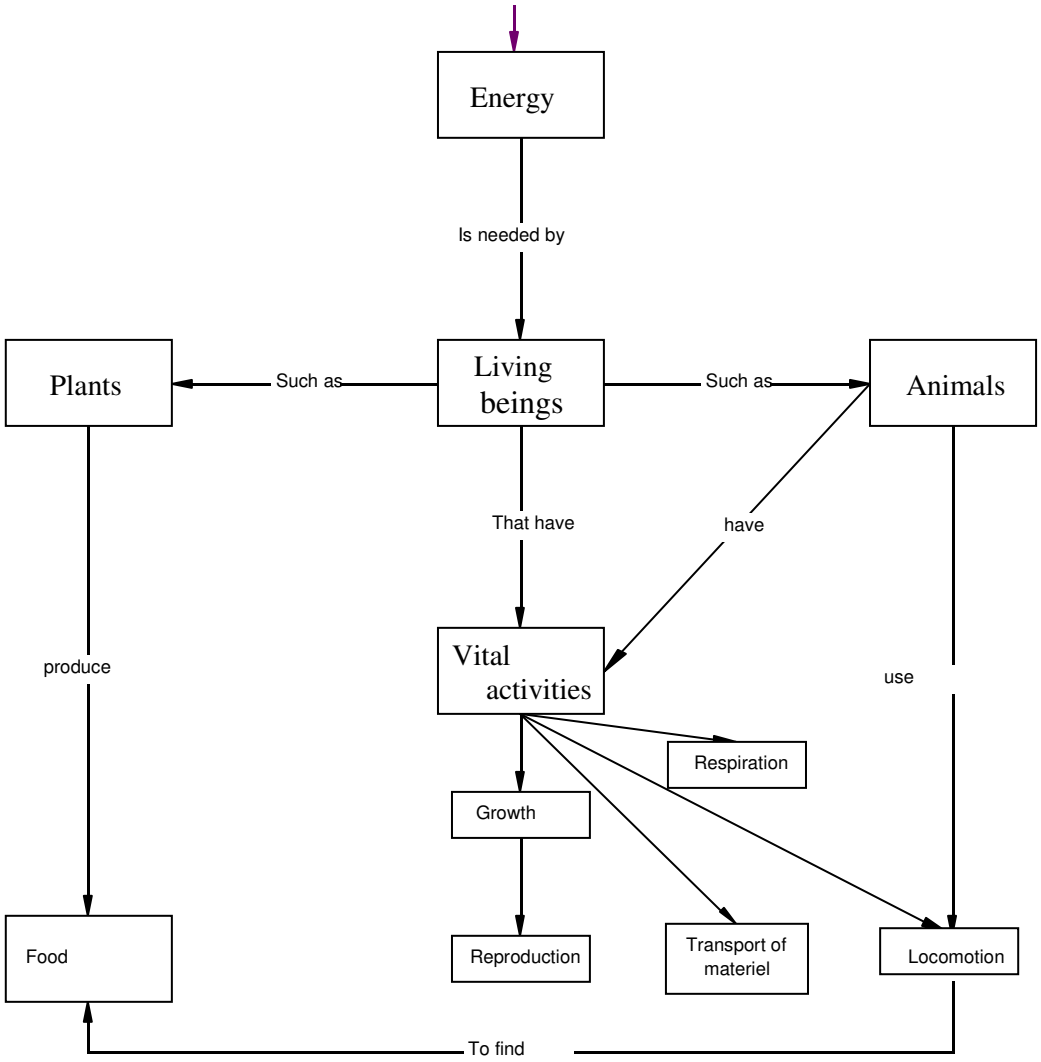
4. Compare your diagram to that of participants and discuss what distinguishes them. Make sure that the most important general abstract concepts are at the top, and the concrete situations and illustrations are at the bottom of the sheet.

5. Now, return to the initial paragraph, underline four additional concepts, and repeat steps 2 and 3.

6. Presentation of some of the diagrams to the participants, followed by a discussion on the diagram presented by the moderator (see next page).

7. Group discussion on the use, relevance, and procedures to create conceptual diagrams.

Figure 13.3
Sample diagram of a concept



Support tool 3.A
The behaviourist concept

Behaviourism [7] considers learning to be a long-lasting change in *behaviour* that results from specific instruction. The mechanism of acquisition is based on *conditioning,* a theory whereby learning consists in establishing a stable relationship between the desired response and a s*timulus* from the environment, using positive and negative *reinforcement.* Motivation, repetition, and positive reinforcement of the correct response are the essential ingredients to learning. To obtain the desired behaviour, the learning task is divided into units of behaviour and *a reinforcement program* is designed to direct the action towards the target stimuli (*discriminative learning*). Repetition then makes it possible to ensure the stimulus-response association.

Behaviourism focuses intently on the length of time between student response and the reinforcement given by the professor. Many experimental studies show that the shorter the interval, the better the final *performance*. For example, a three-week delay in returning copies does not encourage students to change their behaviour. In current teaching practices, this idea is translated into "real time" evaluations based on the following scenario: presentation of the concept, training exercise, evaluation of what the students learned so as to adapt the next lesson to the results obtained. One of the consequences of this type of practice is the disappearance of "lengthy writing projects" in and outside of the classroom.

The *behaviourist* theories found a home in programmed instruction that targets *error free learning* through a gradual progression of behavioural units. *Teaching machines* (ancestors of computers) proposed by Skinner were built to provide reinforcements adapted to each student. They would ensure the *individualized instruction* that the teacher could not.

For behaviourists, learning is the result of teaching that provides forms adapted to the students' needs. Teaching must develop into a system of education that is "almost without error". (2). The quality of teaching consists in providing students with stimulating cases, adapted reinforcements, corrective feedback in the form of *formative evaluations*. The latter consists of putting into place an instruction program that ensures that all students achieve the objectives. Thus, behaviourism provides teaching with support tools like *mastery learning* and *formative evaluation* to ensure the student is learning. Learning is defined as the time needed to reach a precise objective for a given level of mastery (for example, the cyclic organization at elementary level). The temporal variable is essential in learning. For example, many experimental studies have shown that instruction *distributed* over time produces better learning than tightly massed instruction (for example, courses that are grouped). From a teaching viewpoint, the essential reference point is the tutor since only the tutor can individualize the learning path and take into account the needs of each student.

Taken from AMIGUES, René, Enseignement-apprentissage,
http://www.aix-mrs.iufm.fr/services/communication/publications/vocabulaire/n1/roux/index.html

Support tool 3.B
Cognitivism

The cognitive approach originated in cognitive psychology and was largely influenced by theories in data processing. This took place during the late 70's and has now become known as cognitive science.

Cognitive psychology seeks to answer questions relating to the nature of knowledge, its components, origin, and development. "On one hand, it is concerned by the learning strategies of the student, gradual construction of knowledge in memory and conditions for recalling knowledge. In addition, it is preoccupied by research on teaching strategies most apt to support gradual construction of knowledge in students, based on their affective, cognitive, and metacognitive state, and relative to the inherent logic of the learning task. Knowledge stored by students in long-term memory is not just a photocopy of the information given to them externally by the teacher, but a construction built on prior knowledge already stored there, to which they are now assimilating new information. This construction process causes the student to make a selection among the whole, to do some editing."(Tardif, 1992: 28)

Discoveries about the brain and learning have altered our concepts of learning and teaching. They challenge our professional roles and actions and force us to take a fresh new look at those who are learning.

Table 1 below introduces concepts of cognitive psychology on a few of the dimensions involved in teaching/learning.

Conceptions of cognitive psychology

Conception of learning	• Learning occurs through the gradual construction of knowledge. • Learning occurs through the interaction between prior knowledge and new information. • Learning occurs when knowledge is structured. • Learning occurs with complete tasks.
Conception of the Student	• The student is active. • The student acts in a constructive manner.
Conception of teaching	• Creation of an environment starting from student's prior knowledge. • Creation of an environment centered on cognitive and metacognitive strategies. • Creation of an environment with complete and complex tasks.
Conception of the teacher's role	• The teacher intervenes frequently. • The teacher is an instructor. • The teacher is a mediator between knowledge and the student.
Conception on evaluation	• Evaluation is frequent. • Evaluation relates to knowledge as well as to cognitive and metacognitive strategies. • Evaluation is often formative, sometimes summative. • Feedback focuses on the strategy being used. • Feedback focuses on the construction of knowledge.

Pôle de l'Est (1996)

From *the cognitive* perspective, the learner's prior knowledge takes precedence over the new data, and the first knowledge that students confront is their own prior knowledge. This knowledge is processed initially, while they try to give meaning to the new information in front of them.

Learning is *a process*: Knowledge is integrated during a succession of activities carried out by the learner to acquire knowledge and *a product*: a modification of the structure of the learner's knowledge.

What characterizes cognitive psychology is that it compares learning, the act of acquiring and using knowledge, to a data processing system.

Teaching and learning involve distinct approaches to data processing for the teacher and the student. Also, from a cognitive standpoint, whereas the teacher processes data related to the contents of the domain of study and classroom management as well as the emotional and cognitive components of the student, the student processes emotional, cognitive and metacognitive information.

"The student processes emotional data which often comes from previous school experiences and is now activated by the learning task at hand. This information relates to recognition of the goals sought by teachers, the value they assign to the learning task and their perception of the level of control over their success. Students also process cognitive data. To ensure comprehension, they combine the information provided by the teacher and their own prior knowledge and actively construct new knowledge. By processing cognitive data, they choose the strategies that offer the highest probability of learning to carry out the learning task adequately and to master the learning. They plan the stages needed to achieve the task. At a third level of operation, the student processes metacognitive data[8]"(Tardif, 1992: 27)

[8] Me*tacognition* refers to knowledge and the control exerted on oneself and one's own cognitive processes. It deals with a capacity to manage one's comprehension and emotional capacities relative to attentiveness, stress and level of involvement in the achievement of a task.

Support tool 3.C

Historico-cultural or sociohistoric approach (Vygotsky)

The historico-cultural approach[9] suggested by Vygotsky is the only theoretical movement whose objective was not the study of the relationship between teaching and the development of intelligence through "instrumental" rationality. The main idea could be summed up this way: *teaching* is a process of cultural transmission which generates *the development* of mental abilities, not yet controlled by the students, who build it through the *learning* of specific tools that constitute human works (literary, scientific, artistic…), the cultural transmission of which is largely devolved to schools.

.

According to Vygotsky, skills that are taught ("scientific concepts") are different from familiar ideas ("daily concepts") built through practical experience. The former are products of human activity, "creative works" – literary, scientific, artistic… - socially elaborate, historically dated, and culturally transmitted in schools. The question is not to oppose these two concepts but rather focus on what differs in their modes of transmission and acquisition.

The school delivers grouped instruction (language, math, biology…) and "written" instruction using a variety of writings (texts, symbols, plans, charts, tables…). However, this engenders at once a particular difficulty and a change in the student's relationship with the world. To know the world, students do not act directly on the physical reality that surrounds them but rather through the learning models of the world, they have built to understand it. Their relationship to time and space for instance, cannot be conceived independently of the support tools used to appreciate it (egg timer, calendar, watch, metric system…). The school delivers "learning tools" so the child may *mediate* with the world, others and himself.

The thesis Vygotsky puts forth is that the human psyche has a social nature and that intellectual functions develop by using these "tools" or "systems of signs", with language at the top of the list. This historico-cultural approach (or sociohistoric, as per the authors) differs from behaviourist reductionism, "immediacy", and "pragmatism". It also differs from Piaget's constructivism of which it rejects the "internalized" explanations. The cultural transmission occurring in schools is the source of both intellectual education and socialization. In order to explain in detail this process, the sociohistoric approach studies semiotic activities and the *processes of mediation* in *teaching-learning* situations.

The transfer of skills in school differs from current social practices (family, on-the-job training). This is why school cases are described as "artificial" versus "natural" cases. As a result, social relations must be reconsidered from the standpoint of formal education. B. Lahire speaks about "pedagogization of social relations", to indicate not only the asymmetrical relationship between the professor and the student but also the didactic

[9] Taken from AMIGUES, René, Enseignement-apprentissage, http://www.aix-mrs.iufm.fr/services/communication/publications/vocabulaire/n1/roux/index.html

dialogue, which differs from the more familiar linguistic forms. This framework of exchange is also a way of thinking about our *relationship with knowledge* and others. It is within this framework that the professor and the students interact as part of a collective work group or *classroom-group.*

Teachers must create an educational environment suitable for the group of students. They not only manage the symbolic and technological environment for the construction of a collective answer, they create the conditions for a didactic dialogue: Professor/ collective, clarifications, confrontations between student viewpoints, reformulation, and rewriting of prior knowledge, etc. The *didactic dialogue* is the discursive development which enables reflective work on actions, critical analysis, distancing and awareness of the reasons why we act one way and not another. A teaching technique that prepares students to study a specific subject matter and engages them in a participatory process.

The teaching process situates learning in a temporal context, which means that the processing of current knowledge is linked to its past but it must also have a relationship with what its future. In other words, progression at school assumes a permanent transformation of memory into active thought, the progressive construction of support tools for control and mobilization that Vygotsky calls *higher psychological functions* (language, memory, attention, will, verbal thought…). By using case studies spread over time, the professor is constrained "to manage" both the "continuity" of learning and its "dismantling" to motivate students to go beyond their capabilities. This in turn leads to the *zone of proximal development*.

This paradox of continuity/dismantling is characteristic of the transmission-acquisition process that transforms action-related constraints into cognitive resources used by the *classroom-group*. For example, in the classroom students construct a rational answer (and explain their actions relative to a semiotic system (grammar, algebra…) validated by someone other than themselves (society, "official" grammar, the algebra taught…) and accepted socially by the *classroom-group*. To publicly state "how and with what" they think, students must use "tools of thought" that were developed over preceding generations. These *social meanings* are then the topic of discussion and sharing among students. The constraint "to publicize the use of social meanings" constitutes a cognitive resource for the student and the group. This is why students must initially reason with others (professor and students) before thinking for and by themselves. It is on this passage from *interpsychical* to *intrapsychical* that *socioconstructivism* has focused primarily.

Support tool 3.D
Constructivism

Constructivism[10] views learning as a process whereby knowledge is constructed by the interaction between thinking subjects and the environment in which they live and grow. It assigns a key role to the actions and operations carried out by subjects in structuring their patterns of thought. To build their knowledge, individuals use prior knowledge as their learning model to calculate and reflect upon their own actions. Prior knowledge plays the role of processor for the new knowledge. In other words, what individuals learn depends largely on what they already know.

The constructivist theory proposes a universal model (regulation systems specific to living beings) on individual development of intelligence, seen as a form of adaptation. It proposes a single directional model of autonomous intellectual development, i.e. inherent to the subject, and whose evolution is independent of the environment (cultural, educational, etc.) and even more so, teaching.

This approach has been widely reviewed in pedagogical writings and formal instruction. It provides a rationale for *active methods of education* whose pioneers (Claparède, Decroly, and Dewey) stressed the importance of the student's own actions, and education centered on discovery and motivation. In a puerocentric approach, the role of the professor consists of creating a structured and rich environment so that students discover for themselves the inconsistencies they are ready to confront and replace them with new intellectual structures.

General principles of constructivism:

a. The students construct knowledge through their own activity.
b. Intellectual development is an internal and autonomous process not very receptive to external stimuli, particularly teaching.
c. Development is universal and progresses by successive stages.
d. Students can "assimilate" new knowledge only if they possess a mental structure to receive it. In other words, it is a waste of time to want to teach students unless they are "ready" to receive the teaching. This belief generated a "wait and see policy" and prompted Vygotsky to agree with Piaget that "instruction follows development".
e. When individuals reach a certain level of logic, they can reason logically whatever the contents of knowledge.

[10] Translated from Enseignement et apprentissage, (URL) http://www.aix-mrs.iufm.fr/services/communication/publications/vocabulaire/n1/roux/index.html

These various points may well be discussed and called into question on a theoretical level, but such is not the case for formal instruction and teaching doctrines.

From a constructivist perspective, the teachers' role consists essentially in not hindering the process of internal development by not imposing a teaching program (teaching must adapt to the needs of the students). Their role is one of observation, diagnosis, and they use *formative evaluations* and *differentiated instruction*. Current practices in "teacher-mediator" thinking are a mixture of behaviourist theory and constructivist thought. It is advisable in debates to separate the results of scientific research from teaching doctrines and ministerial reforms.

These two theoretical movements essentially favour "the learner": *behaviourism* is centered on the conditions and mechanisms by which a student produces a desired answer under specific conditions; Piaget's constructivism is primarily interested in the modification of the student's internal processes. Nevertheless, both are unaware of the true conditions at school in which teacher, students, knowledge, plus the constraints of implementing and managing a didactic situation are all thrown into the works: epistemological, communication, temporal, social, etc. Overall, these two theoretical movements that inspired many reforms of the school syllabus and teaching doctrines, do not quite manage to account fully for the relationship between teaching and learning.

Support tool 3.E
Socioconstructivism[11]

Socioconstructivism subscribes to the concepts of *constructivism*[12] but adds an extra dimension, that of social interaction. We shape and create our own knowledge through interactions with others and the environment. Exchanges within the educational environment are seen as essential for the construction of knowledge. *Socioconstructivism* makes it possible to describe more accurately how learning happens in school. It takes place in a school context, through interactions with peers and the teacher.

Socio*constructivism* contains not only a *constructivist* dimension according to which subjects develop a reflective process on their own knowledge, but also a social dimension, according to which the subject learns with others. Moreover, Jonnaert and Vander Borght (1999) add an interactive dimension (called socio-interactive constructivism) that is highly interesting for teaching. This dimension involves situational learning, using specific content. These situations serve as both the source and the criteria for knowledge. They enable learning by confronting the student to certain requirements and they are the "criteria of knowledge", because this knowledge is relevant only because the student can be efficient in the situation. The three above-mentioned dimensions work together, are interdependent and in continuous dynamic interaction. It is through them that learning occurs. "Learning is a dynamic and adaptive process of construction, reflection, questioning, and development of knowledge" (Jonnaert and Vander Borght, 1999: 33)

As regards the organization of academic learning from a *socioconstructivist* approach, the role of teaching is to provide specific situations (creation of meaning) and zones of dialogue and exchange to bring about interactions that allow students to construct their knowledge. (Jonnaert and Vander Borght, 1999: 30). The value of *socioconstructivism* is to enable us to consider learning as a two-dimensional model: *personal* (cognitive and emotional) and *social.*

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[11] Raymond, 2001: 10

[12] Believers in social *constructivism* admonish *constructivists* for their "psychologizing". They claim that their sole focus on the study and analysis of the way in which knowledge is constructed within the learner, causes them to fail to see the importance of social interactions and interactions with the environment in the construction of knowledge.

Support tool 3.F

Differences in the three approaches: Cognitivism, constructivism and socioconstructivism

<table>
<tr><th></th><th>Cognitivism</th><th>Constructivism</th><th>Socioconstructivism</th></tr>
<tr><td>Nature of the process</td><td>Receptive process

Individual process of knowledge assimilation*

*there is no distinction here between having knowledge and knowing</td><td>Creative process

Individual process of construction or adaptation of knowledge**

**in this instance, knowledge and knowing are distinct</td><td>Creative process

Individual process of construction or adaptation of knowledge** which is experienced through others and in a given situation.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Teaching-Learning tandem</td><td>The primary concern is the reproduction of knowledge.</td><td colspan="2">The primary concern is the construction of knowledge</td></tr>
<tr><td>Role of the learner</td><td>Active receiver of external information that is integrated with the transformation of prior knowledge.</td><td>Creators of knowledge through their own activity and control over their prior knowledge.</td><td>Creators of knowledge through interaction with others, by manipulating their own knowledge confronted by the knowledge of others.</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="2">Activity of the learner</td><td>Knowledge is assimilated through a succession of activities carried out by the learner to acquire knowledge</td><td>The activity relates to prior knowledge as much as it does to new information.</td><td>The activity relates as much to prior knowledge as it does to new information and exchanges with others in specific environments.</td></tr>
<tr><td>The activity consists in receiving, selecting and treating external information.</td><td>Not a result of external information but rather of work started right away on constructing their knowledge as it interacts with new information.</td><td>Not a result of external information but rather of work started right away on constructing their knowledge as it interacts with new information including exchanges with others.</td></tr>
<tr><td rowspan="4">Action of knowledge</td><td>Knowledge is a system of data processing.</td><td colspan="2">Knowledge is the creation of the learner</td></tr>
<tr><td>The knowledge of the learner takes precedence over the knowledge to be learned.</td><td>The prior knowledge of the learner is as important as the new knowledge.</td><td>Prior knowledge and new knowledge are in interaction with each other and with the knowledge of others through exchanges.</td></tr>
<tr><td>The learner works initially with information coming from outside.</td><td>The learners start working straightaway with their prior knowledge</td><td>The learners start working straightaway with their prior knowledge that interacts with the knowledge of other learners and the teacher, in situations that are both the source and criteria of knowledge.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Results of the learning process</td><td>There is learning when the cognitive structures have been altered.</td><td colspan="2">Learning occurs when knowledge has been adapted and new knowledge has been created.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Social dimensions</td><td>Not generally retained, more or less treated depending on authors.</td><td>Not involved straightaway.</td><td>Applicable in the processing of new information.</td></tr>
</table>

Raymond, D., Cégep Rivière-du-Loup (2000)

Support tool 4.A

Guiding principles for teaching practices[13]

For each statement, indicate on a scale of 1 to 5, the extent to which each one describes the professors' concepts of teaching and learning.

(1: statement does not describe their concept at all, and 5, statement describes their concept perfectly)

Statement of concepts in teaching and learning	Scale 1 to 5
1. The actions of the teacher are designed to exert control over behaviour that is seen as answers provided by the learner. Changes in behaviour are attributable to experience.	
2. Learning is a personal and individual activity of the mind, an active process of construction of reality. Therefore, learners can only know what they have constructed themselves.	
3. The construction of reality depends on the social and physical context in which learning takes place, and on the interactions of the learner with this context.	
4. It is impossible to transfer our constructed reality completely but it is possible to check its level of compatibility with the reality of others. Rather than truth, it is the viability of the construction that is sought.	
5. Learning occurs when the learner gives an appropriate answer to a specific stimulus.	
6. What is learned or constructed is open to negotiation and is reliant on the meanings that emerge from interaction between the teacher and the student and between the students themselves. The social context plays a major role in validating the interpretations and constructs.	

[13] LAFORTUNE, Louise, DEAUDELIN, Colette, Accompagnement socioconstructiviste, pp. 74-75

7. Learning is influenced by prior understanding that students bring to the new learning situation. In other words, it is through their prior subjective experiences that the student can give meaning to the new learning.	
8. The focus is on individuals and their learning process. As such, the development of teaching activities should respect and support learning in the learner. Therefore, analysis must be done from beginning to end of the teaching process: For instance, identify the characteristics of the learner and specify the objectives the student will have achieved at the end of the teaching activity (observable behaviour).	
9. The student is in class to receive information provided by the teacher. This information comes from an external and objective reality. The goal of teaching is the transmission of knowledge. However, Skinner (1968) stresses that students should not passively absorb knowledge of the world in which they live. They must play an active role. They learn by experimentation with, and involvement in, a process of trial and error. It is only when these three conditions are met that we can determine what was learned and identify conditions in which the student learns.	
10. The students play a proactive role. They are the decision makers in the construction of knowledge. The goals they set for themselves will determine what the learning task will be.	
11. The experts, i.e. those who possess the knowledge, are an important factor in successful teaching.	

Support tool 4.A
Answer sheet

Statements 3 and 6 relate more closely to socioconstructivism. We can choose to specify this fact or not, depending on the level of reflective thinking of the people we are addressing.

Statement 9 is the one that generally elicits the most controversy, because the first part is seen as behaviourist and the second part as being closer to constructivism even though it is associated with Skinner. We tend to forget that behaviourism has evolved and that within this concept of learning, students must be motivated if they are to play an active role, manipulate knowledge, and participate in experiments. This does not imply the belief that students construct and are responsible for their knowledge.

Below is the list of statements. (B) indicates a behaviourist concept, and (C) is a constructivist statement. This information is not to be given to those who are completing the questionnaire.

1: B
2: C
3: C
4: C
5: B
6: C
7: C
8: B
9: B
10: C
11: B

Support tool 4.B

Synthesis of principles and professional actions within the behaviourist and constructivist movements[14]

Behaviourism	Constructivism
Principles	**Principles**
1. The actions of the teacher are designed to exert control over behaviour (active answers provided by the learner). Changes in behaviour result from experience.	1. Learning is a personal and individual activity of the mind, an active process of construction of reality. Therefore, learners can only know what they have constructed themselves.
2. Learning occurs when the learner gives an appropriate answer to a specific stimulus.	2. The construction of reality depends on the context in which learning takes place (community) and on the interactions of the learner with this context.
3. The focus is on individuals and their learning process. As such, the development of teaching activities respects and supports learning in the learner. Therefore, analysis is done from beginning to end of the teaching process: for instance, identify the characteristics of the learner and state the objectives the student will have achieved at the end of the teaching activity (observable behaviour).	3. What is learned or constructed is open to negotiation and is reliant on the meanings that emerge from interaction between the teacher and the student and between the students themselves. The social context plays a major role in validating interpretations and constructs.
4. The student is in class to receive information provided by the teacher. This information comes from an external and objective reality. The goal of teaching is the transmission of knowledge. However, Skinner (1968) stresses that students should not passively absorb knowledge of the world in which they live. They must play an active role. They learn through their use of experimentation with, and involvement in, a process of trial and error. It is only when these three conditions are met that we can determine what was learned, the conditions in which it was learned and the results that support and maintain the behaviour	4. Learning is influenced by prior understanding that the student brings to the new learning situation. In other words, it is through their prior subjective experiences that the student can give meaning to the new learning.

[14] LAFORTUNE, Louise, DEAUDELIN, Colette, *Accompagnement socioconstructiviste*, pp. 76-77

learned.	
5. The experts, i.e. those who possess the knowledge, are an important factor in successful teaching.	5. It is impossible to transfer our constructed reality completely but it is possible to check its level of compatibility with the reality of others. Rather than truth, it is the viability of the construction that is sought.
	6. Students play a proactive role. They are the decision makers in the construction of knowledge. The goals they set for themselves will determine what the learning task will be.

Synthesis of principles and professional actions within the behaviourist and constructivist movements (continued)

Behaviourism	Constructivism
Professional actions	**Professional actions**
1. The teaching approach is sequential and linear.	1. The approach to planning activities provides feedback, is nonlinear and sometimes chaotic.
2. The planning of activities is systematic from beginning to end.	2. The planning of activities is developmental, reflective, and collaborative.
3. The objectives guide the development of the process, hence the need for the teacher to recognize and determine the means of evaluation.	3. The objectives emerge during the work process.
4. The knowledge is separated into logical units of learning; the contents and portions of the content are presented sequentially.	4. The teacher uses strategies to support the construction of concepts and to challenge what has meaning for the students, for example cooperative learning, practical activities, active education, guided discovery and projects where student plan, drive and evaluate their project.
5. The teacher uses teaching methods such as the lecture and repeated practice.	5. There is interaction between the teacher and the student and between the students themselves.
6. The teacher also uses reinforcement.	6. Teachers are not positioned as experts, but rather as a personal coaches in a role of support; they ask open questions and stress the comprehension of principles more than the memorization of facts and formulas.
7. The evaluation is summative. The preferred evaluations are exams that allow for the collection of data deemed objective.	7. The evaluation is used mainly to provide feedback.

Support tool 5.A

The paradigms of teaching and learning[15]

Indicators	Learning paradigm	Teaching paradigm
Concept of learning	▪ Transformation of information and basic skills into viable and transferable knowledge ▪ Integration of knowledge in cognitive diagrams ▪ Creation of relations	▪ Memorization ▪ Accumulation of knowledge ▪ Linking of all knowledge
Activities in the classroom	▪ Centered on the student ▪ Based on projects, research and problem cases ▪ Interactive relations	▪ Centered on the teacher ▪ High frequency of exercises ▪ Didactic and vertical relations
Methods of evaluation	▪ Relative to the competencies learned ▪ Portfolios	▪ Relative to the knowledge acquired ▪ Tests requiring short answers
Evidence of success	▪ Quality of comprehension ▪ Quality of the learned competencies ▪ Quality of the knowledge constructed ▪ Transferability of the learning	▪ Quantity of information integrated ▪ Occasionally, amount of knowledge acquired
Role of the teacher	▪ Centered on support and eliminating support ▪ Sometimes a learner	▪ An expert ▪ A transmitter of information
Role of the student	▪ A builder ▪ A collaborator ▪ Sometimes an expert	▪ A passive receiver ▪ A learner in the role of interlocutor

[15] Adapted by TARDIF, Jacques, Presentation text for the ministère de l'Éducation du Québec, October 12,1999

Support tool 5.B

Characteristics of the learning paradigm versus the teaching paradigm[16]

Form 1: table to be completed

Indicators	**Learning paradigm**	**Teaching paradigm**
Concept of learning	1. 2. 3.	18. 19. 20.
Activities in the classroom	4. Centered on the student 5. 6.	21. 22. 23.
Methods of evaluation	7. 8.	24. 25.
Evidence of success	9. 10. 11. 12.	26. 27.
Role of the teacher	13. 14.	28. 29.
Role of the student	15. 16. 17. Sometimes an expert	30. 31.

[16] Adapted by TARDIF, Jacques, Presentation text for the ministère de l'Éducation du Québec, October 12, 1999

Support tool 5.C
Form 2: Cardboard cutouts[17]

No: _____ Transformation of information and basic skills into viable and transferable knowledge	No: _____ 1. Integration of the knowledge in cognitive diagrams	No: _____ Creation of relationships
No: _____ Memorization	No: _____ Accumulation of knowledge	No: _____ Linking of all knowledge
No: ___ **4** ____ Centered on the student	No: _____ Based on projects, research and problem situations	No: _____ Interactive relations
No: _____ Centered on the teacher	No: _____ High frequency of exercises	No: _____ Didactic and vertical relationships
No: _____ Relative to the competencies learned	No: _____ Portfolios	No: _____ Relative to the knowledge acquired

[17] Adapted by TARDIF, Jacques, Presentation text for the ministère de l'Éducation du Québec, October 12,1999

No: _____ Tests requiring short answers	No: _____ Quality of comprehension	No: _____ Quality of the competencies learned
No: _____ Quality of the knowledge constructed	No: _____ Transferability of the learning	No: _____ Quantity of information integrated
No: _____ Occasionally, amount of knowledge acquired	No: _____ Centered on support and elimination of support	No: _____ Sometimes a learner
No: _____ A builder	No: _____ A collaborator	No: _____ Sometimes an expert
No: _____ A passive receiver	No: _____ An expert	No: _____ A transmitter of information
No: _____ A learner in the role of speaker		

Support tool 5.D

Form 3: Answer sheet for table[18]

Indicators	Learning paradigm	Teaching paradigm
Concept of learning	1. Transformation of information and basic skills into viable and transferable knowledge 2. Integration of knowledge in cognitive diagrams 3. Creation of relations	18. Memorization 19. Accumulation of knowledge 20. Linking of all knowledge
Activities in the classroom	4. Centered on the student 5. Based on projects, research and problem cases 6. Interactive relations	21. Centered on the teacher 22. High frequency of exercises 23. Didactic and vertical relations
Methods of evaluation	7. Relative to the competencies learned 8. Portfolios	24. Relative to the knowledge acquired 25. Tests requiring short answers
Evidence of success	9. Quality of comprehension 10. Quality of the learned competencies 11. Quality of the knowledge constructed 12. Transferability of the learning	26. Quantity of information integrated 27. Occasionally, amount of knowledge acquired
Role of the teacher	13. Centered on support and the elimination of support 14. Sometimes a learner	28. An expert 29. A transmitter of information
Role of the student	15. A builder 16. A collaborator 17. Sometimes an expert	30. A passive receiver 31. A learner in the role of speaker

[18] Adapted by TARDIF, Jacques, Presentation text for the ministère de l'Éducation du Québec, October 12, 1999

Support tool 6.A
A concept of learning

How to define learning?

From *the cognitive* viewpoint, ***learning* is**:

> an active, constructive, cumulative process that occurs when learners actively process new information, thereby modifying their cognitive structure. (Pôle de l'Est, 1992: 57)

From the *socioconstructivist* viewpoint:

> "*School learning* is a dynamic process by which learners bring their prior knowledge into interaction with knowledge to be acquired, through a series of exchanges with peers and their teachers, for the purpose of constructing new knowledge adapted to the constraints and resources of the situation currently confronting them so as to use this new knowledge in situations that are not didactic" (Jonnaert and Vander Borght, 1999: 266)

Support tool 6.A (continued)
A synthesis of the characteristics of learning

Learning is:	
a process …	A process is a series of steps (or stages) organized in time.
… **active**	Learning is carried out thanks to processing or creation by students who are they main actors in their own learning process.
… constructive	Learning is built: • through the interaction of new knowledge with the prior knowledge of the student; • through the interaction with peers and teachers during discussions; • in a situation, within a given context.
… cumulative	Learning is achieved by gradual construction of knowledge in an organized way.
… dynamic	Learning is constructed through the constant interaction with knowledge and exchanges with others. "Learning is not set in stone; the learning process is not over at the end of the courses but continues outside the school" (Jonnaert and Vander Borght, 1999: 223) "Learning proceeds in a social context of communication and interaction characterized, among others, by the diversity of the experiences and the knowledge of the various actors" (Louis, 1999: 23)
And a product	The result of learning is a modification of the cognitive structure (or structure of knowledge) of the person, an adaptation and a new creation of knowledge in the learner.

Support tool 6.B

Teaching principles that guide my practice

Teaching principles which currently guide my practice	General didactic principles of cognitive thought (DISCAS)	I integrate this principle into my practice: (O) often, (S) sometimes and (R) rarely
1.	1. It is the student who learns	
2.	2. The student must have a reason to learn	
3.	3. Students acquire knowledge so they may act	
4.	4. The student learns by doing	
5.	5. Students learn by thinking about what they do	
6.	6. The student uses learning strategies	
7.	7. Students learn starting from what they already know	
8.	8.	
9.	9.	
10.	10.	
11.	11.	
12.	12.	

Support tool 6.C
The learner at the heart of teaching[19]

Although the cognitive, constructivist and socioconstructivist approaches do not give us a prescription on how to teach, they do provide us with a perspective on how learning takes place. They help us identify the impact these approaches can have on our current practices and they bring about the emergence of guiding principles to help us choose our teaching style.

The most important implication consists in the fact that neither the teacher nor the contents play a central role in the learning process. From this moment on, students are at the heart of learning and share in the responsibility for their learning. The student processes the new knowledge and the teacher creates the conditions that allow this. Moreover, “the sole reference to the program or the textbooks is not enough”. In this approach, traditional ways of using pedagogical objectives are called into question, because the old ways define the contents of learning independently of the learner who has to master the knowledge "(Jonnaert and Vander Borght, 1999: 28). This is no longer a valid model; the new model puts the learner’s knowledge at the very centre of teaching.

Martinet, Raymond and Gauthier (2000) commented on the transformations occurring in the role of teacher subsequent to current reforms in the educational system. They state, "The new concept of learning, where the students are at the heart of their own learning, requires new teaching approaches and new ways of interacting with students. The teachers must adapt their teaching to the progression of individual students; they must focus on the student learner so as to modify the latter’s relationship to the knowledge and thus facilitate its acquisition". (Raymond and Gauthier, 2000: 30[20])

From a relationship with a world considered objectively true, we now enter a worldview subject to interpretation and debate. Indeed, the "prior knowledge of learners, that which is already in long-term memory, determines not only what can be learned but also what they will be able to learn effectively and how it will be learned.” (Tardif, 1992: 32) In this context, teachers cannot ignore prior knowledge of students and the learning models that result from it, nor can they neglect to act upon it without running the risk of impeding the exploration of the new knowledge to be taught. By overlooking the student’s prior knowledge in their teaching, the learning model in memory remains intact and significantly hinders the ability of students to comprehend the new knowledge they are to build. To enable the construction of new knowledge, the teacher must consider prior knowledge.

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The major effect of the new education paradigm is openness: "*it validates the introduction of pedagogy and didactics that base the exploration of knowledge on the construction of learning by the students themselves*". (Morf, 1994). Consequently, it is

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19 Raymond, 2001:33-39

20 Martinet, M.-A., Raymond, D. et Gauthier, C. (2000). *La formation à l’enseignement. Les orientations. Les compétences professionnelles.* . Québec : Ministère de l’éducation, Direction de la formation et de la titularisation du personnel scolaire. Provisional version for consultation

important to place students at the heart of their learning and not to take away their responsibility for their own learning. It is the students, after all, who are venturing out to discover the world, their world. And their discovery is facilitated by the teacher's intervention.

4.2 Some teaching consequences

Svinicki (1991) identifies six principles resulting from **cognitive theory** and their consequences for teaching.

Principles resulting from cognitive theory	**Consequences for teaching**
1. If information must be learned, it must be recognized as important by the learner.	*The more effectively attention is directed at what must be learned, for example key concepts and essential ideas, the greater the probability of achieving in-depth learning.*
2. The student processes the data during learning so that it becomes meaningful to him.	*The teacher as well as the student should use examples, images, details and, relationships connected to the prior knowledge of the students to make information more meaningful.*
3. The students store information in long-term memory according to structures they have created through their prior understanding of the world.	*The teacher can facilitate the organization of this new information by providing a structure or organization of the information and more particularly, by providing a structuring the students already know or requesting they build such structures or organizations.*
4. Students who are learning evaluate their learning constantly so they may refine and revise the knowledge.	*Opportunities given to students to verify and evaluate their acquired knowledge are considered support tools in their learning process.*
5. The transfer of learning to a new context is not automatic; it results from the diversity of applications to which the student is subjected.	*Opportunities must be given at the time of the initial learning so that students may carry out future transfers.*
6. The learning is facilitated when the students are conscious of their learning strategies and that they are in control of the situation.	*The teacher must help students learn how to translate these strategies into action when they are needed.*

The following table shows examples of teaching practices coherent with **a constructivist perspective** on learning.

Some teaching practices pursuant to a constructivist perspective
▪ To bring students to verbalize their thoughts and concepts so as to build a model of their comprehension and grasp the meaning behind their concepts and work habits; ▪ To identify teaching activities that bring students to verbalize and confront their ideas with those of the teacher and those of other students; ▪ To identify teaching activities that lead to the discovery of deficiencies and inconsistencies; ▪ To alter our attitude towards student errors which are not random and not caused by "erroneous concepts". They arise logically from concepts the students have constructed previously; ▪ To use teaching situations that are most effective in helping students construct adequate learning models while facilitating discussions on conceptions; ▪ To identify and validate students' viewpoints and their way of doing things; ▪ To structure courses based on important ideas, complex problems and global situations rather than giving the students information or knowledge in piecemeal fashion; ▪ To reduce lectures and presentations and grant more time for collaborative and cooperative activities; ▪ To help students develop their capacity for conjecture and their ability to make assumptions, explore them, discuss them and test them; ▪ To evaluate learning in an authentic way; to assess the process as well as the product.

Support tool 7.A

Methods of teaching: a guide to self-reflection[21]

- For each of the teaching methods or formulas below, indicate their frequency of use. Do you use them rarely, occasionally or regularly?
- Why are some methods used regularly and others rarely? Can you associate certain methods with certain subject matters or certain contexts?
  (Use the letter **P** to indicate personal use, and C for use by colleagues)

Methods	Rarely	Occasionally	Regularly	Personal comments
1. Team work				
2. Cooperative learning				
3. Presentation of contents (lecture)				
4. Individual exercises				
5. Role play				
6. Games and simulations				
7. Research				
8. Tutoring				
9. Individual work				
10. Workshops				
11. Presentation by students				
12. Demonstration of a procedure, of an algorithm				
13. Practical activities				
14. Learning through projects				
15. Problem cases				

[21] Adapted by Lafortune, 2001: 95

Support tool 7.B
A signature for a teaching style[22]

1. Indicate your response to each of the statements below by putting a checkmark in the *mostly true* column or the *mostly false* column.
2. Look for someone in the group who answered differently and ask for that person's signature.
3. The idea is to collect the greatest number of signatures and the greatest number of different signatures.

