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MODULE: GENERAL PEDAGOGY (10 CREDITS)

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CHAPTER I: GENERALITY

I.1. Definitions of key concepts

I.1.1. Education

DURKEIM(1968,p41) defines education in its totality saying that it is: "the action exercised by the adult generations on those who are not yet mature for the social life. Its concern is to cause and develop a certain number of physical, intellectual and moral states in the child as a whole that require his social environment to which he is especially destined".

MORIN and BRUNET(1968,p15) add to this aspect the fact that education is " the action that consist in helping a human being to train himself, to develop himself, to raise himself: it is also the results of this action. This definition highlights the involvement of both the educator and the educated in the educational process, which is recommended in the active pedagogy. Competences (knowledge, ability and skills) that an individual acquires in all circumstances of life-either in family, in school or in society in general come from education. It is at the same time formal, non-formal or informal

I.1.2. Pedagogy

This word comes from the Greek *paidagōgia* in which "paidos" means "child" and *ágō* which means "lead"; thus literally "to lead the child".

Initially, a pedagogue was the slave in charge of taking roman children to everywhere, but especially to school. Progressively, pedagogue came to lose its etymological meaning of accompanying a person and by extension; a pedagogue became synonymous of master, teacher or tutor.

Currently, even if the word pedagogue underlies both meanings, i.e. educator and instructor, it refers also to the manner or method of teaching. The education offered by the pedagogue is inclusive. It deals with all aspects namely intellectual, physical, socio-affective, moral religious, etc

For DURKHEIM(1911), pedagogy is "the practical theory of education". Someone is said to be a good pedagogue not because he is a scholar, or a deep thinker, though he may be so, but because **he know especially how to go with his pupils, how to interest them, motivate them, communicate content, knowledge, skills, etc** (MORIN and BRUNET(1992). In that

way**, Education is an action whereas pedagogy is a reflection on the manner in which education is provided**.

Pedagogy is a discipline whose concern is the education of a child. It implies the science of the child (pedagogy), the knowledge of educational techniques and the art to put them into practice (pedagogy itself). The application of pedagogy is translated into two facts: teaching (by the teacher) and learning(by the learner). **Let us say also that pedagogy comprises what teachers do in classroom, but also their ideas, knowledge and attitudes in relation to the learners, the teaching and learning process and the curriculum**

I.1.3. Didactic

Even if we establish   the relationship between pedagogy and didactic, it is important to understand the difference between two terms. The term pedagogy has been defined before. We only define here the term" didactic". According to SILLAMY, N., didactic comes from the greek word "didactikos" which means to "teach".

The introduction and use of the term "didactic" are recent, especially when it is used as a name rather than an adjective: we then talk of the didactic of a discipline.

The previous use of the term didactic as adjective remains: a document or a discipline is said to be didactic when the emphasis is put on its systematic, linear, and progressive aspect, etc.. The recent use as a noun characterize a movement of constitution of new fields of study and analysis of well specified phenomena of teaching and learning.

Most people confuse pedagogy and didactic but there is a major difference. As we have seen before, a good pedagogue must think first of all on the learner, on his interests, his motivations etc (example: pedagogies of MONTESSORI, FREINET, JOHN,DEWEY,etc.). On the contrary, didacticians give **to knowledge a central role**. In that sense, **didactic would be a reorganization of knowledge for its transmission**. The emphasis will be put for example, on determining the preliminaries to such or such notion (for example it is known that the knowledge of the mechanism of multiplication can be a preliminary for the learning of division arithmetic), on finding different measures to implement (that can vary according

to children), on breaking up concepts into their components that are easily perceptible by the child mind.

If pedagogy, in the pedagogic triangle that involves pupils/ teacher/ knowledge, values what happens between the pupils and the teacher, takes into account intellectual and emotional dimensions that govern the pedagogic relation, didactics develops between the teacher and the knowledge which he needs to rethink to make it transmissible. Let's add that the didactician should not, since he is also a pedagogue ignore the psychology of the child and his intellectual resources at a given age level.

It is agreed that we should never ignore that these relations between pedagogue and didactician are in constant interaction. **Pedagogy and didactic can interfere and influence reciprocally.**

In summary, we can say that: the search for motivation, the adoption of the strategy, either inductive or deductive; the use of explanation or experiment, and the proposition of individual or group work are of the field of pedagogy. The adoption of such manual, progression, the choice of such example, the types of exercises proposed, and the nature of work prescribed, etc, belong to the didactic domain.

All these elements find their place in the pedagogic triangle elaborated by J. HOUSSAYE.

I.1.4.The process of teaching - learning

Etymologically, teaching is the progressive form of the verb "to teach. The latin origin of the verb" to teach" comes from "insignire" (to put a character, a sign, a signal, to let know) itself formed of' signare" (to indicate, to put a mark, a sign, a print), that refers to "signum"(sign, distinctive mark, signal,…)

Teaching has also the sense of "docere". "Docere" gave birth to the French words related to "teach"

"Docere" and "insignire" have in common the idea of "letting know." In all uses and meanings assigned to "insignire" (to teach), the first and fundamental meaning consists of letting someone know something. From his perspective, teaching is defined as a set of steps, operations and conditions that are implemented by the environmental (the teacher, parents… in order to **facilitate learning**. In class situations, these operations refer to methods of teaching and all techniques used by the teacher for the transmission of knowledge and/ or the development of skills and attitudes

Teaching is to be conceived more as facilitation, a help, stimulation, rather than an authoritative transmission of knowledge.