Style of teaching	Mostly true	Mostly false	Signatures
1. Have students work in teams.			
2. Make changes to course planning based on student questions on upcoming weekly content.			
3. Initiate exchanges so students may discuss their errors/mistakes.			
4. Introduce new theoretical content via practical activities for students.			
5. Present the disciplinarian content of the course through lectures.			
6. Generally propose one procedure for students to follow.			
7. Before beginning a new subject matter, bring students to talk about what they already know about it.			
8. Before presenting the students with an evaluation, ask them to do a self-evaluation.			
9. Provide students with examples before asking them to solve problems or do exercises.			
10. Elicit discussion/exchanges among			

[22] Adapted by Lafortune, 2001: 97

Style of teaching	Mostly true	Mostly false	Signatures
students on their ways of proceeding.			
11. Help students identify their learning process rather than help them find the right answer.			
12. Provide the answer when students are asked a question and no one answers.			
13. Value the fact that students succeed in covering the entire program contents.			
14. Prepare the students adequately for the future summative evaluation.			
15. Monitor student motivation.			
16. Introduce students to strategies so they may create others.			
17. Ask students to discuss their thinking/reasoning with others.			
18. Teach students how to criticize the approach of other students.			

Support tool 7.C

Methods and their connection to the socioconstructivist model[23]

- How do these methods reflect a socioconstructivist perspective?
- In the "Socioconstructivist Perspective Column" (**SPC**), indicate the extent to which the strategies below correspond to this perspective: (**1**) meaning "does not generally correspond" and (**5**) meaning, "generally corresponds".

Methods	**Socioconstructivist perspective**	
	SPC	**Why?**
1. Teamwork	**4**	These activities encourage interaction between students. However, their structure will determine if they fall under the socioconstructivist model. The tasks and support tools suggested should favour the construction of knowledge, the connection to prior knowledge, etc.
2. Cooperative learning	**4**	
3. Presentation of contents (lecture)	**1**	Although this type of activity is not excluded from the socioconstructivist model, it should not characterize the teaching approach. It can be used, for example, within the framework of a project if students need help to overcome a difficulty, master a technique or essential skill needed to pursue their project (i.e., mastery of algorithms for calculation).
4. Individual exercises	**1**	
5. Demonstration of a procedure, of an algorithm	**1**	
6. Role play	**3**	Games and role playing present an interesting option insofar as they prove to be stimulating for the students. In terms of approach, it is difficult to establish a link between these methods and the socioconstructivist perspective. However, they can be a good way to develop certain competencies in a more structured environment (communication skills and cooperation, for example).
7. Games	**3**	

[23] Adapted by Lafortune, 2001: 99

8. Individual work	**2**	To evaluate individual work, it is necessary to know its context. Regarded as an essential stage in research done by a student, it fits very well in a socioconstructivist way of thinking. However, when considered as an activity that occupies most of the student's day during school hours, this would not be favoured by a socioconstructivist approach.
9. Research	**5**	These methods are coherent in varying degrees with a socioconstructivist perspective: students are in interaction and usually work collectively on projects. Interventions should awaken sociocognitive conflicts (tutoring, presentations done by students), and facilitate the structuring of knowledge during workshops, research or learning projects.
10. Tutoring	**3**	
11. Workshops	**4**	
12. Presentations done by students	**4**	
13. Practical activities (concrete situations)	**3**	
14. Learning project	**5**	
15. Problem cases	**5**	

Support tool 8.A

What are the essential characteristics of a competency as a learning objective?

Definition	**Characteristics**
"A competency is a set of socioaffective behaviours, cognitive and psycho-sensory-motor skills that make it possible to function and perform an activity or a task with a degree of performance that corresponds to the minimal requirements of the labour market"	
"A competency is defined as the ability to fill the roles and complete the tasks required by work function"	
"A competency includes an integrated set of cognitive, socioaffective and psychomotor skills"	
"An acquired skill due to the assimilation of relevant knowledge and experience, which allows us to delineate and resolve specific problems"	
"Know–how that allows for immediate application thanks to a repertory of potential actions"	
"Sum of knowledge, know-how and personal conduct which make it possible to play an appropriate and effective role, perform a function or accomplish an activity"	
"Reliable capacity to act immediately and effectively in a given field, based on the integrated and relevant sum of knowledge, skills, attitudes and values"	

Support tool 8.B

What is your definition of competency? Similarities and differences with other proposed definitions

DEFINITIONS OF COMPETENCY
Personal definition:
Personal notes taken during general discussion:

Support tool 8.C

Characteristics of a competency according to Pôle de l'Est

A competency is:	
• *A learning objective*	In a schooling context, it constitutes the final reference of a given training (goal to reach), taking its meaning from the work function targeted or the capacity to pursue a higher education in a given field; it is therefore an entry threshold in both fields as well.
• *centered on the development of the student's capacities,*	A competency is acquired through practice. It requires time and frequent applications done by the student himself.
• *to act in an autonomous way,*	Competency presupposes that the person knows how to identify and access the resources they need to pursue their own progress.
• *to identify and resolve*	Competency requires the visualization of a problem or a specific situation so that the student can select a process and identify a strategy that will make it possible to achieve the desired solution.
• *effectively*	The application of the competency by the student must be effective and produce the desired results, in conformity with the standards.
• *problem situations of a specific type*	Competency is always contextualized; it is always part of a given context of activity.
• *on the basis of conceptual and procedural knowledge that is integrated and relevant.*	It is a structured entity that integrates the many types of knowledge that make up the competency; and each parcel of knowledge can be mobilized whenever needed, i.e., at the opportune time. This knowledge is relevant because it will have been selected based on its value in relation to dealing with real life situations.

Translated from: RAYMOND, Danielle, 2001 *Apprendre oui mais… qu'est-ce qu'apprendre?* Synthesis for MIPEC, March, Université de Sherbrooke, p.30.

Support tool 8.D

Principles[24] pursuant to the nature of competencies and their impact on my teaching

Principles	What this really means to me	How I use it in my teaching
Global: elements analyzed from a global perspective		
Construction: activation of prior acquisitions, elaboration of new learning and organization of the information		
Rotation: from global to specific and back to global		
Application: to learn by doing		
Distinction: between contents and process		
Meaningfulness: cases that are meaningful and stimulating for the student		
Coherence: coherent relation between teaching activities, learning activities, evaluation		

[24] Principles taken from: LASNIER, Francois, Réussir la formation par compétences, Guerin, 2000 p. 159

Principles	What this really means to me	How I use it in my teaching
activities and the competency		
Integration: the components presented are connected to each other and to the competency. The learner develops the competency by using the components in an integrated way.		
Iteration: the learner is subjected several times to the same type of integrating tasks relative to the competency and the same disciplinarian content.		
Transfer: transfer from a source task to a target task. The use of knowledge and capacities in a context different from the original context in which they were acquired.		

Support tool 9.A
A problem situation, what and why

By André Chabot, educational adviser
http://www.cegep-chicoutimi.qc.ca/reflets/refletsv10n1/reflet03.htm#retour

Various experiences in teaching show us that a pedagogical approach based on problem situations can contribute to learning integration if it includes the core concepts and disciplinarian methods found in the course. Teaching based on problem situations provides an excellent framework from which to do a global assessment and verify the integration of course components. This approach makes it possible to measure students' ability to implement behaviours to solve complex problem situations effectively that are presented in the program. Problem situations are not limited to mathematical and scientific fields. Any task that contains initial data, a final goal, as well as constraints, and for which an individual does not have an answer, constitutes a problem to be solved.[25]

A problem situation can be dismantled, remade, and enriched to become a new context and possibly a new problem. The progression of learning in a course could be structured using the final problem situation as a challenge for the student at the end of the course. It is one of the first stages in planning activities. This support tool makes it easier to build progressive learning (sections of the course) by dividing the course into learning sequences that take into account the contents of the competency.

The use of real problem situations combined with appropriate strategies can improve self-confidence, motivation, communication, and teamwork. It also contributes to more thorough syntheses and analyses. The problems can be dealt with in teams, which require the communication of ideas and cooperation within small groups, thereby improving overall effectiveness and appreciation for teamwork. The learners are encouraged to express their thoughts, to interact and help the discussion move forward. In certain cases, the student can involve himself from the beginning in defining the problem, distinguishing what is essential from what is secondary, summarizing the information or identifying relevant data.

Students profit from the variety of circumstances surrounding the problem(s); they learn to recognize and resolve them; this is the reason why problem situations occupy the central role in an integrated learning pedagogy, in approaches based on competencies or not. To sum up, a problem situation provides the student with a concrete learning model for the use of a competency, through its components, content, context of achievement and requirements. It gives meaning to the learning process and supports student motivation.

[25] Pôle de l'Est, 1996

Here are two examples created by colleagues at the college: one in philosophy and the other in office automation. **Final problem situation of the course:**
Ethics and policy (340-BSB-03)

Final objective To give an opinion on the ethical and political problems of contemporary society.	**Cognitive skills** • Critical thought • Integration
Concepts to be used The ethical and political dimension of the situation. Philosophical, political, and ethical theories.	**Description of the situation** You are a political negotiator attached to the government. At forty years of age, the time has come for you to be given a seat on the **Decision-making committee.** The problem you are faced with is the economic disparity between poor and rich countries. You must consider the structure of a society where equality and justice exist on all continents. However, an obstacle is placed in front of you: The presence of the most famous heretic the world has ever known: **The Martyr.** You are dedicated to defending the philosophical position. Nevertheless, you will have to answer the fundamental ethical question: **Why must we be fair**?
Procedure to follow • The philosophical essay	**Task** Your investigation will lead you to explore the personal, social, and political aspects of this problem. You will prepare for your confrontation by using various philosophical theories, both moral and political. You will have to conceptualize and problematize the situation. However, you will have had thorough training using simulations, discussions, and research. Do not be frightened by the challenge that awaits you.
Difficulties of the problem situation • To conceptualize • To problematize • To argue	
Usual clues allowing for problem recognition • Recognition of the world politico-economic context • Philosophical analysis of the concepts of justice, equality and utopia	**Expected duration** 3 hours

Final problem situation of the course:
data processing: basic concepts

<table>
<tr>
<td>Final objective
To do word processing using basic software concepts</td>
<td>Cognitive capacities
• Memorization
• Organization
• Observation</td>
<td>Attitudes and values*
• Concern for the quality of the written language
• Concern for the quality of the presentation
• Concern relative to the security of the data
• Sense of responsibility
• Ability to adapt
• Autonomy*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concepts to be used
• Terminology
• Computer
• Basic functions of word processing software menus:
• File, edit, post, format, insertion tools, tables, window, help</td>
<td colspan="2">Description of the situation
It is 10:00 a.m. when a work colleague drops by your office; he is completely discouraged. He spent hours processing a text, using word processing software, but did not copy it on diskette, which only contains the original document (rough draft). Fortunately, he did print a copy of the work before shutting down the computer.
He must present this document for approval at the beginning of the afternoon and then make the necessary corrections so the final copy can be given to a superior by end of the day. He will not have the time to redo the work if he wishes to respect the deadlines.
Given that you are at ease with the basic concepts of this software, you offer to process the original text with respect to the printed copy (model) and to copy it on diskette.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Procedure to follow
• Use the basic menu functions</td>
<td colspan="2" rowspan="2">Task
You must, using the basic functions of the software, process the copy to make it identical to the printed copy that your colleague gave you.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficulties of the problem situation
• To choose the appropriate commands
• To identify changes in a text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Usual clues allowing for problem recognition
• Rough original text
• Model</td>
<td colspan="2">Expected duration
1 hour and 40 minutes
During exam week at the end of the session</td>
</tr>
</table>

Support tool 9.B

Problem situations: French at secondary level

Carrefour des enseignants

Accueil | Cercle littéraire | Situations-problèmes | Ressources | Références | Contacts

Problem situations[26]

| Qu'est ce que c'est ? | Caractéristiques | Avantages | Selon Meirieu | Selon Astolfi |

What is a problem situation?

- The problem situation is a learning opportunity.
- It is a means of learning, not the result.
- A teaching strategy that supports the active participation of the students.
- It allows for the construction of knowledge.
- The problem situation is a task that is:
  - global,
  - complex,
  - meaningful.

The problem situation is a global task:

1. It is complete, i.e. it has a context (initial information) and a goal;
2. It requires more than one action, more than one procedure and more than one operation for resolution;
3. It can be broken up into several parts or elements.

The problem situation is a complex task:

4. It calls upon several types of knowledge (declarative, procedural and conditional);

[26] Translated from : **http://www.cslaval.qc.ca/tic/francais/grel/sitprobl.htm**

5. It creates a cognitive conflict, the solution is not obvious;
6. It is a challenge the students can meet (realistic and achievable);
7. It can influence several objectives of the program; it is thus very structured on a didactic level because it is created as a function of some precise learning.

The problem situation is a meaningful task:

8. It is meaningful for students because it is something they know, something that can connect to their reality;
9. It is concrete because it has a goal (a product), calls for concrete action, and requires the use of knowledge, techniques, a strategy, or algorithm.

Characteristics of a problem situation:

1. It contains initial data that determines the context and is needed to solve the problem.
2. There is a goal to reach (different from the teaching objective) which mobilizes and organizes the knowledge.
3. There are constraints or obstacles to be surmounted which require a reorganization of prior knowledge and a discovery of alternate means, which in turn leads to learning.
4. The approach and the solution are not obvious; the person must undertake an active cognitive search on how to proceed.

Advantages of the problem situation:

1. It makes it possible for the students to achieve real learning by placing them at the heart of the learning process.
2. It demands the active engagement of the students, who become more active players, using their cognitive capacities, their intelligence.

The problem situation according to Meirieu:
“A subject carrying out a task is confronted with an obstacle"

- The subject is focused on the task, the educator on the obstacle.
- Overcoming the obstacle must signify a stage in the cognitive development of the subject.
- The obstacle is overcome if the tools provided and the instructions bring about the necessary cognitive operations.
- To carry out the same mental operation, individuals may use very different strategies.
- The conception and implementation of a problem situation must be controlled by a series of evaluation tools.

It is not a case of "teaching the right answers” but rather a situation of “problem based learning".

Preliminary questions to answer before elaborating a problem situation:

1. What is my objective? What do I want to make the learners acquire, knowledge that will be an important stage in their progression?
2. What task can I propose that requires access to a specific objective (communication, reconstitution, and conundrum, remedial, resolution) in order to be successful?
3. What plan of action must I implement so that the mental activity of carrying out the task allows the objective to be achieved?

    - Which materials, documents, and support tools should I make available?
    - Which instruction should be given so that learners use the materials to achieve the task?
    - What constraints are necessary to prevent the learning from being circumvented?
4. Which activities can I introduce to vary the tools based on the various strategies? How can I vary the support tools, approaches, levels of guidance, grouping methods?

(Philippe Meirieu, methodological guide on the elaboration of a problem situation)

Support tool 9.C
Characteristics of a problem situation[27]

Competency is the knowledge to act, an effective potentiality of action that is realized in a concrete situation. The following table summarizes this knowledge to act.

COMPETENCY = KNOWLEDGE TO ACT

Competency = knowledge to act responsible and validated = To know how to mobilize knowledge; To know how to integrate knowledge; To know how to transfer knowledge — Resources (knowledge, abilities…)

In a professional context

LE BOTERF (1995) P.33

This knowledge to act develops gradually through the resolution of problems. We learn to solve a problem by processing it and being confronted with the difficulties of finding solutions. Competency allows for an understanding of the world that includes an enriched perception (this is the nature of the case) and an increased intervention potential (this particular case requires this type of action that I will implement).

Competency is implemented relative to the set of circumstances perceived as the problem to solve. During the course of their education, students will be confronted with various ways in which these circumstances appear so that they learn how to recognize them and are able to work towards solving them. This explains the central role given to problem situations in education based on developing competencies.

The progress of learning based on problem situations does not offer the same reassurance as traditional approaches. Perrenoud (1996c) summarizes this idea in the following manner: "To practice transfers is to become accustomed to

[27] PÔLE de l'Est, 1996: 264-269

innovation, to letting go of safe traditional exercises and replacing them with **problem situations** with which each individual is unfamiliar, because the problem still remains to be identified and structured and, even then, solutions are not obvious (…)

Is transfer learned? At least three things appear to be learned in conjunction with transfers.

a. We learn to deal with our anxiety and initial discouragement through experiences that show that we know more than we thought we did; but it takes time and effort to link our existing knowledge relative to the situation at hand.

b. We learn general strategies of problem solving "on the job", but also through the explicit teaching, on a metacognitive level, of general problem-solving strategies and in particular the following problem: What to do when I don't know what to do? How to mobilize resources to solve the problem while acknowledging that no solution comes to mind?

c. We broaden our knowledge, competencies and conceptual models using mechanisms that Piaget called differentiation, coordination and generalization so that cognitive capacities of a higher order become stabilized.

We suggest the following definition of a problem situation:

> *A problem situation* is a concrete situation describing both the most realistic context and the task that confronts students so that they may implement the conceptual and procedural knowledge necessary for the development and demonstration of their competency.

Characteristics of a good problem situation

1. It is typical of the family of situations that defines the sphere of action of the competency.
2. It presents the student with a real problem, insofar as the solution is not obvious and cannot be solved with an algorithm.
3. It is based on the cognitive level of the student (within the zone of proximal development of the student's mental acquisitions).
4. It introduces a task that the student perceives as an interesting challenge.
5. It offers an opportunity for students to enrich their experience.
6. It is similar to a real situation i.e. a situation that students are likely to encounter outside the school, within the framework of their professional or private life.
7. It calls on the knowledge and know-how that make up a competency.
8. It uses a language that is clear and understood by the student.

The table on the next page provides additional relevant instructions[28].

[28] See Astolfi (1993); this article, adapted by Meirieu (1990), presents the three functions of a problem (criterion, goal or means of learning), the characteristics of problem-situation based education as well as the three types of relations between a student and a problem situation (logic for action, logic for success and logic for learning).

Characteristics of a problem situation

1. A problem situation is centered on the **overcoming of an obstacle** by the class, using an obstacle that has been **well identified** beforehand.
2. The study is organized around a **concrete situation**, which makes it possible for the student to make **assumptions and to conjecture.** It is not a *purified* study, nor an *ad hoc* illustrative example that we find in traditional teaching (which includes practical exercises).
3. The students treat the situation as **a true enigma to be resolved**, in which they must involve themselves. This is a precondition for **devolution** whereby the problem, although initially proposed by the professor, becomes "theirs".
4. Initially, the students **do not possess the means to a solution** since they must first be confronted by the obstacle. The need to resolve the problem is what leads the student to work out or collectively appropriate the intellectual tools that will be necessary for the construction of a solution.
5. The situation must offer **some resistance** so students bring their prior knowledge and **learning models** into question and, in so doing, construct new ideas.
6. The solution should not be perceived, as out of reach by the students, since the problem situation is not a problematical situation in itself. The activity must be used within the **zone of proximal development** that favours the stimulation of **intellectual challenges** and the **internalization** of the "rules of the game".
7. **The anticipation** of results and its collective expression precede the search for a solution, with the "**risk"** taken by each individual being part of the "game".
8. The work relating to the problem situation is carried out like a **scientific debate inside the classroom**, stimulating potential **sociocognitive conflicts.**
9. **The validation** of the solution and **its ratification** are not provided by an external source, such as the professor, but result rather from the **way the situation itself is structured**.
10. The collective re-evaluation of the path taken is an ideal opportunity for a **reflective review** that is metacognitive in nature and helps the students become conscious of **the strategies** they used heuristically, and provides them with **procedures** that can be used in other problem situations.

Astolfi (1993)

Examples of problem situations are provided in the following pages.

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Problem situation in humanities</th></tr>
<tr><td>Final objective
To analyze a current problem starting from several approaches in humanities</td><td>Cognitive skills
To detect a problem, to structure it</td></tr>
<tr><td>Concepts
▪ Conflicts
▪ Power
▪ Cooperation
▪ Sovereignty</td><td rowspan="2">Description of the situation

The Black Hills of Dakota (Educational Leadership, March 1994)

There is a current on-going debate about the Black Hills (mountains) of south Dakota. Should ownership be given back to the Dakota, Native Americans who lived there before the Americans drove them out?
Several parties are involved and discussions are often impassioned. How to disentangle and clarify this public debate?</td></tr>
<tr><td>Procedures
▪ Argument
▪ Politico-socio-economic analysis
▪ To collect information
▪ To communicate</td></tr>
<tr><td>Difficulties
▪ Objective vision
▪ Several disciplines
▪ Use of concepts specific to the humanities</td><td rowspan="2">Tasks
As a specialist in humanities, you are asked to analyze this problem and present your analysis to a knowledgeable public.

The organizing committee of this public debate wishes to obtain a copy of the texts and documents that you will use at the time of the public presentation.

You will find attached ten texts on the subject.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Usual clues
▪ Treaties
▪ Journals</td></tr>
</table>

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Problem situation in psychology</th></tr>
<tr><td>Final objective
To analyze a communication problem using a psychological approach</td><td>Cognitive skills
To detect a problem, to interpret it</td></tr>
<tr><td>Concepts
▪ Principles of communication
▪ Self-image
▪ Needs
▪ Emotions
▪ Relational skills
▪ Conflicts</td><td rowspan="2">Description of the situation
You have been a trainee in Human Resources in a medium-size business for 6 months. The company is managed by a man who invested energy and determination to build an organization he directs it as would a father concerned about the wellbeing of his employees and the success of his enterprise.
Richard is an employee of this medium-size business. In his later forties, he is in charge of maintenance. An alcoholic in denial, he is divorced, has been rejected by his only daughter, is considered an introvert, and feels unloved. His interpersonal contact with other employees, particularly females, can be viewed as aggressive and you are shocked by what you observe.
Excessive tension has taken hold of the team and performance decreases. Recently, you became the earpiece for employees who do not dare complain directly to the boss. Completely caught up in his work, the boss appears accepting of Richard, who is very hard working.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Procedures
▪ Description of the problem
▪ Psychological interpretation
▪ Analysis
▪ Written presentation</td></tr>
<tr><td>Difficulties
▪ Objective vision
▪ Several concepts</td><td>Tasks
Thanks to your qualities of insight and objectivity, you are asked to provide an analysis of the situation for the Director who will then bring it to the Board of directors.
The analysis will have to include the concepts presented, a description of the problem, your interpretation based on psychological principles and suggestions for resolving the situation.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Usual clues</td><td>Expected duration
Text of approximately 750 words (3 pages) written in the classroom during the three last hours of the course.</td></tr>
</table>

Support tool 9.D

Learning by problem situation

Final objective

To propose new learning strategies particularly learning by problem situation

Cognitive skills

To organize, elaborate, integrate

Key concepts

- Concept of learning
- Academic success
- Learning strategies
- Pedagogical formulas
- Teaching approaches
- Problem situation
- Personal teaching concepts

Procedures to follow

- Stages of problem-based learning
- Details of a problem situation
- Oral presentation of a report

Potential difficulties

- Procedure for elaborating a problem situation
- Personal experience of such a learning strategy

Documentation available:

Support tool 9.B

Support tool 9.C

Support tool 9.D

Expected duration

Three hours

Description of the situation

"Over a 2-year period, the rate of success has dropped by 7% in your program of studies. Following an analysis by the program team, several assumptions were retained to resolve the situation. One assumption is the need to invest more in new teaching approaches that support increased learning.

As a member of the special committee elected by the program team, you are charged with recommending new learning strategies, particularly problem based learning and you must also convince your colleagues of the benefits of these teaching approaches."

Tasks

1. Presentation of the topic: understanding the mandate, evaluation of what is at stake.
2. Personal reflection: individual work, write down in a few words:
   - what I know of the learning strategies proposed in the mandate
   - my recommendations for the study of problem-based learning
   - my initial arguments to convince my colleagues of the value of this teaching approach.
3. Division of the group into teams of four or five people.
4. Drafting of common proposals:
   - 4.1 Description of a problem situation and examples (Support tool 9.A)
   - 4.2 Appropriation of the instructions to work out a problem situation (Support tool 9.B)
   - 4.3 Study of the characteristics and advantages of using this learning strategy (Support tool 9.C)
   - 4.4 Study of the problem situation used in the current activity (Support tool 9.D)
   - 4.5 Drafting of common proposals to convince colleagues of the teaching benefits of this approach
5. Pooling:
   - 5.1 Each group documents their proposals and justifies them
   - 5.2 Compilation of the group presentations
6. Synthesis: group discussion based on synthesis of team presentations

Support tool 10.A

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Problem situation: to write a lesson plan</th></tr>
<tr><td>Final objective
To write a lesson plan by applying a typical learning process</td><td>Cognitive skills
To organize, elaborate, integrate</td></tr>
<tr><td>Key concepts
▪ Conception of learning
▪ Cognitivism
▪ Traditional teaching
▪ Cognitive principles
▪ Lesson Plan
▪ Problem situation
▪ Typical learning process
▪ Learning activities</td><td rowspan="2">Description of the situation
"Within the scope of a developmental activity based on a cognitive learning concept, you are introduced to a typical learning process. During a departmental meeting to plan for developmental activities, it is decided to experiment with a plan of activities based on these principles.
Your team is selected to draft a lesson plan proposal using a typical learning process.
In order to appeal to everyone, a theme that applies to all courses is selected: "techniques for note-taking".
You are expected to present the results of your teaching plan at the next departmental meeting."</td></tr>
<tr><td>Procedures to follow
▪ To plan teaching activities
▪ To put learning activities in a sequential order
▪ To apply a typical learning process
▪ To decide on learning strategies
▪ Techniques for note-taking</td></tr>
<tr><td>Potential difficulties
▪ Cognitive principles
▪ Typical learning process</td><td>Tasks
1. Study the problem situation: support tool 10.A
2. Use the form (Support tool 10.B) to draft your lesson plan.
3. Make use of available documentation
4. Present the report to the group</td></tr>
<tr><td>Documentation available:
Support tool 10.C: Typical learning process and Sequence of interventions associated with a typical learning process from a cognitive perspective</td><td>Expected duration
Three hours.</td></tr>
</table>

Support tool 10.B

Form for lesson planning

<table>
<tr><th colspan="2">Lesson plan on note-taking techniques</th></tr>
<tr><td>Final objective of the lesson:
Master note-taking</td><td>Cognitive skills:

Learning techniques:</td></tr>
<tr><td>Key concepts
▪
▪
▪
▪
▪</td><td rowspan="2">Learning activities based on a typical learning process
1. Activation:
_____
_____
_____
2. Elaboration:
_____
_____
_____
3. Organization:
_____
_____
_____
4. Application:
_____
_____
_____
5. Proceduralization:
_____
_____
_____
6. Integration:
_____
_____
_____</td></tr>
<tr><td>Procedures for note taking based on the context:
▪
▪
▪
▪
▪
▪</td></tr>
<tr><td>Potential difficulties
▪
▪
▪</td><td>Task:
Plan for learning activities at each stage of the typical learning process to enable mastery of note taking in a variety of contexts.</td></tr>
<tr><td>Teaching material needed</td><td>Evaluation of the learning:</td></tr>
</table>

Support tool 10.C
Typical learning process[29]

Typical learning process	
Activation	Awakening of the cognitive and emotional knowledge of the student based on the competency or knowledge to be developed.
Elaboration:	Establishment of connections by students, whether right or wrong, between what they know, what they are learning or seek to understand as a phenomenon.
Organization	Clear and accurate structuring of knowledge by the student.
Application	Use of conceptual or declarative, procedural and conditional knowledge that was acquired in the organization stage, with a decreasing need for help and support.
Proceduralization	Use of structured acquisitions in increasingly complex situations to develop the ability to act quickly while being effective. This stage aims at making increasingly automatic the implementation of problem solving steps.
Integration	Use of the acquisitions connected to the development of a competency in an increasingly autonomous manner. The final goal of this process is the integration of new learning to the current knowledge structure of students and their way of approaching situations using this new structure.

(Pôle de l'Est 1996: 119-121)

When they are learning, students set in motion a series of cognitive operations, seen in a "typical learning process".

Therefore, for students to learn, they must recall what they know about the subject (**activation of prior knowledge**) and formulate assumptions to describe the phenomena based on their prior knowledge (**elaboration**). These first two stages are insufficient; the student must also be put in contact with the new knowledge to endorse it and organize, with assistance, information in the form of a cognitive network, establishing relevant links between each bit of knowledge (**organization**). If these relationships are poorly established by the student, it will remain surface learning. The student must then apply this knowledge structure to simple situations (**application**) before applying it "automatically" to increasingly complex contextualized situations (**proceduralization**), by establishing connections between increasingly rich knowledge (**integration**).

[29] Raymond, R., Qu'est-ce qu'enseigner, 2001: 29-33

Sequence of interventions associated with a typical learning process from the cognitivist viewpoint

Typical learning process	*Suitable teaching interventions*
Activation	To stimulate student motivation by highlighting the connection to the competency development, the relevance of the knowledge to be acquired, the relevance of the task suggested and its feasibility: ◗ Exchanges/discussions with students ◗ Highlight a stimulating application ◗ Highlight the student's capacity to succeed To carry out a task related to the competency based on the previously acquired knowledge of the student or, if the prior knowledge is not sufficient, a task relating to a known subject that can be used as an analogy for the competency or the knowledge to be learned: ◗ Choice of simple situations ◗ Individual or team questioning ◗ Pooling ◗ Request for simple examples from the student ◗ Requests for recall by the student of knowledge acquired in prior courses, with or without the help of documentation
Elaboration	To require that students validate their assumptions of the situation, phenomena or knowledge to be processed, and to require valid documentation to justify the assumption. ◗ "Brainstorming" ◗ Explanation of problem situations, requests for explanations of unusual laws or phenomena ◗ Precise justification for assumptions made ◗ Requests for explanations of contradictory phenomena or divergent viewpoints among the students ◗ Confrontation of student explanations by the teacher

Sequence of interventions associated with a typical learning process from a cognitivist viewpoint (continued)

Typical learning process	*Suitable teaching interventions*
Organization	To initially present the concepts and procedures to the students: ◗ Use of structures: diagrams, tables, procedural lists, etc. To follow up with methods that student can use on their own: ◗ Schematization of concepts, procedures ◗ Modeling of a situation ◗ Drafting of a summary sentence ◗ Production of a summary ◗ Description of relationship between key words and concepts ◗ Use of examples explicitly illustrating the concepts being studied
Application	To introduce simple situations initially, with appropriate support for each student: ◗ Highlighting of the process used ◗ Demonstration by the teacher ◗ Request for application using support tools Justification based on relevant concepts and procedures, for the choices and applications by the student: ◗ Research of examples and non-examples by the student ◗ Exercises, problem solving with feedback ◗ Explicit interpretation of problem situations resolved by others
Proceduralization	To confront the student with increasingly complex cases: ◗ Progressive contextualization of the problem situations ◗ Situation scenarios, role play, increasingly complex labs, case studies To gradually reduce support (assistance, documentation, approaches) as well as time allotted for the task: ◗ Request for students to produce explicit written formulations of the stages in the procedure ◗ Search for personal examples ◗ Self-evaluation

Sequence of interventions associated with a typical learning process from a cognitivist viewpoint (continued)

Typical learning process	*Suitable teaching interventions*
Integration	To introduce students to a new situation and a context where they are not told in advance that they will have to apply such or such procedure, and have the students do the following: ◗ Identify the nature of the process ◗ Model the situation correctly ◗ Solve the problem situation ◗ Justify their choice To support the transfer of acquired knowledge to an increasing number of new situations, more or less connected to the subject matter itself: ◗ Presentation of diversified problem situations without any indication on the manner of solving them ◗ Presentation of increasingly complex real or simulated situations ◗ Achievement of a performance in front of real players ◗ Use of examples, situation scenarios, role play, case studies ◗ Realization in autonomous laboratories ◗ Critical analysis of work carried out by others ◗ Use of self-evaluation

Table translated from Pôle de l'Est, 1996: 119 to 121

The recommended intervention should not be considered linear or applicable as is to each lesson or teaching period. The important thing is to ensure that during the global teaching process, the student will have the opportunity to carry out all the stages. For example, during their learning process, students can fluctuate between elaboration, organization, and application; in the same way, the teacher can focus on methods of elaboration and organization, then return to the stage of elaboration to process additional data, and then return to reorganization, before proceeding to the stage of application. If each lesson is made up of the first three stages of the process, the three final stages may be covered much later in the session; the important thing is that they are all covered.

Support tool 11.A

Five ways to create learning activities for students

By Francine LAUZON, Collège Marie-Victorin[30]

1. Introduce complete tasks that are increasingly complex in situations representative of personal and professional life

Information is better understood, better integrated, and more easily recalled if students build from it, if they carry out complete tasks (real) in connection with the learning objective of the course.

An effective way of bringing students to construct their knowledge in connection with the learning objective of a course is to allow the students to **contextualize, de-contextualize, and re-contextualize the knowledge**. The *contextualization* stage makes it possible for the students to call up their prior knowledge. To achieve this, students must work on a realistic and complete task familiar to them and which the professor knows will cause an imbalance by bringing new questions or new knowledge into the equation. Therefore, the new knowledge will have meaning for the student and be accessible to be developed and deepened in a stage called *de-contextualization*.

The *de-contextualization* stage makes it possible for the students to elaborate their knowledge through presentations by the professor, readings, or the gathering of new information by various means. This stage is crucial to absorb the knowledge and prevent it from remaining anchored in specific examples or contexts. However, in order for the student to integrate and re-use this new knowledge, the professor must cause the students to re-contextualize, i.e. **subject the students to new situations of increasing complexity** so that they may use their new knowledge to accomplish new tasks that are complete and increasingly complex.

The initial contextualization of learning and frequent re-contextualization strongly supports the integration and transfer of learning. In this way, as mentioned by Tardif (1999), the sequence of contextualization – de-contextualization – re-contextualization does not occur in linear fashion. Teaching centered on the integration and the transfer of learning demands regular re-contextualization operations.

- I integrate this principle in my practice: often ___ sometimes ___ seldom or never ___
- My *success stories* as a professor:
- Desired changes:

[30] Text used at Cégep de Rimouski during a pedagogical day, September 25, 2001

2. Call up students' prior knowledge as well as knowledge introduced in other courses

Integrated learning rests on the **activation of prior knowledge**. The students must mobilize their own resources if they are to learn, integrate, and transfer learning. They must seek to establish links between what they know and the new knowledge. It is the professor's responsibility to call up the existing learning models of the students (prior knowledge) before introducing new knowledge.

To learn is above all to enrich, correct, and reorganize knowledge that we already possess. It is the students' prior knowledge that determines their ability to reach the standards set by the course and their degree of motivation (Have I seen this material before? Will the course be difficult?).

- I integrate this principle in my practice: often ___ sometimes ___ seldom or never ___
- My *success stories* as a professor:
- Desired changes:

3. Use a specific strategy for each category of knowledge

The different categories of knowledge are acquired according to specific teaching and learning strategies. The two top learning strategies to integrate theoretical knowledge are elaboration and organization. Procedural knowledge presupposes the recognition of procedures and the stages of execution, which we call the cognitive strategies of proceduralization and composition. Let us keep in mind that this type of knowledge commands that some action be taken. To achieve or complete this action, it is not sufficient to understand it, it is necessary to have *a hands-on experience* of it. Conditional knowledge, which is related to the transfer of acquisitions, is integrated through the achievement of tasks or through problem solving in multiple situations, so that the student analyzes and recognizes the conditions that determine the choice of procedures to follow. In this instance, we are referring to the cognitive strategies of generalization and discrimination.

- I integrate this principle in my practice: often ___ sometimes ___ seldom or never ___
- My *success stories* as a professor:
- Desired changes:

4. Recommend varied teaching and learning activities

These activities make it possible for the students to **learn in various ways**. As we know, students have different learning profiles. Some of them visualize what they hear, some hear it, and some repeat it while others need activities to learn. Moreover, certain students learn while reflecting on experiments they conducted while others prefer to apply the theories they have been taught. To reach the greatest number of students, professors must vary the way they approach new knowledge and present it.

- I integrate this principle in my practice: often ___ sometimes ___ seldom or never ___
- My *success stories* as a professor:
- Desired changes:

5. Involve metacognition

Cognitive introspection (metacognition) plays an important role in learning. The key word leading to cognitive introspection is *how*. How did I arrive at such a result? Which strategies did I use? What connections can I establish between the question asked and what I know? Or between the new situation and what I have already encountered? What do I recognize in this question or this problem? How could I begin to carry out this exercise? What resources (competencies and knowledge) do I possess and which ones must I acquire? It is important to question students when they encounter difficulties so that they may identify what they know and what they recognize.

Metacognition refers to the awareness that a person has of their strategies and their personal characteristics, both emotional and cognitive, as well as of their level of control. Metacognition makes it possible for students to manage their learning process and their work methods. Students who identify what they know and when or why they can use it, who know their learning style and the conditions they need to learn, can make decisions that will support their success. They become autonomous in their learning and master their role as student.

- I integrate this principle in my practice: often ___ sometimes ___ seldom or never ___
- My *success stories* as a professor:
- Desired changes:

Support tool 11.B
Five conditions conducive to learning

1. Establish an instructional relationship with the students

Taking time to speak to students and hearing what they have to say; asking them *how they are doing* before beginning the course … This may seem like a waste of time, but implementing this practice enables students to express certain feelings such as "*I am tired, I feel overwhelmed, it is a beautiful day outside, I'd rather be outside",* etc. These informal chats allow professors to display their empathy and even, occasionally, help students objectify types of situations. They strongly contribute to the creation of favourable opportunities for students to be receptive and to participate actively in their own learning. In fact, it is like helping the students enter into the spirit of the course, to make them available for what we wish to teach them. In this respect, it is important to remember that knowledge from other courses will also interact on student attitudes vis-à-vis the proposed learning.

The way a professor intervenes in the classroom transmits values that greatly influence the behaviour of students. The dynamics of professors, their passion, and their interest for the subject will likewise influence student motivation. In the same way, their attitude vis-à-vis comments and questions from the students will also communicate a message to them. Have you already calculated how much time the students have to answer a question you ask them?

- I integrate this principle in my practice: often ___ sometimes ___ seldom or never ___
- My *success stories* as a professor:
- Desired improvements:

2. Clearly explain to the students our expectations of what we want them to learn and what they must do

It is the responsibility of the professor to help students grasp the meaning of the activities presented to them in connection with course objectives. Students need to be regularly updated on their progress in relation to the whole of the class (*we covered this…, we are introducing this...and then*…). What is the purpose of the learning?

The role of the professor and that of the students must be clearly defined relative to the learning task; and this must be clearly explained to the students so that they feel they have contributed to the choice of activities they will be carrying out.

The students must be motivated to learn. They must have a goal to reach or a project to complete. This is the condition for the knowledge to have meaning and value for him. Motivation is a condition of learning but, as Tardif (1999) suggests, it should not be regarded as a cause of learning. It can certainly be a consequence of learning for example when student establish a pragmatic relation to their knowledge.

Motivated students are receptive to learning, their *brains are open*. For this reason, professors must be clear as to their expectations before each course and/or before each new activity in the classroom. Students must understand what they must do and the professor helps them **get going** in the learning project. This could be a matter of listening in order to do a practical exercise or repeating in one's own words; taking notes to organize, elaborate and memorize at a later date; asking questions, etc. The professor must tell the students what they must pay attention to and what to do with the information. The nature of these projects has to be connected to the final goal of the course.

Research shows that students tend to consider their role (their profession) generally as an extension of what they learned in school, i.e. they listen to the professor to retain what will be asked on the exam. In this sense, they have everything or almost everything to learn about being students and what is expected from them.

- I integrate this principle in my practice: often ___ sometimes ___ seldom or never ___
- My *success stories* as a professor:
- Desired improvements:

3. Allot sufficient time for each stage of learning

Learning is carried out in three stages:

- Preparation for learning (to be available, to be mentally receptive).
- Data processing and exercise on the learning task to master. this stage is crucial so that students may integrate the new knowledge into their long-term memory and connect it to their prior knowledge. It involves the encoding of information.
- Storage of information and development of automatic reactions through practical exercises and repetition. This period supports long-term memorization.