ARTOUD(1989) shows that pedagogical relation passed from directivity in 1950 to non directivity in the 1960 becoming a way of communication whereby the teacher brings a pupil to think and construct his knowledge himself. Thus, teaching is not an action on one way. REBOUL (1980) argue that those who reduce teaching to the transmission of the knowledge definitely underestimate it because what gives sense to the act of teaching is its end, meaning to inform, but to **make learning happen**. Learning and teaching are two complementary tasks, respectively reserved for the learner and the teacher. **Non teacher would teach without intention and hope that pupils would learn**. That is the reason why we talk about "teaching/learning instead of "teaching" only. We will develop each of these processes in the following chapters.

I.2.The didactic triangle as a model for analyzing the classroom situation

It has been classical to analyse every pedagogical situation through a triangle diagram. According to J.HOUSSAYE, (1996) pedagogical situation can be defined as a triangle composed of three elements: knowledge, teacher, and learners.

### <u>Illustration of the pedagogical triangle</u>
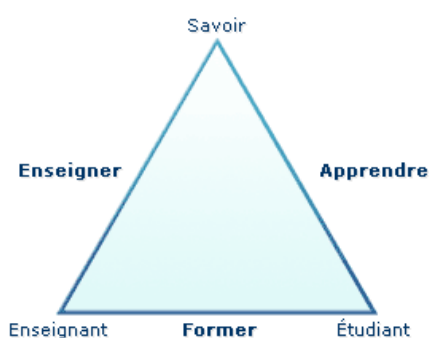
On this triangle, knowledge (K) represents the content, discipline, programme, etc. Learners (L) refer to pupils,

trainers, students, etc. The teacher (T) refers to the lecturer, trainer, educator, initiator, accompanist, Etc.

For a best pedagogy all these three elements must be active but that is not easy to realize. It is the reason why in the pedagogical situation, only two elements are active and the third element, is not active, but it allows the others to function. Thus, there are three processes "teaching" that privileges the axis **teacher- knowledge, "**educating" that privileges the axis **teacher- student,** and "learning" that privileges axis **student- knowledge.**

CHAPTER II: TEACHING PROCESS
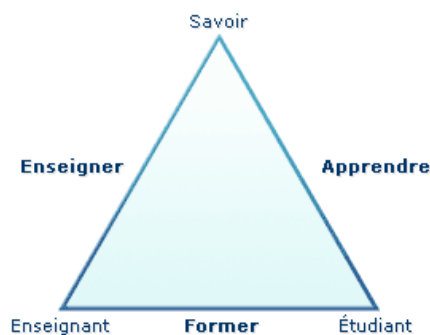
As we see through the triangle, the privileged relation is between teacher and the content. We can wonder how teacher can be in contact with the content. This relation can be observed in two important ways

II.1. preparing the content of teaching

A good teacher must prepare the content or the knowledge to teach to his students. How? By doing the didactic transposition, managing the curriculum, choosing activities to be proposed to students, etc.

II.1.1. The concept of didactic transposition

The way that subject contents are introduced into a school so that they can be used by the students is not the way that the experts have worked them out. To adapt contents to teaching

does not mean just simplifying them to eliminate the more difficult or abstract features, but is a much more complex process. **The process by which scientific content becomes school content** was called by Chevallard (1985) *didactic transposition*.

Accordind to VALLET (1991,p39) didactic transposition refers to **the change from the exact knowkedge(knowledge produced by research) to a didactic version** of this knowledge. Didactic transposition is the process whose starting point is the **knowledge from the research or scientific knowledge** and the final point is **the taught knowledge.**

The scholar knowledge does not provide, as it is, the content to teach that would be sufficient to adapt through descending simplification. It appears more and more necessary to proceed to the specific elaborations for every level.

The didactic transposition has advantages because it allows teachers to adapt the content to the students' levels. Basing on who is implicated in the didactic transposition and on the moment this one is made, there are two stages of didactic transposition:

II.1.1.1.External didactic transposition

External didactic transposition is done by what CHEVALARD calls the noosphere which includes academicians, authors of textbooks, inspectors, innovators and other didacticians. They choose content that should be taught. They define the programs and analyze the strategies to be used in the didactic situation. Didactic transposition is called external because it is outside of the classroom system; it means that the teacher does not intervene in this type of transposition. His work is limited to the preparation of his course.

II.1.1.2. Internal didactic transposition

It is during this stage that teachers intervene more. They refer to the programs elaborated during the external transposition and realize their own content, syllabus adapted to their classes. Let us say that internal didactic transposition analyses how knowledge of reference are translated into teachable knowledge.

Didactic transposition does not only mean the selection, adaptation and sequencing of contents to be taught, which implies remembering the characteristic models of the subject. It also involves other factors such as the cognitive structure of the child, and the context.

To deal with how contents and activities taught are concretized, we rely on the report done by SANMARTI (2002). Here the author considers that, to concretize the science syllabus, the following points should be born in mind:

☐ The possible teaching / learning contexts,

☐ The levels, interests and previous knowledge of the students,

☐ The possible sequence of the contents.

☐ The interests of the students according to their gender.