- I integrate this principle in my practice: often ___ sometimes ___ seldom or never ___
- My *success stories* as a professor:
- Desired improvements:

4. Allow students in the classroom to reflect and learn

The new knowledge must be called up by the student in order to be processed, transferred, and preserved in long-term memory. There must be periods set aside for thinking and for doing exercises in the classroom, breaks that allow the student to visualize what has been just covered, to seek an answer to a question, or to carry out a task. For example, the student learns by asking questions about a text, by taking notes, by discussing the learning task with other students, by teaching peers, writing abstracts, formulating and criticizing assumptions on the problem. These recall periods in the classroom can be used to show students how to study by encouraging them to schedule these periods outside of classroom hours as well. Student can be asked to reflect on what they know about a subject, what they want to know and finally what they have learned; a method referred to as **KWL:** K (what I know), W (what I want to know) and L (what I learned).

- I integrate this principle in my practice: often ___ sometimes ___ seldom or never ___
- My *success stories* as a professor:
- Desired improvements:

5. Assign work that makes them learn

The work given to the students must be part of the learning sequence. The work must belong to the group of activities that help students acquire learning leading to course mastery and the knowledge to act. Work can thus be initiated on its own or as part of certain activities in class to enable students clearly to visualize what is expected of them. The professor assumes the role of trainer and stimulates the students by showing them paths for correcting or further developing their work.

According to this way of thinking, formative or summative evaluation, including examinations, can be linked to the work that is asked of the students. According to Tardif (1999), it is necessary for evaluation practices to be consistent with the objectives and the activities requested from the students because they will judge what is important based on the content of the evaluations. Moreover, "*it is important that the evaluation content and its requirements respect what has been taught* "[31].

- I integrate this principle in my practice: often ___ sometimes ___ seldom or never ___
- My *success stories* as a professor:
- Desired improvements:

Alternate conditions:

[31]TARDIF, Jacques. 1999. *Le transfert des apprentissages*, Les Éditons Logiques, Montréal, p. 193

Section IV
Supporting documents

Document 1
The learner's concepts are the starting point for learning

"Work with to go against"
Andre Giordan[32]

Teaching does not always produce the anticipated results. "The didactic ration, i.e. the amount of knowledge acquired versus time spent, is very poor, sometimes inexistent. Some reasoning "errors" or "erroneous" notions appear repeatedly among pupils with baffling regularity, even after numerous learning sequences. However, when we observe what goes on in the classroom, the overall course seems coherent and logical. Overall, the lessons appear to be understood.

How should we interpret this? There are undoubtedly many reasons for these difficulties: the large number of students, loss of interest in subject matter, the dispersion of knowledge over multiple disciplines, the diminished aura of the teacher, documents that are sometimes illegible, etc. However, the main reason may lie elsewhere. Too frequently, students are present in the education system but not actively engaged in it. They are present in class, but absent in the eyes of the teacher. As students, they are generally unaware of what they know (or do not know) and do not take their own way of learning into account.

To bridge this gap, a number of didactic studies were undertaken in the past twenty years. The results have made it possible to understand student questions, ideas, thought processes and frames of reference relative to single-discipline or interdisciplinary contents; all the elements that fall under the generic term "conception". The results also show different ways of looking at teaching methods.

What is a conception?

Even before students learn a subject, they already have preconceived ideas – direct or indirect – on the material that will be taught. It is with these ideas that they will attempt to understand the teacher and interpret the various situations and/or documentation provided. Largely, these conceptions are stable. Learning a new subject and the

[32] Source : http://www.unige.ch/fapse/SSE/teachers/giordan/LDES/infos/publi/articles/concep.html

development of a thinking process are dependent on them. If we do not consider these "conceptions", they remain stagnant. Then, the new learning only scratches the surface and students are barely affected by it.

Being aware of students' ideas and their ways of thinking makes it possible for teachers to adapt their practices and offer teaching that is more efficient. However, let us clarify certain ambiguities.

To begin with, identifying the conceptions of learners does not mean they will be taken into account. Too often in our classroom observations, teachers asked students to express their ideas but then did not act on them. Many teachers felt that asking was sufficient. They then continued with their usual oral presentations and teaching in front of the class. To us, the conceptions of students are only the initial stage in learning activities. We must proceed from there. The acquisition of knowledge also includes the learning of attitudes, approaches, and "major" conceptions (basic knowledge). This is not easy to achieve. It requires more than presenting a sum of knowledge to students (teaching the students more and teaching them more effectively) so they can understand, memorize and integrate it spontaneously. It is the learners and only the learners who can develop each piece of knowledge. Moreover, to do this, they must rely on the tools available to them i.e., their conceptions.

Secondly, a conception is not what emerges in class i.e., what the student says, writes or does. A conception corresponds to the underlying thought structure that is at the heart of what the student thinks, says, writes, or draws.

A conception is not an accident. It is the fruit of the prior experience of learners (whether children or adults). It is their matrix for reading, interpreting and predicting reality. It can also be their intellectual prison. However, it is also their only way of comprehending the world. The conception responds to interrogations (questions). It uses reasoning and interpretations (operating mode) for support as well as other ideas under their influence (frame of reference), it governs the way people express themselves (personal meaning) and the way they give meaning to things (semantic network). These various elements are obviously not easy to dissociate. They are in complete interaction as the formula below shows.

CONCEPTION = f (P:R:M:N:S.)

P (problem) is a set of more or less explicit questions that mobilize and call conceptions into action. It is the driving force behind all intellectual activity.

R (frame of reference) is the set of peripheral knowledge that subjects draw on to formulate their conceptions. In other words, learners rely conceptions they have already mastered to generate new conceptions.

M (mental processes) is the set of all intellectual processes and transformations controlled by the learners. These processes enable them to make connections between

elements in their frame of reference, make inferences, and thus generate and use conceptions. Specialists call them operatory invariants.

N (semantic network) is the interactive organization set in place, arising from the frame of reference and mental processes. It gives a semantic coherence to the whole. In other words, it is the result of the interplay of relationships established between the main and peripheral components of conceptions. This process produces a network of meaning, and gives the conception a sense of its own.

S (signifiers) is the set of notions, signs, and symbols necessary for the conception's generation and explanation.

How simple is it to change one's ideas?

It seems abundantly clear that learning is not the result of a simple process of transmission (the teacher speaks then demonstrates) but rather a process of transformation: the transformation of a student's questions, ideas, and thought processes. Teachers can greatly facilitate this transformation by "working with" the conceptions of learners, allowing them to be identified. They can also "work against" the conceptions by attempting to convince the learners that they are wrong or that their conceptions are self-limiting.

In fact, educational notions originating with the works of Brunner, Ausubel, Piaget and Vygotsky on one hand, and Bachelard on the other, are limiting. Today, we need to go beyond. As such, the allosteric model developed in our laboratory clearly shows that it is necessary to "work with to go against". This is not contradictory! Allow us to elaborate.

Backed by research in genetic psychology, some pedagogues recommend that students discuss the conceptions that have emerged in the initial stage, as a group in the classroom. This is an excellent method for starting any learning situation. It supports motivation and questioning. It makes it possible for learners to take a step back and clarify what they are thinking. This work on personal conceptions enables students to broaden their perspective, enrich it, and evolve personally. The clash of ideas between learners can be completed by a project dealing with reality via small experiments or investigations with older students, via a confrontation with written documentation or simply via statements provided by the professor.

Gradually through a series of investigations and progressive structuring, knowledge becomes more elaborate. When it comes to the construction of a conception or the acquisition of a method however, the approach quickly reveals its limitations. There is no way to go beyond the initial conception in situations where the obstacle is caused by prior thinking referred to as an "epistemological obstacle". The approach assumes there is continuity between familiar knowledge and conceptions and that the learner can pass from one to the other seamlessly. However, it is wrong to view conceptions as mere stages in the process of building or to state that "to learn is to enrich ourselves with conceptions" as it reveals a serious misunderstanding that would be dangerous to propagate.

To overcome this difficulty, other pedagogues in accordance with the ideas of Bachelard, recommended correcting the errors of the students immediately. However, how do you eradicate a conception? One solution comes immediately to mind: "Destroy" the initial conception and replace it with the correct conception. A logical deduction! After having located the obstacle, the teacher tries to correct it while focusing on the difficulties it brings to light.

We have all used this method and have realized that, even after multiple tests followed by evaluations; things do not work that way. When an error corresponds to a strongly anchored way of thinking (conception) and is not simple ignorance, it does not matter what explanation is given. It will not change a thing. This never fails to surprise. Even though masterly comments appear relevant, coherent, simple, and adapted, learners generally miss the point. At best, they integrate some bits and pieces while maintaining the "inner core" of their initial idea. A person convinced against their will is of the same opinion still.

To "work with to go against"

Teaching is not that simple or obvious. Moreover, there are no universal methods valid for all students, at all times. Fortunately, didactic research can offer a series of tools to help the teacher make enlightened educational choices. What choices?

Initially, it seems it is not only necessary to start from existing ideas but to make them evolve and change. We cannot help but start from 'preconceived' ideas. It is the only tool available to the student to help him decode the situation and its messages. At the same time, these conceptions must be furthered. Knowledge is elaborated based on in-depth remodeling.

However, nothing could be more difficult than to "destroy" ideas already in place. Teachers often underestimate the resistance of prior knowledge. A conception never functions in isolation. In connection with a broader coherent structure - the thought processes of learners- the repository of logic and meaning – a conception tends to resist even the most persuasive arguments. In addition, recognizing that thinking is erroneous or limited does not mean a new conception will be easier to understand. Learning requires the development of new relationships and new models, etc.

This is where the allosteric learning model becomes effective. It shows how every acquisition begins with the learner elaborating a new way of thinking (new information that calls their prior knowledge into play); and finally, producing new meanings more apt to provide appropriate answers to their questions.

This process is not immediate; new knowledge "is not understood" immediately by learners for a variety of reasons. Initially, there may be information missing. In other situations, the necessary information may be accessible but learners may not be motivated to acquire it, or they are preoccupied with another question. Perhaps they are

unable to access it due to lack of methodology, means of operation, frames of reference, etc. Finally, they may be missing key elements for effective understanding. In the case of basic learning, knowledge to acquire does not conform directly to the pattern of prior knowledge and this often creates a problem when it comes to integration.

A radical transformation of the conceptual network is essential. This involves additional conditions. First, learners must be in a position to go beyond the construct of their prior familiar knowledge and be motivated i.e., have a meaningful reason to do so. Secondly, the initial idea changes only if the learner is confronted with converging and redundant elements that make the conception unmanageable. Thirdly, the learner can only work out a new conceptual network by connecting in a different way to material that is already stored. The learner must rely on organizational models that structure data differently. On these levels, the allosteric model includes a system of parameters or limiting factors, which creates a positive didactic environment.

Alas, constructivist models seem rather crude in educational practice. Learning brings together a series of multiple, polyfunctional and pluricontextual activities. Learning mobilizes several mental organizational levels, which at first seem disparate, as well as a considerable number of regulatory loops. To try to explain everything in a single theoretical framework seems almost impossible -- even more so, as different constructivist models have been produced in extremely specialized fields. For example, not everything depends on the cognitive structures as Piaget defined them, in the case of learning scientific concepts. Subjects who have attained very developed levels of abstraction can reason out new content just as young children would! What is involved is not only an operating level, but also a global conception of the situation, a type of questioning and a frame of reference, of signifiers, of semantic networks (including broader overall knowledge of context and learning), etc. Piaget's theory does not discuss these components that orient thinking and learning.

In the same way, the acquisition of knowledge is not achieved only through "reflective" abstraction. In fact, in the case of scientific learning it can have a deforming or mutating effect. A new element seldom fits into the pattern of acquired knowledge. On the contrary, it frequently represents an obstacle to integration. To try to explain it all in terms of "assimilation" or "accommodation" is very risky. Generally, it is necessary to consider deconstruction occurring simultaneously with reconstruction. The knowledge already in place usually prevents any assimilation of information considered different and remote. Similarly, accommodation confronts the model mobilized by learners. This results in pernicious interferences that block any new elaboration of knowledge.

For learners to be able to grasp a new model and mobilize a concept, their overall mental structure requires a complete transformation. Their question framework needs to be completely reformulated, their reference network largely re-elaborated. These mechanisms are never instantaneous. They pass through phases of conflict or interference. Everything is a question of approximation, concernment, confrontation, de-contextualization, interconnection, rupture, alternation, emergence, stratification, stepping back and, above all, mobilization.

Constructivists seem to be largely silent on the contexts and conditions that favour learning. This is frustrating when one is concerned with education or mediation. However, this is quite normal; it is not their concern... At best, they put forth the idea of "maturation", i.e., natural development, or "equilibration", without specifying the conditions of incorporating such activities in a practice. Vinh Bang is very realistic on the subject. In 1989, he notes with regret “we are still lacking a psychology of the student”. Actually, we must still elaborate the entire psychology of learning, but is it really psychology?

The allosteric model

Our proposition is very pragmatic and this is undoubtedly, why it has experienced success among Anglo-Saxons. It is not designed to produce any additional models of the learner's cognitive processes. Its objective is to decode bit by bit, and in the light of specific knowledge, various types of learning. It appears in the form of a systemic and multi-stratified entity where self-regulating loops and levels of integration are put to the fore.
All mastered knowledge is at once the extension of previously acquired knowledge, which provides the framework for questioning, reference, and meaning, and a rupture with it, at least by bending it or transforming it through questioning.

Every learning experience represents a change in conceptions. This is never a simple process since the learner is never neutral towards the change. It can even be a disagreeable one. The conceptions mobilized by learners provide meaning, and change is perceived as a threat. It changes the meaning of our experiences. The validated conception intervenes at once as an integrator and as a formidable resistor to any new data contradicting the pre-established system of explanations. On top of this, learners must exercise deliberate control over their activities and the processes governing them at various levels that we will attempt to enumerate.

All acquisition of knowledge thus proceeds from the complex elaborational activity of learners confronting new information and its mobilized knowledge, and then producing new meanings more apt to answer questions asked or to satisfy the stakes involved. Thus what we call active conceptual sites develop; they are types of interactional structures with a preponderant role in the organization of new information. The didactic environment can influence these sites in their elaboration of the new conceptual network.

Beyond the description of cognitive strategies, our work is primarily didactic. Its aim is to favour the appropriation of knowledge both in and out of school. Although learners learn, they cannot do it alone. Between learners and the object of knowledge, a system of multiple interrelations must be set up. This is never spontaneous. The probability of learners being able to "discover" all the elements needed to transform their questions and continue building networks is practically zero. On the other hand, these approaches can be largely favoured by everything that we call "environment”, the learner's disposition not included.

At the beginning of any learning, it is indispensable to have a certain degree of dissonance perturbing the cognitive network formed by mobilized conceptions. This perturbation creates tension that disrupts and displaces the fragile balance that the learners' brain has put in place. This dissonance creates progress.

At same time, a certain number of significant elements (documentation, experimentation, and argumentation) that challenge them and lead them to take a step back, and to reformulate their ideas or debate them must confront learners. In the same way, a certain degree of limited formalism (symbolism, graphs, schemata and models), some kind of thinking aids, must be integrated in their approach. A new formulation of knowledge does not replace the old unless learners find it interesting and learn to use it. New confrontations with adapted situations and selected information can be profitable in the mobilization of knowledge during these stages as well.

For each one, our micro models are used to decipher constraints, forecast situations, activities, and interventions that favour learning.

With allosteric learning, the whole question of teaching becomes clearer. New functions for teachers have been corroborated. Their importance no longer lies a priori in lectures or demonstrations. Rather, the efficacy of their action is in a context of interaction with the conceptions and cognitive strategies of learners. Primarily, their role is to regulate the act of learning, to engage students, to provide orientation and to impart tools for conceptualization, to give meaning to knowledge.

To find out more:

A. GIORDAN et G. DE VECCHI, Les origines du savoir, Delachaux, 1987. G. DE VECCHI et A. GIORDAN, L'enseignement scientifique, comment faire pour que "ça marche"? Z'Editions, 1989.

B. A. GIORDAN, Y. GIRAULT et P. CLEMENT, Conceptions et connaissance, Peter Lang, 1994

Document 2
Socioconstructivist coaching

"From a socioconstructivist viewpoint, the coach (teacher) or accompanying person is placed in a context where change is required and the coach is not the person who *knows*, but rather someone who *seeks'*"(from Vecchi and Carmona-Magnaldi, 1996, -257). According to these authors, "to construct knowledge means to *change*". When we consider the teaching strategies adopted by the majority of teachers (with their emphasis on the transmission of knowledge and the importance of *covering* the entire course content), we see that adopting a socioconstructivist approach will require many teachers to modify their practices and acknowledge their role as coach. They cannot do the work of learners, only learners can engage the construction process.

The role of expert generally assigned to the coach should be that of guide, (…) this change requires the acceptance of a state of imbalance and the taking of pedagogical risks. This new perspective presupposes reflection on current practices and a study of links between these practices and the principles on which they are based.

Socioconstructivist coaching refers to support given in learning situations that facilitate the knowledge building process. The idea is to help students reactivate prior knowledge, establish links with the new knowledge, and transfer the fruit of their learning to an actual situation. It requires interaction between the coach and the person being coached[33]."

The table below (translated from Lafortune, Deaudelin, 2001) synthesizes the necessary competencies, prerequisites and inherent conditions to any socioconstructivist approach and the actions which must be taken by a coach.

[33] LAFORTUNE, Louise, DEAUDELIN, Colette, *Accompagnement socioconstructiviste, Pour s'approprier une réforme en éducation*, Presses de l'Université du Québec, 2001, p. 26

A synthesis on the socioconstructivist approach

Socioconstructivist approach: competencies	
Master interpersonal communication in coaching situations	▪ listen actively, speak clearly and display an openness to others ▪ give and receive feedback ▪ verify the interpretation of the message, choose a subject apt to assist learners in their learning ▪ establish and maintain good interpersonal relationships and remain attentive to this aspect of communication
Know how to animate and manage a group in a learning situation	▪ assist the group in managing its conflicts ▪ support mutual assistance within the framework of a learning situation ▪ support the achievement of learning tasks
Bring about learning experiences based on theoretical perspectives	▪ plan a learning activity ▪ intervene while respecting theoretical bases ▪ ensure support in learning situations ▪ evaluate the learning, taking into account the type of coaching

Socioconstructivist approach: conditions	
Prerequisite: *Possess an educational culture*	This educational culture consists of: – Knowledge of main theories in learning (constructivism, behaviorism, cognitivism), – Knowledge of the different facets of coaching (feedback, questioning, metacognition, reflective practice…), – Knowledge of aspects inherent to teaching (pedagogical methods, evaluation methods…). – Knowledge of topical issues concerning education. Additionally, this academic culture must include the capacity to establish links between various ways of thinking, models, and interpretations of teaching approaches, teaching, and learning situations. It must also display an ability to confront differing viewpoints. This knowledge and these skills are essential to the creation of cognitive conflicts and the confrontation with concepts that are more or less accurate. Lastly, coaches who want their students to succeed need enough self-confidence to elicit diverging viewpoints and to encourage individuals to justify their ideas.
Inherent condition A: *Foster an emotional climate supporting the construction of knowledge*	In order to create a climate favourable for construction of knowledge it is necessary to create a climate of mutual confidence. This condition is essential to allow cognitive conflicts and exploit a situation where learners do not feel judged.
Inherent condition B: *Agree to take the time needed for constructions to emerge*	It is very easy to give in to the temptation of introducing too many activities for learners. In order to support a socioconstructivist approach, it is necessary to view planning in a different light. It is best if the coach prepares several learning activities, agreeing to take the time and recognizing that not all training activities will be achieved, in order to take advantage of discussions emerging from the group. These discussions are essential insofar as they bring about the confrontation of notions, support co-construction, and allow for a deepening of knowledge.

Inherent condition C: *Agree to adjust learning tools in accordance with the construction process used*	If we agree to support the construction of knowledge, it is understood that major adjustments might be necessary during learning. This means that coaches must examine the planned activities in-depth, often giving the impression that the activities are different. However, experience teaches that expertise can be developed to modify activities during the learning and design new ones without feeling destabilized.
Socioconstructivist approach: actions	
Considering the prerequisite and inherent conditions, a socioconstructivist approach assumes that the coach can accomplish the following actions:	
Cause previously acquired experience to emerge so as to construct new knowledge	To support knowledge construction, learners must identify on what they must focus. By activating previous experiences (knowledge, skills and attitudes), learners can focus on the knowledge that will help them integrate the new learning. This practice prevents cognitive overload sometimes experienced by learners when they devote too much attention to knowledge not connected to the subject matter; and that can hinder the construction process.
Provoke sociocognitive conflicts and exploit those that emerge from the discussions	In the course of a learning activity, it can happen that the desired concepts are not being constructed as planned. Rather erroneous notions may remain. To verify the construction of this knowledge, it is important to bring about sociocognitive conflicts that cause learners to experience problematic activities: unsettling their notions and causing social interactions so sociocognitive conflicts can bring about the exchanges of ideas.

Co-construction through action	In socioconstructivist perspective, in order to coach a learner successfully, it is necessary to learn to co-construct through action, which means: ▪ Be ready to call our definitions into question ▪ Be attentive to ideas expressed, no discrimination at first sight ▪ Have acquired skills to create diagrams and syntheses of discussions ▪ Be able to do an analysis to highlight what distinguishes the various concepts put forth by the members of the group.
Shed light on erroneous concepts	The importance of causing cognitive conflicts leading the learners to call into question their erroneous notions has already been emphasized. In order to take into account the evolution of the group in question, it is sometimes necessary to maintain these erroneous perceptions until a later time in the learning activity. It is not always necessary or desirable to confront them immediately.
Make the most of moments when constructions bring about awareness	Persons who are coached during the construction of knowledge adjust their concepts. Making the most of these moments to help learners become aware of constructions or of the different ways to structure knowledge supports the development of metacognitive skills.

Document 3
Learning Principles

The DISCAS Guide Frame of reference

This document contains the core of educational thinking developed by DISCAS over a period of years, on the connection between study programs and the learning process of the young[34].

General didactic principles

Québec is thinking vis-à-vis education, particularly that of the ministère de l'Éducation, offers certain constants for all course programs and prescribes **a way of teaching** that presents specific characteristics.

Every pedagogical practice including intuition, relates to a concept of learning and thus a concept of teaching. When this concept is explicit and coherent and has an impact on the educational environment, it is called an educational **model**; it is not a model that is to be followed and imitated but rather a coherent set of pedagogical principles.

Each model positions students and learning in a specific way. Let us review some of the past models used in Québec.

In **traditional** education, the student was a receiver and a storehouse of knowledge, an unformed ball of wax waiting to be shaped entirely by external models. This style of teaching favoured lectures and the imitation of models. In the **behaviorist** perspective, students were conditioned to behave in certain ways by stimuli and then repeated the behaviour until the correct response was reached: Teaching was basically micro-teaching and programmed exercises. For its part, **non-directed** education assumes that students are naturally predisposed to learn and should be left free to do so. Teaching disappears and efforts are largely concentrated on creating a favourable environment in which students choose their own path.

For the past forty years, Québec oscillated between these models before finally reaching a broad consensus - in theory even if not always in practice – on a concept of learning that originated with Piaget and became known as **cognitive** - the term we use - and underwent various incarnations with the most recent being cognitive inter-structuring and strategic teaching.

[34] Translated from: http://discas.educ.infinit.net/Cadreref/Documents/principesImpacts.html

Beyond the current buzzwords and the jargon of specialists, the concept on which all programs are based can be summed up in a few simple principles. They are **general didactic principles** (**GDP**):

GDP 1 it *is the student who does the learning*. To learn is an active process that requires that the student be engaged and mobilized. It is what we mean when we say that *a student is a learning subject* or that students are *the agents of their own learning*.

GDP 2 *The student must be motivated to learn*. It is necessary for the student to have a minimum amount of motivation and confidence as regards learning. Students must feel that what is asked of them is meaningful.

GDP 3 *The student learns in order to act*. Learning must make it possible to carry out actions and to accomplish tasks that were inaccessible before. Without being exclusively utilitarian, learning must be useful and find applications in "real life". This is exactly what we mean when we say that the acquisition of knowledge can only be justified in the context of developing competencies.

GDP 4 *The student learns by doing*. It is through personal experience, concrete manipulation and the achievement of tasks, that the student internalizes information and learning strategies.

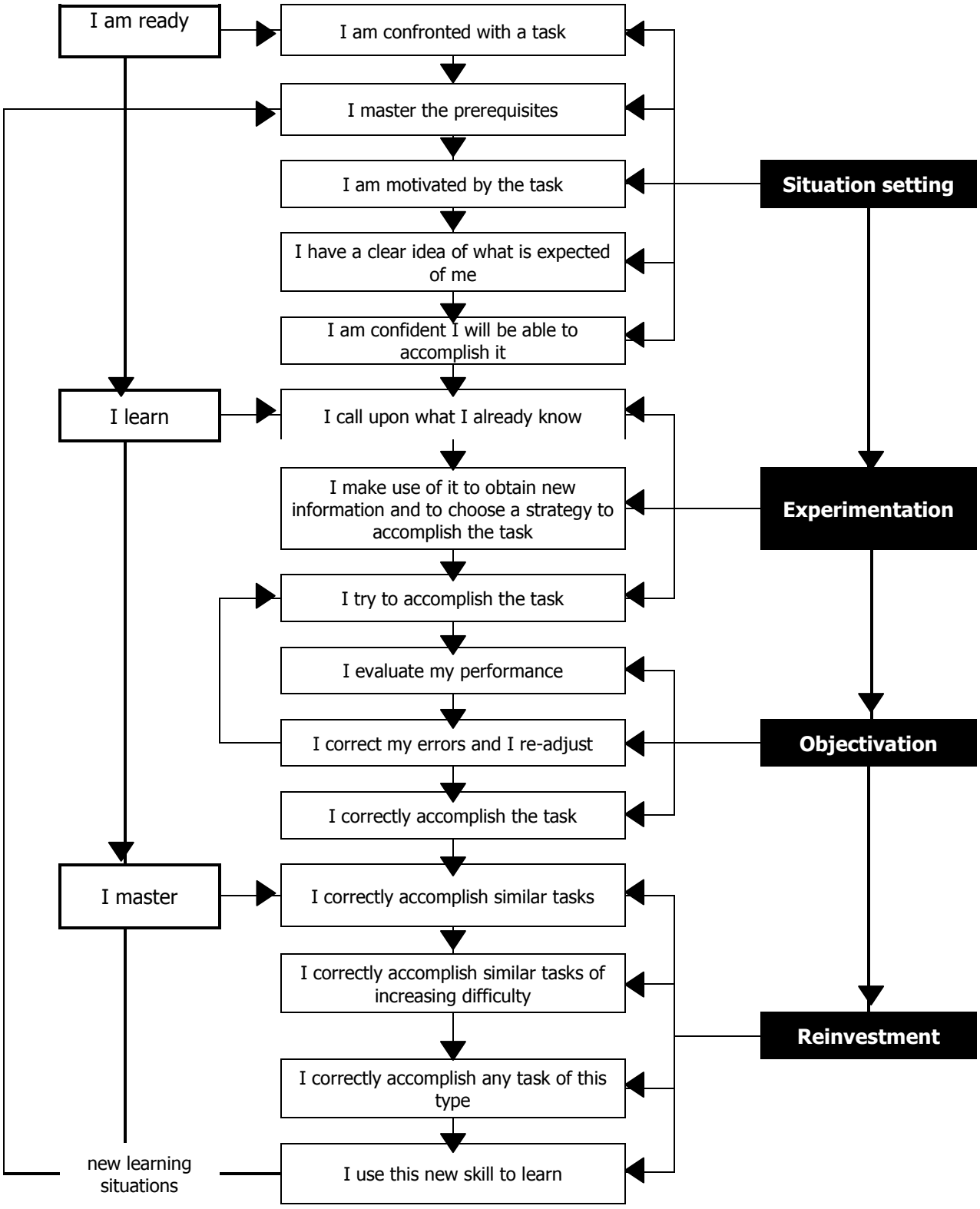
GDP 5 *Students learn by seeing themselves in action.* The goal of learning is to correct errors. However, errors also help us learn. This happens when students discover themselves and compare themselves to others, identify their own errors and successes, know what causes errors and what strategies lead to success, and why. Consequently, learning must integrate stages of feedback, objectivation, metacognition, etc.: A whole series of technical terms that mean reflecting on what was done to better succeed at what we want to do.

GDP 6 *The student uses strategies to learn*. Even when students seem to be learning very little or learning poorly, they do not learn randomly. They begin with what they know and connect new situations to this prior knowledge. If this method proves to be successful, they will re-use it until they discover that it has limitations or until they find a better way. Students also readily generalize and give themselves recipes for success, if not rules to follow. Teaching must capitalize on this ability by making it explicit and supporting it.

GDP 7 *Students learn based on what they already know*. Faced with a new situation, students try to find known elements and familiar structures to use as benchmarks. Before inventing new strategies, they will test those already known. In short, they call upon their own experience and prior knowledge in order to learn.

The **General learning process** chart below illustrates and summarizes the learning process described by these didactic principles.

General Learning Process



Document 4

Planning the development of a competency based on a typical learning process[35]		
Learning process	**Practical application in a competency-based approach**	**Means of learning**
Activation: Awakening the student's cognitive and emotional acquisitions relative to the competency and knowledge to be taught	***On the emotional level***: To stimulate student motivation by focusing on links to the competency, the relevance of the knowledge and the learning tasks and their feasibility, etc. ***On the cognitive level***: To have students carry out a task connected to the competency based on their prior knowledge. If the acquired knowledge is insufficient, a task connected to a familiar subject can used as an analogy for the competency or knowledge.	**Emotional level:** • Discussion with students on the relevance of the desired goal; its link to the development of the competency; • Highlighting a stimulating application; • Emphasizing the student's ability to succeed; **Cognitive level:** • Work on simple situations; • Individual questioning and in teams; • Pooling; • Request simple examples from the students; • Students recall knowledge acquired in previous courses with or without the assistance of documentation
Elaboration: The students establish connections, rightly or wrongly, between what they know, what they learn and what they seek to understand.	To ask students to make assumptions about situations, phenomena and knowledge; to require they provide precise justification for their assumptions	• Brainstorming; • Explanation of problem situations, request for explanation of unusual laws or phenomena, precise justification of the assumptions made; • Request for explanation of contradictory phenomena and diverging viewpoints among students; • Confrontation of student explanations by the teacher

[35] Pôle de l'Est, 1996:216-218

Planning the development of a competency based on a typical learning process		
Learning process	**Practical application in a competency-based approach**	**Means of learning**
Organization: Learning must lead to a clear and correct structuring of knowledge in every student.	One of the preferred methods begins with the teacher presenting the relevant concepts and procedures. This presentation is not enough to guarantee that the structuring will take place in the student. Activities like schematization by the student, the modeling of situations by the student, the drafting of summary sentences, the description of the relationships between the concepts, etc. can be used as learning tools. It is the work of the students to develop their own structure of knowledge, with assistance.	• Use of structuring in order to help the student establish relationships; • Conceptual diagrams and procedures used by the teacher; • Diagrams developed by the student; • Summary sentences; • Abstract; • Description of the relationship between key words; • Use of examples to illustrate acquisitions.
Application: To use the conceptual and procedural knowledge acquired at the stage of organization, with decreasing assistance and support.	A competency cannot develop if the student does not use the knowledge. Initially simple situations to process are introduced, with appropriate assistance. The importance lies in having students justify their choices and their applications, based on relevant concepts and procedures.	• Request for application via tools; • Description of the approach used; • Search for examples and non-examples by the student; • Exercises, demonstration and problem solving with feedback; • Specific interpretation of problem situations solved by others.

Planning the development of a competency based on a typical learning process		
Learning process	**Practical application in a competency-based approach**	**Means of learning**
Proceduralization: To use structured acquisitions in increasingly complex situations to develop the ability to act quickly while remaining effective. To implement the stages necessary to make problem solving increasingly 'automatic'.	The student must be introduced to increasingly complex situations. In doing so, the implementation stages and explicit use of the relevant knowledge will become increasingly easy. The explicit written formulation by the student at each stage also supports the metacognitive process. Proceduralization however, requires that support (assistance, documentation, steps) be reduced gradually as well as the time allotted for the task.	• Request for application with problem situations that are increasingly contextualized; • Situation scenarios, role playing, laboratories that become increasingly complex, case studies; • Identification of personal examples; • Self-evaluation.
Integration: Increasing autonomy in the implementation of acquisitions connected to the development of competencies. The ultimate goal of learning is the integration of new learning in the structure of student knowledge and their way of approaching situations.	How can we know if a student has integrated the learning? One way is to confront students with new situations, in contexts where they are not told they will be required to apply such or such a procedure. The students must then identify the nature of the process they will use, choose the appropriate learning model, solve the situation, and justify their choices. This will gradually support a transfer of acquired knowledge to new situations. This transfer will also occur in situations that are more or less connected to the subject matter itself. (For example, to ask the student in a mathematics course to solve integrals using concepts taken from physics). This processing obviously supports metacognition by the student, and is in turn supported by teaching itself, especially at the outset of the development of a competency.	• Presentation of diversified problem situations with no clues on how to resolve them; • Real or simulated situations of increasing complexity; • Use in authentic situations; • Examples, situation scenarios, problem situations, role playing, case study; • Autonomous laboratories; • Critical analysis of work carried out by others; • Self-evaluation.

Document 5

Educational principles behind the implementation of study programs

Application of educational principles in the implementation of study programs[36]

The conclusions drawn from research in cognitive psychology outline five major pedagogical principles that can be used to make a critical examination of educational practices. These principles are also used to establish the orientation that should influence program implementation.

Educational principle	The students	The teachers	School administrators	Educational services	General directorate
1st principle: Learning is an active and constructive process.	- Construct *their knowledge* in a personal and progressive way according to an active interior process; - Learning is defined by the discovery and construction of meaning based on information or a learning experience.	- Get to know *the orientations* of the study programs personally and progressively, by engaging themselves actively in the process; - The acquisition of orientations and content of the study program is defined by the discovery and construction of meaning based on information and *concrete experiences*.	- Get to know *the orientations* of the study programs personally and progressively; seek to produce a coherent and meaningful model for themselves, for the application of these orientations in the support of teaching personnel.	- Understand that the various categories of personnel do not process data and experience in the same way or on an equal footing. It is their task to create an environment favourable to the construction of pedagogical knowledge, playing the role of mediators and trainers in this process.	- Know, understand and endorse the principles and orientations of the study programs; supervise the application of these orientations and validate the knowledge, comprehension, and application of the study programs for the various categories of personnel and their respect of these orientations.
2nd principle: Learning is primarily the creation of links between new material and prior knowledge.	- Process information by connecting it to knowledge already stored in memory. - A great deal of attention must be given to prior knowledge of students, since this constitutes the filter through which the new material is processed.	- Process orientations and program context relative to learning models, the knowledge, and practices already stored in their memory. - The pedagogical knowledge and know-how of the teachers is the filter through which new data relating to the orientations and the contents of the study programs are processed.	- Clearly visualize the data on current pedagogical practices at their school and establish connections with the pedagogical data underlying the application of the study programs.	- Understand that the application of study programs cannot be carried out without a connection to current pedagogical practices, and plan learning situations that allow for the construction of new teaching practices.	- Clearly indicate the changes to current pedagogical practices and recommend a reflection period on the pedagogical practices for use in their educational environment.
3rd principle: Learning requires the constant organization of knowledge.	- Students skilled in learning are able to organize the knowledge that is stored in their long-term	- Continuing education relative to study programs must allow teachers to fashion a coherent and	- Facilitate exchanges, the sharing of knowledge and experiences relating to	- Plan for the creation of an ongoing learning environment that supports and respects the	- *Are aware* that the different categories of school staff individually organize

[36] Translated from Nicole Tardif, Pour réussir la mise en œuvre des programmes d'études : un processus continu », Vie pédagogique, no 110, February-March 1999, p. 37-41.

Educational principle	The students	The teachers	School administrators	Educational services	General directorate
	memory. They have established links between knowledge relating to the same reality, and these links, i.e. this organization, not only enable them to recover the knowledge easily in memory, but also to process data or re-use knowledge simultaneously.	meaningful model of the pedagogical practice to be used and to reorganize their teaching interventions and strategies gradually.	learning via genuine communication between teachers - The learning of new educational practices is easier when teachers have the opportunity to discuss previously used strategies.	diversity of knowledge and pedagogical know-how, offer other pedagogical perspectives, develop reflective practices, allow access to other perceptions, and generate new knowledge.	information they receive, since individual acquisitions and experiences can differ substantially and, in addition, each individual naturally attempts to give the information personal meaning.
4th principle: Learning involves declarative knowledge as well as procedural and conditional knowledge.	- In cognitive psychology, the distinction between different types of knowledge is crucial: Knowledge is declarative (what), procedural (how to), or conditional (when and why to use declarative and procedural knowledge). - Based on this distinction, knowledge is visualized differently by students and stored in memory differently. This diversified knowledge is mastered using modeling, guided practices, cooperative and autonomous practice.	- Establish coherent pedagogical practices pursuant to the assimilation, comprehension and application of the orientations and the contents of study programs, the differentiated conceptual models of this knowledge, whether declarative, procedural or conditional knowledge.	- Offer teachers, as part of their ongoing learning, opportunities to acquire and apply various types of knowledge in varied and integrated situations in various fields of learning.	- Promote the participation and coaching of the different categories of personnel in the acquisition of declarative and procedural knowledge related either to study programs, or to the maintenance and implementation of adapted pedagogical practices. Coaching is characterized by modeling, guided practice, cooperative practice, and autonomous practice.	- Consider this principle in their vision of the system, given the consequences it has on educational practices in the field of teaching, evaluation, instructional management, teacher training and the role played by parents.
5th principle: Motivation determines the degree of engagement, participation, and	- Emotional variables such as self-image, feelings of competence and security, influence behaviour in	- The motivation of teachers in the application of study programs includes the following factors: The concept	- The beliefs of administration are determining factors in the application of the study programs.	- Provide the different categories of personnel with the strategies they need in the application of study programs and	- Are aware from past experience that the implementation of programs results in emotional reactions, either positive or

Educational principle	The students	The teachers	School administrators	Educational services	General directorate
persistence of students in their learning process.	learning situations. What motivates students at school includes the following factors: their concept of intelligence, the goals pursued by school, the perception they have of the value, requirements, and controllability of the task.	of learning and the goals targeted by program curriculum reform; the perception they have of the value, requirements, and control over the task required by this implementation.	- Based on this principle, the motivation of the administration determines the degree of teacher engagement in the adaptation and the enrichment of educational practices. The local school administration can have a considerable impact on this one component.	pay special attention to their perception of the control they have over learning tasks.	negative Are also aware that the motivation of the personnel plays a paramount role in the application of the study programs.

Document 6

Students at the centre of their own learning[37]

Student-centered learning (SCL), or learner-centeredness, is a learning model that places the student (learner) in the centre of the learning process. In student-centered learning, students are active participants in their learning; they learn at their own pace and use their own strategies; they are intrinsically rather than extrinsically motivated; learning is more individualized than standardized. Student-centered learning develops *learning-to-learn* skills such as problem solving, critical thinking, and reflective thinking. Student-centered learning accounts for and adapts to different learning styles of students.

Student-centered learning is distinguished from teacher-centered learning, which is characterized by the transmission of information from a knowledge expert (teacher) to a relatively passive recipient (student/learner) or consumer. According to McCombs and Whisler (1997), student-centered learning is

> "A perspective that posits individual learners (their heredity, experiences, perspectives, backgrounds, talents, interests, capacities and needs) and focuses on learning (the best knowledge available on learning, how it comes about and teaching practices that are the most effective at generating the highest levels of motivation, learning and achievement for all learners)."

Principles of student-centered learning

The learner-centered model reflects the necessity to focus on both the learner and the learning. Several features characterize student-centered learning. Students have opportunities and increased responsibility to identify their own learning needs, locate learning resources, and construct their own knowledge based on those needs (rather than having a standard or identical knowledge base imparted to all students).

McCombs and Whisler (1997) developed **12 major principles** of student-centered learning that relate to the following areas:

1. The nature of the learning process
2. Goals of the learning process
3. The construction of knowledge
4. Higher-order thinking
5. Motivational influences on learning
6. Intrinsic motivation to learn
7. Characteristics of motivation-enhancing learning tasks
8. Developmental constraints and opportunities
9. Social and cultural diversity
10. Social acceptance, self-esteem and learning
11. Individual differences in learning

[37] Translated summary of an article found at: http://www.intime.uni.edu/model/center_of_learning_files/principles.html University of Northern Iowa's College of Education, 2001 INTIME (Integrating New Technologies Into the Methods of Education)

12. Cognitive filters

1. The nature of the learning process: McCombs and Whisler (1997) defined the learning process as a natural inclination to pursue personally meaningful goals. The process is active, volitional, and internally mediated. It is a process of discovering and constructing meaning from information and experience, filtered through each learner's unique perceptions, thoughts, and feelings. Learning becomes an active process, in which the student is constantly engaged in a task. Being so involved, students seek their own underlying meaning. One of the goals of active learning is to have classroom activities focused on "reasoning and the evaluation of evidence, thus allowing students the opportunity to develop the ability to formulate and solve problems".

2. Goals of the learning process: McCombs and Whisler (1997) stated, "The learner seeks to create meaningful, coherent representations of knowledge regardless of the quantity and quality of data available". To accommodate the goals of the learning process, the INTIME Model (Integrating New Technologies into the Methods of Education) stresses the concept of *providing meaning*. This component of the INTIME Model is one of the most persistently honoured goals of teaching. By focusing on in-depth understanding, the quality of learning is greatly enhanced. Teachers are more likely to see what students do know and understand. Helping students acquire understanding is a difficult task. We commonly find that our students understand much less than we believed. That is why teachers employ different strategies to develop students' understanding. According to Stiggins (1997), "The most valuable lesson we have learned in recent years from those studying cognitive processes is that rote memorization does not ensure understanding, and thus is not an effective way of promoting learning"

The INTIME Model seeks to promote the "development of mature thinkers who are able to acquire, work together, and use knowledge. This means educating minds rather than training memories." (Adams & Hamm, 1996, p. 27). "Teachers who adhere to social constructivism help their students understand that they are co-constructors of knowledge, that they can make sense of things themselves".

3. The construction of knowledge: This concept means that the learner links new information to prior knowledge in unique and meaningful ways. It also means that students need opportunities to do more than just receive information. Although knowledge acquisition processes are needed to create a base, knowledge is useful only to the degree it can be applied or used to create new knowledge. The INTIME Model refers to the construction of knowledge in the Information Processing section, which is divided into Interpretation, Pre-search, Search, and Evaluation.

The model reinforces the *information processing approaches* because these approaches regard the human mind as a system to process symbols. The symbols convert sensory input into symbolic structures (propositions, images, diagrams), and then analyze (verify or elaborate) those symbolic structures so knowledge can be stored in memory for future retrieval. The outside world is seen as a source of input, but once the sensations are perceived and enter working memory, the important work takes place "inside the head" of the individual.

In the processing information, *interpretation* reinforces the construction of knowledge because "it is important for students to put their understanding into practice." "Interpretation requires the learner to identify the major ideas being communicated and understand how the parts of the message are interrelated".

4. Higher order thinking: This represents higher order strategies for "overseeing and monitoring cognitive capacities, facilitating creative and critical thinking and the development of expertise". Educational reformers wish to teach students how to ask questions, construct their interpretation and ideas, clarify, and elaborate on the ideas of others. If according to Berliner and Benard (1995), students are to be independent learners at the center of their own learning, they need to develop a sense of their individual identity, acquire the skills to act independently, and have some control over their environment.

Power sharing is a very important feature of education today because "sharing various interpretations of material," adds an extra dimension in the learning process. Students not only learn how others perceive certain issues, but can also appreciate the reasoning processes and life experiences that support the various interpretations".

5. Motivational influences on learning: These influences reflect the importance of learner beliefs, values, interests, and goals, expectations for success, and emotional states of mind in producing either positive or negative motivation toward learning. The depth and breadth of the information processed and what and how much is learned and remembered are influenced by (a) self-awareness and beliefs about personal control, competence and ability;
(b) clarity and saliency of personal values, interests, and goals;
(c) personal expectations for success or failure;
(d) affect, emotion, and general states of mind; and
(e) the resulting motivation to learn.

Research also shows that when students make connections between their own identity and the school, these connections foster lifelong learning and the development of important skills. Motivation to learn can be divided into four dimensions: behavioural, humanistic, cognitive, and socio-cultural. Behavioural motivation is expressed through support, rewards, incentives, and sanctions. From a humanistic point of view, the motivation to learn is characterized by a need for self-esteem, self-fulfillment, and self-determination. Cognitive motivation to learn is represented by the beliefs of learners, what they attribute to success or failure and their expectations. The socio-cultural motivation to learn is achieved through committed participation in learning communities and the stability of identity through participation in group activities. Part of this ability comes from an awareness and tolerance of cultural differences.

6. **Intrinsic motivation to learn**: The continuing impulse to learn is characterized by intense involvement, curiosity and a search for understanding. Intrinsic motivation to learn refers to the natural curiosity of learners; they love to read but intense negative emotions (e.g., feeling insecure, worrying about failure, self-consciousness and shyness, or fearing corporal punishment, ridicule, and stigmatizing labels) thwart this enthusiasm. To promote students' readiness to learn, "social constructivists are likely to focus their efforts on helping students find their passions, discover what they care about, create their own learning agendas, and

most importantly, connect what they are to what they do in schools". A socioconstructivist teacher knows that what students understand today determines what they will learn later.

7. Characteristics of motivational learning tasks: The tasks take into account the curiosity, creativity, and higher order thinking that are stimulated by relevant, authentic learning tasks of optimal difficulty and novelty for each student. Encouraging creativity in a classroom means accepting and encouraging divergent thinking, tolerating dissent and encouraging students to trust their own judgment.

8. Developmental constraints and opportunities: This refers to how individuals progress through stages of physical, intellectual, emotional, and social development that are a function of unique genetic and environmental factors. These factors make each individual different because students possess different types of thinking and therefore learn, remember, perform, and understand in different ways. Howard Gardner's theories of Multiple Intelligences and Dunn's Learning Style model respect these personal characteristics of students.

9. Social and cultural diversity: Learning is facilitated by social interactions and communication with others in flexible, diverse (in age, culture, family background, etc.), and adaptive instructional settings. To stress the idea of social and cultural diversity, the INTIME Model promotes the ideas of civil involvement with others, communication, and tolerance to stress the importance of developing interpersonal skills and interactions among students.

Communication refers to the relationships between students or between student and teacher. Cooperative learning is a teaching strategy that enables most students to communicate with each other while learning, and to participate in peer learning. *Tolerance* is an element of the INTIME Model that shows that students need to be friendly, cooperative, approving, affectionate, and want to share. Students who live in a democratic society need to develop compassion, cooperation, and the ability to accept responsibility for their actions. When talking about civil involvement with others, the INTIME Model stresses an "important strategy, which is to help students build a collective identity, a sense of themselves as a group rather than a collection of individuals". The goal is to foster social bonding i.e., to help students recognize their connection to one another.

10. Social acceptance, self-esteem, and learning: Learning and self-esteem increase when individuals are in respectful and caring relationships with those who see their potential, genuinely appreciate their unique talents, and accept them as individuals. This social acceptance fosters receptivity to feedback on their ideas, the judgments they make and the conclusions they reach. Thus, there are multiple opportunities to move students toward critical and creative thought".

11. Individual differences in learning: Learners have different capabilities and preferences for learning modes and strategies. These differences are a function of environment (what is learned and communicated in different cultures or social groups) and heredity (what occurs naturally as a function of genes). Students are different from each other, think, and learn in different ways. Thus the importance of varying teaching methods.

12. Cognitive filters: These consist of personal beliefs, thoughts, and ideas that result from prior learning and interpretations. They become the basis for constructing reality and interpreting life experiences. Daily activities require the use of critical thinking; and individuals are constantly solicited throughout multiple tasks, to elaborate, interpret, generalize, and think in an independent way. Feedback helps accomplish these tasks in a productive way. Learning takes place when there is a modification in personal concepts.

Student-centered teaching

In a student-centered classroom, learners need three things for learning – individualization, interaction, and integration. A student-centered curriculum teaches learners to select and sequence their own activities and materials (individualization); arranges opportunities for all students to teach each other (interaction); increases exchanges and challenges their previously held conceptions leading to the re-construction of their knowledge (integration). To achieve this requires that teachers understand what type of learners their students are. A good part of pedagogical competency deals with the manner in which contents are taught to students.

Classroom Management is important in a student-centered classroom. It allows teachers to allocate more time for learning, and to help students acquire self-management. The INTIME Model of student-centered learning focuses on the idea of self-control because through self-control, students demonstrate responsibility – the ability to fulfill their own needs without interfering with the rights and needs of others. Students learn self-control by making choices and dealing with the consequences, setting goals and priorities, managing study time, practicing collaborative learning and developing relationships of trust with their teachers.

Encouraging self-management requires extra time, but teaching students how to take responsibility is an investment well worth the effort. Socioconstructivist teachers help their students understand that they are co-constructors of knowledge, that they can give meaning to things, and that they have the power to seek knowledge and attempt to understand the world.

When teachers respect the multiplicity of learning styles of their students, students engage more intensely in their learning. When students are challenged and believe they can succeed, they experience a greater sense of self-worth.

Document 7
Differentiating types of knowledge

To properly understand what occurs during learning, it is necessary to question (observe, collect material, analyze, etc.) the nature of the cognitive processes involved in the activities and learning tasks.

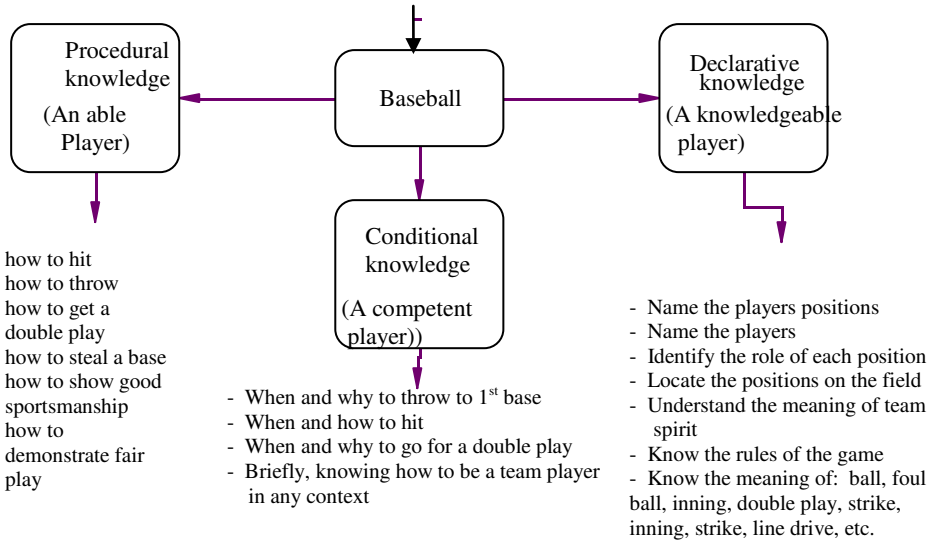
Description of cognitive processes used in processing various types of knowledge [38]

According to cognitivism, learning involves three types of knowledge or know-how: *declarative knowledge* (what, the essence of things), *procedural knowledge* (how, the know-how, the sequence of actions) and *conditional knowledge* (when, conditions of using declarative or procedural knowledge, how to, if…).

Martineau (1999) provides the example below to illustrate how these three types of knowledge contribute to the mobilization of a competency.

Three types of knowledge

Baseball player training formula



Research in cognitive psychology has shown that some methods of processing data seem more involved than others in the acquisition of specific types of knowledge and know-how.

Studies also show that each of these types of knowledge is acquired through two aspects of data processing known as cognitive processes, shown in the table below.

[38] Raymond, 2001: 17-21

Cognitive processes used in learning
different types of knowledge

Knowledge	Process	
Declarative	Elaboration	Organization
Procedural	Proceduralization	Composition
Conditional	Generalization	Discrimination

Let us examine these types in closer detail to understand what they are and how they are learned better. In theme 5, we will see how it is possible to support students in their learning through teaching interventions.

Declarative knowledge and know-how[39]

Declarative knowledge is theoretical knowledge that refers to facts (dates, names, places, events, etc), to principles and laws or concepts. For example: The concept of federalism in Québec, the rise of Hitler to power, the October Crisis dates and the cause of the crisis, knowledge of grammar rules and mathematical formulas, etc.

This knowledge is built according to two mental processes called *elaboration* and *organization*.

Elaboration: Any mental activity carried out by a learner that adds to information in long-term memory is part of the process called ***elaboration.*** A new link is forged and organized in networks as shown in the figure below.

Organization: In the process of ***organization***, a restructuring takes place that allows the structuring of information in significant subsets whose connections are highlighted. This organization makes it possible to retrieve information in memory when needed.

[39] As mentioned earlier, these two terms are not synonymous. By knowledge we mean that which belongs to the student and by know-how the content to be acquired, within the perspective that acquired knowledge must be transformed by the student into know-how. It all depends on our starting point. Thus, the student will transform knowledge into know-how.

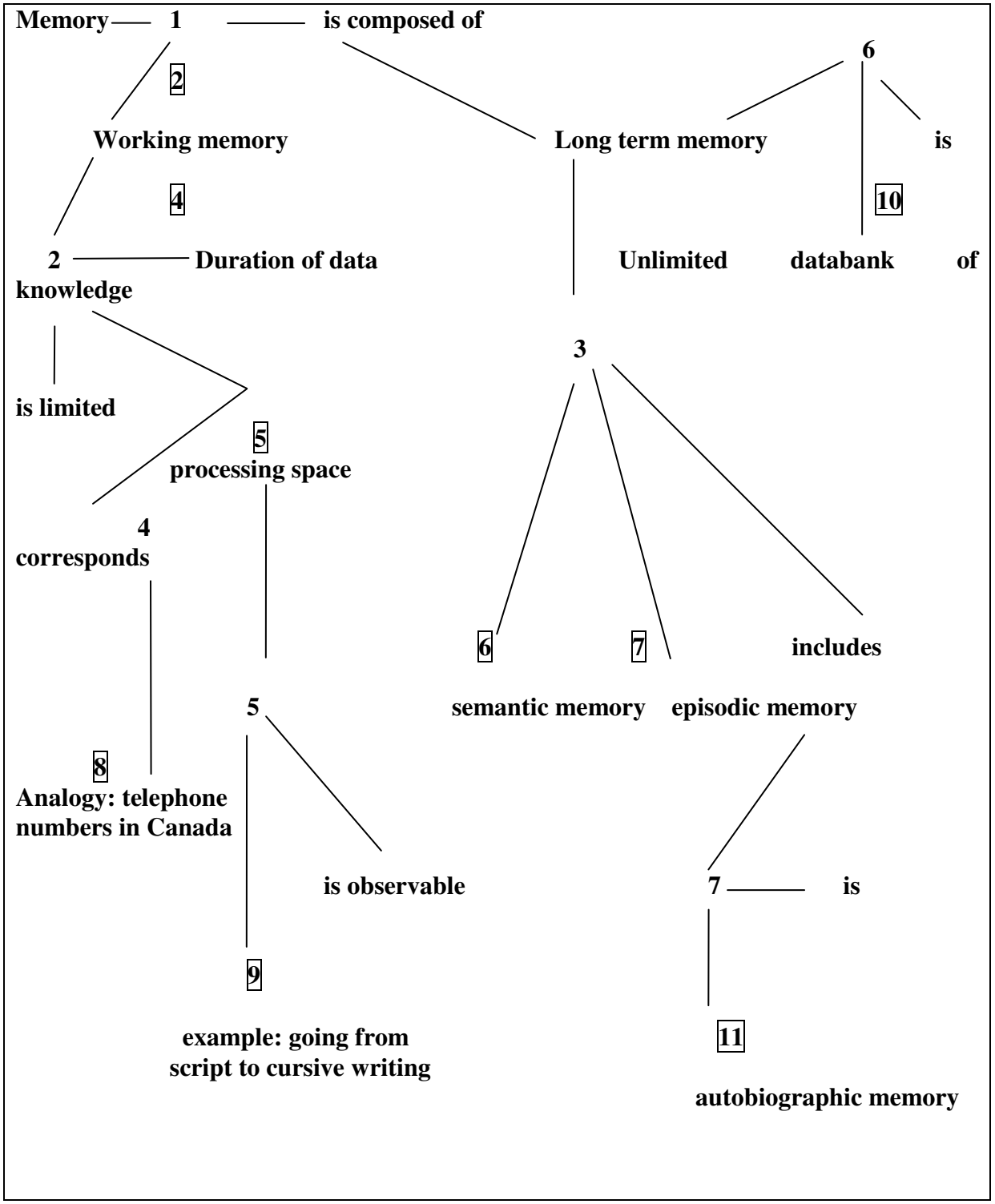


Fig. 3B: Semantic network of the architecture of memory
* the use of the square indicates an access path to knowledge

Declarative knowledge is generally "static" versus dynamic and must be translated into procedural and conditional knowledge (procedures and conditions) to enable action."
(Translated from Tardif, 1992: 48)

Procedural knowledge and know-how

Procedural knowledge is knowledge that refers to how an act is done and the stages and procedures through which it is carried out. For example, implementing the steps required for a literary analysis, performing a chemistry experiment in a lab, building an electronic circuit, administering an intramuscular injection, studying a text, taking notes, etc. These are ways of doing things, different types of know-how.

Know-how is connected to procedural knowledge (to know the stages of a literary analysis, a declarative type of knowledge) and procedural know-how (to be able to produce a literary analysis). For instance, knowing the steps in an analysis does not guarantee the information will be extracted accurately. This is an important aspect from a teaching perspective. Conditions must allow the student to acquire procedural know-how. Only the person performing the activity necessary for its acquisition can integrate procedural knowledge.

When teachers act on this type of knowledge, they force the student into action. The students are then guided in the acquisition of know-how and procedures. The teacher works with them to objectify their methods using feedback on their performance and information.

The two mental processes involved in learning procedural knowledge are *proceduralization* and *composition.* What differentiates one from the other is a question of degree or level. Whereas *proceduralization* allows for the learning of each action, *composition* engages the automatic mechanisms necessary for the effectiveness of the action. For example, a nurse must be able to install a urinary probe without stopping to read what to do at each step of the process, just like an airline pilot lands the plane without referring to the instructions at each stage of the landing procedure.

Through ***proceduralization***, we are able to recognize the stages of a procedure and are able to carry them out one by one. At this stage however, they are not yet automatically connected to one another.

Through ***composition,*** we gradually automate the use of the procedure and the sequence becomes automatic with repetition. Thus, we gain a global awareness of the actions.

Conditional knowledge and know-how

Conditional knowledge is knowledge that refers to conditions needed to accomplish an action or strategy. It is the when, why and type of conditions called for. After careful study of these circumstances, the best strategy and procedure will be identified. The choice will fall on what has been proven to be the most relevant in other contexts and in resolving other problems. For instance, the best strategy in problem solving is one that guides us to ask the right question: what strategy do we use to parse a sentence, to drive a car in the fog or freezing rain, to prepare and carry out a conference for novices rather than experts in the field?

Whereas procedural knowledge corresponds to a sequence of actions, conditional knowledge corresponds primarily to classifications and categorizations: when and why do we act this way. It is acquired through the mental processes of *generalization* and *discrimination*.

Generalization allows for the identification of common characteristics in situations where a specific knowledge is applied. It also makes it possible to broaden the field of application to other applications recognizable by the student. ***Discrimination*** makes it possible to restrict the number of situations to which the knowledge applies, by including specific requirements for its application.

These two processes are carried out through practical tasks and transfers. Teachers should provide students with meaningful and complete tasks, where they will have to recognize the conditions for use of their knowledge, i.e., the when, where and why.

To conclude

We often try to transpose "*knowledge, know-how and personal conduct"* to the knowledge types outlined above. Nevertheless, there is no correspondence. Even though we can easily associate knowledge to declarative knowledge and know-how to procedural knowledge, conditional knowledge is still considered know-how.

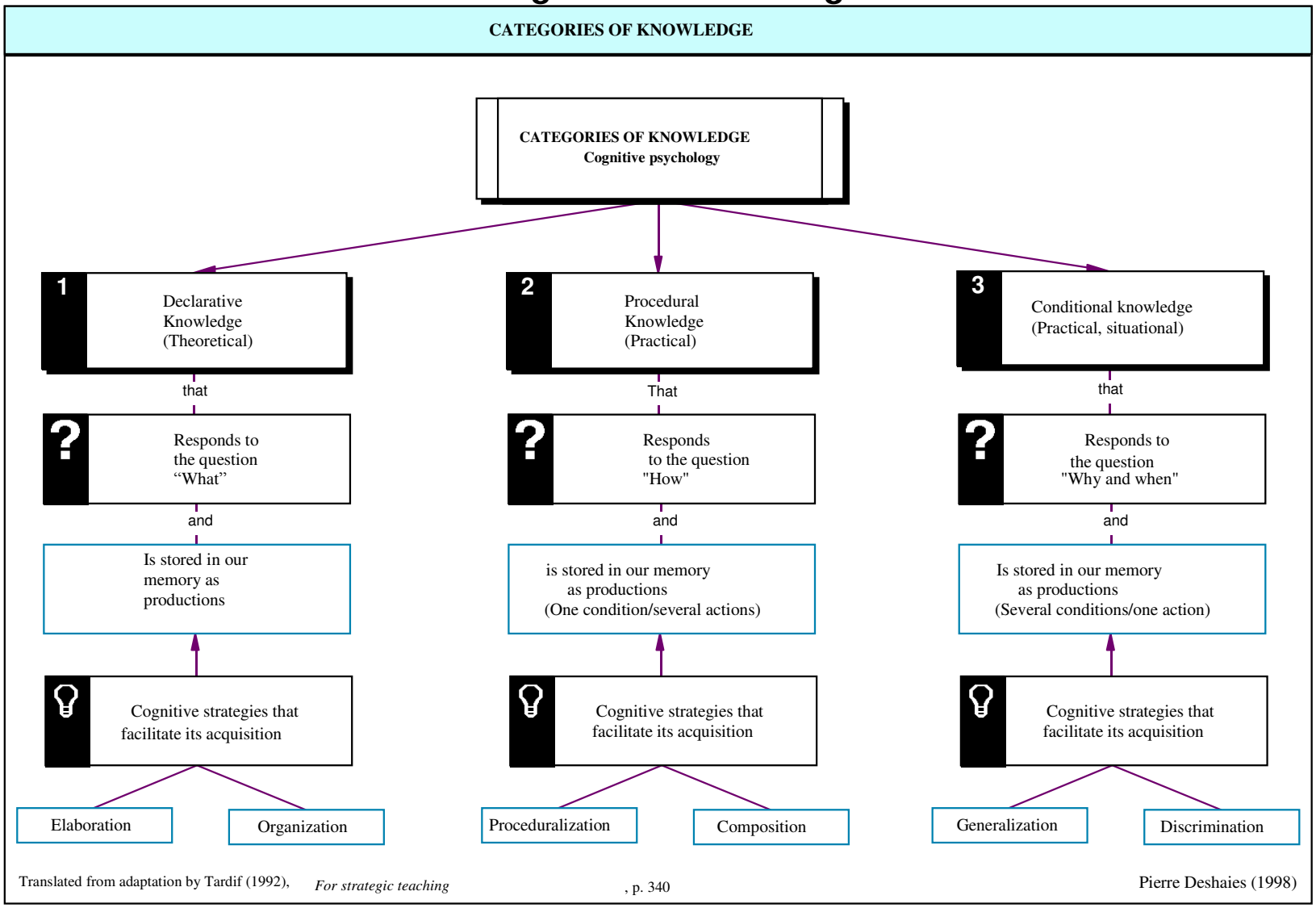
In addition, what is called *personal conduct* is quite different in nature. As shown by Martineau, this is not knowledge “per se” but rather a combination of declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge built through reflection on the objectification of the experience." (translated from Martineau, 1999: 33)

We have just seen a definition of declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge. All three are involved in the development and mobilization of competencies and the way in which they are constructed.

In the development of their competencies, students must acquire a certain amount of knowledge that can be mobilized when required. The types of knowledge targeted by programs and thus involved in the competencies developed by the students in class determine largely the choice of teaching practices. We do not learn *declarative knowledge*, *procedural knowledge* and *conditional knowledge* in the same way. As types of knowledge, they are not represented in the same way in memory. Consequently, they cannot be taught in the same way nor be based on the same teaching strategies. Each type of knowledge requires a different teaching approach that takes its nature and the mental processes involved in its construction into account.

Document 8

Categories of knowledge



Translated from adaptation by Tardif (1992), *For strategic teaching*, p. 340

Pierre Deshaies (1998)

Document 9

The learning of competencies within the school environment[40]

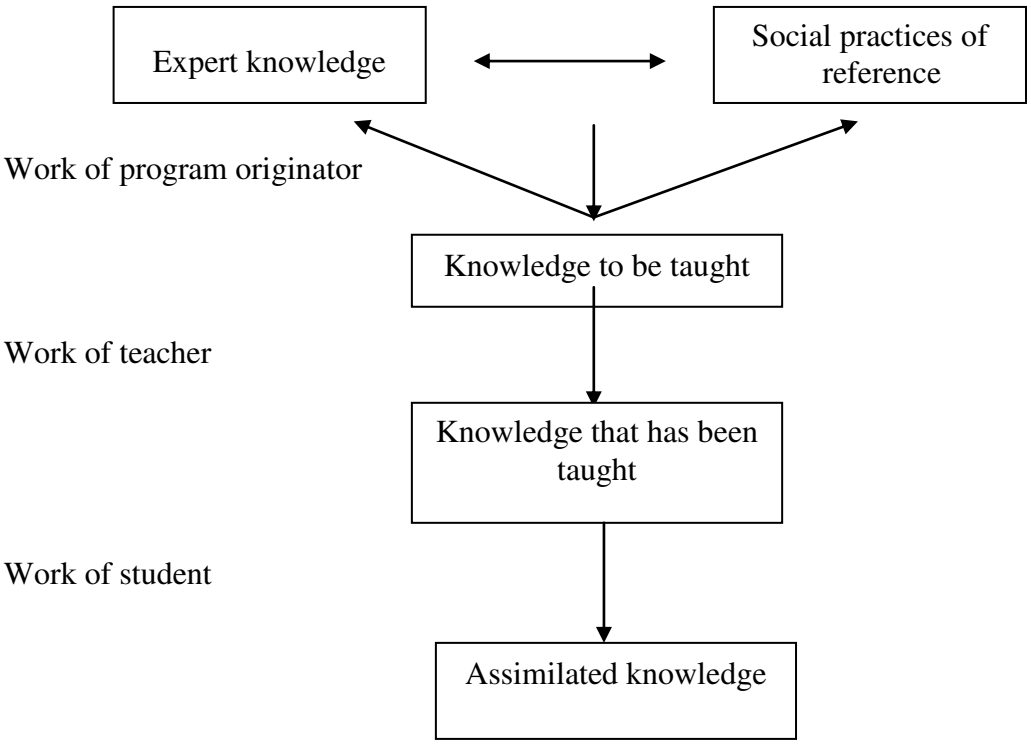
Knowledge transmitted in school is not a carbon copy of scientific knowledge and social or professional practices currently prevalent in a society. As shown in the figure on the next page, what defines the specificity of knowledge learned at school is that it is coded knowledge, i.e. knowledge prescribed in school programs and textbooks. Those who develop these programs determine through deliberation and consensus at various levels, which knowledge should belong to a given program. The student who is placed in contact with coded knowledge (or reference knowledge), must assimilate this learning, and transform it into knowledge. Therefore, whether it is a question of knowledge, know-how, or personal conduct, it falls under a school discipline and recognized professional practice, as is the case for most procedures in college.

Teachers must therefore process and analyze if they are to select and organize the information the student will need. They must include this information within the course framework so the student can master the desired competency.

> "Does this mean there should be a Pythagorean Theorem for science and one for teaching? Teachers must experience an epistemological rupture relative to reference knowledge and to their own knowledge if they are to take into account the notions and theories that students have. This does not mean that student notions are scientific knowledge; rather, the errors, concepts, and theories are part of the process of knowledge construction. They are the student's cognitive grid for reading the world. In addition, from these notions and theories, the student begins the process of constructing new knowledge. The teacher cannot overlook this fact. The notions that students have of the Pythagorean Theorem are therefore key elements in the process of construction of scientific knowledge about the Pythagorean Theorem. These notions are impossible to circumvent and the teacher cannot ignore them" (translated from Jonnaert and Vander Borght, 1999: 105)

[40] Raymond, 2001:24-32

A didactic transposition according to Develay (1995, p. 27)



Activity of didactisation

Activity of Axiologization

(translated from Martineau, 1999: 26)

In addition, learning at school is necessarily contextualized in a physical and social context particular to the academic environment, which includes:

- a class (students)
- a teacher
- a finished action (an objective, a strategy)
- a social environment
- an interactive environment (classroom, timetable, contents: handbooks, programs, resources: tools, tables, material, etc.)
- a physical environment (a time, a particular room, resources, etc).

In this context, learning at school offers a three-dimensional perspective and presents three separate realities:

- The learning subject: a *constructivist* perspective.
  The subjects construct their knowledge themselves

- Other students and the teacher: a *socio* perspective.
  It is through interaction that learning becomes meaningful and is constructed.

- The educational environment, i.e. learning situations and subject matter organized within these situations: an *interactive* perspective
  The resources and situations encountered contextualize and influence learning.
  (translated from Jonnaert and Vander Borght, 1999: 55)

What is the nature of learning in colleges?

> *"Teachers are program adjusters. They unceasingly adapt the content of programs to the unique reality of their students and their knowledge. Programs written for the "average student' correspond to a standard seldom found in our classrooms. The virtual competencies defined in the programs constitute basic material that teachers adapt and modify according to their classroom realities, while preserving the orientations, major axes, and direction of the programs. These cannot be overlooked. The programs map out the course teachers will travel with their students relative to coded knowledge". (Translated from Jonnaert and Vander Borght, p. 50)*

Learning tasks are selected based on the programs in which they will be included and the contents transmitted to students enrolled in the courses.

A study program is not:
- A given content that must be stored like an encyclopaedia;
- An organized version of content elements transmitted and then recreated as is;
- A handbook itself. If there is a handbook, it is not the program itself.

The study program:
- Is a set of teaching activities;
- Whose goal is to develop disciplinarian and transversal competencies in the student;
- And to provide indications on what to do with the content, the subject matter and also, depending on the situation, why and how to do it;
- Consequently, that leads to didactic implications and serves as a guide on the methodological level.

Programs based on competencies

Since 1994, programs at college are defined by competencies (competency-based approach). This new model of program elaboration describes education in relation to the development of competencies. This method, in keeping with the new educational paradigm, invites us to work in a more integrated fashion. Who can forget the long list of objectives and contents used to describe courses and programs, which made it difficult and even impossible to focus on an integrated goal?

> *"In an approach based on competencies, attention is not focused on contents external to the individual, but on an integration by the individual of knowledge (theoretical and practical), know-how and attitudes needed to accomplish complex tasks which have meaning for students and are necessary for their satisfactory adaptation to adult life." (Translated from Louis, 1999: 22)*

the Ministère now specifies the competencies selected for programs in the following sequence: a definition of the competency, the context for its acquisition, specific elements, and performance criteria. Also included are academic objectives and the purpose and goal of the program.

A Program Team is mandated to carry out a work of didactic[41] transposition in each college, to fine-tune the program on a local level before its implementation. The teachers then receive a course prescription that becomes the frame of reference for competencies targeted by the course, the coded knowledge in the competency and the methodology to guide them.

It is important to remember that a course given within a specified time frame does not necessarily contribute to the development of a competency, no more than any competency is fully developed within the weighting of a course. It is reliant on the analysis, organization, and didactic transposition done by the Program Team charged with defining the course on a local level. Therefore, in any given course, it is likely we may only develop part of a competency with subsequent courses in the program completing the development of this competency, or a given course may include more than one competency.

The study programs list *virtual competencies*, i.e. targeted competencies that have been standardized as per the work function. However, the competencies of individuals that allow them to carry out actions in the field within a given situation are *effective competencies* and are observed 'a posteriori'.

The work of teachers focuses on the axis that leads from virtual to effective competency (a posteriori). This competency is validated by successful actions in actual situations. To work on virtual competencies alone would reduce learning to the transmission of program contents. To work on effective competencies only, would be like working in a vacuum, without reference. However, to go from virtual competency to effective competency is like travelling from one pole to the other. (Translated from Jonnaert and Vander Borght, 1999: 52-53)

[41] As shown earlier, the didactic transposition allows us to understand and translate expert knowledge and social practices of reference into teaching content, that which must be taught and learned.

Yes… but what is a competency?

> *"A competency implies the existence of resources that can be mobilized. It does not merge with the resources but rather adds to them by managing their synergy prior to taking effective action in a complex situation. Competency increases the practical value of mobilized resources, just as a kitchen recipe transforms the ingredients by mixing them in their proper order, blending them into a rich whole that is greater than the individual parts." (Translated from Perrenoud, 1997, in Jonnaert and Vander Borght, 1999: 48)*

Literature offers many definitions of competency. All include one or more overlapping aspects that vary in scope and degree of importance.

The global definitions we propose seem sufficiently general yet precise enough to benefit us in our actions and our teaching. We introduce the most helpful ones for teaching and learning, helpful because they facilitate interventions that help students acquire and develop the desired competencies.

The first definition provided by Pôle de L'Est (1996) focuses directly on the context of learning situations that target the development of a competency, whereas the definition by Martinet, Raymond and Gauthier (2000) refers to a professional context[42]. We chose these two definitions for their complementarity within a school-professional continuum.

[42] This definition describes the components of professional competencies of teachers. Refer to Martinet, M.-A., Raymond, D. and Gauthier, C. (2000). *La formation à l'enseignement. Les orientations. Les compétences professionnelles.* Québec : Ministère de l'éducation, Direction de la formation et de la titularisation du personnel scolaire. Provisional copy for consultation.

Pôle de L'Est (1996) definition

Competency:

- The end result of learning/training
- centered on developing the student's ability,
- in an independent way,
- to identify and effectively solve problems specific to a family of situations
- based on knowledge[43] whether conceptual or procedural[44], that is integrated and relevant

Competency:	
• *End result of learning/training*	In a teaching context, it constitutes the final reference of a learning situation (objective to be reached during the learning, drawing its meaning from the work function, or the capacity to pursue higher learning in a given field, therefore on the threshold of entering one or the other.
• *Centered on developing the student's ability,*	A competency is acquired through practice. It requires time and frequent application by students themselves.
• *In an independent way,*	To be competent implies that a person knows how to identify and use the resources necessary for their own intervention.
• *To identify and solve*	A competency requires a representation of a problem or a case study and the construction of a procedure and establishment of a strategy to achieve the desired goals.
• *Effectively*	The application of a competency by the student must be effective, produce the expected results, and conform to standards.
• *Problems specific to a family of situations*	A competency is always contextualized, always part of a given field of action.
• *Based on knowledge, whether conceptual or procedural, that is integrated and relevant.*	The structured whole integrates several types of knowledge that make up a competency, each one able to be mobilized at the opportune time. The knowledge is relevant and selected on the basis of its usefulness and potential for enabling action in real life.

[43] A reminder that Pôle de l'Est (1996) whose writings are inspired by cognitivism, does not distinguish between knowledge and know-how.

[44] Pôle de l'Est (1996) recognizes the importance of conditional knowledge in the construction of knowledge. According to Gagné in the initial text on the subject, conditional knowledge is included as a form of procedural knowledge. In an upcoming revision, conditional knowledge will be explained in greater detail so as to distinguish it from others, specifically as concerns its impact on teaching,

Let us look at another definition.

Definition by Martinet, Raymond and Gauthier (2000)[45]

Professional competency:

- is present in a professional context
- is located on a continuum that goes from simple to complex
- is based on a set of resources
- relates to knowing how to mobilize for action in a professional context
- results in successful, effective, efficient, recurring and immediate ability to act
- is linked to a specific practice
- is a project, a never ending opus

Competency:	
• *Is present in a professional context*	Competency is a contextualized action with a set of constraints. A competency is not a skill even though it is composed of skills. A competency in action relates to knowledge to act. It is broader, vaster and more complex than a skill which is know-how used in a more controlled and artificial context.
• *Is located along a continuum that goes from simple to complex*	Since it is closer to the realities of professional actions, it is more complex than a skill that uses lower-order cognitive skills.
• *Is based on a set of resources*	These resources (cognitive, emotional, and contextual) are mobilized when action is needed and all work for the benefit of the competency. In this sense, competency is neither a skill nor know-how nor an attitude nor even knowledge itself but the sum total of all, as all are essential to the exercising a competency.
• *Relates to knowing how to mobilize for action in a professional context*	A competent person can interpret the needs and constraints of an actual situation and identify available resources needed in time and space, to orchestrate them in a relevant and effective way. Competency is the function of a situation that has been successfully resolved.
• *Results in successful, effective, efficient, recurring and immediate ability to act*	Competency is potential action that is observed only in specific situations; it makes it possible to solve typical problems that relate to a family of situations.

[45] Translated from Martinet, M.-A., Raymond, D. et Gauthier, C. (2000). *La formation à l'enseignement. Les orientations. Les compétences professionnelles.* . Québec: Ministère de l'éducation, Direction de la formation et de la titularisation du personnel scolaire. Provisional copy for consultation.

	It manifests itself in actual situations as an immediate and effective performance (achieves its goals and meets standards) that is efficient (carried out quickly and with an economy of means). A good gauge of competency is the successful outcome of a situation. It appears repeatedly in many situations and is stable.
• *Is linked to a specific Practice*	Competency has a practical function and reaches objectives set by society; it is also defined by its social utility.
• *Is a project, a never-ending opus*	Competency is perceived as a personal development that continues beyond school and throughout one's professional life.

What is the connection between knowledge and competency?

The acquisition of a competency calls for the integration of all forms of knowledge and the ability to transfer this knowledge, sound judgment and the capacity for regulation. Louis (1999) describes competency as a state, an ability to act rather than a specific action. This state is "linked to a conceptual and methodological structure of knowledge and to attitudes and values that allow us to make assessments and carry out actions adapted to a series of varied and complex situations" (Louis, 1999: 22)

He adds that:

> *"Competency is the exercise of one's judgment in the choice and the application of knowledge necessary to carry out an action effectively, taking into account the stated problem and the context in which the action takes place. Competency is also the result of mobilization by students of declarative, procedural and conditional knowledge for the effective accomplishment of actions that impact their environment and their adaptation to adult life "(p. 23) He further states: "The judgment used by students will therefore rely on the three types of knowledge to accomplish the action and to accomplish it effectively within the context of application" (p. 24)*

Document 10

Principles pursuant to the nature of a competency[46]

Learning takes place gradually in a series of retroactive loops. One could say that human beings learn through successive layering i.e., repeatedly experiencing situations within the same learning process. They learn by applying a number of well-known principles that have been updated through the cognitive sciences. *A competency-based approach* supports the organization and application of these principles. Too often, principles of the cognitive-constructivist model are taught and acquired in an isolated way without properly analyzing their practical application to teaching.

The purpose of this text is to organize these principles for use in planning, learning, and evaluation activities associated with a *competency-based approach*. This new way of introducing learning principles emphasizes the systemic approach that connects them. Thus, the same activity can introduce several principles and reinforce their integration through systematic interaction. This section also defines the principles of globality, construction, application, integration, iteration, distinction, relevance, alternation, coherence, and transfer.