Stages of didactic transposition

Exact knowledge (from research)
⇓ external didactic transposition

knowledge to be taught
⇓ internal didactic transposition
Taught knowledge

II.1.2. curriculum knowledge

There are multiple definitions of curriculum, from OLIVA (1997)
Curriculum is:

➡ That which is taught in schools

➡ A set of subjects.

➡ Content

➡ A program of studies.

➡ A set of materials

➡ A sequence of courses.

➡ A set of performance objectives

➡ A course of study

- Is everything that goes within the school, including extra-class activities, guidance, and interpersonal relationships.

- Everything that is planned by school personnel.

- A series of experiences undergone by learners in a school.

- That which an individual learner experiences as a result of schooling.

According to Marshall, K. (2004) curriculum can be understood as: "clear statements of what students should know and be able to do by the end of each year with the pedagogical approaches (cooperative learning, project-based learning, direct instruction, etc.) that teachers use to convey the standards and learning expectations to students. Curriculum orientations, held by a teacher are important to the practice of teaching.

II.1.2.1. The formal curriculum (also called official, overt, written)

The formal curriculum is the planned programs of objectives, content, learning experiences, resources and assessment offered by a school. It is sometimes called the "official curriculum". Comparing with what we have said about didactic transposition, we notice that this type of curriculum should be the result of external didactic transposition.

II.1.2.2.The real curriculum (also called curriculum in use)

The formal curriculum (written or overt) comprises those things in textbooks, and content and concepts in the district curriculum guides. However, those "formal"elements are frequently not taught. The curriculum-in-use is the actual curriculum that is delivered and presented by each teacher.

The real curriculum can be defined as a reflexion on the content to be taught: The content is not given in advance by the curricula texts, but is extensively still has to be designed.

As it is said by Marshall (2004), many studies demonstrate that when teachers interpret didactic proposals they are influenced by their own ideas on contents and on the teaching and learning process. Thus they carry out activities in the classroom with purposes and approaches which are very different from those envisaged in the original project. Therefore, even though a teacher uses activities designed in projects, he/she must be able to understand them, assess them and adapt them to the specific context of his/her class.

II.1.2.3. The hidden curriculum

The hidden curriculum involves all the **incidental lessons** (not planned) that students learn at school. It is sometimes called the "unofficial curriculum" and includes the lessons about **behaviour, personal relationships, the use of power and authority, competition, sources of motivation and so on that students** learn at school.

These lessons can be either positive or negative in terms of promoting a sustainable future. To know more about the hidden curriculum, the researcher had a dialogue with students who studied in Educational sciences. Below is the dialogue :

"*Qu'avez-vous appris à l'école sans qu'on me l'ait ouvertement enseigné ?*", on obtient une liste impressionnante : *1. A vivre avec d'autres dans une foule, à l'intérieur d'un petit espace. 2. A passer le temps. 3. A supporter le jugement des autres. 4. A craindre pour ce qu'on possède, à se méfier des autres. 5. A échapper à la violence, à se défendre. 6. A ne pas perdre la face. 7. A jouer sur plusieurs registres en présence d'autrui. 8. A construire une façade, à dissimuler. 9. A flairer les différences chez les autres, à s'adapter. 10. A juger (ses camarades, la maîtresse). 11. A s'inscrire dans un milieu contraignant. 12. A faire sa place, à se défendre. 13. A doser son effort. 14. A apprendre, à bachoter. 15. A tricher, faire semblant, simuler. 16. A travailler, à évaluer positivement le travail. 17. A se maîtriser, à se contrôler, à ne pas crier. 18. A être solidaire, à s'entraider. 19. A respecter les autres et les différences. 20. A flatter (lèche-botte). 21. A se révolter. 22. A passer des limites. 23. A être patient, à supporter, à endurer. 24. A être docile, à faire sans avoir envie. 25. A se noyer dans la masse, à se faire oublier, à être comme tout le monde. 26. A se connaître soi-même, à se situer. 27. A rêver dans une foule sans se faire prendre. 28. A faire des choix, à s'organiser. 29. A se créer un milieu de vie. 30. A vivre dans une jungle, à marcher sur les autres. 31. A se débrouiller. 32. A penser qu'il faut être bon, qu'il faut être le meilleur. 33. A être confronté à des choses dures à vivre, à des engrenages (du type du petit crédit), à des contradictions. 34. A se protéger, à se blinder. 35. A crier en silence. 36. A attendre la récréation. 37. A obéir, à se plier à une discipline. 38. A avoir une bonne ou une mauvaise estime de soi. 39. A travailler à heure fixe. 40. A gérer son temps. 41. A apprendre la hiérarchie. 42. A être autonome. 43. A identifier des jeux et des enjeux.*

II.1.3. Give a good structure to the content

Another important point that teacher cannot forget in preparing his courses is to give a best structure of notes given to learners. Teachers need to impose a logical structure on what he wants the learners to understand and remember. Our Long Term Memory is like a filing cabinet, requiring information to be divided into draws, files and sub-files. Effective teachers may well organize notes, with headings and subheadings, sometimes underling or choose other technique to visualize important ideas.

II.2. Teaching the content

Most students on the course complained about teachers who are qualified in their subjects, who master very well the content but who don't know how to explain. Teacher' knowledge alone will not make him a good teacher; students consider explaining as the single most important skill.

II.2.1. The art of explaining

Some important elements have to be considered in teaching

Starting from students existing knowledge: An important aspect of motivation, which makes learning more meaningful, is that new knowledge have to be related to preceding ones. Teachers can involve students by reminding them of previous knowledge and by explicitly pointing out some concrete relationships between the preceding knowledge and the present one. That justifies why at the beginning of a lesson, teachers start by revisions

Simplifying: During an explanation, the teacher's enemy is often the limited size of the student's Short-Term Memory. As a teacher, don't feel you have to mention everything you know about the content; only include information vital for understanding the point being explained.

**Focusing*: A student struggling with a new idea often has difficulty in isolating the point teacher is trying to make from the explanation he is giving in support of it. Even if students are intelligent and motivated, without help they may well miss important points. Depending on the nature of the explanation, teacher may need to focus on key phrase, a list, or a chain of reasoning

<u>A key phrase</u>: to focus attention on the key phrase, you can use emphasis, gesture, repetition, and silence before and after the phrase, etc.

Teacher can write the phrase up on the board or overhead projector (OHP), and leave it there during the discussion; he can give the phrase in notes; or say:" Listen to this carefully, it is very important".

<u>A list :</u> Many explanations are best summarized as a list.

Example: The overhead projector

Advantages over whiteboard are

-Transparencies can be prepared in advance

- Transparencies can be updated and kept for future use

- Accurate drawings can be presented immediately

-etc.

<u>Chain of reasoning</u>

If an explanation cannot be summarized as a list or as one key phrase, it can usually be summarized in a chain of reasoning. For example, when a science teacher is explaining why hot air rises he might focus on, or point to the following reasoning

"A gaz expands when it is heated.

This expansion reduces the density of the gaz.

Less dense materials float in more dense fluids (like cork in water). Therefore hot air floats in the surrounding cold air.

That is to say: hot air rises.

Each of four statements needs explaining carefully in its own right, but in order to understand why hot air rises, the overall chain of reasoning must be understood.

II.2.2. Writing notes for students

The notes given to students must be:

Concise: a summary is better than a full explanation. If possible key points must be visualized.

Simple: Teachers must not to impress by an over-formal style. It is better to use simple vocabulary.

Attractive: Teachers must take care with layout and presentation.

II.2.3. The didactic contract and the disciplinary contract.

* The didactic contract

Signing a contract involves taking responsibility for something. A contract is between two people. In the case of teaching, a teaching contract is a commitment that takes the teacher to convey the material to students, and students to learn this material. In the contract the emphasis is put on rights and duties of contracting parties. These are the duties of teaching and educating for the teacher and the duties to learn and be educated for the students.

The contract is a necessary condition in teaching/learning. The concept of didactic contract refers to the interactions between teacher and students in classroom situation. The students interprets the situation presented and the questions asked to them according to what the teacher consciously or unconsciously reproduce in their teaching practice. It is also the set of the reciprocal obligations and sanctions that each partner in the didactic situation imposes, of believes to impose, explicitly or implicitly, on others, and those that are imposed on him or her, or he or she believes that they are imposed on him or her,"
The contract covers all instructional behaviors of teachers which are expected by students, and students' behaviors expected by the teacher.

Characteristics of the didactic contract:

1. The didactic contract is a system of reciprocal obligations, largely implicit, that determine what each partner (the teacher and the student) has the responsibility to manage.
2. The didactic contract depends primarily on the teaching strategy adopted. Educational choices, style of work expected of the students, the objectives of training, conditions of assessment ... are among the key determinants of the didactic contract that must be adapted to

these contexts.

3. The didactic contract exists always in teaching situation and, the teacher is forced as well as students, for their respect. The contract is never static, it can evolve during the teaching activity. The acquisition of knowledge by students is the fundamental issue of the didactic contract. At each new stage, the contract is renewed and renegotiated. Most of the time this renegotiation is unnoticed.

4. The didactic contract is most evident when it is violated by any of the partners in the educational relationship. Much of students' difficulties can be explained by effects of contract improperly installed or misunderstood (the student does not know what exactly is expected of him). Many misunderstandings, feelings of being bullied, are caused by inappropriate or misunderstood contract. Such situations can lead to school refusal and in extreme cases of failure at school.

The cases of ruptures of the contract have been analyzed by some researchers. The first paradox was observed by a mathematician Guy Brousseau and is named "**Topaze effect.**"For this paradox, the teacher assumes that students have the means to produce a response and unfortunately the answer is not found. The teacher is obliged to suggest the answer himself or he continues to help students until they find the response. It is a paradox because the students who have learned should give the answer but they are not able without the help of the teacher.

The second paradox is "**Jourdain effect**" this paradox is often noticed when the teacher receives a response from the student but he fails to appreciate it, to say if it is correct or wrong. In this case, the contract is not fulfilled because the teacher who asked the question should appreciate the response (this means the lack of knowledge from the teacher).

The third paradox is "**Dienes ' effect**". It is called so when the teacher engages students in a certain way of thinking and at a certain moment, he realizes he was wrong and he walks backwards by making changes. It can also change the procedure not because he is deceived, but also because he seeks a method that would facilitate students' understanding.

*** The disciplinary Contract**

The disciplinary contract relates to all disciplinary interactions that develop throughout the school life between teacher and students and identify **representations of student in relation to the discipline**, its mode of operation, the rules which govern it, etc. Example: according to their habit of solving problems in class and often find solutions, the students think, as noted

by ASTOLFI (1997) that

* The problem has only one solution;

* In problems' resolution, all data have to be used because they are all necessary

* If the response found is not a single number, you've probably made a mistake.