I recommend that the whole of these principles be considered when planning teaching, learning and evaluation activities, at each stage during the mastery of a competency.

Globality: The analysis of elements based on a global situation (complexity, overall picture, global approach).

The principle of globality refers to the global approach and the use of global tasks (integration and problem situations) to provide a global vision of the learning.

Construction: Activation of prior acquisitions, elaboration of new learning and organization of information.

In this principle, it is important to recognize the basic strategies of constructivism:

- activation of acquisitions relating to the contents and the required components
- elaboration of links between prior acquisitions and new learning
- personal organization of information to integrate new acquisitions and consolidate them in long-term memory

[46] Excerpt translated from LASNIER, François, Réussir la formation par compétences, Guérin, 2000, beginning p.159. It is forbidden to reprint this text in its entirely or in part without the express permission of the author.

Alternation: global → specific → global
competency → components → competency
integrating task → specific learning activity → integrating task

Globality is important but insufficient for in-depth learning. The principle of alternation i.e., the passage from global to specific and from specific back to global completes globality. It would be wrong to assume that all this can be accomplished using integration tasks only. In fact, we must break the totality into parts and then reconstitute the parts into a complete whole. This principle contributes to the reinforcement of integration. It supports an in-depth comprehension of the competency to be acquired.

Application: To learn by doing.

It is said that competency is the knowledge to act. It is a utopian belief to think that competency can be acquired without action-centered learning. In the past, educators were preoccupied with students acquiring declarative knowledge. Now, not only must students acquire this essential knowledge but teachers must also take care to teach them what to do with this knowledge.

Distinction: Content versus process.

When it comes to a competency-based approach, competencies cannot be activated in a vacuum. Therefore, students need disciplinarian content to activate the components of the competency. However, since students use the components of a competency to master disciplinarian content, it is likely that they will lose sight of the process that they must also master. The distinction between content and process is largely instrumental in acquiring the components of the competency, as well as suitable learning strategies.

Meaning: Meaningful and motivating situations for the student.

This principle contributes to *globality*. It establishes links to a real situation (labour market, life at school, everyday life, life's experience). It also identifies the types of tasks related to mastery of the competency, everyday life, and school tasks. In this instance, competency is considered a "tool" that is used to accomplish a family of tasks. At the beginning of the learning sequence, the teacher can take advantage of this to "open the door to transfers". However, it is not a question of implementing the *transfer* process at this stage but rather of identifying *transfer targets* for future reference.

In exploiting this principle, we call on the motivation of students to stimulate their own learning. Students recognize that they are the main player in their own learning process. Whenever possible, teachers should have students participate in the selection and planning of learning tasks.

Coherence: The coherent relationship between teaching activities, learning activities, evaluation activities, and competency.

Both the learner and the teacher must be able to see the connection clearly between teaching activities, learning activities and evaluation activities that are required for the acquisition of a competency.

A key strategy in ensuring that learning activities are understood is the identification of the components of the competency. Moreover, the principle of **coherence** is often activated simultaneously with *application*. Therefore, the teacher and students recognize that to learn a concept adequately, it must be applied to a concrete learning activity.

Integration: The elements under study are connected to each other and to the competency. Learners master the competency by using the components in an integrated way.

The principle *of integration* is the basis for competency-based learning. A person may adequately master a component of the competency when it is used alone, but be unable to apply it when it is coupled with another component in a more complex situation.

As concerns integration and the explicit teaching of procedural knowledge mentioned earlier, we must consider a competency as procedural mega-knowledge. As such, the same learning and teaching strategies for learning a competency should be used. These strategies are numerous. However, it is important to recall traditional strategies for the acquisition of procedural knowledge:

- To identify the stages of the procedure
- To explain the nature of the connection between the stages (components);
- To schematize the stages of the procedure and their interrelationships (integrating diagram of the competency);
- To carry out a task that uses all stages of the procedure (tasks that require all the components of the competency);
- To objectify what was done and how it was done relative to each stage (metacognition on the components of the competency and the learning strategies used to accomplish the learning task).

Iteration: The learner repeatedly uses similar types of integrating tasks connected to the competency and the same disciplinarian content.

Learning does not take place at a specific moment in time. It is gradual and we learn through successive layering and in a spiral fashion, by being repeatedly placed in situations (like the multiple layers of an onion) relative to learning. We often speak of in-depth data processing and we can speak of in-depth learning (layers of learning that lead to integration). When a learner is initially subjected to new learning referred to as “successive iteration”, there is an increase in learning either relative to the disciplinarian content or to a greater understanding of the components

of competency. The principle *of iteration* thus applies both to the disciplinarian content and the surface-learning of a competency".

We should not be surprised to see that students often do not understand a concept during the initial learning activity and cannot practice a skill that is only used once. This does not refer to "practical exercises" i.e., the mechanical repetition of similar exercises relating to the same subject. To be effective, iteration must be associated with a conscious process and a mobilization of metacognitive strategies. Iteration must be taken in its mathematical sense whereby each one brings an addition to learning: in relation to the disciplinarian content or for greater understanding of competency components. The principle *of iteration* thus applies equally to disciplinarian contents and competencies**.**

Transfer: Transfer from a source task to a target task. The application of knowledge and abilities learned within one context to a different context.

Document 11

Current thought in teaching circles is largely based on research, studies, and beliefs relating to a number of disciplines including psychology, sociology, epistemology, and philosophy. It is important to understand that the various movements (cognitive psychology, sociocognitive psychology, constructivism, socioconstructivism) resulting from these disciplines have led the educational environment to develop pedagogical models based on a learning paradigm as opposed to a teaching paradigm. The following text summarizes these two paradigms.

From a teaching paradigm…to a learning paradigm[47]

1. The teaching paradigm

Within a teaching paradigm, learning is subordinated to the teaching itself, that is to say that students learn because they are the recipients of teaching and it is the quality of the teaching that determines the quality of the learning. From this perspective, the focus is on teaching processes rather than learning processes and on the observable products and demonstrations of learning rather than on thinking and reasoning that underlie the former. This notion, inherited mainly from behaviorist learning theories and mastery learning in particular, stresses the a priori determination of objectives that correspond to the concept of knowledge – whether attitudes, skills, or knowledge – that we teach students; and, the elaboration of evaluation processes to determine with precision if the learning was effective.

In short, we tend to establish a univocal correspondence between what is evaluated and what is learned, between what is learned and what is taught. Therefore teaching, learning and evaluation correspond to three very distinct items in a linear sequence; students can learn only if they are taught and evaluations can only monitor what was taught! This is the perspective of programs centered on objectives, objectives that are usually numerous and fragmented as they correspond to the knowledge and skills which must be taught, learned and then evaluated.

One of the unusual effects of these programs is that they subject both learning and teaching to evaluation: We tend to teach what is easy to evaluate; students tend to learn only what will be evaluated! This leads to the development of evaluations that are undoubtedly appropriate for linear and atomized learning, but prove inadequate when it comes to evaluating global learning constructed through the progressive reorganization of prior acquisitions and not by simple accumulation of knowledge. This is the case with competencies.

[47] Translated from LEGENDRE, Anne-Marie, Favoriser l'émergence de changements en matière d'évaluation des apprentissages, Vie pédagogique 120, September-October, 2001, p. 15-19

2. The learning paradigm

Within the framework of a learning paradigm, teaching does not determine but primarily directs and supports learning. Students do not learn because they are taught. A considerable amount of learning takes place independently of any external teaching. Many an excellent teacher has students who did not learn (Saint-Onge, 1992a). It is not possible to establish a univocal communication between what is taught and what is learned, since learning does not begin nor end with teaching. Therefore, it is not possible to evaluate with perfect accuracy what was really learned. During an evaluation, students often call on knowledge other than what they were taught (Legendre, 1998).

In short, students do not learn because they are taught. They learn because learning is a complex process; it is cognitive, social, and emotional in nature. It requires teaching practices with processes that are adapted to its nature.

Such a paradigm leads us to consider evaluation as an integral part of the learning process. Its main function is not to sanction success or failure, but to support the student's learning process; it also directs and orients interventions by the teacher. Evaluation also implies differentiated instruction, i.e. the ability to implement varied teaching and learning methods that take into account student diversity and allow them to use different routes to progress towards their educational success (CSE, 1993).

This coincides with the perspective of a competency-based program. An approach that believes that knowledge should not be acquired in a compartmentalized and de-contextualized way. Rather, learning occurs in interactions and relationships to contexts that give meaning to learning. It also calls upon the knowledge of the teacher to select teaching strategies adapted to the learning, the particular traits of the students and the context.

Teaching, learning, and evaluation are not sequential, that is, precise moments in time during the teaching process; rather, they are dynamic interactions within this process. It is not necessary to devise evaluation situations separate from learning situations. Evaluations become an integral part of an approach that incorporates many opportunities for (self-) regulation of learning and teaching activities.

Document 12
Consensus on the new learning paradigm[48]

The responsibilities of teachers
1. The activities used by teachers to promote learning are not neutral and frequently contribute directly to the degree of student engagement (motivation) and learning accomplished. Teachers strongly influence the quantity and quality of student learning.
2. Teachers exert a great influence on learning and the study strategies of their students. - Surface learning or in-depth learning? The answer depends on evaluation practices used. For example, by using "true or false" and multiple choices tests, students are led to believe that what they need to learn is recognition, even when working with case studies and problem-solving situations, learning formulas that favour in-depth understanding. Evaluations based on a portfolio or a case study would be more appropriate to use in this approach. As a result, there is coherence between teaching and evaluation practices.
3. The ability to transfer learning is what makes it operative, useful and effective. - Teachers must intervene frequently in a systematic and consistent way so learning acquired in school transfers to outside environments. - The transfer of learning occurs when interventions by teachers focus on this transferability of knowledge.

The cognitive and emotional dynamics of learning
4. Learning is primarily a personal construction resulting from an active process in which students make their own selections. *Personal construction:*

[48]Translated from RAYMOND, D. (2001). Qu'est-ce qu'apprendre? ou Apprendre, oui mais. Sherbrooke: MIPEC, Performa, Université de Sherbrooke, pp. 36-41

Consequently, in carrying out evaluations, teachers should introduce situations that require the ability to recognize statements and accurately recall information.

Active engagement:
Engagement is necessary both on a cognitive and emotional level, without dissociating their respective components, because it is important to accept not knowing something and to tolerate doubt and ambiguity in order to search for higher comprehension and mastery.

5. The personal construction of knowledge is founded on the learner's prior knowledge.

Prior knowledge acts as a data processing filter that determines the degree of credibility of new information. This filter can lead to knowledge being stored for the sole purpose of being used during the summative evaluation. It will then become inoperative or be rejected.

Acknowledging prior knowledge has beneficial effects on emotional components:

- Recognition of prior learning leads to a more objective perception of the evolution of personal competency. This self-awareness makes it possible to do away with the negative perception that the learning task "is just like all the others".

6. Learning always refers back to the context where it was initially acquired.

Students build knowledge based on the logic of their prior knowledge, using a given context or reference to a particular context for support. The construction of knowledge is strongly contextualized and non-dissociated from the context itself. Without precise intervention from the teacher, the knowledge "is not exported" to a different context (example: a course in another discipline).

Therefore there is a need for precise and organized support:

1. *Contextualization*
   Make sure that the first stage of learning is contextualized (refer to concrete situations or specific phenomena).
2. *Re-contextualization*
   Re-contextualize knowledge (put the students into contact with new situations where the knowledge is re-used).
3. *De-contextualization*
   Give students the opportunity to think about their knowledge, observe it, and discuss it outside of any context yet paradoxically in reference to a variety of contexts. This serves to extract the constants and characteristics via different concepts and emphasizes the conditions that are necessary and suitable to distinguish one from the other.

7. Learning is meaningful because:

- It challenges the student (it is a stimulating yet surmountable challenge)

- It is the result of a cognitive conflict (insofar as we need an answer to our questions; the ones we ask ourselves as well as others)
- It creates a new standpoint (the answers provided cause the knowledge to be reorganized or to search along unexplored paths in order to reach the desired standpoint)
- It is viable for comprehension and action outside of school (it makes it possible to understand phenomena found in "real life" and to develop a higher degree of mastery in our actions)

These elements cannot be overlooked since they all contribute to giving meaning to the suggested learning.

Regarding the wise re-use of prior knowledge
8. Knowledge is even more reusable when organized hierarchically in memory. Organization gives access to knowledge and allows it to be re-used at the opportune time.
9. Knowledge is more functionally reusable when: - It is placed in relation to cognitive strategies (planned and coordinated operations that allow for the achievement of cognitive operations, supported by teacher support - they increase the probability that the students will re-use their knowledge judiciously provided that knowledge and strategies are closely connected. - It is controlled by metacognitive strategies (that manage and regulate cognitive approaches as well as control emotional factors connected to them - they intervene to gauge the accuracy of selected strategies and the knowledge favoured by students in a given context or problem situation).

In addition to these consensuses, Tardif (1998) also identifies consequences to our pedagogical practices regarding the construction of knowledge. They impact us on three levels: 1) consequences to the characteristics of pedagogical contexts; 2) consequences to the planning of teaching activities; 3) and, consequences to the support given to learning. These consequences are seen below.

Pedagogical practices relating to the construction of knowledge

On the characteristics of pedagogical contexts that fulfil the requirements of consensual conclusions

1. **They favour complexity, that is, they proceed from complexity to simplicity (creative scenarios, projects to be realized, case analysis, problem resolution):**

   - Decomplexification followed by construction leading to complexity.

2. **They are competency-based, i.e. they favour the axis in which knowledge is at the service of competencies and strongly contextualized within them.**

3. **They create the maximum of relationships between disciplines (interdisciplinary awareness).**

   The logic of the profession or the logic of the program prevails over the logic of the individual discipline**.**

4. **They constantly place theory and action in interaction.**

   Theory leads to a better action plan and action guarantees the contextualization of theory that leads to adjustments relative to the use of knowledge as a tool.

5. **They are attentive to the relevance of evaluation practices.**

   To seek a high degree of coherence as regards the results of evaluations in a context focused on the construction of knowledge and the development of competencies:
   - The primary goal consists in determining the cognitive and socioaffective changes occurring in the student and highlighting their value.

6. **Time is scheduled systematically for the transfer of learning.**

   To schedule re-contextualization periods. Competencies are always capable of further development and re-contextualization increases the level of student mastery when it comes to implementing the knowledge and competencies.

Regarding the planning of teaching activities

1. The time needed to teach

- To structure methods so students can build knowledge and develop the desired competencies.

- To plan for enrichment and developmental activities.

2. The choice of teaching and learning activities

In certain teaching fields, learning with problem situations or projects constitutes the most judicious choice; in others, it is creative activities, concept development, and remediation.

To pay special attention to the learning evaluation methods used because they exert enormous pressure on the learning and study strategies of students.

3. Planning how learning activities will unfold

- To insist on the value of learning as well as on the perception students have of their ability to achieve the learning in question.

- To identify ways of retrieving prior knowledge of students and validating it.

- To recognize appropriate times to intervene with students in the hierarchical organization of their knowledge.

- To schedule periods when interventions will be focused on the establishment of precise links between competency and knowledge.

4. Integration periods

- To schedule periods of integration that allow students to prepare a synthesis and get ready for their comprehensive assessment.

- The integration and synthesis periods must be frequent and gradually parallel the cognitive and socioaffective metamorphoses of students.

Pedagogical practices relative to the construction of knowledge

Regarding support for learning

1. **To determine the stages of de-contextualization.**

   - During this period, students are in contact with information in a raw state and required to examine specific sections of the knowledge carefully.

   This de-contextualization must be constantly interacting with contextualization, de-contextualization, and re-contextualization stages.

   - To establish explicit relationships between knowledge and competencies using interventions in the hierarchical organization of knowledge.

2. **To support the reflection of students on the cognitive choices made during the action.**

   - To require that students develop reflective thinking so that competencies are examined and rest on solid theoretical principles and foundations.

3. **To enable the transfer of learning.**

   - To lead the students to perceive knowledge as a set of tools and resources.

   To require that students identify contexts in which they can use the knowledge they are building and the competencies they are developing.

4. **To influence the motivation of students, their commitment, and persistence in this commitment.**

   - Active involvement resulting from a cognitive conflict that initiates the search for a new standpoint. It is important:
     - To make students conscious of the conflict they are experiencing and ideally bring them to give it a name it;
     - To help them become aware of a new standpoint when the learning in question is finished;
     - To determine the degree of conflict resolution explicitly at the outset, as well as their knowledge and competencies within this new perspective.

Document 13

Characteristics of a constructivist learning environment [49]

Stimulating, rich, and flexible context

The environment is characterized by trust, respect, and interpersonal relationships; it supports risk taking, encourages transparency, communication, and support between individuals. It is permeated with culture and develops non-formal learning as well as connections to the environment, thereby creating multiple learning opportunities. With its worldview, it offers multiple perspectives that mirror its complexity; and it maps the limit of human knowledge.

Purpose

The environment assists learners in defining their learning goals. It allows them to see the value of their learning and its resulting actions. They can also orient the selection as well as the processing of data.

Active involvement

Learners are actively involved in work for which they have helped define the theme, objectives and achievement strategies. The environment favours direct experience that requires the implementation of a learning strategy appropriate to the situation. Learners manipulate objects and tools to reach their objectives and devise original solutions. In doing so, they participate in the construction of new knowledge. They are responsible for the results achieved and the knowledge that is constructed.

Construction of knowledge

Learning is an adaptive activity that allows learners to apprehend new situations by establishing links to their prior knowledge, and between concepts, skills, people, and experiences. The environment introduces various situations that force learners to redefine and rebuild their knowledge. They actively work towards the organization of this knowledge and the identification of the contexts to which they are connected.

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[49] Translated from: © Robert David, 2001, http://rd.cyberscol.qc.ca/a01/edmonton/Caracteristiques-v3.pdf. (Site consulted on March 22, 2002)

Social interactions

There are numerous social interactions between students, school personnel, parents, and the community. The environment encourages learners to make their knowledge public, to evaluate, and debate it. Social interactions make it possible to observe the work of others and assist in modeling; they also promote support between individuals. Conversation and collaboration multiply the chances for successful problem resolution and allow for the introduction of complex projects that impact beyond the school environment.

Real and stimulating situations

Learning situations present challenges that are linked to the reality of the students and that can influence this reality. They cause a cognitive imbalance and call into question erroneous notions. These situations convey an idea of the complexity and variability of reality and not the concept of a simple and stable world. They provide tools to highlight multiple perspectives and the limitations of knowledge. They are numerous and strongly contextualized to allow the learner to experiment and, ultimately, support the transfer of knowledge.

Feedback and support

Feedback must be frequent and manifold. It arises from learning situation, peers, school personnel, and the environment. It provides encouragement that supports commitment and helps to increase the quality and effectiveness of the actions and learning process. In this context, evaluations support self-analysis where teachers are guides who intervene to assist learners in the organization of their knowledge. Teachers seek to develop independence so learners can use appropriate knowledge and competencies, in a variety of contexts, by themselves.

Critical thinking

Learners cast a critical eye on their thinking and that of others. They evaluate the objectives, stakes, resources, and resolution strategies, the approach and the answers they provide. They use their natural reasoning process to support the transfer of knowledge and manage their learning in a metacognitive way.

Document 14
Abstract of current theories on new approaches [50]

There are several key elements to remember when using a constructivist approach to teach. Primarily, constructivist thinking is not a series of recipes. Since Vygotsky elaborated on the constructivist theory, all subsequent elaborations share the same belief, i.e. that learning is not the transfer of knowledge, but rather a process by which individuals construct their own knowledge and develop their own competencies based on their own experiences.

Researchers on the subject believe that what takes place in the classroom should reflect what takes place in real life. We do well to remember that knowledge and competency are individual and do not necessarily conform to the conventional wisdom of a community or society. The experiences of individuals can lead them to interpret reality in a very different way, based on their needs, thoughts, and prior knowledge. However in general, when individuals confront their own knowledge, theories, ideas, etc, with knowledge that society recognizes as being true, they adjust their ideas to comply with conventional wisdom. That being said, and taking into account what is known about learning and cognition, a teacher who wants to implement a constructivist approach should initially reflect on learning and become familiar with current learning theories in the field of education.

In rudimentary fashion and discounting the orientations and nuances described in research, we can list several important aspects of constructivist thinking. To wit, researchers and thinkers:

1. Base their beliefs on the concept that individuals construct and adjust their knowledge and competencies according to their experiences;

2. Believe that learning is initially a reflection and that education must be centered on creating conditions and introducing situations that stimulate reflection in students;

3. Believe that learners in a process of constructing knowledge are in a zone of proximal development that is between what they can do alone and what they can achieve with assistance. The assistance they receive helps to shore up this knowledge;

4. Believe that individuals forge their own concepts of reality based on their thoughts, assumptions and what they know when faced with new experiences that they need to grasp; thus the importance of exploring preconceived ideas and prior knowledge in the construction of knowledge;

5. Believe that individuals transform information and new experiences into knowledge by a process called interiorization;

6. Believe that individuals develop their own cognitive models and modify them as they organize their new knowledge;

[50] Translated from Liste des Post-its, http://www.tact.fse.ulaval.ca/fr/html/cours/coursgcr/post/postit23.htm

7. Assert that there is a social dimension to learning and that language (communication, collaboration, exchanges, clash of ideas, inquiries, etc.) is an essential component of knowledge construction. It is this social dimension of knowledge that underlies the concept of socioconstructivism and from which cooperative learning and learning in collaboration originate;

8. Reiterate that learning takes place in complex situations with all kinds of knowledge and processes. It does not occur when knowledge and competencies are divided and parceled into separate disciplines. Researchers employ the expression "situational learning" to describe a pedagogy that respects this reality;

9. Assert that computers are tools that transform the classroom into a place of learning that offers the same opportunities as life (expert consultations, research, communication with the outside world, products available to a clientele outside the school environment, etc.);

10. Believe that computers in classrooms and schools transform the environment into a learning community. A community where students rediscover their ability to build their own knowledge and collaborate with each other; where teachers assume their rightful roles as mediators and guides and the classroom is open to the outside world via the Internet and e-mail (including expert consultations, access to a vast library of documentation, product manufacturing, product exposure on Web sites, etc.);

11. Believe that learners construct knowledge when they set goals, find solutions to complex problems and questions, design or manufacture a product; in short, when the learning activity has meaning for them;

12. Recommend the *Project* and *Problem solving* as strategies for complex learning situations;

13. Believe that traditional schooling that insists on the evaluation of knowledge rather than on its construction, represses the desire of learners to learn and their willingness to take risks;

14. Believe that learners are motivated by learning tasks in which they are actively involved;

15. Believe that schooling must develop the construction of competencies in addition to the construction of knowledge because our society demands the ability to communicate, interact on a human level, solve complex problems and make decisions relative to our role within it; in short, to build viable and transferable knowledge;

16. Assert that individual have eight types of intelligence and use some more effectively than others, although they are capable of developing each type.

Plenty of food for thought for concerned readers!

Constructivist principles[51]

1. Constructivist teachers welcome and encourage student autonomy and initiative.

2. Constructivist teachers use raw data and primary sources along with manipulative, interactive, and physical material. Constructivism presents raw phenomena and initiates students into expressing their differences, encourages them to analyze, synthesize, and evaluate. Learning is a result that is linked to real problems.

3. While framing tasks, constructivist teachers use cognitive terminology such as classify, analyze, predict, and create.

4. Constructivist teachers allow student responses to drive lessons, shift instructional strategies, and alter content along the way if the need for such an adjustment is felt.

5. Constructivist teachers introduce problems perceived as relevant for students and, if need be, make them relevant via mediation. Otherwise they abandon them (the assumptions are verifiable, they are not too difficult or too easy to solve, their resolution requires the participation of the entire group).

6. Constructivist teachers engage students in experiences that might engender contradictions to their initial hypotheses, and then encourage discussion.

7. Constructivist teachers attach a great deal of importance to questions and answers:
   - They encourage students to ask questions, to make assumptions;
   - They allow students time to ask questions and express their viewpoint
   - They avoid judging an answer but if there is an error, they help the student become aware of it;
   - They seek to have students enrich the answers they provide;
   - They encourage students to ask each other questions, to dialogue, to initiate discussions;
   - They use answers given to re-launch discussions;
   - They encourage student questions by asking thoughtful, open-ended questions that are more global than specific in nature.

8. A constructivist teacher provides time for students to construct relationships and create metaphors.

9. A constructivist teacher helps students determine relationships between studies to identify similarities and differences.

10. A constructivist teacher nurtures the natural curiosity of students.

[51] http://www.tact.fse.ulaval.ca/fr/html/cours/coursgcr/textes/capsule3.htm

Document 15
Learning and teaching strategies

Learning strategies[52]: Cognitive strategies	
Strategy	**Actions**
Activation (for declarative and procedural knowledge)	- I remember what I know about a subject. - I remember how I carry out this type of task (stages). - I remember other situations where I carried out similar tasks.
Acquisition (for declarative knowledge) (surface treatment)	- I repeat silently or out loud what I want to learn (simple repetition: a, b, c; cumulative repetition: a, ab, abc). - I remember by linking two ideas together (Québec, capital of the province of Québec). - When I read, I underline or highlight the important parts. - When I listen to the teacher, I take notes.
Elaboration (for declarative knowledge) (in-depth treatment)	- I write down key words that summarize what I want to learn. - When I read or listen, I recap the main ideas in my own words. - I ask myself the question "What do I want to learn?" - I associate words with an image. - I establish links between what I already know and what I want to learn. - I say and write examples and counterexamples to explain what I learn. - I ask myself questions or I ask questions to others.

[52]Translated from LASNIER, François (2000), *Réussir la formation par compétences*, Montréal, Guérin, pp. 421 to 432.
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Learning strategies: Cognitive strategies	
Strategy	**Actions**
Integration (for procedural knowledge: proceduralization + composition)	- I name or write down the procedure (elements of the competency). - I schematize the stages of the process (arrange the elements of the competency). - I carry out tasks that activate all the stages of the process (elements of the competency). - When I carry out a task, I establish the link between the stages of the task and the stages of the process (specific references to the elements of the competency). - When I know the process well, I put my own personal stamp on it.
Transfer (for procedural and conditional knowledge)	- I analyze the nature of the source task (disciplinarian knowledge, competencies, and context). - I analyze the nature of the task to be carried out (target task) (disciplinarian knowledge, competencies, and context). - I determine the similarities and differences between the two tasks (if there are few differences, then the process is not a transfer but integration). - I identify the new knowledge that I must learn and the skills I must acquire or adapt. - I carry out the new task by adapting and completing my learning.

Learning strategies: Emotional strategies	
Strategy	**Actions**
Reception	- I agree to receive information on a given subject. - I agree to try and accomplish a task, even though I do not know how to do it yet. - I adopt a positive attitude relative to the task.
Motivation	- I identify the reasons that make it important for me to invest effort into carrying out the task. - I identify the reasons that de-motivate me and cause me not to invest time and effort in the task. - I evaluate my chances of success: Is the task too easy? Too difficult? - I participate actively in the task. - I invest time and effort into my work. - I do not worry about being able to carry out my task properly. - I remind myself how proud I will be when I succeed at the task. - I realize that this task will be useful to me in future tasks.
Management of anxiety (stress)	- I evaluate my degree of anxiety (neither too much nor too little). - I concentrate on my chances of success and not on failure. - I ask for details on the goals and the instructions of the task. - I ask for assistance if I am stressed. - I breathe slowly and deeply. - I undertake an activity to help me relax. - I think of past successes.

Learning strategies: Emotional strategies	
Strategy	**Actions**
Cooperation	- I am tolerant of others. - I collaborate in establishing rules of operation. - I ask for assistance from a team member. - I help a team member in difficulty. - I collaborate in teamwork planning - I accept the role that is assigned to me in the team. - I listen to the viewpoint of others. - I acknowledge the work of other team members.
Resolution of conflict	- I identify the reasons for the conflict and its context. - I identify the consequences of the conflict. - I listen to the viewpoint of others. - I say what I think without blaming others. - I recognize my errors. - I participate in proposing solutions to the conflict. - I choose, in collaboration with others, a solution that suits all. - I agree to make compromises. - I apply the chosen solution. - I evaluate the results of this solution. - I collaborate with others, to adjust the solution if need be.

Learning strategies: Management strategies	
Strategy	**Actions**
Time	- I use a diary. - I identify the time needed for each stage of the task. - I try to save time. - I make time for my schoolwork. - I plan rest and leisure periods for myself. - I avoid procrastination, doing work at the last minute. - I respect the timetable. - If I have too much work, I prioritize.
Material resources	- I make sure I have all the documents and tools I need. - I identify all the documents and tools I need before beginning a task.
Human resources	- I identify peers who can help me if I experience problems. - Before beginning a task, I ask myself whether I will be working alone or with others.
Environment	- I work in a comfortable environment so I do not tire out. - I know where my books and school material are kept. - At home, I work in a restful and quiet area.

Learning strategies: Metacognitive strategies	
Strategy	**Actions**
Activity planning	- I ask myself what are the ways in which I like to learn. - I ask myself at what times my learning is most effective. - I identify the nature of the task to do (instructions, expected results, success criteria, intentions, and goals, timeframe). - I identify the nature of the learning (disciplinarian content, competencies, strategies). - I include competencies and strategies required by the task (cognitive, metacognitive, emotional and management) in my activity toolbox.
Verification (of conditional knowledge)	- I ask myself whether I am using the appropriate expertise and strategies (cognitive, metacognitive, emotional and management). - I ask myself whether I am using my expertise and strategies appropriately. - I ask myself if I am currently working effectively. - I concentrate on the task I want to carry out.
Regulation and evaluation	- I identify the strategies and the expertise I used in the task. - I give an account of the approach I used for the task (what competencies and strategies were used). - I judge whether I worked well or poorly. - I carry out an exercise "in objectivation". • What did I learn? • How did I learn it? • What did I find easy? • What did I find difficult? • What did I like? • What did I dislike? - I carry out an exercise "in self-evaluation". • What did I succeed in doing? • What did I fail in doing? • What are the errors to correct? • What do I do to correct my errors? - I continuously readjust my task goal based on the difficulties and gaps identified in formative evaluations.

Teaching strategies[53]: Lectures	
Strategy	**Actions**
Oral presentation	I present a summary of my presentation. I use visual aids. I organize my ideas in a clear and precise way. I react to the audience. I encourage students to ask questions. I limit myself to fifteen minutes; I punctuate my presentation with learning activities in which the students are active (a few minutes only with young students). I position the presentation in relation to the learning of the student. I plan a learning activity that facilitates the acquisition of the presentation content. I use my expertise to "communicate" in the classroom.
Practical demonstration	I demonstrate clearly (at varying tempos) how to carry out an action or operate an apparatus. I make sure that all the students can see the demonstration clearly. I use auditory support. I encourage students to ask questions. I plan learning activities that allow students to practice the action or the application.

[53]Translated from LASNIER, François (2000), *Réussir la formation par compétences*, Montréal, Guérin, pp. 405-420

Teaching strategies: Individual work strategies	
Strategy	**Actions**
Independent practice	I always conduct a “guided practice” activity before conducting an “independent practice” activity. I give clear instructions on expected results. I specify the work objectives. I offer to troubleshoot. I place value on individual effort. I encourage the students, I support their motivation. I ask students to use the transversal competencies to “process data” and exercise their “cognitive capacities”.
Individual work session	I orient the activity toward the activation and elaboration of new learning and the integration of a new set of knowledge. I specify the objectives of the work session. During the activation and elaboration stage, I am not concerned about results. During the "integration" stage, I am very attentive to the results as concerns the product and the process. I ask the students to use the transversal competencies to exercise their “cognitive capacities ".

Teaching strategies: Individual work strategies	
Strategy	**Actions**
Case study (can also be exploited as an interactive strategy)	I present a case to be studied that is as close as possible to reality and that calls expertise into play. I vary the means I use to present the case (oral, visual, written, simulation). The instructions on expected results are clear and precise. I give students time to study the case. I use this strategy to support learning integration. I question students on their know-how and not on their declarative knowledge.
Problem-based learning	I present a problem that is as close as possible to reality and that calls into play all the elements of a competency. I ask students to use the transversal competencies to help in solving problems. I troubleshoot when necessary. I use this strategy to support the integration of learning.

Teaching strategies: Interactive strategies	
Strategy	**Actions**
Discussion group	I introduce the subject and key elements to be discussed. I ask the students to prepare for the discussion (reading, research). I give clear instructions on the objectives of the discussion. I vary the way of setting up the groups (panel, debate, buzz-group, square root, pass-round, plenary session). I accurately estimate the time needed. I ask each group to name a moderator and secretary. I prepare questions to launch the discussion, if necessary. I ask students to activate transversal competencies to "communicate clearly" and "communicate effectively".
Role play	I remind students that role playing validates their comprehension of a phenomenon and demonstrates their know-how. I ask the students to prepare in advance. I make sure students feel they have freedom in the creation and interpretation of role playing. I provide a time limit. I establish links between the elements observed and the learning to be realized. I ask students to use the transversal competency "to exploit their creativity".

Teaching strategies: Interactive strategies	
Strategy	**Actions**
Modeling	I demonstrate the task in front of students so they may clearly understand it. I question my own motivation. I show how I act when I need answers to my questions. I use my capacity for metacognition out loud, i.e. I speak my thoughts as they enter my head. I underline the difficulties that generally occur when carrying out this type of task. I establish the links between my actions and the expertise required.
Guided practice	I show how modeling is done before students participate in a guided practical activity. I regularly question students on their way of doing things. I regularly give feedback to re-direct or correct students. I try to create a climate of mutual assistance and support. I use an “independent” activity to follow up on a guided activity.
Learning step by step (Q&A)	I use this strategy when I am in an "activation-elaboration" mode. I formulate one or more questions at each stage (step) to help students complete each one. I review errors at the end of the stage before beginning the next one. I encourage students to ask their own questions. I vary the type of presentation (oral, written). I show the link between the key stages. I establish links with the capacities of the solicited competency or competencies.

Teaching strategies: Socioconstructivist strategies	
Strategy	**Actions**
Peer teaching	I make sure that students experience a climate of confidence. I make sure that the same student is not always in the role of learner. That even the weaker student plays the role of instructor on occasion. I make sure that the student playing the role of instructor maintains a relationship of support. I regularly check to see if teaching conforms to the learning requirements. Occasionally, I suggest strategies to the student playing the role of instructor. I encourage the student receiving the instruction to assist the "instructor" should the occasion arise.
Tutoring	I make sure that the student receiving the tutoring feels at ease with the tutor. I make sure that the tutor properly understands the behaviours of a 'helpful' relationship. I am available to help the tutor-student should the need arise. Occasionally, I suggest strategies to help tutors improve their roles as instructors.
Teamwork	I ask the students to use the transversal competency "to cooperate". I circulate among teams to assist when needed. I make sure that the instructions for the task are well understood both individually and collectively, if this is the case. If necessary, I help solve conflicts within the teams (I guide students towards the transversal competencies "to solve problems" and "to communicate effectively").

Teaching strategies: Socioconstructivist strategies	
Strategy	**Actions**
Cooperative learning	I guide the students towards the transversal competencies "to communicate effectively" and "to cooperate". I vary the way teams are created (freeform, fixed, homogeneous, and heterogeneous). I form groups of five students or less. I regularly review the rules of operation and the expected behaviours with the students (I readjust if necessary). I make sure that the students vary their roles within the team (moderator, secretary, revision, observation, regulation, etc). I gradually initiate students to cooperative learning. I regularly review with the students the principles of "positive interdependence". I regularly review with the students the conditions for the success of "cooperative learning". I vary the cooperative learning tasks (to learn together, to search as a group, learning in teams, etc.). I occasionally verify the level of personal and collective responsibility of each student (using a logbook or observation chart). I discuss classroom management strategies with students (displacements, noise level, ergonomics, organization of material required, etc.).

Teaching strategies: Socioconstructivist strategies	
Strategy	**Actions**
Project based learning (can also be used with the strategy of individual work)	I elaborate, alone or with the help of students, a project that integrates the expertise of several disciplines. I ask the students to use the transversal competencies "to carry out projects" and to exercise their “cognitive capacities ". I vary project types (short, long, individual, and collective). With young students, it is important to avoid long projects. I make sure that the objectives and the instructions for accomplishing the project are well understood. I validate the plan for each project before the students carry it out (I make adjustments with them if necessary). I identify with the students the resources needed for the project. I am available to support (advise) the accomplishment of the projects without interfering with their management. I identify evaluation criteria before beginning the project. For collective projects, I facilitate the organization of information pooling sessions. For collective projects, I ask the students to use the transversal competencies “to work cooperatively".

Acquisition of declarative knowledge (learning)

1. Elaboration

- is used to add information to acquired knowledge;
- tries to multiply the access routes to long-term memory;
- *Strategies*
    - To rewrite a statement in one's own words;
    - To write an abstract of a text.

2. Organization

- divides information into subsets, structures information hierarchically;
- is used for storing information and processing various information at the same time (relative to the amount of information that the working memory can process simultaneously);
- *Strategies*
    - To make a diagram;
    - To request that a diagram be made;
    - To present the knowledge in the form of a model;
    - To find examples, analogies.

Acquisition of procedural knowledge (know -how)

1. Proceduralization

- establishes a sequence of actions that are connected to each other;

- regroups information (series of actions) within the same informational unit to make the working memory more effective (this is the distinction between "expert" and "beginner"). In a beginner, a set of actions might occupy the entire working memory thereby limiting its ability to analyze other important aspects.

- *Strategies*

  - to become aware of actions and their sequence;
  - to establish the process, to explain it in a precise way;
  - to have the student draft the procedures;
  - to refer regularly to the procedures, to use the procedures (to identify connections between the stages), to justify the choice of actions;
  - to go through the model production stage (see diagram).

2. Composition

- consists in learning how to connect the actions of a given procedure to each other;
- leads to the application of the procedure to various problems and in various contexts so as to gradually make the procedure second nature;
- can only be acquired by action, also requires correction;
- works at carrying out tasks effectively and economically (in energy and working memory);
- must take into account prior knowledge (that is, acquired knowledge).

- *Strategies*
  - To plan tasks (problem situation) that require the application of the procedure from start to finish (and not stages only) (global approach – competency based learning);
  - To carry out guided learning, give continuous feedback;
  - To have the student experience the same procedure several times (not mechanistically but consciously; the goal is the interiorization of the procedure through our capacity for metacognition) (awareness of intellectual processes and the control to put it into action);
  - Once the procedure is mastered, allow students to work independently (however, with support being offered if necessary so students are not completely on their own).

Acquisition of conditional knowledge (when, why)

This knowledge refers to the use of declarative and procedural knowledge. It is the basis for metacognition. For instance, in competency-based learning, it is possible to activate knowledge but be unable to apply it to the situation, to adapt it to the nature of the task. This knowledge is also fundamental in transferring learning, since it makes it possible to analyze the similarities and the differences between the source task and the target task. In general, authors who have written on this subject identify two stages for the acquisition of conditional knowledge: generalization and discrimination.

1. **Generalization**

- identifies situations and conditions in which declarative procedures and knowledge would be effective to accomplish the desired task;
- is acquired when two situations are present at the same time in memory so the learner can compare the conditions of application for both.
- *Strategies*
    - To identify the conditions for application of declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge;
    - To store the conditions of application for a procedure or competency in long-term memory;
    - To regularly verify if the conditions of application in long-term memory are still effective;
    - To present examples and counterexamples;
    - To analyze several different situations, for which the use of a procedural knowledge is relevant;
    - To formulate rules that condition the activation of procedural knowledge and declarative knowledge.

2. **Discrimination**

- adds or removes conditions for applying a procedure.
- *Strategies*
    - To compare two situations for similarities and differences relative to conditions for applying procedural knowledge;
    - To analyze several situations relative to the conditions for applying procedural knowledge;
    - To regularly review the conditions for applying procedural knowledge;
    - To analyze the conditions of use of a procedure based on over-generalization or under-generalization, i.e. to apply the procedure to non-relevant conditions and not to apply the procedure when conditions are relevant;
    - To ask the student to choose strategies from among several, to accomplish a given task;
    - To use modeling and guided learning to teach the student how to choose a specific strategy for carrying out a given task;
    - To perform several formative evaluations relative to identifying conditions of use for procedural and declarative knowledge.