This disciplinary contract may induce students in error; Example: Sur un bateau il ya 26 chevres et 10 moutons. Quel est l'âge du capitaine ? (in a boat, there are 26 sheep and 10 goats. How old is the captain ?) (Baruk, 1985, p. 240) In solving this problem, students will venture to find an answer by combining the numbers, suggesting that the teacher waits for a response as a simple number. Thus they will say that the age of a captain is 26 +10 equal 36

Note that the disciplinary contract in opposition of the didactic contract can be observed under normal conditions.

CHAPTER III : EDUCATING PROCESS
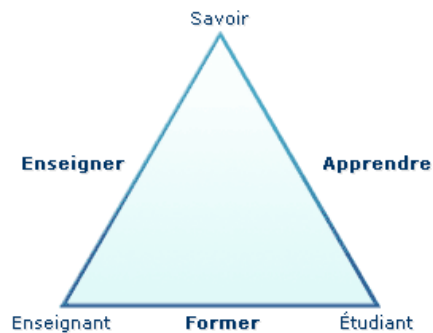
As it is illustrated on this triangle the privilege is put on axis teacher- students.

Improving students' relationships with teachers has important, positive and long-lasting implications for students' academic and social development. Solely improving students' relationships with their teachers will not produce gains in achievement. However, those students who have close, positive and supportive relationships with their teachers will attain higher levels of achievement than those students with more conflictual relationships. If a student feels a personal connection to a teacher, frequent communication with a teacher, and receives more guidance and praise than criticism from the teacher, then the student is likely to become more trustful of that teacher, show more engagement in the academic content presented, display better classroom behavior, and achieve at higher levels academically. Positive teacher-student relationships draw students into the process of learning and promote their desire to succeed.

III.1 Vertical relationships (the sacred power of the teacher)

In this situation, teacher is considered as someone with a sacred power. It is a vertical relation in the sense that teacher is the only doer, there is no feedback from his students, no discussion with them, no negotiation, and they cannot have any initiative, etc. Students who are considered ignorant are there to listen carefully to their teacher who is more knowledgeable. As we can notice it, there is not a relationship but a domination. In that situation, some reactions are observed from students

The identification and submission

In this situation, students are classified according to their results. The best do not fear their teacher and thus have no problem concerning their relationship with him. (they are the equal of teacher).   On the contrary students with difficulties to succeed try to identify with him by submission. Bad students (which fail) think that they are "worthless" and because of being ignored by the teacher, they can finally give up learning.

Resistance and rebellion

When students have strength to resist to the domination, they stop working in some lessons. Many students in this situation join forces to disrupt, ridicule and confront the teacher. As consequence sometimes, he refuses the authority, students become free to do all they want and teacher can even abandon teaching.

However, there is a time when the relationship is based on love. The love of students is, for some teachers, the reason that they are engaged in teaching profession

III.2. Abnormal cases in relationship

In interacting with the class, teachers are attracted by some students and reject others. Sometimes the teacher is indifferent (neutral). This attraction can be either between teacher and one student or between teacher with a group of students (a class). We often listen to some teachers who say: this is my favorite class and this other else is unsympathetic.

***The "darling" of the teacher*:** The reasons that the student is "darling" are not very accurate. However, they can be classified into two categories:
- remembering his childhood: the child who he was, he would liked have it means, a particular image of childhood of teacher.

-Erotic relationship : the attraction that teacher has with his student is based on sex .

***The rejected student*:** The student can be rejected by the teacher without any reason but simply because he is not in his relational style . Here other students are not concerned(they don't reject their peer. It happens also that even the hall class rejects him. In that case, he is a student with bad behavior, character.

All those abnormalities show deviations, because, as we have seen, good relationship   is one that is the same, fulfilling for everyone. To avoid these differences the teacher must leave the

dual relationship and instead, encourage multiple relationships (to everyone).

III.3. Developing Positive Teacher-Student Relations

III.3.1.Importance of good relationship between teacher and his students

As we have said it, teachers who take the time to develop positive relationships with their students will see improvement in their students both academically, behaviorally, and emotionally. Students who have positive relationships with their teachers tend to put more effort in class and as a result improve their academic achievement. Teachers also see improvement in their students' behavior when they take the time to develop positive relationships with their students.

Positive relationships between students and teachers have positive academic affects. According to Pianta, 'close relationships with teachers lead to higher levels of students' engagement and achievement." (Pianta,1999) In his article, Deborah STIPEK reports that adolescents "work harder for teachers who treat them as individuals and express interest in their personal lives outside school." By building positive relationships with students, educators, can provide the motivation, initiative, and engagement which are essential for success. (Pianta, Stuhlman, & Hamre, 2002)

When teachers have positive relationships with their students, it affects the students' behavior in relation to school. Students who perceive their teachers as highly supportive have better attendance and avoid problem behavior. Positive student-teacher relationships involving students with high-incidence disabilities have a positive effect on conduct problems, delinquency, anxiety, and depression. (Murray, C. & Greenberg M. T., 2006)

III. 3.2.The role of affectivity
The affective dimension in the curriculum management is linked to the verbal and non-verbal behaviour of the teacher; as regards non-verbal postures, we are talking about ***proximity*** (teacher moving physically closer to the pupils to help them) and
receptivity (translated by the effort to look at and listen to the pupils). As for the verbal communication of the teacher, there are multiple positive facets to be assessed, such as ***oral incentives, support, feedback*** and ***praise.***

For LEITE & al. (2005), effective teachers

- ❖ encourage pupils to carry out tasks, showing positive expectations about their potential;
- ❖ help and collaborate in the understanding of content (repeating, making an effort to be clear), solving problems, in carrying out the task;
- ❖ Respect the abilities and characteristics of the pupils, leading them to actively take part in the process, to reflect and learn from their own mistakes;
- ❖ involve the pupils in the decisions and choices made in the lesson, both as regards the *structure of the curricular activities* (some optional contents, teaching and learning methods, processes and assessment moments, etc), and as regards *the structure of the social relations* (definition of rules, debate on non-compliance, decisions regarding penalties for infractions, etc.);
- ❖ do not marginalise, stigmatise or ridicule pupils or exclude anybody from.
- ❖ Tell students directly that you believe that they have the ability to do well. Your belief in them will inspire their success.
- ❖ Make sure that you give all students chances to participate in class. Try to increase the amount of time you wait between asking a student a question and moving on by either answering the question yourself or calling on another student
- ❖ Correcting Students in a constructive way

III.3.3. Other characteristics of a teacher as class manager

Characteristics established in the classroom can be considered responsible for the positive or negative feelings of the pupils:

III.3.1. The teacher's style of relation.

In lessons in which the pupil feels satisfied and happy, an understanding relation is built, above all one which includes comprehension and trust. You understand students saying for example: "This lesson made me feel good, as if I was at home.

The ideal situation, for many of the interviewees is a teacher "(…) who knows how to have fun and a joke but who is able to command respect at the same time." Humour, when

integrated into the teaching content, leads to better learning, arouses interests, makes tasks more enjoyable and enables the involvement of the pupil in the learning.

But these aspects are definitively linked to the management of verbal and non-verbal communication, the methodologies used by the teachers and the content itself. Descriptions such as the following express this view: "*Me, in the Visual and Technical Education lesson felt good because I didn't know how to draw a face and I asked the teacher and she explained how to do it very well. He came to me, was very friendly and had a lot of patience.*" The positive feedback of the teacher's initiative is another communicative factor that satisfies the pupil, having a big impact on their self esteem.

III. 3.2.The teacher's personal characteristics.

Teacher's characteristics that pointed out and valued positively in this sample are follows: kindness, calmness, tolerance, patience, comprehension, respect, fairness, equality, justice and impartiality. These characteristics, as well as the teacher's values and attitudes, have considerable weight in the relation that is established in the classroom and intertwine with the learning and positive feelings of the pupils. Many of these aspects are clearly outlined by one of pupils: "*In lessons where I considered that I learned more and where I felt satisfied and happy the teacher was kind, caring (...), looked at everybody in an equal light (...) and treated all the pupils the same way. The teacher considered us all equal, did not get angry with the pupils and did not have favourites*".

These are teachers who are there to help, show understanding, give everybody the same chance to take part and are fair: "there was no injustice: '*if I was the first to put up my hand it was me who would speak (...)*"; "*(...) the teacher was fair to everybody and let all the pupils go to the blackboard (...)*".

III. 3.3. If you are a teacher,

Don't try to be the best friend of your students. While it is good to have a positive relationship with your students, you are the authority figure and you need to act like it to garner the respect you deserve. By trying too hard to be their friend, you send a signal that it's okay to treat you like they treat their friends. This probably is not what you really want. **It may be hard to discipline the students if they are used to palling around with you**.

Don't be a task master. The Authoritarian teaching style is one of the least effective according to most research. If you are too busy yelling or being stern, you miss many opportunities to listen and earn respect. No one really wants to be that teacher all the students fear. Stick to your guns, but don't be totally inflexible.

Smile at them and actually listen. Eye contact is a great way to show them that you respect them and their respect for you will grow as well. When you are talking with a student, put all other things aside to let them know that what they have to say is important to you.

Respect is reciprocal. You may think that being a teacher automatically means the students must respect you and your ways. This couldn't be farther from the truth. While it would be ideal, you need to earn the respect of your students just as you respect them if they earn it as well.

Develop a sense of inclusion and belonging by:

- ❖ ensuring that there are experiences which guarantee success – however small
- ❖ encouraging students to take a responsibility and giving positive feedback for this .
- ❖ using the word 'we' and 'our' to include not to exclude
- ❖ avoiding unfavorable comparisons or put downs
- ❖ avoiding self-fulfilling prophecies
- ❖ doing everything possible to avoid sanctions that are about exclusion
- ❖ welcoming students back if they have been absent
- ❖ speaking about the student positively to others

Another aspect related to the management of the interactions concerns the instilling of discipline. The way the teacher exercises this control is crucial for the success or failure of the pedagogical relation.

III.4. **Authority and discipline**

III.4.1.Teacher's authority

Due to the fact that the teacher is in the role of the manager of the class, they require power in another form, the authority to influence student behavior. This could be termed "teacher authority." Teacher authority is, in a sense, "the right to ask others to do something." As teachers we need to ask students to do many things in a day, and we need to make our requests out of some basis of authority. Without it, we would have little efficacy. Let us talk about important types of teacher' authority.