Document 16
Strategic teaching measures

Teaching measures

Strategic teaching is a model that lists the tasks of teachers in 10 steps.[54] These 10 steps are regrouped into three major sections. Each one includes teaching measures that the instructor is likely to implement at each stage.

STAGE I: PREPARATION FOR LEARNING

Goal: Give meaning to what is requested of the student.

STEP 1: Discussion on the task objectives

M1 Teachers define the nature of the task.
M2 Teachers indicate the specific learning objectives connected to this task.
M3 Teachers define the criteria used to evaluate the student's performance, from an operational perspective.

STEP 2: Overview of the material

M4 Teachers familiarize students with the organization of the material that is placed at their disposal.
M5 Teachers distinguish what is important from what is less important in the material provided.
M6 Teachers provide the organization models for the task.

STEP 3: Activation of prior knowledge

M7 Teachers call upon the knowledge available in the student's long-term memory to help tackle new information.
M8 Teachers introduce prerequisites that support the transfer of knowledge.

STEP 4: Direction and attention of interest

M9 Teachers suggest a series of questions on the goal targeted by the task.
M10 Teachers discuss past successes or failures students have had with this kind of task and ensure they use appropriate cognitive and metacognitive strategies.

Translated from AUGER, Denis (1996), La formation par projet et l'enseignement stratégique, Collège of Sherbrooke.

[54] The reader can refer to pages 324 to 333 of the book by J. Tardif, *Pour un enseignement stratégique*, Éditions Logiques, 1992, to obtain more detailed information on the meaning of these ten steps.

Strategic teaching measures

STAGE II: PREPARATION OF CONTENTS

- Goal: To ensure the acquisition of knowledge.

STEP 1: Data processing

M11 Teachers encourage students to use their prior knowledge to carry out the task.

M12 Teachers frequently ask questions on both the contents and the form.

M13 Teachers debate the strengths and weaknesses of their strategies with students.

STEP 2: Integration of knowledge

M14 Teachers work closely with students to identify the key learning of the task just completed.

STEP 3: Assimilation of knowledge

M15 Teachers model and direct the orchestration of new information with prior knowledge, taking into account the student's level of independence.

M16 Teachers initiate interaction between students.

Strategic teaching measures

STAGE III: APPLICATION AND TRANSFER OF KNOWLEDGE

- Goal: To apply the new knowledge to real life situations outside the classroom.

STEP 1: Formative and summative learning evaluations

M17 Teachers place students in a context that enables them to be aware of their level of mastery relative to the new knowledge.
M18 Teachers question students on the degree of certainty of their knowledge.
M19 After a formative evaluation, teachers discuss the value of this new knowledge with the student.

STEP 2: Organization of knowledge in diagrams

M20 Together with the student, teachers structure the declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge that deals with the same reality.

STEP 3: Transfer and extension of knowledge

M21 Teachers insist on conditional knowledge (the starting point of a transfer).
M22 Teachers identify the conditions required at this starting point.
M23 Teachers support the transfer of knowledge by showing methods of solving problems.

Each of these 23 teaching measures is made up of *actions* that the teacher can use for a specific measure; an action is observable in itself whereas this it is not the case for a measure. Therefore, by observing *the actions* we can analyze *the measures* implemented as teachers evolve in their practice: 68 *teaching actions*[55] have been regrouped into these 23 measures.

[55] Translated from AUGER, Denis (1996), *La formation par projet et l'enseignement stratégique*, Collège de Sherbrooke.

Document 17

A frame of reference for strategic teaching[56]

The majority of tools placed at the disposal of teachers, often possess a major flaw despite their outward value: There is no reference to **a theoretical framework** underlying the learning and teaching strategies and little value is given to the principles on which they are based.

Why do we need a theoretical framework? Because conventional and expressed ideas on "how learning takes place" directly affect pedagogical attitudes and interventions in the classroom. This can be seen in the various projects of strategic teaching where it is obvious that it is difficult, even impossible, to implement pedagogical innovations with teachers without an **operational model of reference.** This model is used to analyze, modify, adjust, and enrich current practices. It also becomes the grid for analyzing teaching effectiveness and even more importantly, provides a concrete model to develop reflective thinking in teachers who thus improve their capacity for questioning and have a better grasp of the foundation of their pedagogical practices. The ability to teach a student can be defined as the quality of the teacher's own ability to learn.

The reference model that facilitates training and coaching by the instructor is based on a theoretical foundation called cognitive psychology. A science clarifies the emotional, social, cognitive, and metacognitive bases of typical learning processes. The theoretical bases are formalized through **strategic teaching principles**. In 1991 at CECM, Mr. Jacques Tardif identified these principles within the implementation of strategic teaching practices.

Subsequent to this, it became necessary to be more precise relative to the **pedagogical actions** that brought these principles to life in the classroom. How was it possible to implement these principles in the planning process of learning and teaching? Based on the experience of several teachers and educational advisers, pedagogical proposals were drafted and put to the test. They were readjusted and validated. Finally, the model was finalized within a cooperative project[57] that involved three school boards in the Québec City area. The project involved a systematic and thorough experimentation with a series of pedagogical strategies detailed in the frame of reference. This research-action project involved 25 teachers and Jocelyne Picard, a teacher at the Commission scolaire des Belles-Rives, was the moderator. Denise Baillargeon, primary education coordinator at the Commission scolaire de La JeuneLorette, coordinated the project.

This article is divided into two parts. In the first, we briefly present the **strategic teaching principles**. In the second section, we briefly take **a cognitive glance at the planning of teaching activities and the activation of the three stages of a learning process.** Also present are pedagogical propositions to assist in actualizing these principles in the learning-teaching process.

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[56] Translated from OUELLET, Yolande (1997), *Un cadre de référence en enseignement stratégique*, Vie pédagogique, # 104, September-October, 4-10

[57] Translated from TARDIF Jacques, and Yolande OUELLET. "Vers un plus haut degré de professionnalisme: un scénario d'intervention avec des enseignants du primaire et du secondaire ", *Cahier de la recherche en éducation*, Thématique, La pratique, source de recherche et de formation, Université de Sherbrooke, Faculté de l'éducation, Editions de CRP, 1995, p. 57 to 88.

1. Strategic teaching principles

Conclusions drawn from research in cognitive psychology identify six key pedagogical principles that gave birth to differentiated pedagogical practices. They facilitate a critical examination of the effectiveness of teaching on students.

- According to the first principle, learning is an active and constructive process.
- According to the second principle, learning is primarily the establishment of links between new material and prior knowledge.
- According to the third principle, learning relates to procedural and conditional knowledge as much as it does to declarative knowledge or know-how.
- According to the fourth principle, learning requires the constant reorganization of knowledge based on a conceptual model specific to the type of knowledge.
- According to the fifth principle, learning relates as much to cognitive and metacognitive strategies as it does to theoretical knowledge, and the former can be readily built with explicit teaching of the "what, why, how and when" of a strategy using modeling, guided practice, cooperative practice and independent practice.
- According to the sixth principle, motivation is what determines the commitment, participation, and persistence in learning of students at school.

The first principle

Learning is an active and constructive process. It is important to understand that students do not process all the data presented in the same way or start off on the same footing. Students are selective and disregard a large amount of data discussed in the classroom especially when the material seems of no importance to them.

In addition, students build their knowledge in a personal and progressive way. Therefore, teachers must create differentiated pedagogical situations and environments that facilitate this construction; they must also mediate and instruct the students in the process of construction. For these reasons, a re-examination of pedagogical actions relative to student learning is done together with an evaluation/validation of the knowledge. This will enable an understanding of why students continue to make the same mistakes.

The first principle also impacts on the emotional level. In cognitive psychology, motivation is seen as a result of the student's school experiences. Consequently, teachers can exert a strong influence on the student's degree of motivation by acting on its constituting elements.

The second principle

Learning is primarily the establishment of links between new material and prior knowledge. Students cannot process data without establishing links with knowledge stored in their long-term memory. Keen attention must be given to the student's prior knowledge, since it filters the new material. All knowledge will go through this filter.

In addition, teachers must understand the mechanisms that are responsible for the construction of erroneous knowledge and understand why knowledge already stored in long-term memory is so firmly anchored.

The third principle

Learning relates to procedural and conditional knowledge as well as declarative knowledge or know-how. According to one theory in cognitive psychology, knowledge is declarative (what), procedural (how to), or conditional (when and why to use declarative or procedural knowledge). This theory states that there is a synergy in the very structure of these types of knowledge, in their construction and their integration within the same learning task. Thus, a given learning task must be analyzed taking into consideration this interdependence and interrelationship of knowledge types.

This distinction among knowledge types is capital since research results show that long-term memory represents and stores each type differently. In order for learning to be as effective and meaningful as possible, these differentiated models require adapted teaching practices that are differentiated yet closely linked, whether we are dealing with the declarative, procedural, or conditional aspect of knowledge. Thus, the architecture of memory and the strong influence of the working memory on learning are two key distinctions in teaching.

The fourth principle

Learning requires the constant reorganization of knowledge. Research in cognitive psychology has clearly shown that experts are able to organize their knowledge in long-term memory. They have created connections between similar knowledge relating to a given reality and these connections allow for quick recall and the quick processing and use of data simultaneously.

In the case of student inertia, teachers can see what mechanisms trigger this behaviour and how the reorganization of knowledge is a powerful tool in reducing this inertia; especially given the fact that declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge have their own models in long-term memory. Students will better see and understand the dynamics occurring in the transfer of knowledge and expertise.

The fifth principle

The construction of declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge by the student contributes to the development of cognitive and metacognitive strategies. Learning relates to cognitive and metacognitive strategies as well as to theoretical knowledge. Many observations made in the classroom reveal that regardless of the level of education, teachers do not intervene frequently enough as concerns the use students make of knowledge acquired at school, their strategies for using this knowledge as well as its fields of application.

Teachers must recognize the urgent need to implement cognitive strategies for effective and thorough use of procedural and conditional know-how as well as metacognitive strategies to master the process consciously.

In cognitive psychology, the mastery of cognitive and metacognitive strategies (procedural and conditional know-how) is acquired thanks to explicit teaching of these strategies, the what, why, how and when of a strategy based on modeling, guided practice, cooperative practice and autonomous practice.

The sixth principle

The sixth principle relates to the emotional components of learning and the awakening of motivation at school. According to this principle, *motivation determines the commitment of students, their participation, and persistence in their learning.*

In cognitive psychology, students construct motivation and knowledge based on their school experiences. Teachers can exert a significant influence on this construction.

Considerable research has shown that emotional variables such as self-image, feelings of competency and security greatly influence behaviour in learning situations. Previous and current school experiences cause emotional reactions associated with self-image. School is the place where students construct their self-image as learners and acquire their sense of security and self-sufficiency relative to school tasks.

The beliefs of students relative to their learning capacities directly correspond to their reasons for their failures and successes. These beliefs are determining factors in their level of commitment at school. The motivation of students therefore consists of two main categories: Their **concept** of intelligence, the goals set by the school and their **own perception** of the value, requirements, and control they have over the task. These factors are clues for teachers who can use them to awaken student motivation. Particular attention must be given to the perception students have of the control they exert over their own learning. In this instance, teachers must provide students with the cognitive and metacognitive strategies they need to succeed.

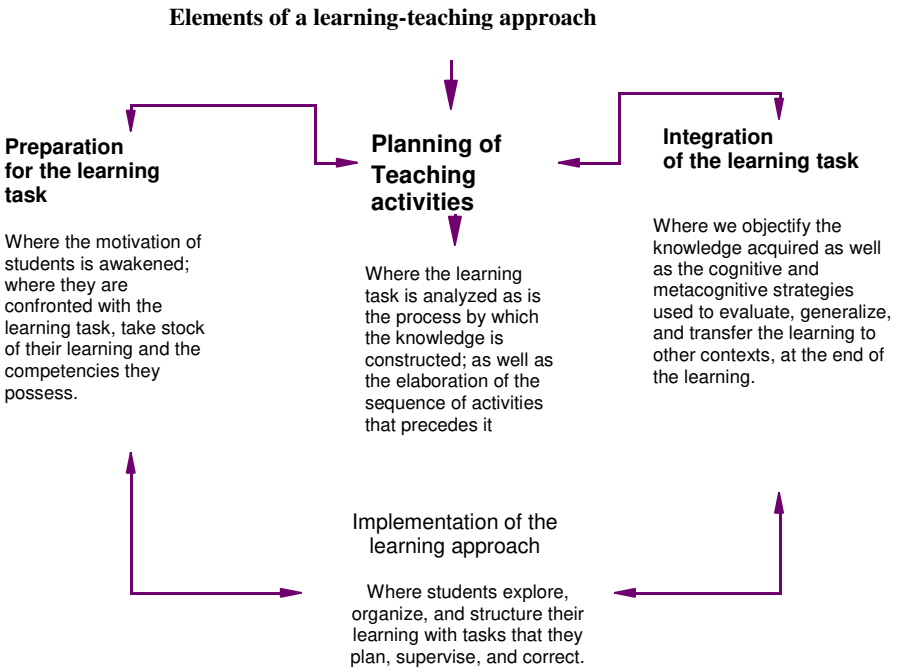
2. A cognitive look at the planning of teaching activities and the three stages of the learning approach.

In this section, we have a two-fold objective. On one hand, we outline **an operational model** that identifies and positions teaching strategies readily used in the classroom relative to strategic teaching principles. In addition, we also introduce a grid for the **analysis of teaching effectiveness** and a **concrete model** to develop reflective thinking and the capacity for questioning. We also recommend experimentation opportunities for further investigation.

This section is divided into two parts.

The first part deals with **pedagogical paths** for the planning of teaching activities; the second part concerns pedagogical paths for the preparation, realization, and integration stages of the learning process. We identify teaching measures in the classroom to actualize the planning of activities.

In addition, to assist more specifically in teaching planning activities and the three stages of learning, we introduce theoretical elements, an organizational diagram of pedagogical paths as well as the paths themselves.



It is understood that the order of presentation of the pedagogical paths shown in the model is changeable and not linear. To account for the action occurring at the heart of a pedagogical process is always the blind spot of any learning model. A learning situation on the other hand, offers a dynamic and systemic dimension born and evolving according to the needs of the students, an analysis of the didactic situation and the creativity of the teacher. The teacher must judge and make use of the situation. These pedagogical paths offer reflection for teachers who can rely on them in the analysis of aspects of the learning-teaching process. They cannot and must not be considered a recipe for success. It is up to the teacher to select the directions that are most appropriate for the didactic situation being built, analyzed and facilitated.

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2.1 Pedagogical paths for the planning of teaching activities

It is here that the analysis of the learning task and the process by which the knowledge is constructed take place; also the elaboration of the sequence of activities leading up to the construction.

a) *Theoretical elements*

To consider learners as the principal actors in the construction of their own knowledge implies an analysis of the knowledge to be acquired as well as the structure of learning situations.

Generally, course planning centered on the transmission of knowledge and “exercisation" is carried out in accordance with the program contents, the basic handbook and activity or exercise books. The contents do not pose a problem in themselves, only time remains the eternal issue. What is of interest to teachers, in the words of Jacques Tardif, is "what" to teach, i.e. the contents, and "how" to teach, i.e. the teaching method. The actions of the teacher and the knowledge presented are at the heart of the process.

The planning of teaching activities that puts the learner and the process of knowledge acquisition at the heart of teaching practices raises questions with the traditional approach.

"On the other hand, if the recipients, i.e. the learners, are at the heart of the educational action, the situation is completely different. What we are targeting then is the learner's conceptual understanding of the learning task with the process of constructing meaning at the centre, and the definition of knowledge to be taught cannot be dissociated from the learner. (Barth, 1994, p. 109)"

In other words, knowledge cannot be examined or defined independently of the conceptualization process and the ability of the learner. The planning of teaching activities from the standpoint of the learner makes it mandatory to consider how the content will be learned and the way in which the learner can process these contents cognitively.

The following fundamental questions need to be asked: What characterizes the nature, the organization, the complexity, and the interrelationships of the learning task? How does the learner manage to conceptualize this knowledge and know-how? And when is the transfer of this knowledge necessary?

The following pedagogical paths provide answers to these questions. The planning of teaching activities, regarded as the foundation of the learner's cognitive and metacognitive activity, must be centered as much on the learner as on the knowledge and know-how to be taught, so that learners become conscious of their ability to learn and to transfer acquired knowledge and competencies.

During the planning stage and throughout the learning-teaching process, the teacher must be constantly focused on the student's acquisition of the following competencies:

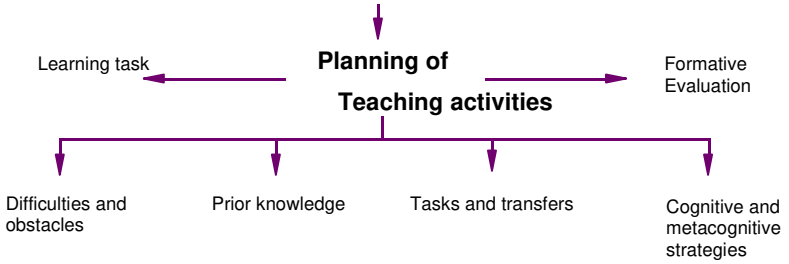
- The ability to organize and structure the declarative, procedural and conditional aspects of the new knowledge into memory, based on prior knowledge;
- The ability to know, manage and consciously self-regulate the learning process;
- The ability to transfer the acquired knowledge and competencies.

Seen from this perspective, the planning of teaching activities becomes a particularly reflective, conscious, metacognitive activity designed so that students acquire metacognitive consciousness that supports their "ability to learn how to learn". The planning of teaching activities requires specific professional competencies.

b) ***Organizational diagram of pedagogical paths***

The starting point for an analysis on the subject of learning and the process by which this knowledge is constructed, as well as the elaboration of the sequence of activities leading to it.

Organizational diagram of pedagogical paths



- To define and analyze the types of knowledge relative to the learning task.
- To analyze the difficulties of the learning task.
- To activate prior knowledge and take it into account, before, during and after learning.
- To structure the activities and learning situations to guide students in their ability to transfer knowledge.
- To plan for and structure explicit cognitive and metacognitive strategies specific to the learning task in order to transfer the knowledge.
- To plan for interactive formative evaluations as well as formative evaluation feedback tools.

c) *Pedagogical paths*

Define and analyze the types of knowledge relative to the learning task.

- To establish the interrelationship between the learning task and other knowledge of the module or program (organizational diagram and conceptual network that positions this knowledge in relation to other knowledge in the field).
- To analyze the degree of complexity and abstraction of the learning task by determining the interrelationship between the types of knowledge corresponding to it:
  - declarative knowledge;
  - procedural knowledge;
  - conditional knowledge.
- To clarify:
  - the organizational diagram and the semantic network;
  - the sequence of actions;
  - the conditions of use, according to the types of knowledge of the learning task.
- To determine the utility of this learning task, the goal it targets, the field to which it applies and the possible areas of transfer.
- To determine prior knowledge essential to integrating the new knowledge or know-how.
- To plan for the necessary interventions to correct any possible gaps in prior knowledge.
- To identify examples and counter-examples that facilitates the comprehension of the concepts.

Analyze the difficulties of the learning task.

- To analyze the difficulties inherent in the learning task, as well as the erroneous rules students attach to it that hinder learning.
- To plan for interventions with students and for providing support so they may master their difficulties, rebuild rules that are in error and overcome obstacles.

Activate prior knowledge and take it into account, before, during, and after learning.

- To anticipate the prior knowledge of students relative to procedural and conditional knowledge and know-how, as well as to the erroneous rules that hinder learning.
- To determine how to cause students to use and organize their prior knowledge relative to procedural and conditional knowledge and know-how.
- To determine how to intervene with the students based on prior knowledge before, during, and after learning.

Structure the activities and facilitate the learning situation to guide the students in their ability to transfer knowledge.

- To structure learning activities while taking into account the types of knowledge inherent in the learning as well as students' erroneous rules relating to the subject.
- To choose and create learning activities based on the three stages of the learning process: preparation, realization, and integration.
- To choose and create complete and complex tasks differentiated tasks and problem situations that support an effective transfer of acquired knowledge.
- To analyze the value and requirements of the tasks to achieve and adapt these tasks so that they are meaningful and represent challenges that measure up to the students.
- To choose or create activities which make it possible to contextualize, de-contextualize and re-contextualize the knowledge, in order to bring the students to an explicit awareness of their ability to transfer the knowledge.
- To structure cooperative learning tasks that allow for social interaction between students and between students and teachers.
- To prepare the required material, the schedules, the classroom organization and the work methods.

Plan for and structure the teaching of cognitive and metacognitive strategies in order to transfer knowledge.

- To teach the "what", "why", "how" and "when" using guided practices, modeling, cooperative and independent practices:
  - cognitive and metacognitive strategies relative to the elaboration of procedural knowledge, conditional knowledge and know-how;
  - cognitive and metacognitive strategies relative to the execution of tasks and the transfer of knowledge.
- To make students aware of :
  - what they learn;
  - how they learn;
  - how they overcome difficulties;

  before, during and after learning, and to express their awareness.

Plan for interactive formative evaluations as well as formative evaluation feedback tools

- To determine the subjects covered by formative evaluations during and after learning.
- To schedule time and prepare questions for interactive formative evaluations as well as co-evaluation tasks.
- To prepare formative evaluation feedback tools for student use at the end of learning.
- To analyze the congruity of the examination questions and the learning carried out and, if necessary, to adapt the questions.

How do we apply these proposals in the classroom? In the following pages, the proposals are reviewed, supported, and actualized in the form of pedagogical actions that make it possible to facilitate, orient, guide, direct, and support students in the assimilation of knowledge.

2.2 Pedagogical paths for the three stages of the learning process

2.2.1 Preparation stage of the learning process

Where the motivation of students is awakened; where they are confronted with learning tasks, take stock of the knowledge and competencies they possess.

a) *Theoretical elements*

The preparation stage is important because it determines to a great extent, the quality of the student's commitment. Students need to know what the stakes are in the learning situation and to be reassured as to their abilities to assimilate the learning.

Their commitment, participation, and perseverance throughout the learning process depend on their motivation to learn. This motivation comes primarily from the importance and value placed on the new knowledge and the challenge it offers the student. It arises out of a need for learning as well as a feeling of self-sufficiency resulting from the challenge and the expected efforts, following the students' evaluation of their abilities.

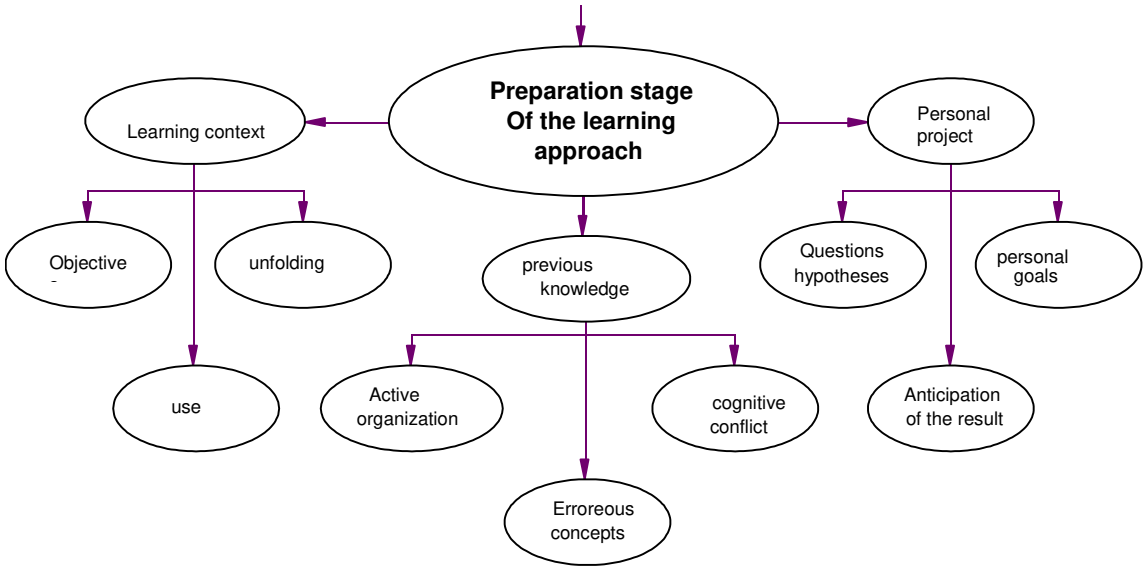
If the new knowledge fulfills a need, it arouses interest, attention and a willingness to commit that leads to an emotional and cognitive mobilization of the student. Consequently, if it does not, then the desire to learn must be awakened. Moreover, awareness that the learning task is connected to previously acquired knowledge and competencies reassures and creates a sense of security essential to any learning. The students interpret, process and understand the new knowledge, giving it meaning based on their prior knowledge of it. They recognize the nature and importance of the learning acquired, learn how to recall it and re-use it. Students who can recall and re-use their acquired knowledge, establish links to their prior knowledge, discover that the new knowledge and the task are part of a continuum, and anticipate the advantages gained through the acquisition of knowledge react positively to the challenge. These students see learning as realistic and confidently embrace the process.

In this section, we will outline pedagogical paths that familiarize students with the learning context and the control they exert over the learning task.

b) *Organizational diagram of pedagogical paths*

Where the motivation of students is awakened; where they are confronted with learning task, take stock of the knowledge and competencies they possess.

Organizational diagram of pedagogical paths



- To introduce the learning context.
- To use and organize students' prior knowledge of the subject matter.
- To help students get "involved" in the project, i.e. be totally committed to its completion.

c) *Pedagogical paths*

Introduce the learning context

- Look for triggers to awaken interest and direct the attention of students.
- Introduce the new subject with tables and organizational diagrams showing content; position the subject relative to the overall content to be covered.
- Find connections to previous learning tasks.
- Demonstrate its usefulness and the scope of the new learning for:
  - continued learning;
  - personal, cultural and social education;
  - transfers of knowledge to the subject matter, other subjects and everyday situations.
- To define the new learning:
  - the unfolding of the activities and their duration;
  - the preferred work methods;
  - the knowledge that will be acquired ("at the end of the learning task, you will know this; you will be able to do that").

Use and organize the prior knowledge of students on the subject matter

- Facilitate the activation and the organization of students' prior knowledge relative to declarative, procedural, and conditional aspects of the learning task.
- Acknowledge prior acquisitions and refer back to them during the new learning situation.
- Identify erroneous concepts and false rules that hinder learning, and guide students in their rebuilding of knowledge.
- Assist students in recognizing the prior knowledge for validation and transfer.

Help students get "involved" in the project, i.e. be totally committed to its completion

- Use prior knowledge to provoke cognitive conflicts and the need for learning.
- Ask students to formulate questions and assumptions concerning the new subject.
- Help students understand and anticipate the results of the process.
- Assist students in setting personal goals and defining them in terms of the new learning.
- Be attentive to the quality of the emotional and cognitive commitment of the students throughout.

2.2.2 The realization stage of the learning process

Students explore, organize, and structure the learning activity with tasks that they plan, supervise, and correct.

a) *Theoretical elements*

The realization stage of the learning process enables students to interact with the learning task, explore it, confront it with the prior knowledge, organize, and structure it in order to build a concept, acquire a skill or competency, and carry out a task.

This is the stage where the student actively processes the data to build declarative, procedural, and conditional knowledge relative to the learning task. This will be achieved if the teacher has created the conditions necessary for this construction and teaches him what to do. Often students are told what to do without explicit instructions showing them how and why to do it. The teacher must define the attributes of the concepts, the examples and counter-examples, the organizational diagrams of declarative knowledge, the sequence of actions (the process) for implementing cognitive and metacognitive strategies in the execution of the tasks as well as the conditions of use and transfer of the knowledge and technological know-how acquired. The teacher must teach the "why", "how" and "when" to use a strategy of modeling, guided or cooperative or independent practice. Moreover, the teacher must select activities, places, and times for discussion, dialogue, and objectivation to allow students to argue and negotiate the meaning of the learning task and to build a common understanding of it.

Throughout the realization stage, it is up to the teacher to facilitate, guide, direct, and support the learning process the students must follow. Moreover, teachers must be focused on the thought processes of their students and the process by which knowledge and know-how are conceptualized. To achieve this, they must make students conscious of the way in which they learn and master the process.

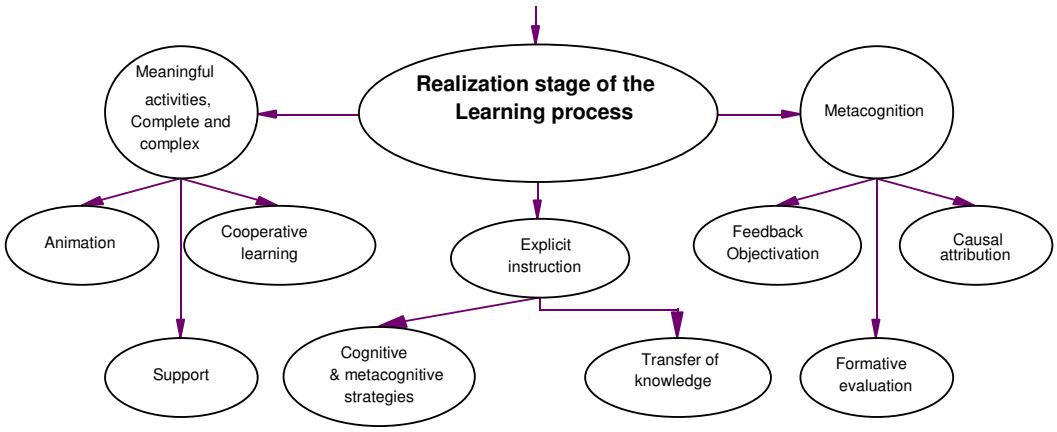
The learning of metacognitive strategies and the ability to transfer acquired knowledge become the object of systematic teaching. The transfer of knowledge requires detailed attention during the realization stage. Transfer of knowledge does not automatically occur at the end of learning nor is it related only to the autonomy of the student. Students must learn to transfer their knowledge; teachers show them how and make them aware of the conditions and strategies necessary for the actualization of this competency.

The teaching practices that follow are essential to the development of this ability.

b) The organizational diagram of pedagogical paths

Students explore, organize, and structure the learning activity with tasks that they plan, supervise, and correct.

Organizational diagram of pedagogical paths



- To moderate, guide, direct and support the learning process of the students.
- To support the development of cooperation.
- To help students overcome difficulties relating to school tasks.
- To help students build a repertory of cognitive and metacognitive strategies necessary for the execution of tasks.
- To teach students to transfer acquired knowledge.
- To implement interactive formative evaluation practices.
- To teach students how to develop their capacity for metacognition
- To help students construct a positive concept of their learning capacity.

c) Pedagogical paths

Moderate, guide, direct, and support the students in their learning process

- To adopt conditions and activities so students can overcome obstacles and build their knowledge of the learning task.
- To differentiate and vary the presentation of information, the ways of processing data as well as the didactic means to take into account the cognitive styles and abilities of students.
- To implement learning situations that make it possible for students to identify attributes of the concepts based on the confrontation of examples and counter-examples, to build meaning.
- To help students progressively organize and reorganize acquired knowledge in their memory based on their organizational structures.

Support the development of cooperative learning

- To implement cooperative learning situations that allow students to discuss their knowledge and know-how, validate, compare, confront, exemplify, reformulate, perceive the same reality under different angles, change perspectives, modify and correct their concepts.

- To help students acquire the personal and social skills necessary for cooperative work, such as the feeling of belonging, sharing, the pooling of efforts, self-confidence and trust in others, mutual assistance, the respect of others and acknowledgement of their differences, the ability to listen and the coherent and respectful expression of one's ideas and the ability to solve conflicts.

Help students overcome difficulties relative to tasks

- To explain the usefulness of the tasks and establish links to established goals.

- To teach the students to plan, supervise and correct the execution of their learning tasks.

- To support students throughout the learning situation relative to the value, requirements and mastery level of the task.

- To be attentive to negative attitudes, discouragement and unexpressed needs for assistance; to intervene when necessary.

- To teach students how to overcome stress and anxiety when faced with difficulties.

- To teach students to use their prior knowledge and personal resources to overcome a difficulty.

- To teach students to be conscious of loss of meaning, of doubts and feelings of helplessness, to verbalize them and ask for assistance.

Help students build a repertory of cognitive and metacognitive strategies necessary for the execution of tasks

• To teach explicitly through:

- modeling,
- guided practice,
- cooperative practice,
- independent practice, the "what", "why", "how" and "when" of cognitive and metacognitive strategies: for the construction of procedural and conditional know-how:
    - ° reading strategies,
    - ° writing strategies,
    - ° problem solving strategies in all disciplines,
    - ° research, collection, and data processing strategies,
    - ° study strategies,
    - ° strategies to pass their examinations,

- the execution of tasks:
    - ° how to plan, supervise, and correct the execution of a task.

- the application of work methods and techniques:
    - ° how to use an agenda and manage one's time,
    - ° how to organize one's work and leisure time more effectively,
    - ° how to take notes and organize them,
    - ° how to organize one's study places and study time,
    - ° how to plan for the study of the various subject matters,
    - ° how to carry out a review and prepare for an examination,
    - ° how to do an examination and overcome stress.

Teach students how to transfer acquired knowledge

- To guide and support students in the execution of complete and complex tasks or the resolution of problem situations which support the conscious transfer of acquired knowledge.
- To assist students in the recognition and verbalization of the knowledge and competencies they transfer before, during and after learning.
- To teach students explicitly how to transfer knowledge, through modeling, guided practice, cooperative practice, and independent practice.
- To clarify situations of contextualization, de-contextualization, and re-contextualization of knowledge for students so they can consciously strengthen their ability to transfer knowledge.
- To help students become aware of situations and contexts in which they transfer knowledge, and to plan for situations in which their knowledge can be transferred.

Implement formative evaluation practices

- To help students understand the meaning and usefulness of formative evaluations, before, during and after learning.
- To explain to students when, how and why they must take part in formative evaluation activities.
- To teach students to adopt a positive attitude with regard to errors.
- To teach students self-evaluation, co-evaluation and self-correction strategies.

Teach students how to develop their capacity for metacognition

- During the learning task, frequently use objectification activities for the knowledge acquired and the processes which made it possible to construct knowledge and know-how, i.e. help students become aware of the way in which:
    - they learn;
    - they carry out the tasks;
    - they overcome difficulties;
    - they implement a strategy;
    - they proceed to solve a problem;

  and express it in their words.
- To revisit prior knowledge during the learning process so students can correct and reorganize their knowledge as well as establish links between it and the new knowledge.

Guide students in the construction of a positive concept of their ability to learn

- To help students see how feedback and objectification during the learning process, are favourable for the deepening of knowledge.
- To guide students in the recognition and evaluation of their progress.
- To help students attribute their successes and failures to strategies that may or may not be effective as well as to the efforts they invested in the process.
- During the learning process, to help students become aware of their ability to learn and to express this ability in their own words.

2.2.3 The integration stage of the learning process

Students objectify acquired knowledge and the cognitive and metacognitive strategies used to evaluate, generalize, and transfer knowledge to other situations, at the end of the learning process.

a) *Theoretical elements*

The integration stage must offer students the opportunity to actualize their ability to transfer knowledge and cast a critical eye on the whole process, take stock of their learning and set new objectives.

Using synthesis, complete and complex tasks, as well as problem solving, students are taught to actualize and generalize their acquired knowledge to achieve greater mastery. Teachers must help students recognize the importance of this stage of learning, so they may consciously learn how to transfer their knowledge. During the integration stage, as in the realization stage of the learning process, students is placed in situations where they can perform specific transfers to acquire, objectify, and evaluate their expertise in the field of study.

Frequently, this integration activity becomes the subject of the summative evaluation. Theory was introduced, practical exercises were done, and fragmented tasks were completed without requiring the student to carry out complete and complex tasks or syntheses that are necessary for formative evaluation feedback and regulation. Too often, a summative evaluation is done on knowledge that is unfinished and still in the construction stage, not fully integrated. When this happens, the result is students who cannot transfer knowledge. Many accept these results and move on.

To take stock of the journey completed by the student constitutes the other side of the integration stage. Students must gauge the depth of their acquired knowledge relative to the knowledge initially required. They must become aware that their success or failure depends on the effort they expend; and their implementation of effective or ineffective strategies. The teacher's role is to help students see the results of their efforts and strategies so that greater independence and accountability will naturally follow. By becoming aware, students acquire a feeling of self-sufficiency and security relative to learning tasks and build positive self-images as learners.

b) *Organizational diagram of pedagogical paths*

Students objectify the acquired knowledge and the cognitive and metacognitive strategies used to evaluate, generalize, and transfer knowledge to other situations, at the end of the learning process.

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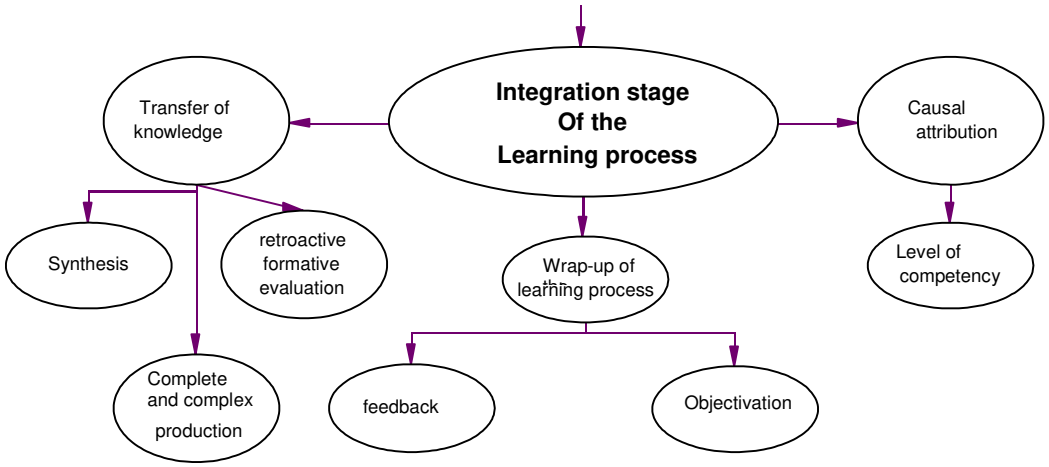
Organizational diagram of pedagogical paths



- To support the transfer of knowledge.
- To facilitate feedback and the objectification of acquisitions in the learning process.
- To review causal attributions relative to the student's capacity for learning.

c) Pedagogical paths

Support the transfer of knowledge

- To introduce new situations and contexts so students may recognize conditions of use for knowledge and know-how they have processed:

  - synthesis:
    - complete and complex tasks;
    - problem solving.

- To help students generalize the rules, principles, concepts and skills.

- To help students plan for potential transfers of the learning they have mastered.

Moderate the feedback sessions on the learning process of the students.

- To help students become aware of the progress they have made and to verbalize it.

  - what they learned relative to what they knew at the starting point;
  - how they learned;
  - the difficulties and methods they used to overcome them.

- To discuss the relevance and effectiveness of the cognitive and metacognitive strategies implemented with students.

Review causal attributions relative to the student's capacity for learning

- To be attentive to the degree of satisfaction of students concerning their success and progress.
- To assist students in a conscious and personal attribution of the results relative to their efforts.
- To help students construct or rebuild their faith in their ability to learn through the implementation of effective strategies and conscious efforts.

We have just described foundations, principles and teaching measures in a concrete fashion that help students "learn how to learn". To be focused on what goes on in the thoughts of learners; to listen to them express their difficulties; to see what they understand or do not understand; to implement all that is necessary for them to overcome these difficulties; to guide and support them in the progressive construction of their knowledge; to make them conscious of their way of learning; to help them interiorize the results of their commitment; to assist them in the construction of a positive self-image as learners; all this is part of the message we want to deliver.