III.4.1.1.Attractive (Referent) Authority

When the teachers relie on their personality, relationship building, or the fact that they share common interests with students, they could be said to be using *attractive authority*. Attractive authority can be developed through getting to know and emotionally investing in students. Attractive authority can also come as a result of the teacher having a personality that is perceived by the students as pleasing, such as being likeable, funny or charming. It is natural, for students to want to follow and respect those that have qualities that are judged to be "cool."

III.4.1.2.Expert Authority

When the teacher is perceived as being knowledgeable in the subject, well prepared, or intelligent, he posses what could be called *expert authority*. Expert authority is driven by the students' desire to know. Some of this form of power comes from a natural human deference for those who are perceived as wise, or posses what could be called "intellectual capital."

III.4.1.3.Reward Authority

Teachers have the ability to reward their students in many forms. Those rewards are usually employed to influence student behavior. This form of influence could be termed reward authority. Various forms of what could be considered "rewards" are used by teacher: grades, recognition, prizes, praise, etc. The notion of rewarding student behavior can be potentially effective but there are vastly different effects from different kinds of rewards.

III.4.1.4.Coercive Authority

The teacher has in his power the right to use disincentives, and give consequences or punishments to students. When they do this we could say that they are exercising their *coercive authority*.

III.4.1.5.Position (Legitimate) Authority

By virtue of the fact that the teacher is in the position of "the teacher," they have authority. The governance of the school places each teacher in a position of responsibility for the management of the students in the class. Likewise in the role of teacher is the assumption of have authority. There is no other person in the classroom that can fulfill the duties of the teacher.

To be effective teacher can incorporate at least some amount of each of these types of authority. However, each teacher must thoughtfully consider the use of each of them within their goals and personality. Each form will produce different effects on the socially constructed classroom reality and lead to different sorts of results with students. For the most part, they are not mutually exclusive. One could utilize a higher or lower degree of any or all of them simultaneously

III.4.2.School discipline

This is the system of rules, punishments and behavioral strategies appropriate to the regulation of children and the maintenance of order in schools. Its aim is to create a safe and conducive learning environment in the classroom.

A disciplined student is **in compliance with the school rules and codes of conduct.** These rules may, for example, define the expected standards of clothing, timekeeping, social behaviour and work ethic. The term *discipline* is also applied to the **punishment** that is the consequence of breaking the rules. The aim of discipline is to set reasonable limits which protect students from harm and teach them what is safe and what is not.

 Punishments as method used to maintain discipline

Punishments are the mean used for correcting and redressing the behaviors in order to train learner in school or social rules. For the majority of people, imposed punishments are necessary to change young people's behavior, and then once someone is punished the same behavior would not be repeated. For other people however, punishments cannot be used.

MARVIN, M(2002) criticize punishment :

❖ Punishments operate on the theory young people must experience pain in order to grow into responsibility. We are expecting people whom we "intentionally hurt" to act constructively thereafter. People cannot however think positively with negative feelings. People do "good" when they feel good. Imposed punishments can force compliance but never commitment

❖ Punishments are adult-dependent, rather than self-dependent. In schools, the threat of punishments may pressure a student to act appropriately in one class but has no effect on the way the young person interacts with others outside of that class. In addition, because punishments are teacher-dependent, their use is inconsistently applied. What is a punishable offense by one teacher is not by another.

❖ Punishments are based on avoidance, a negative response. It stirs primal feelings of fear, fleeing, or fighting. Such emotions are counterproductive to the learning process. In schools, their use automatically puts the student and teacher in adversarial roles, which usually has predictable results:

❖ Punishments diminish the person's motivation to learn. They kill the very thing we are attempting to do, instead, they motivate the student to learn what the teacher desires. In addition, very sensitive youth retreat into feelings of low self-esteem where they begin thinking they are truly bad.

❖ The reality is that imposed punishments bring feelings of satisfaction to the punisher but have little lasting effect on the punished. In other words, Punishments are reinforcing for the punisher because they demonstrate and help to maintain dominance

❖ The only time imposed punishments may be effective is when the person being punished:

1) Respects and cares for the person doing the punishing and

2) Understands that the punishment is in his or her own best interest. But in the vast majority of cases, imposed punishments engender enmity, not responsibility. To conclude about punishments we can say that in reality punishments exist but they must have some qualities:

- ❖ The punishment is a pedagogical help only when it is given in love, and not by revenge
- ❖ The punishment must be proportionate to the misconduct behavior
- ❖ The punishment has importance if it is followed by the significant message.
- ❖ The punishment must be given immediately after the fault.
- ❖ The punished person must be aware of his fault.
- ❖ Adults must avoid very strong punishments because they can create ambivalence

There are different types of punishments:

Corporal punishment

Throughout the history of education the most common means of maintaining discipline in schools was corporal punishment. While a child was in school, a teacher was expected to act as a substitute parent, with many forms of parental discipline or rewards open to them. Corporal punishment in schools has now disappeared from most Western countries, including all European countries. Thirty U.S. states have banned it; the others (mostly in the South) have not.

Detention

Detention is one of the most common punishments in schools in the United States, Britain, Ireland, Singapore, Canada, Australia and some other countries. It requires the pupil to remain in school during a specified time on a school day (such as lunch, recess or after school).