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Document 18

Ten fields of competency recognized as a priority in the continuing education of teachers

Translated from Philippe Perrenoud[58]

The ten competency fields listed below do not cover the entire teaching profession. Without being exhaustive, the table below highlights the fields that figured prominently in the list of teacher responsibilities, changes to primary schools and new training. Courses and seminars are offered to assist you in identifying the disciplinarian and transversal contents.

Reference competency	**Specific competencies implicated in continuing education (examples)**
1. To organize and facilitate learning situations	• To know the disciplinarian contents to be taught and how they translate into learning objectives • To organize work based on the students' conceptual models • To work from errors and obstacles to learning • To build and plan didactic devices and sequences • To engage the students in research activities, in knowledge projects.
2. To manage the progression of learning	• To create and manage problem situations adjusted to the level and potential of the students • To acquire longitudinal vision of objectives in primary teaching • To identify links to the theory behind the learning activities • To observe and evaluate the students in learning situations, based on a formative approach • To establish periodic assessments of competencies and to make decisions relative to progress.
3. To create and fine-tune differentiation systems	• To manage heterogeneity within a classroom group • To de-compartmentalize, broaden classroom management to a larger group • To practice integrated support, to work with students in difficulty • To develop cooperation between students and inter-teaching.
4. To involve students in their learning and their work	• To stimulate the desire to learn, clarify the relationship to knowledge, the meaning of school work and the student's capacity for self-evaluation

[58] Excerpt from: http://www.offratel.nc/magui/ORGANSR.htm

	• To create an active student council (classroom or school council) to negotiate with students on rules and agreements • To support the defining of a personal project by the student.
5. To work in a team	• To elaborate a team project, common conceptual models • To moderate a work group, to lead meetings • To train and revitalize a pedagogical team • To confront and analyze complex situations, professional practices and problems as a team • To manage crises and conflicts between people.
6. To take part in school management	• To elaborate, negotiate a management project • To manage the resources of the school • To coordinate and moderate a school with all its partners (extra-curricular, district, parent associations, language teachers) • To organize and grow student participation within the school.
7. To inform and involve parents	• To moderate information meetings and debates • To lead talks • To involve parents in coaching activities that validate the construction of knowledge.
8. To use new technologies	• To use publishing software • To exploit the didactic potential of software in relation to the objectives of the teaching field. • To make remote learning available through telematics • To use multimedia tools in teaching.
9. To face the ethical duties and dilemmas of the profession	• To prevent violence in and outside the school • To fight against prejudice and sexual, ethnic or social discrimination • To take part in the establishment of general rules relative to discipline at school, sanctions, behaviour. • To analyze the pedagogical relationship, authority and communication in the classroom. • To develop a sense of responsibility, solidarity, a feeling of fair play.
10. To manage one's own ongoing learning	• To be able to explain one's practices • To establish one's personal assessment of competencies and personal program of continued education

- To negotiate a general education project with colleagues (team, school, network)
- To involve oneself in tasks at the professional level, teaching level, etc.
- To welcome and take part in the education of colleagues.

Document 19
Methodological guide for elaborating a problem situation

Translated from Philippe Meirieu; *Apprendre ...oui, mais comment?* (ESF éditeur) [59]

The validity of a pedagogical model is based on three essential elements:

- The quality of the ethical project which inspires it (what we would like the learning to be)
- Its conformity or non-contradiction with the contributions of humanities (what we know about the subject)
- The fruitfulness of the approach (what we can do with it so it becomes what we want it to be).

Based on these essential premises, the following model of pedagogical organization supports the notion of problem-situation.

1. **The principle: "Every lesson must answer a question" (J. Dewey)**
   The pedagogical situation must provide answers to questions and problems that the learners are asking themselves; it presupposes a pedagogical device where problems and answers are articulated explicitly, where answers can be constructed by the learner and integrated into the dynamics of final learning.
   "An explanation is useless without the question that prompts it and which gives it meaning (…).A true pedagogy is not the teaching of explanations but of culture, that is the cult of explanations." (L.Legrand)

2. **Two symmetrical obstacles: The pedagogy of "answers" and "problems"**
   Answers consists of explanations that offer solutions to problems. Faced with the heterogeneity of learners, this pedagogy is one of randomness as it effectively serves as a selective social function. Problems (active methods, concrete situations, etc.) place learners in front of tasks that allow them to learn. This approach may seem unsatisfactory however, and faces two key obstacles.

   2.1 In the development stage of a project, there are no guarantees on the progression of difficulties and no guarantees that the right question will be asked at the right time.
   2.2 A pedagogy based on "problems" tends to ignore the fact that when faced with a difficulty, learning is usually the costliest solution. It is so much easier not to learn, to call on someone else who will solve the problem for us, to seek a ready-made solution. The danger is completing a project without any learning taking place.

   The pedagogy of problem situations must avoid these obstacles. It is necessary to introduce a problem to be resolved, and recognize that there can be no solution found without learning taking place.

[59] Translated from: http://perso.wanadoo.fr/philippe.martin/MERIEU.htm

3. **The problem situation: a person encounters obstacles while carrying out a task**
   The pedagogical mechanism is designed to introduce a situation that has a certain logic:
   - A task is proposed to the learner.
   - This task can only be completed successfully if the obstacle is overcome (the acquisition sought by the instructor)
   - Due to a system of constraints, the subject cannot complete the project without confronting the obstacle
   - Thanks to a system of resources, the subject can overcome the obstacle.

4. **The task orients the subject, the obstacle orients the instructor**
   In a problem situation, the main educational objective is not the task but to surmount the obstacle (even if it is used as criteria to judge the success of the project).
   A problem situation must nevertheless be designed by the instructor relative to the desired acquisition, even if it is introduced to the subject as a task to be carried out,

5. **Surmounting the obstacle must be a stage in the cognitive development of the subject**
   Instructors must determine their pedagogical objectives relative to the obstacle to surmount and the surmounting of this obstacle represents a decisive stage in the cognitive development of the subject.
   The objective should always be expressed in relation to a cognitive obstacle. It is necessary to place this obstacle precisely at the heart of the problem situation so that it may be overcome.

6. **The obstacle is overcome if the materials and the instructions provided bring about the necessary cognitive processes**
   Learners do not have the same academic and cultural prerequisites. It is therefore appropriate that the problem situation be constructed so that it invokes the necessary cognitive abilities yet allows those who have not yet mastered them to carry out the task nonetheless.
   As concerns the obstacle encountered, specific educational mechanisms (confrontation groups, inductive regrouping, etc.) are implemented to overcome the cognitive obstacle.

7. **To carry out the same cognitive activity, individuals must be free to use different strategies**
   What is interesting about the problem situation is that it combines great structural directivity and flexibility in its individual treatment. Learners implement their own personal learning strategies.

8. **The creation and implementation of a problem situation regulated by evaluation mechanisms**
   The relevance of a problem situation is subordinate to the quality of **the diagnostic evaluation** used to determine the competency and ability of the subject, and the nature of the learning.

Evaluation during the learning situation is **formative** if it contributes to identifying effective work procedures and a sufficient formalization of these to facilitate their realization.
The evaluation of the acquisition itself and its true appropriation require de-contextualization using different exercises and are more the subject of **a summative evaluation**.

In conclusion and to summarize the above, Meirieu proposes four important questions to ask in the construction of problem situations:

- What is my objective? What do I want to have learners acquire that represents an important stage of progression?

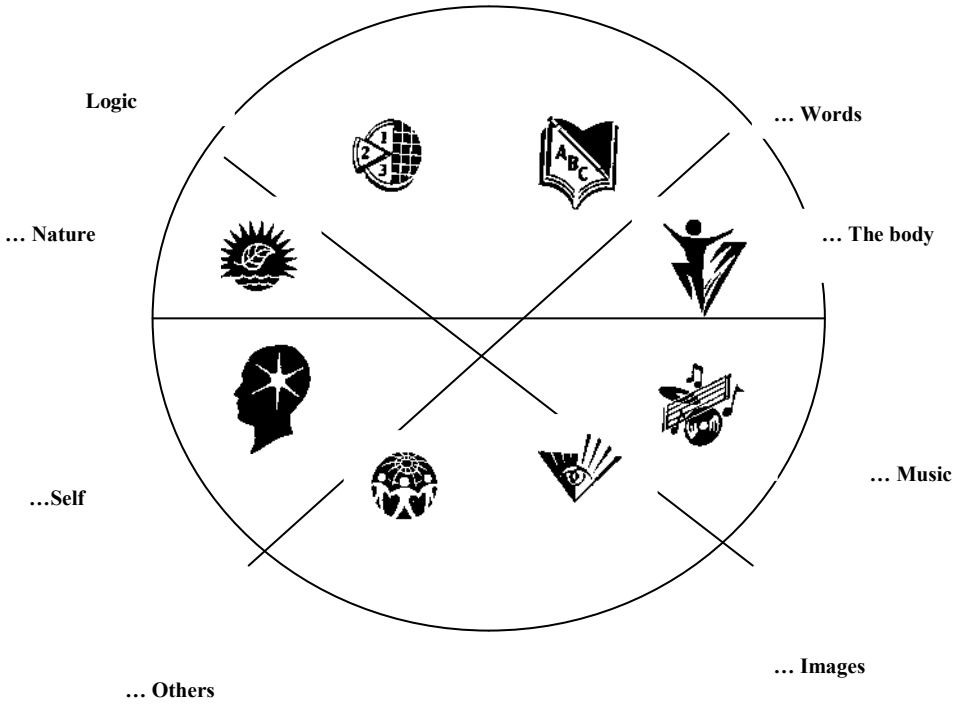
- What task can I propose that requires access to this objective in order to be successfully completed (communication, reconstitution, enigma, remedial, resolution, etc…)?

- What mechanism should be in place to ensure that the mental activity called on to carry out the task meets objectives?
  What materials, documents, and tools should I have*?*
  What instructions-goals should I provide so learners use the materials to achieve the task?
  What constraints are necessary to prevent the subjects from circumventing the learning?

- What activities can I introduce that will enable the use of various strategies? How to vary the tools, processes, degrees of guidance, and methods of regrouping?

Document 20
Multiple intelligences[60]

SKILLED IN …



The concept of multiple intelligences is compatible with research on the uniqueness, enrichment, and modular operation of the brain. As is the case for other concepts that are allegedly based on the functioning of the brain, this concept can be misused. It is a useful model, not an "absolute truth".

Logical-mathematical intelligence

It is characterized by: Strength in problem solving and mathematics. Asks questions such as "why" and "how", wants to reason things out, wants to know "what will happen next", and thinks "sequential". **Paths that support its expression:** To work with a computer, to write applications, program, separate objects, classify, read, discuss, explore, solve mysteries, play with words, to decipher codes, visit museums, solve enigmas, outline, group, propose problems requiring thinking and calculation activities.

Visual-spatial intelligence

It is characterized by: A powerful imagination. Likes to: design, draw, read graphs, posters, puzzles displaying images, mazes, organize space, objects and surfaces. Needs images to understand. **Paths that support its expression:** Art, the practice of sports, the creation of maps, the organization of ideas, the assembly of videos and films, the construction of maps and charts, theatre, windsurfing, sculpture, in-line skating, movement in the dark, dance, bicycle, driving and painting.

[60] Translated from SIROIS, Gervais, Centre d'étude et de développement pédagogique inc. cf p.222

Interpersonal intelligence
It is characterized by: Great people skills. Likes to speak and influence, usually leader in a group, an organizer, communicates well, skilful in conflict resolution, is a good listener, skilful at negotiating, and is persuasive. **Paths that support its expression:** To make friends easily, prefer win/win situations, lead discussions, practice teaching by peers and collaboration, direct projects, give advice to friends, understand the concerns of others, and express empathy.

Body-bodily-kinaesthetic intelligence
It is characterized by: The desire to move! Needs to be in constant movement or actively involved in order to be well. A need to get up, move, touch, handle, and play with things. **Paths that support its expression:** To stretch, role play, to create dramatic scenarios, do exercise, theatre, practice hobbies and arts & crafts, play, plan outdoor events, dance, play and engage in sports.

Verbal-linguistic intelligence
It is characterized by: Love of language and words. Talks constantly, has a good memory for dates and names, likes to tell stories, likes to listen to stories, likes the diversity of voices, and remembers funny stories. **Paths that support its expression:** To make presentations, like to argue, persuade, and make speeches, play different roles, dialogue, write, make reports, initiate conversation, listen to recordings, and read, particularly books containing dialogues.

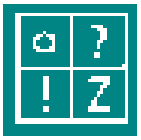
Intrapersonal intelligence
It is characterized by: Love of solitude. Likes to reflect, has a good understanding of strengths and weaknesses, is skilful in defining objectives, and feels good when alone. **Paths that support its expression:** To think up strategies, imagine, write a journal, relax, learn about oneself, practice concentration exercises, reflect, contemplate, and reserve times alone to reflect.

Musical-rhythmic intelligence
It is characterized by: The pleasure of making music, sounds, or rhythms. Likes to hum, keep the beat and sometimes sing. **Paths that support its expression:** To keep the beat, attend concerts, use background music, sing, make music, write songs, create team slogans, use, and play musical instruments.

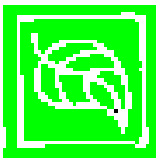
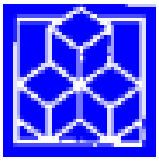
Naturalist intelligence
It is characterized by: Skill to organize, select, gather, list. **Paths that support its expression:** To design systems, structure ideas, ask questions, put things in order, gather people (according to the learning styles, multiple intelligences), garden, create interior designs, conduct scientific research, teach, administer, inquire, involve, do police work, explore, do brainstorming and regroup.

Table of multiple intelligences

Intelligence	What it is...	These student like...	The teacher can
Interpersonal	• Sensitive to the feelings and moods of others • Understand and interact effectively with others	• To have many friends • To be the leader, share, be the mediator • To build consensus and to empathize with others • To work efficiently in a team	• Use cooperative learning • Plan group projects • Give the students opportunities to teach their peers • Do brainstorming on possible solutions to a problem • Create situations in which students give each other mutual feedback.
Intrapersonal	• Sensitive to their own feelings and moods • Know their own strengths and weaknesses • Use self-knowledge to guide themselves in their decision-making and definition of objectives	• To control their feelings and moods • To pursue personal interests and keep a personal journal • To learn while observing and while listening • To use metacognitive skills	• Allow the students to work at their own speed • Plan individual self-directed projects • Provide the students with opportunities to give mutual feedback • Lead the students to write a logbook and/or use other means of reflection

Intelligence	What it is…	These students like…	The teacher can
Body-bodily-kinaesthetic	• Use their body to communicate and solve problems • Work with objects and activities involving fine and global motor skills	• To practice sports and to be active physically • To use body language • To do arts & crafts and mechanical projects • To dance, act in theatre and mimic	• Propose tactile activities or activities involving movement • Occasionally do role play and theatre • Involve the students in physical activities • Allow students to move around during class • Propose dress-making activities, manufacturing models or other activities requiring fine motor skills
Verbal-linguistic 	• Think in words • Use language and words in many different ways to express complex thinking	• To tell jokes, enigmas and puns • To see, write and tell stories • To use a rich vocabulary • To play games using words • To create poems and stories using the sounds and imagery of words	• Create reading and writing projects • Help students to prepare speeches • Involve the students in debates • Make games with cross words, crossword puzzles and the search for words • Encourage the use of puns, palindromes and plays on words

Intelligence	What it is…	These students like…	The teacher can
Logical-mathematical	• Approach problems logically • Understand abstract numbers and patterns • Recognize and solve problems of reasoning	• To work with numbers, understand things and analyze situations • To know how things work • To ask questions • To show precision in problem solving • To work in situations where it is clear that the solutions are black or white	• Have students construct Venn Diagrams • Use strategy games • Allow students to show their comprehension via concrete objects • Represent information on graphs • Build a timeline and draw maps
Musical-rhythmic	• Sensitive to the non-verbal sounds of the environment, including melody and tone • Conscious of the patterns of rhythm, intonation and tone	• To listen to and play music • To synchronize their feelings according to the music and the rhythms • To sing, hum and move to music • To remember and work with various musical forms • To create and recreate melodies	• Rewrite the words of a song to teach a concept • Encourage the students to add music to their games • Create musical mnemotechnic tools • Teach history via musical periods • Encourage students to learn music and folk dance from other countries

Intelligence	What it is…	These students like…	The teacher can
Naturalist 	• Sensitive to natural words • See links and patterns in the field of plants and animals	• To spend time outside • To observe plants, collect rocks and try to catch animals • To be attentive to the sounds of nature • To observe the relations in nature • To categorize and classify the flora and fauna	• Use the outdoors as the classroom • Bring plants and animals for which the students will be responsible in the classroom • Organize hands-on experiences in sciences • Create a nature zone in the recreation yard
Visual-spatial 	• Perceive the visual world with precision • Create mental images for themselves • Think in three dimensions • Consciousness of the relationships between objects in space	• To doodle, paint, draw or create 3-dimensional models • To look at charts • To complete puzzles and mazes • To dismantle objects and reassemble them	• Draw charts and mazes • Have students do visualization activities • Provide opportunities to show comprehension by drawings and paintings • Encourage students to draw clothing, buildings, playgrounds and stage decorations

Document 21
Problem-based learning

Active pedagogical formulas[61]

Within the scope of a series of four articles devoted to the presentation of active pedagogical formulas, *Le Trait d'union* introduces the case study, problem-based learning and project based learning. The formulas described in this series of articles have a common goal: To support quality in-depth learning. There exists multiple ways of putting these pedagogical formulas into practice, and it would be limiting to present a uniform image of them (translated from Frenay, 1996). However, by calling on prior experiments, we can identify a general outline for each formula. Here is the second article in the series.

Problem-based learning

The pedagogical formula known as problem-based learning (PBL) targets the acquisition of knowledge, the development of higher-order skills, and the transfer of knowledge. Based on complex and meaningful problem situations, a learner constructs a conceptual model of problems and makes assumptions that will be confirmed or invalidated by documentary research.

In the PBL formula, the accent is placed on the active character of learning. Analysis of the problem situation during the discussion, puts students in a position to use all their knowledge on the subject, thus supporting the creation of links between the new knowledge and those already in memory.

The problem situations originating in professional practices are complex and meaningful. According to Barrows (1986), they support the motivation of students through the control the PBL process provides over the task. The task is perceived by the students as being legitimate and useful.

In addition to having an impact on the quality of the acquired knowledge, PBL contributes to the development of higher-order skills. The implementation of this formula supports the development of skills such as the ability to evaluate the relevance of available resources, self-learning, and the ability to use one's knowledge effectively, the ability to continuously update and shore up one's knowledge (continuing education, improvement). All these skills form the basis for expert reasoning in a given field.

PBL at Université de Sherbrooke

This pedagogical formula was quite revolutionary 14 years ago, when under the direction Jacques E. Des Marchais, now teacher emeritus, the Faculty of Medicine decided to establish PBL in its training program for doctors (MD).

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[61] Translated from http://www.usherb.ca/sse/tu/decembre/app.htm

The pedagogical formula is now running smoothly and the Faculty has acquired an international notoriety in medical pedagogy, in particular from the perspective of using problem-based learning. The Faculty of Education was to some extent a partner in this teaching development via the contribution of René Hivon and Jacques Tardif, teachers at the Faculty of Education, for the implementation and experimentation of the formula. PBL is used elsewhere at the University, though on a more limited scale, in particular in nursing sciences and education.

The learning tool

Problem situations are used as **pretexts** to cause the emergence of students' prior knowledge and orient the new knowledge for **the comprehension** of the problem. It is the instructor or teacher who chooses the topics and writes up the problems. A problem is about one page in length. It relates to a topic that will activate the knowledge to be acquired. Barrows (1985) lists four categories of themes that orient the drafting of the problems:

- **Impossible to circumvent:** Problems most frequently encountered in professional practice.
- **Serious situations:** Problems that are not very frequent yet involve serious consequences if they are not identified or not solved (for example in medicine, the diagnosis of meningitis, or for a psychologist, suicidal symptoms in teenagers)
- **High stakes:** Problems whose social and economic impact are very important. (for example in medicine, knowledge related to AIDS or toxic shock syndrome)
- **Pools of knowledge:** Problems that make it possible to introduce the students to a vast pool of basic knowledge related to the field of study.

The method

The method is prescriptive; it is the instructor who controls the whole process. The heart of the PBL process is the problem situation that the students must understand in a group. Then, they formulate **explanatory assumptions** of the problem and learning objectives. These hypotheses and learning objectives will serve to guide individual research. The goal of the activity is to fill the gap between what the student knows about the problem and what the theory reveals about this problem.

The PBL process can be summarized in four stages:

- Stage 1**:** Discussion of the problem situation in groups of five to seven people to facilitate exchanges.
- Stage 2**:** Individual study to search for information.
- Stage 3**:** Review in small group with new information resulting from individual research. Students present information that they collected during stage 2. The teacher then validates the information.
- Stage 4**:** Individual self-evaluation and drafting of an assessment of knowledge acquired by the students.

The tutorial
(Stages of PBL)

Stage 1 (in small groups)

1. Read the problem
2. Define the problem
3. Analyze the problem
4. Organize the explanatory assumptions
5. Formulate learning objectives

Stage 2 (individually)

6. Individual study: bibliography, library, experts, others

Stage 3 (in small group)

7. To synthesize and verify information collected
8. To evaluate the tutorial and the work

Stage 4 (individually)

9. Self-evaluation of the stages of PBL
10. Assessment of acquired knowledge

Adaptation of Denis Bédard's *L'apprentissage par problèmes*, a paper presented in October 2000 within the framework of the pedagogical capsules of the Service de soutien à l'enseignement of l'Université de Sherbrooke.

Roles and tasks of the learner

The students play various roles during the discussions. They will be moderators, secretaries and scribes (the scribe is the one who notes and schematizes the table) in order to ensure the correct functioning of the discussion. The success of the discussion and the learning targeted by the teacher depends on the active participation of all the students.

- **In stage 1,** the role of the students consists in taking part in the discussions of their sub-group so as to understand the problem properly. The students are also responsible to set the learning objectives to guide their learning.
- **In stage 2,** the students proceed to a period of individual study of the concepts associated with the problem.
- **In stage 3,** they return in sub-groups to validate and discuss the results of their individual study as well as to confirm or void the explanatory hypotheses.
- **In stage 4,** the students are responsible for self-evaluations and assessments of their knowledge.

Roles and tasks of the teacher

Generally, the method defines the teachers' roles very well. They are tutors who are responsible for facilitating and guiding the learning via the use of various strategies (Bédard, 2000):

- **Modeling:** To model the process of resolution, to formulate the cognitive and metacognitive strategies used to resolve the situation precisely.
- **Scaffolding:** To provide support appropriate to the skill level of the learners so they can solve the problem.
- **Coaching:** To assist students in the acquisition of knowledge and strategies. To observe learners as they solve problems and offer instruction, give feedback, help recall information, direct the attention, etc.
- **Elimination:** To decrease the support as students acquire independence.

Teachers must help students acquire the PBL process; they are therefore **directional as to the procedure** and the process to be followed, while trying to provide as much theoretical information to participants as possible. Their degree of intervention will vary according to the level of ability of students. Their interventions may be constant at the start, and then gradually diminish with the growing practice and ease of the participants.

When planning the activity

Teachers:

- Identify important elements of professional practice;
- Set the learning objectives. They define what the students are to learn **(what)** and how they will learn it **(how)**;
- Devise the problem situations;
- Plan for the analysis and resolution of the problem;
- Prepare the validation and testing of the problems;
- Prepare the references (bibliography, photocopies, collection of texts…);
- Prepare the evaluation tools.

During the intervention

In their role of tutor, teachers support the acquisition of the PBL process and facilitate the operation of discussion groups. To do this, they:

- Anticipate the difficulties in the analysis or resolution of the problem;
- Manage uncertainty and complexity;
- Support the articulation of knowledge;
- Validate acquired knowledge;
- Support reflection;
- Support the exploration of the problem situation;
- Synthesize the information;
- Establish a climate favourable to discussion;
- Stimulate motivation;

- Support and ensure the participation of all the students in the discussion;
- Are available to answer individual questions during individual study periods (stage 2);
- Support independence and action.

During the evaluation

The sub-group, at stage 4 of the process, carries out a review on the study questions and validates the assumptions and the knowledge. In this context, tutors:

- Carry out the formative evaluation for the tutorial and the teamwork;
- Support the articulation of knowledge, reflection and exploration of the problem situation;
- Model the use of cognitive and metacognitive strategies;
- Encourage the students to evaluate their approach and to criticize their own reasoning, encourage and guide the development of metacognitive skills;
- Stimulate motivation.

Evaluation of the learning

A formal evaluation is conducted periodically. It is normally associated with the analysis of a problem similar to those presented in the discussion groups. The students are thus required to follow the same process (analyze the problem, make explanatory assumptions, etc). Reasoning abilities, the ability to recover knowledge in memory, the ability to use one's knowledge and self-learning skills are all an integral part of the evaluation process.

What is the ideal formula?

According to Lebrun (1999), pedagogical formulas either stress an aspect of learning mechanisms or an aspect of the role of teacher. In spite of the value of the formulas presented, they all suffer from unexplored aspects. The ideal abstract formula does not exist!

It is up to teachers to add missing elements to these methods, elements that interest them so they can construct their own method. This choice will be determined by the objectives of the activity, the nature of the subject covered, the composition of the classroom group, the resources and tools available, and finally the personal affinities of the teacher.

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Document 22
From theory to practice

Bank of methodological tools[62]
The problem situation

Presentation

Objective: To make each student aware of a problem, to put forth hypotheses, to build and practice a research approach to construct meaningful knowledge.

Field of application: Themes (enigmas) that give rise to assumptions and allow for research and experimentation.

Transversal competencies:

The teacher who decides to use this approach must determine beforehand the competency (ies) listed as main objective (s) and must adapt the activities and the timeframes accordingly.

Here are a few examples.

Relational competencies: ***Master one's emotional reactions with regard to others***

The periods for group work and the confrontation of ideas are the opportunity to establish rules of behaviour and to develop attitudes of listening and mutual respect.

Mental approaches: ***To use one's divergent thinking***

The problem exists precisely because the student has neither the answer, nor probably the procedure to solve it. We can choose to practice or observe this competency through a problem situation that offers a broad field of investigation.

Methodological competencies: ***To communicate effectively***

The periods of confrontation and pooling, make it possible to practice oral communication. The obligation to put the information to be communicated in writing makes it possible to refine the message. When pooling the information, the group makes an immediate evaluation "in the field".

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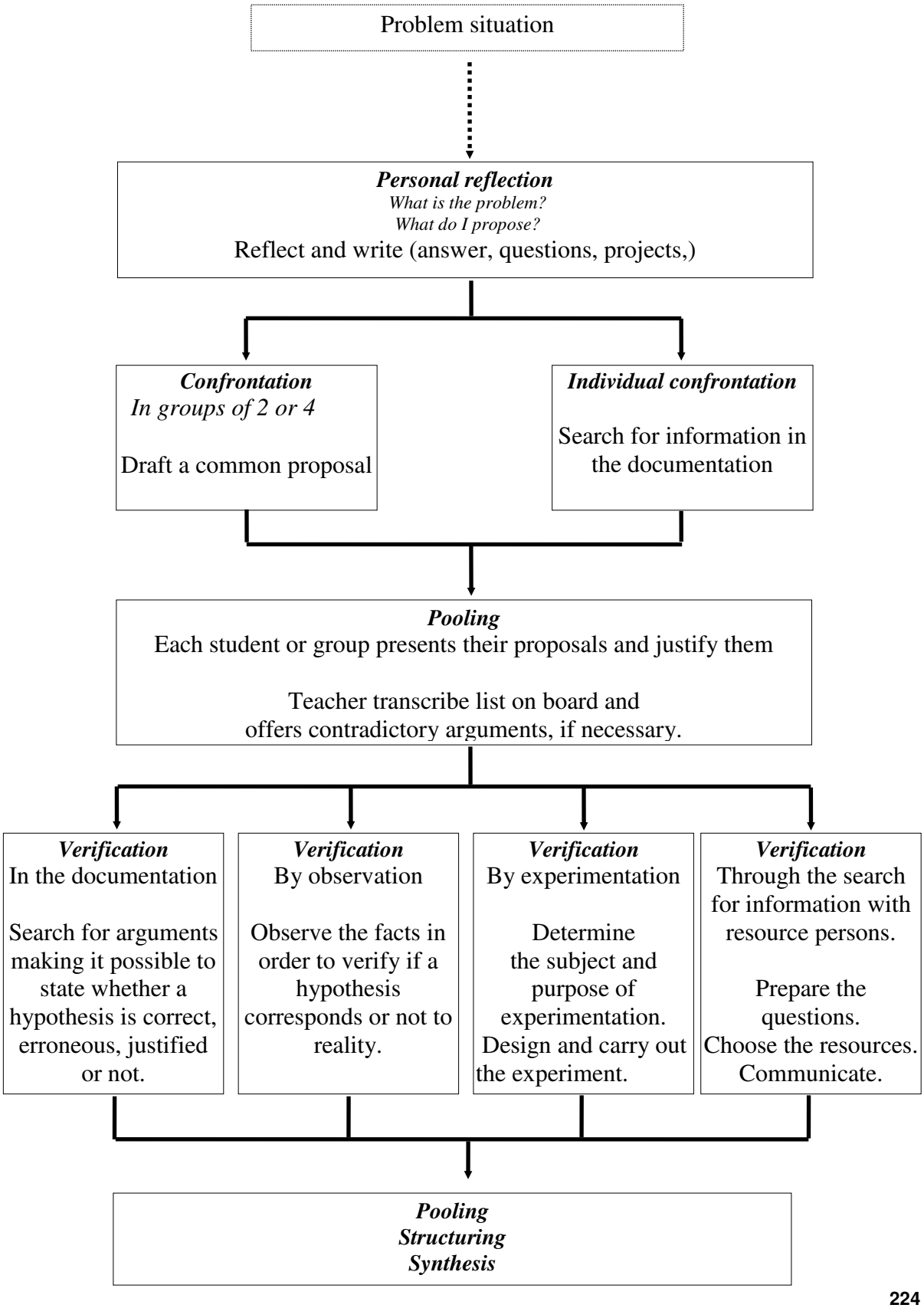
[62] Translated from: Jean DELIRE, mission leader, March 1995
http://www.agers.cfwb.be/pedag/ressources/fcc/doc011/Situprob.doc

Sequence **Teacher's record**



Comments

In real life, the situations we encounter do not come with questions but must be faced and we do so by drawing conclusions from the data furnished.

1. To outline the problem situation

An interesting problem is not one that comes from the teacher's book, with a question requiring the student to answer in standard fashion. An interesting problem (pedagogically) is **the enigma** that appears in front of students within their own field of experience. The teacher, within the framework of the objectives and respecting the following principles, will generally arrange this situation:

1. The principal objective of the learning situation is the obstacle to surmount and not the task itself.

2. If possible, the question (the enigma) should come from the student (the classroom). The students will only commit themselves to work when it helps them answer their questions.

3. The "answer" should not be obvious, but the students must "feel" that they are able to discover it. If the problem is too complex or too involved, the student will put the initiative on the shoulders of the teacher. The problem must be positioned within the student's zone of proximal development. The targeted learning is not only the mobilization of acquired knowledge, but also the acquisition of new knowledge and the development of know-how.

2. To determine a work plan and direct activities

This principle is designed **to make the students act** in a productive rather than a receptive manner. During independent work by the student, the teacher finds time to intervene individually, more in the manner of a guide, moderator, or advisor.

1. The student's work always starts with a stage of **personal reflection**. The purpose of this reflection is
   - recognition of the situation and the problem (*"What is happening, what do I see, what are we talking about? What is the problem?"*)
   - the production of personal elements (answer, suggestion, other questions, simple observation, project, etc.) with the obligation to write them down. The obligation to write down the results of this search forces the student to face the obstacle of verbalization and to concretize the fruit of its work.

2. The second stage must cause students **to confront** their ideas versus those of others. Various situations allow for this: discussions in small groups, consulting documentation, seeking components in their own experience and environment.

3. A **pooling** stage is generally indispensable. The teacher asks each student or group to present their proposals and to justify them (briefly). Teachers avoid supplying answers or information. They identify contradictory elements to help students or the group re-examine the situation. We are still at a stage of making hypotheses and not of structuring.

4. This is followed by a **verification** stage. Various routes are possible: research the documentation, experimentation, observation, and resource people. Each student or group can be asked to verify a hypothesis, either their own or another. We can differentiate the contents (different hypotheses) and the methods. Here too, the obligation remains to put the research results down in writing, in one form or another.

. 5. The preceding stages cause students to reactivate their knowledge, to reveal their conceptual models (concepts) and to confront them with other ideas and reality. This is to some extent, the "destabilization" that is essential to any learning situation. It is **imperative** that the teacher "take them by the hand" so as to **restructure** all the ideas tossed around in these activities, to build **a synthesis** and
to provide the necessary information. Let us not forget that all this work is intended
①to learn ②something!

Sequence of unfolding

1. **P** To present the topic

2. **E** Personal reflection: To ponder and write in a few words, or do a drawing, write a sentence…
   - To formulate the problem: what do I seek?
   - To propose answers, or other questions, or verifications
   - For the experimentation: distribute the student work record
3. **P** To set up groups of four students
4. **P** To distribute group instruction sheets.
   - To have the instructions read and their understanding verified.
5. **E** Work in groups
   - Each individual explains to the other three what is proposed
   - The group writes down common proposals
   - Indicate the names on the sheets
6. **P+E** Pooling
   - Each group presents its proposals
   - A list is put up on the board, if necessary

- Comments of the teacher

7. **P** Synthesis
   - To distribute the synthesis sheet
   - Reading and comments

Observations

1. Attitude of the students: Very active, respect the instructions, share many ideas, ask a few questions only to the teacher during the group work, but ask many within the group. It is important to advise students that it is okay to make mistakes at the outset. There will be neither sanctions nor loss of points, nor comments.

2. Many have the impression that students do not use concepts seen in previous courses. There is a clear distinction between "school" knowledge (that has been studied) and knowledge resulting from personal experience. Practically all the elements the students bring to their school work come from an "intuitive" knowledge of the subject. Also well documented is the lack of rigour in the use of terminology, confusion between the meaning of matter and state, temperature and heat. It seems that these words were received and stored, but not integrated into "personal" knowledge. A discussion is very useful to establish links between this knowledge.

4. The number and nature of the questions asked in the groups and during the discussion demonstrate the interest of the students for this type of activity. The teacher provides information only as answers to questions asked by the students.

5. It is important for the teacher to review individual sheets to spot difficulties, questions, and erroneous conceptual models. It is not a matter of assigning a grade, but of collecting the elements to be dealt with in the following course.

Document 23

The schematization of concepts: A tool for developing conceptual skills in colleges[63]

All teachers know how hard it is to make students connect their new knowledge to previously acquired knowledge, to develop good strategies for processing information and to reorganize their knowledge. This concern was recently the subject of a series of articles in *Pédagogie collégiale.*

This thinking is in line with research carried out by Americans Ausubel, Hanf, Jones, Heimlich, Novak… over the past fifteen years. These authors suggest the use of semantic networks for the development of learning (conceptual diagrams, "flow charting", "semantic
mapping"). The interesting aspect of these studies is the "mediation between student and knowledge[64]" as Saint-Onge puts it. This mediation passes through two compulsory stages:
the learning strategy that is to be developed in the learner and the teaching strategy.
The pedagogical use of conceptual diagrams reflects both preoccupations.

As a learning strategy, the production of diagrams encourages students to organize the structuring of their own knowledge, to establish a hierarchy among concepts on which knowledge is based.

As a teaching strategy, the presentation of a conceptual model (in graphic form) provides the students with a preliminary structuring model from which they can organize the acquisition of new knowledge.

LEARNING

The work of a student in philosophy 401

The diagram presented on the next page < not shown> illustrates the work of Myriam and is based on a text of about fifteen pages written by Micheline Carrier: "la pornographie, base idéologique de l'oppression des femmes[65]". Myriam devoted six hours to this: four hours in the classroom and two at home.

At the end of her work, this student formulated the following reflections: "I did not have a choice. I had to reach a global understanding and it was only as the text progressed that I grasped its structure…" and "it was difficult, but worth the effort".
What happened between the time Myriam received the text and the time she successfully submitted her diagram for evaluation?

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[63] Text translated from: BRETON, Jacques, ***La schématisation des conceptions : un instrument de développement des habiletés conceptionuelles au collégial***, Pédagogie collégiale, 4, no 3, Feb.1991, p. 18-23.
[64] Saint-onge, Michel, *Moi j'explique, mais eux, apprennent-ils ?*
[65] CARRIER, Micheline, "La porrnographie , base idéologique de l'oppression des femmes", in *Against violence*, 1981.

Preparation of the text under study

The text proposed to the students had been prepared for the purpose of facilitating in-depth comprehension:

- A synopsis defining the scope and the stakes; this information was completed verbally in the classroom;
- A list of the principal conceptual elements in the text, often new to students, was drawn up;
- The paragraphs of the text had been numbered from 1 to 64 to facilitate the location of the ideas and the 'coming and going' of attention during the execution of the task;
- A statement, inserted in relation to each of the various paragraphs, oriented the reading;
- The text was presented in a very open format to allow for the "start-up of thinking," using a pencil, underlining, benchmarks, the formulation of summary proposals, the clarification of links, the drafting of mini-diagrams, etc.

Preparatory activities for the task of schematization

A series of four activities moderated by the teacher gradually prepare the students for the upcoming task. The purpose is to have students schematize a text in its entirety so that the dominant idea of each paragraph is seen in the diagram. The overall diagram should reflect the global structure of the text.

1. The first activity examines the principal conceptual elements of the text starting from a list provided beforehand. An exchange moderated by the teacher then takes place to allow individuals to validate their understanding of the concepts, to identify key features and define them.
2. In a second stage, the students read the text to formulate hypotheses on its structure. This stage lasts approximately fifteen minutes. Just long enough to allow the identification of key points but not an in-depth reading.
3. Collective results are then summarized to characterize the macrostructure of the text and a discussion with the group helps to identify key elements at stake. At this stage, each student offers assumptions on the text and on the way to resolve the problems.
4. Finally, each work team can begin its analytical reading of the text and gradually build a diagram.

Design of a conceptual diagram

Jones[66] defines conceptual diagrams (graphic representations) as "the visual representations of verbal statements". There are several types of diagrams: comparative tables, family trees, stock-exchange graphs found in newspapers, etc. These diagrams have in common the fact that they illustrate a complex network of information at a

[66] Translated from JONES, Beau FLY, PIERCE, J and HUNTER, Barbara, "Enseigner aux étudiants à construire des représentations graphiques", in *Educational Leadership*, vol. 46, nº 4, 1989, p. 20-25.

glance. Contrary to a text, this form of representation allows for a nonlinear treatment of information. Each diagram is adapted to the structure of the material it contains.

The diagram produced by Myriam on pornography adopts a free style, illustrating the information provided in the text but reorganized by the author, according to the limitations of her comprehension and creativity. In it, key conceptual elements are surrounded by a circle or a rectangle and constitute the basic "nodules". Each "nodule" contains a concept or words that form a semantic unit. The nodules are connected by lines or arrows that further emphasize their connection. When two "nodules" are joined by a line or arrow, they are considered a distinct proposition. The overall network illustrates the global structure of the subject under study.

To build a conceptual diagram:

- Highlight key concepts in the text and major propositions;
- Draw up a list of all conceptual elements to include in the schema. We can write these elements down on small cardboards to facilitate their positioning during regroupings;
- Position "nodules" on the paper with each nodule representing a key concepts (from top to bottom in order of priority);
- Carry out several regroupings until the diagram has the desired form;
- Finish by specifying the nature of the connections that link the conceptual elements.

Thought processes involved in schematization

Hanf [67] recalls an expression by Hilda Taba: "To schematize is to think". He adds, "The reader must carry out the same type of organization and analysis of ideas that we attribute to higher level thinking". The learners who schematize a text or a process execute the major operations of intelligent reading. They must distinguish the dominant ideas from the secondary ideas and connect the ideas to each other. They must "apprehend the concepts hidden behind the words [and] see the thought behind the structure of the sentence[68]". This sets in operation what Palkiewicz's[69] taxonomy defines as conceptual thinking: to classify, prioritize, connect, interpret and transpose.

Schematization forces the mind to distinguish the contents from the functions (structures and relations) played by the various segments of the text. It obliges us to pay particular attention to the logical indicators of the semantic relations found in the text.

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[67] Translated from HANF, Buckley Mr., "Mapping: A Technology for Translating Reading into Thinking ", in *Journal of Reading*, 1971, p. 225 and following. CLIBURN, Joseph W Jr," Conception Maps to Promote Meaningful Learning ", in *Journal of College Science Teaching*, 1990, p. 212-217

[68] Translated from AYLWYN, Ulric, "Usage et maîtrise de la langue dans tous les cours", in *Pédagogie collégiale*, vol. 2, N O 4, 1989, p. 12-18.

[69] Translated from PALKIEWICZ, Jan, *Méthode générale de pensée et d'action responsable*, Diagram distributed at the Colloque pédagogique of the cégep de Limoilou, January 1989.

"The concepts derive their meaning from each other[70]. The various rearrangements involved
in the creation of a diagram, cause the students to recognize the multiple links, and to exercise their capacity for grasping the nuances of conceptual thinking.

These operations will be completed in varying degrees, by rational thought: to analyze, infer, deduce, and generalize. They will be finalized in the schematization stage when the student will organize the basic units of the schema so it reflects the global structure of the text.

Student proposals made during the schematizing process are good illustrations of the preceding assertions. We can generally hear them discussing among themselves the nuances in the thinking of the author, the scope of a given segment of text. They frequently check their comprehension of preceding paragraphs, and control the value of the links in the process of schematization. Their questions to the teacher about the contents tend to be very abundant and very specific. To such an extent that, moderating a schematization session in a classroom of thirty-five students leaves very little time for the teacher to take a breather. All of which attests to a consistent and intense intellectual activity. Schematization cannot coexist with cerebral passivity. "Is learning not the result of the mental activity of the learner"? (Saint-Onge). The results of this activity are proportional to the effort invested!

A teacher of building mechanics used a thirty-page text to explain the principles of steam production from combustion engines. It used to take him eight hours of teaching to have his students reach a satisfactory level of learning. Today, it takes him four hours to have his students produce a diagram on the contents. He is very satisfied with the results: "Instead of standing in front of the class with explanations, I now guide the process by which those who need to learn are learning."

A precious evaluation tool for the teacher

The activity of schematization, as an exercise of the mind in action, provides teachers with golden opportunities for an effective intervention. The multiple questions from students enable teachers to intervene on the contents and even more so, on the process. Upon seeing the diagram, it is easy to identify erroneous notions, inadequate hierarchical organizations or unperceived links. For example, the treatment of "judicial" in Myriam's production indicates that a whole section of the text being studied was not understood. Miriam completely omitted the role played by institutions in ideological practices. With this information in hand, the teacher knows where to intervene to re-orientate learning. The observation of significant errors may even indicate the lack of mastery of certain skills and facilitate the adoption of corrective measures.

Training in concept schematization

[70] ARNAUDIN, Mary W, MINTZES, J J, DUNN, C S., SHAFER, T H., "Conception Mapping in College Science Teaching. A Learning Method that can Improve Student Comprehension and Retention of Material ", in *Journal of College Science Teaching*, vol. 14, nº 2, 1984.

The work of Myriam is a success even though it is her first schematization experience. To work from a perspective of success and positive reinforcement, it is however necessary *to train* the students in the accomplishment of such a task. This will facilitate the subsequent transfer of this strategy to other concepts. The experience and documentation relating to this strategy highlight several rules.

- To familiarize the students with the analysis of various types of diagrams, by using structuring diagrams that will be studied later. To have the class react to these diagrams, examine their legibility and symbols so that students understand the correspondence between ideas conveyed in the schema and its form.
- To show the execution of a diagram based on the process, its description, and the resolution of the difficulties and ambiguities of processing data. To execute several diagrams with the group rather than provide finished diagrams; the important thing at this stage is not performance, but the process and its full comprehension by the students; the exemplary treatment of the difficulties and their resolution must make it possible for the students to recognize rules transferable to future and autonomous activities.
- To initiate gradually. To start with the schematization of short proposals, then paragraphs, eventually to move on to vaster and more complex sets; frequent and brief schematization activities can be introduced: the recall of what was seen in the previous course, the "formulation" of a difficult concept, the synthesis of a recently covered lesson, the extraction of key ideas from a discussion, a short text, etc. Arnaudin[71] suggests twenty-minute meetings completed by short works at home (for example, the revision of notes taken in class). This work can relate to specific conceptualization tasks to prepare for a broader learning process and a higher taxonomic level.
- To demonstrate that the production of a schema can take many forms. There is not only one correct schema, but several forms based on the specific understanding of its originator; and this multiplicity is compatible with the stringency required in the representation. It reflects the creativity specific to any authentic intellectual process and there is as such no reason to be astonished by the plurality of the diagrams originating from a same informational content.
- To regard the production of diagrams by students as preferred times for intervention and formative evaluation. To readily intervene on specific thinking processes, to suggest new paths. For example to insist on the need for the student to use all possible classifications, all the conceptual regroupings suggested or allowed. To activate metacognitive processes frequently to help transform operations into durable skills, thus facilitating the reinvestment of acquisitions with a thorough comprehension of the processes involved in the task.
- To actively encourage student motivation; an important task as the one accomplished by Myriam requires the stimulating presence of the teacher. The students cannot yet manage the experiments on their own, at least initially. In this

[71] ARNAUDIN, Mary W, MINTZES, J J, DUNN, C.S., SHAFER, T H., "Mapping Conception in College Science Teaching. A Learning Method that Can Improve Student Comprehension and Retention of Material ", in *Journal of College Science Teaching*, vol. 14, N ^{O} 2, 1984.

spirit, it is desirable to propose high-level objectives; however with the understanding that support provided by the teacher is equivalent to the degree of difficulty: the more the task requires energy, the more it is necessary to offer support and encouragement.

Limits to schematization by students

At the end of the production, students had achieved the conceptual acquisition of information, the preliminary stage for acceding to higher levels of learning. Although this stage prepares adequately for certain tasks, it is not enough to guarantee the harmonization of the knowledge or critical thinking. Syntheses still need to be done and, the information received needs to be evaluated and integrated it into the totality of what is already known. The difficulty of the students in transferring acquisitions from their schema into everyday practice clearly points to these limitations.

TEACHING

Teachers play many roles; the transmission of information is also part of mediating between students and knowledge. The objectives, the time available and the degree of novelty of the contents, all require that the teacher transmit information. Here again, diagrams can be useful in the structuring of information.

The concept of "preliminary structuring"

The concept of preliminary structuring was popularized by Ausubel[72] with the expression "*advanced organizer*". This preliminary structuring means presenting the students with a conceptual model at the start of the study of a new subject matter. It serves to support the presentation of the contents in the form of a lecture. It is constructed around the key concepts or the major proposals of a discipline or a field of study. It makes it possible for the students to position a field of knowledge in a "cerebral chart". As the latter acquire new knowledge, it is positioned within the structuring schema or used to complete it. An example of such a schema can be found in "the stages of moral judgment".

Mayer[73] and Ausubel showed that the use of these conceptual models as explanatory material helps the student structure information through the construction of mental models. The use of these diagrams seems to decrease the retention of “word for word” while increasing the assimilation of information, in the long run.

A teacher of geodesy declared recently that teaching the property delineation based on the Civil Code had been facilitated by the use of schematization of information in the code. The logic of legal conventions thus became obvious for students. Using this strategy, a content badly digested in previous years became “highly palatable".

The use of the diagram in a teaching strategy can play several roles: Support a lecture, be used as guide for the study of certain concepts or for a specific task, as a comparative model, etc.

The learning in question must be meaningful, the learners must integrate the new knowledge into their cognitive structure. The preliminary structuring must activate the student’s mental processes. This diagram is constructed so that the most general ideas of the discipline are presented first, followed gradually by the specific ideas. It must include the essential parts of the cognitive system of which it is part, as well as the major relations between these parts. Its implementation is progressive as the various parts of the system of knowledge are successively deepened and integrated. It is what Ausubel calls the principle of "progressive differentiation".

Ausubel underlines the need for what he calls "integrating reconciliation", an activity conducted by the teacher to facilitate the anchoring of new cognitive acquisitions to prior knowledge. It can be defined as the overall interventions carried out to facilitate the establishment of links between the components of the system and knowledge familiar to the learner: questions, putting into context, analogies, comparative models, etc.

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[72] AUSUBEL, D. P., NOVAK, J D., HANESISN, H., *Educational Psychology: a Cognitive View*, 2nd ED, New *York*, Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1978.
NOVAK, Joseph D, *A Theory of Education*, Ithaca, Cornell University Press.
NOVAK, J, Gowin, B, *Learning How To Learn*, New York, Cambridge University Press.
NOVAK, Joseph D, "Applying Psychology and Philosophy to the Improvement of Laboratory Teaching", in *The American Biology Teacher*, vol. 41, nº 8, 1979.
NOVAK, Joseph D, "Learning Theory Applied to the Biology Classroom", in *The American Biology Teacher*, vol. 42, nº 5, 1980.
NOVAK, Joseph D., "Applying Learning Psychology and Philosophy of Science to Biology Teaching", in *The American Biology Teacher*, vol. 43, nº 1, 1981.

[73] MAYER, Richard E, "Models for Understanding", in *Review of Educational Research*, vol. 59, nº 1, 1989, p. 43-64.

Pedagogical use of the diagrams

So far, we have considered the diagrams constructed exclusively by students and the teacher as learning strategies or a strategy for explaining information. The use of diagrams is not restricted to rigid forms. There are several applications. Some are appropriate for the initiation of students, others presuppose that students are familiar with their use. Here are a few:

- The presentation of a schema that must be completed to facilitate the taking of course notes: the teacher provides the structure and the students complete the schema. The presentation thus provides structure for the student. This activity also maintains the student's interest.
- An observation grid for observers who will be in the field.
- The production of a schema as the basis for a group discussion: the exchanges that it generates create a dynamic starting point.
- The collective production of a schema to prepare for an examination or one's own production as the test itself. The teacher provides a list of concepts and the students complete the network by listing the links. Such an exercise can be corrected quickly and effectively.
- The production of a semantic chart for the exploration of the attributes of a concept.
- Presentation of core information that one completes as a way of exploring a given field or as a collective reflection. This can be used to take stock of what the students already know on a given content.
- The production of a schema as a plan for a presentation or a text.
- The production of a schema as a summary: the level of complexity of the schema is determined by the number of concepts to process.
- The production of a schema "to chart" and illustrate a process completed in the resolution of a problem (mathematical demonstration).

To conclude

The schematization of concepts is not a panacea for learning problems. The experimenters all agree however that it is a powerful working tool. Its applications are many. Its virtue lies in the obligation it places on the user to process the information according to structures. In this respect, it figures prominently in the repertory of cognitive strategies of a cégep student.

Section V
Additional resources

Resource 1
Learner-centered principles: Guidelines for school redesign and reform

Translated from Réginald Grégoire Inc., July 1995 [74]
Translated with permission

General outline:

- **Background**
- **Learner-centered psychological principles**

- Metacognitive and cognitive factors
- Affective factors
- Developmental factors
- Personal and social factors
- Individual differences

- **Impact of school redesign and reform**

- Instruction
- Curriculum
- Assessment of learning
- Instructional management
- Teacher education
- Parent and community involvement
- Policies implications for learner-centered school design

- **Applying the learner-centered principles and their implications to issues in the assessment of student achievement.**

  - Emerging learner-centered principles of assessment

BACKGROUND

Throughout its history, psychology has provided vital information for a concrete definition of schooling through its research and theories on the nature, learning and development of the human being. It has been particularly productive in the last ten years thanks to the results of relevant research in education. Greater understanding of our thought processes and memory as well as our

[74] Translated from GRÉGOIRE, Réginald. (July 1995). *Principes centrés sur l'apprenant ou l'apprenante. Des orientations pour une redéfinition et une réforme de l'école*, [http://www.fse.ulaval.ca/fac/tact/fr/html/principe.html]

cognitive and motivational processes can contribute directly to the improvement of teaching, learning and the whole enterprise of schooling. At the same time, educators concerned with the increasing problems linked to school dropout, low level of academic achievement as regards basic subject matter and other indicators of school failure are arguing for more learner-centered models of schooling. Such models attend to the diversity among students and use it enrich learning and produce results within the context of current school reform.

The following principles, which are consistent with more than a century of research on teaching and learning, are widely shared and implicitly recognized in several excellent school programs. They also integrate the research and practices in various areas of psychology, including clinical, developmental, experimental, social, organizational, community, educational and school psychology, as well as the field of education, sociology, anthropology and philosophy. In addition, these principles reflect conventional and scientific wisdom. They comprise not only systematically researched and evolving learner-centered principles that can lead to positive mental health and more effective functioning of our students, their teachers and the systems that serve them.

Learner-centered psychological principles and a systems perspective for incorporating them are necessary components of a new design for schooling. The systems perspective must focus on human functions at multiple levels of the educational system (learning, teaching, evaluating and management). From this perspective, educational practice will improve only when the educational system is designed with the primary focus on the learner. Psychologists, in collaboration with educators, can help decide how to best apply sound psychological principles in the redesign of America's schools. A new and exciting vision of schooling, and psychology's role in this vision, can then emerge.

Our immediate goal in offering these learner-centered psychological principles is to provide guidelines that can contribute to current educational reform and school redesign efforts and thus help meet the nation's educational goals. Through dialogue with concerned groups of educators, researchers and policy makers, these principles can evolve further to contribute not only to a new design for America's schools, but also to a society committed to lifelong learning, healthy human development and productivity. In developing these principles, psychology – together with other disciplines – can offer a unique contribution to the betterment of America's schools and the enhancement of the nation's vital human resources.

LEARNER-CENTERED PSYCHOLOGICAL PRINCIPLES

The following 12 psychological principles pertain to the ***learner*** and the ***learning process***. They focus on psychological factors that are primarily internal to the learner while recognizing external environments or contextual factors that interact with these internal factors. These principles also attempt to deal holistically with learners in the context or real-world learning situations. Thus, they must be understood as an organized set of principles and not be treated in isolation. The ten first principles subdivide into those referring to *metacognitive and cognitive, affective, developmental*, and *social* factors and issues. Two final principles cut across the prior principles and focus on what psychologists know about *individual differences*. Finally, the principles are intended to apply to all learners, beginning with preschoolers.

Metacognitive and cognitive factors

FIRST PRINCIPLE: THE NATURE OF THE LEARNING PROCESS

Learning is the natural pursuit of personally meaningful goals, and it is active volitional, and internally mediated; it is a process of discovering and constructing meaning from information and experience, filtered through the learner's unique perceptions, thoughts and feelings.

SECOND PRINCIPLE: GOALS OF THE LEARNING PROCESS

The learner seeks to create meaningful, coherent representations of knowledge regardless of the quantity and quality of data available.

THIRD PRINCIPLE: THE CONSTRUCTION OF KNOWLEDGE

The learner links new information with existing and future-oriented knowledge in uniquely meaningful ways.

FOURTH PRINCIPLE: HIGHER-ORDER THINKING

Higher-order strategies for 'thinking about thinking' – for overseeing and monitoring mental operations – facilitate creative and critical thinking and the development of expertise.

Affective factors

FIFTH PRINCIPLE: MOTIVATIONAL INFLUENCES ON LEARNING

The depth and breadth of information processed, and what and how much is learned and remembered, are influenced by:

a) Self-awareness and beliefs about personal control, competence, and ability;
b) Clarity and saliency of personal values, interests, and goals;
c) Personal expectations for success or failure;
d) Affect, emotion, and general states of mind; and
e) The resulting motivation to learn.

SIXTH PRINCIPLE: INTRINSIC MOTIVATION TO LEARN

Individuals are naturally curious and enjoy learning, but intense negative cognitions and emotions (e.g., feeling insecure, worrying about failure, being self-conscious or shy, and fearing corporal punishment, ridicule, or stigmatizing labels) thwart this enthusiasm.

SEVENTH PRINCIPLE: CARACTÉRISTICS OF MOTIVATION-ENHANCING LEARNING TASKS

Curiosity, creativity, and higher-order thinking are stimulated by relevant, authentic learning tasks of optimal difficulty and novelty for each student.

DEVELOPMENTAL FACTORS

EIGHTH PRINCIPLE: DEVELOPMENTAL CONSTRAINTS AND OPPORTUNITIES

Individuals progress through stages of physical, intellectual, emotional, and social development that are a function of unique genetic and environmental factors.

PERSONAL AND SOCIAL FACTORS

NINTH PRINCIPLE: SOCIAL AND CULTURAL DIVERSITY

Learning is facilitated by social interactions and communication with others in a flexible, diverse (in age, culture, family background, etc.), and adaptive instructional settings.

TENTH PRINCIPLE: SOCIAL ACCEPTANCE, SELF-ESTEEM AND LEARNING

Learning and self-esteem are heightened when individuals are in respectful and caring relationships with others who see their potential, genuinely appreciate their unique talents, and accept them as individuals.

INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

ELEVENTH PRINCIPLE: INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN LEARNING

Although basic principles of learning, motivation and effective instruction apply to all learners (regardless of ethnicity, race, gender, physical ability, religion, or socioeconomic status), learners have different capabilities and preferences for learning modes and strategies. These differences are a function of environment (what is learned and communicated in different cultures or other social groups) and heredity (what occurs naturally as a function of genes).

The same basic principles of learning, motivation, and effective instruction apply to all learners. However, individuals are born with and develop unique capabilities and talents and have acquired through learning and social acculturation different preferences for how they like to learn and the pace at which they learn. Also, student differences and curricular and environmental conditions are key factors that greatly affect learning outcomes. Understanding and valuing cultural differences and the cultural contexts in which learners develop enhances the possibilities for designing and implementing learning environments that are optimal for all students.

TWELFTH PRINCIPLE: COGNITIVE FILTERS

Personal beliefs, thoughts, and understandings resulting from prior learning and interpretations become the individual's basis for constructing reality and interpreting life experiences.

IMPLICATIONS FOR SCHOOL REDESIGN AND REFORM

The foregoing principles have implications for educational practices in the areas of instruction, curriculum, assessment, instructional management, teacher education, parent and community roles, and educational policy. Some of these implications are listed in the following sections to provide examples that are consistent with the learner-centered principles. They are intended to stimulate further thinking, discussion, and elaboration of ideas toward developing new designs for education.

INSTRUCTION

The characteristics of effective instruction

CURRICULUM

The characteristics of effective curricula

EVALUATION OF LEARNING

The characteristics of effective assessment

INSTRUCTIONAL MANAGEMENT

The characteristics of effective schools and classrooms

The characteristics of effective learning environments

TEACHER EDUCATION

The characteristics of effective teacher education programs

PARENT AND COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT

POLICY IMPLICATIONS FOR LEARNER-CENTERED SCHOOL DESIGN

The characteristics of these policies

APPLYING LEARNER –CENTERED PRINCIPLES AND THEIR IMPLICATIONS TO ISSUES IN THE ASSESSMENT OF STUDENT ACHIEVEMENT

EMERGING LEARNER-CENTERED PRINCIPLES OF ASSESSMENT

To find out more: consult the following site:

http://www.fse.ulaval.ca/fac/tact/fr/html/principle.html

Resource 2
Practical implications of cognitive theories[75]

To adopt cognitive theory is to build one's teaching practice on the following assertion:

> "Learners are not simply passive recipients of information; they actively construct their own understanding."

The learner is at centre stage. The instructor becomes a facilitator of learning rather than someone who delivers information. This perspective on learning contrasts sharply with models that imply that learners 'get the point' as long as the instructor provides an appropriate stimulus. Cognitive psychology says that the learner plays a critical role in determining what he gets out of instruction.

As instructors, we may provide the same information to several students but we cannot always predict how a student will interpret or use the information. To illustrate this dilemma, consider what comes to mind when you hear the word cardinal. Some individuals think of baseball, some of numbers, some of the Roman Catholic Church, some of the color red. Some even think of sin; it all depends on background and current mindset. As a teacher, my goal is that when I say the word cardinal, everyone in the class makes the same association. It has been shown (Naveh-Benjamin, McKeachie, lin, and Tucker, 1986) that students who make the same connections and use the same content-organization patterns as the instructor do best on standard measures of learning, no matter how they start out organizing or associating content. This change in the conception of what happens during learning makes big differences.

REDEFINING THE STUDENT ROLE

Many students are under the impression that their task in class is passively to absorb what the teacher says in lecture, what is in the textbook, what they see in lab, and what they practice in homework. They are often unaware that what they think they absorb, read, see, or learn from practice may not be what the instructor intends. Their understanding of all these things is strongly influenced by a whole array of variables: their prior knowledge, their interpretation of what is important, the frequency with which they test themselves and their understanding, their perspectives on how all this relates to future use, and so on. Whether they realize it or not, and whether they like it or not, what they learn depends on who they are, where they have been, and what they do. Thus there is no absolute truth; even the initial intake of information is subject to idiosyncratic interpretation. Scholars in the field of communication have long maintained that both the receiver and the medium are part of the message.

To be most effective, learners must become aware of how their own biases and behaviours filter the information they receive. They must also take a developmental step forward in their understanding of the epistemology of knowledge. They must come to understand that there are multiple ways of interpreting reality. In one cognitive-development model (Perry, 1981), this movement from a dualistic view of the world ("Truth is truth") to one of multiplicity. ('Truth is subject to interpretation"} carries with it a necessary change in one's view of oneself and in

[75] SVINICKI, Marilla, *Practical Implications of Cognitive Theories*, New Directions for Teaching and Learning, no 45, spring 1991. Marilla Svinicki is a director at the Center for Teaching Effectiveness, University of Texas, Austin.

what one does during learning is the change from lower cognitive levels (memorization and simple translation of authoritative sources) to higher levels (analysis, evaluation and acceptance of personal responsibility for one's choices).

REDEFINING THE INSTRUCTOR ROLE

For the instructor's role, the first implication of shifting to a cognitive perspective is that neither the teacher nor the content is at the centre of the learning universe. Instructors become facilitators of learning. What we say is not necessarily what students get, unless we are very careful and deliberate about how it is presented. Information is easily garbled in transmission. Our job becomes one of minimizing the noise in the transmission, so that all the listeners (learners) interpret our statements in the same way, or in as close an approximation as possible, and store information in long-term memory so that they can retrieve it in the future. Better yet, we hope to convey the message in such a way that the learner can retrieve it without our intervention when the occasion demands. We do this by careful attention to how the content is structured, how it is sequenced, what examples and activities we use, how we respond to initial learning attempts, and an array of other instructional strategies.

A second implication for the instructor's role is that we are freed from our “Atlas complex" (Finkel and Monk, 1983). The weight of the world of learning does not rest on our shoulders alone; that responsibility is shared with students. They are the ones who must do the learning. They select the learning strategies, monitor their own comprehension, and chart their own course. What we do is help them understand the tools they need for success and arrange the environment to make success possible.

These are difficult adjustments for teacher and student alike but, in the end, students are better off. Someone will not always be there to decide for them what should and should not be learned, how to interpret new information, or what to believe. Those choices eventually fall to the learners. The college years are none too soon for learners to become self-sufficient.

IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING

From the cognitive perspective, teachers are faced with two tasks: First, we must organize the course and its content in a way consistent with what we believe about how learning takes place, paying attention to structure sequence, examples, and activities. Second, and simultaneously, we must help students learn how to learn content, a step in sophistication above the mere learning of content itself. Let us examine how these two tasks are translated into action. Here are six principles drawn from cognitive theory, along with some implications for teaching.

PRINCIPLE 1 : If information is to be learned, it must first be recognized as important.

Implication: the more learner's attention is effectively directed toward what is to be learned (that is, toward critical concepts and major ideas), the higher die probability of learning.

It is easy to see this phenomenon in operation. Consider the way textbooks are structured. Important concepts are highlighted in bold or italic type. This draws the learner's eye immediately to those words, and they are interpreted as important. A lecturer does the same thing by writing a word on the board or putting up an overhead transparency. The lecturer can also highlight concepts by using an outline on the board, indicating the major components of the lecture. Verbal cues, such as `the next main point is... ." or vocal cues, such as slowing down perceptibly when emphasizing some idea, or repeating something important, can be used as highlighting. Phrasing an idea as a question is another way of drawing attention, by making it stand out from the background. In discussion cases, instructors draw attention to main ideas by writing them on the board, repeating them, incorporating them into a summary, or reacting favourably when they are raised by students.

Likewise, students need to learn to recognize the clues that help them identify what is important. This may be what students mean when they say they have learned to 'psych out' the instructor. They learn to pick up clues, however subtle, that the instructor uses to denote the relative importance of material. Eventually, as students become more knowledgeable about the content itself; they can use that knowledge to help determine the importance of new information, without the need for external clues. As noted in the previous chapter, this is one of the differences between the ease of learning in an advanced course and in an introductory course. Without extensive background in a field, all content appears important, and students struggle to master everything. As they learn more, they develop a feeling for what is critical in the discipline. An instructor can do a lot to assist students in recognizing how the discipline determines what is important, by making such discriminations explicit in class. It cannot be accomplished in one class alone. Over the space of several classes, however, students can become more efficient in discriminating the critical features that make ideas important for a field.

PRINCIPLE 2: During learning, learners act on information in ways that make it more meaningful.

Implication: both instructor and student should use examples, images, elaborations and connections to prior knowledge to increase the meaningfulness of information.

It is natural, in the flow of conversation, to cite examples, evoke images through metaphors and analogies, and translate abstractions into concrete instances for ease of understanding. Most instructors use these devices regularly in explaining content. All these devices depend heavily on students' prior knowledge and experience. An example does not clarify a concept if the student has no experience of that example. Saying that a phratz works just like a klogue does not help if you do not know how a klogue works in the first place. Thus it becomes important for an instructor to know students and their backgrounds and to use that knowledge in the selection of activities and examples for use in class.

Students should be encouraged to make their own connections between what is being studied in one class and what they have learned in previous classes or in other settings. For example, students can create personal bibliographies of texts and readings from other courses that are related to the content at hand and then use those materials to supplement assigned readings. Many instructors have students scan the news media for examples related to class concepts.

Students can learn to use vivid images and other elaboration strategies, as described in the previous chapter, if the instructor allows time during class for such activities. Instructors can also counsel students to incorporate this practice of making content meaningful into their regular study procedures. An instructor who finds a student having difficulty creating class notes can suggest alternatives to make notes more meaningful. For example, class notes do not have to be exclusively in prose format; sketches and other visual stimuli can serve as helpful elaborations on a basic text. The common thread in these examples is to encourage students to make connections between what they know and what they are learning.

PRINCIPLE 3: Learners store information in long-term memory in an organized fashion related to an existing understanding of the world.

Implication: the instructor can facilitate the organization of this new material by providing an structure or organization of the information and, more particularly, by providing students with a structuring they are familiar with, or by encouraging students to create such structures or such an organization; students actually learn best under the latter conditions.

This principle is at the heart of the cognitive view of learning. We learn and remember information because we act on it in such a way as to fit it into an organized pattern based on our worldview. Instructors who present course content in an organized fashion are increasing the probability that students will use that organizational structure to understand and store the content. For a single lecture this means having a clear outline displaying that outline as a guide to listening; and maintaining an orderly sequence of concepts and examples. Earlier, we saw that the diagram enhances attention; here, we see it playing an additional role in learning.

In the overall course structure, organization means relating logical units of content to one another and building in a regular pattern toward the ultimate goal of the course. The pattern can be chronological, comparative, hierarchical, or representative of any other relationship. Whatever pattern is chosen, it should be made explicit to students.

The second part of the concept of organization is also important: relating the organizational structure to students' existing worldviews. In the absence of a clearly delineated structure from the instructor, students will impose on content the organization most closely related to their current view of things. Thus, in a history course the organizational structure that students are most likely to choose is chronological; it is what they are used to and is often their sole view of how history is organized. If the instructor's thinking is organized around some other structure, such as causes and effects, and if that organization is not made clear to students, then class content may appear very confused and disorganized. In the sciences, the influence of students' pre-existing organizations shows up in commonsense misconceptions about the causes of everyday phenomena. These misconceptions can create some bizarre attempts to explain events and are often very difficult to overcome.

In the absence of a pre-existing organization or one provided by the instructor, students are likely to revert to rote memorization, a technique that may work in the short run but will eventually reach its capacity limit and produce failure. When new information is not or cannot be tied to old, students may easily encapsulate it as separate from everything else. This makes the new information hard to learn and easy to forget. It pays for the instructor to be aware of students' backgrounds and predispositions and to clarify which patterns of organizing the content are acceptable and which may be in conflict with those of the students.

Students can learn to recognize or create structures to facilitate their own learning. As noted earlier, one measure of students' grasp of content is the degree to which each student's conceptual map of the content organization matches the instructor's map. Getting in the habit of outlining readings and lecture notes, creating tree diagrams showing the relationships of concepts to one another, and learning other forms of content organization are tools students can use to make learning more efficient. By introducing students to these tools an instructor helps them move closer to self-sufficiency.

PRINCIPLE 4: Learners continually check their understanding, which results in refinement and revision of what is retained.

Implication: providing the students with opportunities for checking and evaluating their learning are ways of supporting learning,

Think about how you read different types of material. If you are truly attending the material and not just skimming it, you constantly monitor your reading. Sometimes you are brought up short when you find a sentence that seems incongruent with your understanding of what has gone before. At that point, you back up and reread it, to find the cause of the discrepancy. That practice illustrates comprehension monitoring: an important executive process in learning. In reading, we have the luxury of interrupting ourselves to check on understanding, going back and replaying what we have just read to look for inconsistencies. In classes, however, most students do not have that opportunity, because they are not in control of the pace of the class; the lecturer controls the pace. If they do not understand something or think they hear a discrepancy few students have sufficient self-confidence to interrupt and ask for clarification. Their usual response is to write down verbatim what is being said and go back and check it later. Poorer students, especially, may have given up the monitoring process altogether, in favour of just getting it all down. They feel they do not have time to think during class.

The instructor could give them this time. Most instructors pause periodically and ask for questions. They may rarely hear the important questions however, because they seldom wait long enough for students to formulate them, it takes a few seconds to mentally look back over what has just been said and check for understanding. It takes a few more seconds to create a question that will make sense to others and not make the questioner look foolish. That is already six seconds, at the minimum and only for really good students who have been able to keep up. Most instructors have difficulty waiting even a few seconds before moving on; no wonder we seldom get questions. Students do not understand everything perfectly - they are just not fast enough to recognize what they do not understand and then ask.

Once instructors become aware of the need for and difficulty of monitoring they can take steps to help students engage in this important strategy. For example, as just discussed, learning to wait a while longer after inviting questions (known as wait time} can be a big help. An even more significant step is to be very directive about checking understanding. For example, many instructors insert pauses in their lectures during which students are instructed to write a one or two-sentence summary of what has just been discussed. One or two of these summaries are then reviewed out loud for accuracy. This practice gets students in the habit of thinking in terms of major ideas and summaries and periodically checking their understanding. Students who have not been able to produce the summaries become aware immediately that they did not understand something and can either ask questions or note their confusion for future questioning or remediation. This practice also provides the instructor with feedback on students' understanding before it is too late to do something about it - These are only a few examples of how monitoring can be built into a class. For additional ideas an monitoring, consult Cross and Angelo (1988)

Students can be encouraged to engage in their own comprehension monitoring. One particularly popular strategy is to set aside a column on each sheet of class notes. In this column, the student records monitoring questions as the lecture or class period proceeds, noting confusions, connections with other ideas, potential test questions, and so on. The mere presence of this column reminds the student to monitor thinking as the class proceeds.

Comprehension monitoring shows up most frequently in suggestions about reading. Students are encouraged to preview the reading and to record questions that they expect to be answered in the material. As they read, the need to answer those questions prompts students to process the reading at a deeper level than mere repetition of the words on the page, getting in the habit of pausing at each break in the reading (say, where headings appear) and asking questions about what went before is another way of tracking comprehension.

There we many possibilities for increasing awareness of understanding and its failure. Most important is to ensure that students see the need to pay attention to their attention.

PRINCIPLE 5: Transfer of learning to new contexts is not automatic, but results from exposure to multiple applications.

Implication: provision must be made during initial learning to ensure this transfer.

To believe that one exposure to material is sufficient to allow a student to use that information forever in the future is naive. To believe that a beginning student is able to see all the potential uses for what he is learning is also naive. Indeed, much of their schooling seems to have convinced students of the independence of content, what they learn in math class has no relationship to what they learn in English or chemistry and vice versa. As instructors, however, we know that knowledge is related and that using it in different contexts makes it more meaningful and more easily remembered. We also know that, in the real world, students are unlikely to encounter situations for using their new knowledge that are exactly the same as what they experience in the classroom. They must learn how to take what they learn and transfer it.

We can help them make that transfer by building it in from the very start. Our greatest tool for facilitating transfer is incorporating a wide range of application opportunities and settings into the learning situation. The more (and the more different) situations in which students see a concept applied, the better they will be able to use what they have learned in the future. It will no longer be tied to a single context.

An instructor can facilitate transfer through simple repetition. The more we use a skill or concept, the more automatic its use becomes, until we hardly have to think about it at all. It is the rare student who can learn to solve a complex type of math problem after trying only one example. It takes many hours of practice to become proficient at most things, to reach a level of automaticity. Why should intellectual skills be any different?

A final facilitator of transfer involves getting students to abstract the principle from the practice. If students can articulate the steps they are taking to solve problems, or if they can extract an underlying concept from a set of examples, then they will be more likely to use that abstraction in a different context. This is known as de-contextualizing and is the more complex complement of "automatism." In practice, an instructor can have students talk to one another about the processes they are going through to solve problems. In so doing, they become aware of the steps they use

(Lochhead and Whimbey, 1987). This awareness is then translated into increased ability to apply the sane steps, now detached from their original context, in a new situation.

PRINCIPLE 6: Learning is facilitated when learners are aware of their learning strategies and monitor their use.

Implication: the instructor should help students learn how to translate these strategies into action at appropriate points in their learning.

These six principles discuss instructors' activities in the context of teaching the content of specific courses, but they also apply to the content of knowing how to learn (learning strategies. too, can be viewed as content to be learned). Attention should be drawn to learning strategies. Their use should be monitored, and their transfer to new settings should be ensured. When an instructor takes on the task of teaching both the content of the discipline and the content of learning strategies within the same course, he will enrich students in both areas. There are several objectives and instructional methods for teaching the content of learning strategies.

Students need to know what cognitive learning strategies are. Most students are not aware of the different strategies available to them. An instructor can illustrate the strategies that exist by taking every opportunity to point out the process of learning as it occurs. For example, to help students learn to recognize the clues that indicate the importance of material and the degree of attention it should receive, the instruction during the first few class periods, can explain the purpose of using visuals or the blackboard to highlight important concepts, as well as how the textbook uses similar techniques to highlight important ideas. After the first lecture, the instructor can illustrate these strategies by taking a few minutes to show students how the organization of the lecture should be reflected in their notes and to remind them of how that organization was made explicit during the lecture itself. At the beginning of the next class period, students can be asked to recall the main points of the previous class and to discuss how the organizational structure helped them remember the main ideas. These we only a few examples of how an instructor can make learning strategies explicit in the context of the course itself. These strategies are applicable to listening in class, reading the textbook, preparing for exams, monitoring understanding, managing time and a whole range of other general learning situations that students may never have analyzed in just this way.

Students need to know when to use the strategies they have learned. This is a more difficult task for the instructor because much of the decision about when to use a strategy depends on students' individual needs as well as on the context. Nevertheless, the instructor helps by providing information on what alternative strategies are available and how they can be applied to different situations. He or she can model different strategies while answering questions or solving problems raised in class. Too often, students believe that the instructor immediately knows all the answers to all questions asked; they do not realize that instructors frequently have to think through new problem and new questions, just as students do. Taking the opportunity to work on new problems with students and show how to approach a new situation serves as a good model for students to understand that different problems require different approaches.

Another opportunity to help students understand the situational contexts of learning strategies occurs when students come individually for assistance. Talking with them about the strategies they have tried, as well as working with them to develop new strategies for attacking new problems, can make them aware of the need to vary the solution with the situation.

Students need to know how to adapt their strategies to new situations.

This is really the problem of transfer, taken one step further. Just as we need to vary contexts in order for students to transfer content skills to new situations, we need to vary learning situations in order to show how strategies apply to different situations. Something that would be particularly helpful in this task is cooperation among instructors in different areas. This has been referred to as the metacurriculum (Weinstein, (1982): the idea of incorporating instruction in learning strategies into all courses, regardless of content. If instructors in chemistry used the same terms for learning strategies that instructors in history used, students would begin to de-contextualize those strategies and then be more likely to apply them to French as well. They may not work identically in all fields, but many of the concepts can be applied across disciplines, or at least in similar contexts (for example, in all language classes or in all fact-based classes).

SUMMARY

There is a great deal of intuitive appeal to the cognitive approach to teaching. It echoes our own experience as learners and is easy to understand. Applying the approach is very difficult, however, because we must give up our illusion of control. That change shakes the foundation of content as the primary focus of our teaching. We are then faced with the task of adapting to the needs of learners, a varied and unpredictable group. Fortunately if we accept the precepts of cognitive theory that learning is active, not passive, we will help to develop more productive learners who will function effectively and independently in the uncertainties of the future. Isn't that what it means to be a teacher?

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Resource 3

Vision of learners in the 21st century

Learner-centered perspectives

Modern communication and information technologies are having an increasing impact on learning - how we learn, where we learn, when we learn, what we learn, what learning resources we have, and why we learn.

It is important that our learning systems be guided by a vision of learners and the communities to which they belong and which they are helping to create.

To open a discussion on these questions, SchoolNet held a workshop on April 19-21, 1996 at the CIBC Leadership Centre in King City, Ontario. There were over 30 participants from across Canada, from schools, governments, universities and a variety of organizations that took part in the pan-Canadian event.

The purpose of the workshop was to develop a Vision Statement on learners in the 21st Century: what assumptions we should make about the characteristics and beliefs of a successful learner and a supportive learning system, the pressures and tensions involved in developing such a system, the core values that we should hold about learning, some of the possible directions we can follow. This statement is a work tool at the disposal of those in educational environments who are curious about the changes in learning conditions caused by developments in technology and the need to adequately respond to these changes.

The vision statement is addressed to learners, educators, parents, policy makers, business and community leaders, politicians and all who are interested in the important subject of learners, learning, and learning communities.

This Vision Statement is intended to invite participation in building a vision of the learner – the assumptions we are making, the core values guiding our vision, and the elements of this vision. Participation is also invited on the problems we must address and the alternative directions we might take.

To read the article : http://www.fse.ulaval.ca/fac/tact/fr/html/vision2.html

Resource 4

The operationalization of a socioconstructivist problem-based learning model at collegial level

By Ouellet, Lise and Guilbert, Louise

Abstract

Working with students in physical rehabilitation techniques, we have applied a problem-based learning approach at the college level. This research is introspective: the principal researcher -- who is also the teacher -- attempts to render the principles that guide her both explicit and formal. Our purpose is to understand (1) how a theoretical model can be transformed in the face of restrictions in the field, and (2) what principles, drawn from our practical knowledge, influence the application of this approach in a truly scholastic milieu. After reflecting on our actions, we attempted to reconstitute, with content analysis, the principles which guided us in our practice. This was done on the basis of our field data (course preparation, anecdotal diaries, explanatory meetings). It would appear that the theoretical model must become increasingly operational, translating into initial principles, and that in fact the principles derived from previous practical knowledge rank before theoretical principles. This reflection and this formalization of principles should be of help in successfully implementing a new teaching model.

For more information, please refer to the following article:
http://www.acelf.ca/revue/XXV1/articles/rxxv1-04.html

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