Suspension

Suspension or **temporary exclusion** is assigned to a student as a form of punishment that can last anywhere from one day to several weeks, during which time the student cannot attend regular lessons. The student's parents/guardians are notified of the reason for and

duration of the out-of-school suspension. In American schools there are often two types of suspension: In-School Suspension (ISS) and Out-of-School Suspension (OSS). School suspension requires the student to report to school as normal, but sit in a special room all day. Out-of-school suspension suspends the student from being on school grounds.

Exclusion

Exclusion, expulsion, is the removal of a student permanently from the school. This is the ultimate last resort, when all other methods of discipline have failed. However, in extreme situations, it may also be used for a single offense. Some education authorities have a nominated school in which all excluded students are collected; this typically has a much higher staffing level than mainstream schools. In some US public schools, expulsions and exclusions are so serious that they require an appearance before the Board of Education. In the UK, head teachers may make the decision to exclude, but the student's parents have the right of appeal to the local education authority.

III.5. Violence at school and prevention of conflicts

III.5.1. Violence

III.5.1.1.Introduction

What is school violence? School violence is any form of violent activity or activities inside the school premises. It includes bullying, physical abuses, verbal abuses, brawl, shooting etc. Bullying and physical abuses are the most common forms of violence that is associated with school violence. However extreme cases such as shooting and murder have also been listed as school violence.

There are many reasons for school violence. It is mainly because of bullies inside the school premises. These bullies try to dominate and tame other students which could end up in a fight that could go overboard. However bullies and arrogant children are not the only reasons for school violence to happen. Parents, teachers, school authorities and friends have their share in influencing school violence.

If you see the influence of parents in school violence then they have the maximum contribution. If the parents are not responsible and caring towards their children then it is obvious that their child will grow to be an arrogant child because the child feels neglected. So it is very important that a parent gives sufficient care and love to their children in order to make sure that their child grows with a proper attitude. They need not do something special to make their child happy. Just a simple pat on the back, words of praise and appreciation, fulfilling their small desires and needs can very well do the trick for you. The only important thing for a parent is to be responsible.

Coming to the influence of teachers in school violence, they have the same amount of contribution as that of a parent. A child spends nearly eight hours at school and he is under the vigil of the teachers. So it is very important that these eight hours are spent in a favorable atmosphere. The teachers should make sure that the child is not under any sort of disturbances from other bullies inside the class or do not have any problem that could possibly rise the instances of a school violence. If a teacher finds a bully child in the classroom then it is his responsibility to rectify the bully characteristics in that bully child. In all, it can be summed up that teachers should be responsible and fair in their approach.

Friends have a major contribution as well. A good quality circle of friends will mean that the child is growing in a healthy environment and the chances of him being rude or arrogant are very less and thereby eliminating chances of school violence. However if the friends are bad then it would be very difficult for an adolescent child to develop a proper attitude. Hence such bad company of friends should be avoided by the child in order to en

III.5.1.2. other violent behaviors at school

- ❖ To hit a teacher when he reprimands
- ❖ Leave the class without permission to express opposition
- ❖ Interrupting the teacher by noise
- ❖ Insult the teacher
- ❖ Insult a student

❖ Eat　　　or　　　drink　　　in　　　the　　　class
etc.

All these acts demonstrate either verbal or physical violence. These are behaviors that can trouble teachers even students. These are behaviors that disrupt the class. Violence in primary school is less visible, less worrying than that found in high schools, but it is also more dangerous because it has many consequences for children. Violence grows with age: at the primary level, violence is a refusal of constraints, but in high schools there may be violence　　　with　　　intention　　　to　　　harm.

III.5.1.3.　　　Forms　　　of　　　Violence

❖ Verbal Abuse

❖ Rebellion (the various forms of opposition

❖ Physical violence (hitting, discrimination,…) they are manifested in the form of –

❖ Rejection of some children / group of children.

❖ Destruction: graffiti (writing on the wall), throwing objects of peers, urinating anywhere

❖ Threats: racketeer someone (forcing him to give something in order to survive).

❖ Violence against oneself. Example: to refuse to interact with others, depression, etc

❖ Substance abuse (drug abuse), suicide, etc

*III.5.1.4.Causes of violence***:**

Home environment

The home environment is thought to contribute to school violence. The Constitutional Rights Foundation shows that long-term exposure to <u>gun</u> violence, parental <u>alcoholism</u>, <u>domestic violence</u>, physical abuse of the child, and child sexual abuse are sources of violent activities

in children. Harsh parental discipline is associated with higher levels of aggressiveness in youth. There is some evidence indicating that exposure to television violence and, to violent video games is related to increased aggressiveness in children, which, in turn, may carry over into school.

<u>Neighborhood environment</u>

Neighborhoods and communities provide the context for school violence. Communities with high rates of crime and drug use teach youth the violent behaviors that are carried into schools. Dilapidated housing in the neighborhood of the school has been found to be associated with school violence. Teacher assault was more likely to occur in schools located in high-crime neighborhoods.

Exposure to deviant peers is a risk factor for high levels of aggressivity. Research has shown that and high population densities are associated with higher rates of school violence.

Research have indicated that children's exposure to community violence during the early elementary school years increases the risk of aggression later in elementary school, as reported by teachers and classmates. Other researches indicated that exposure to gun violence in early adolescence is related to the initiation of serious physical violence in later adolescence. Neighborhood gangs are thought to contribute to dangerous school environments. Gangs use the social environment of the school to recruit members and interact with opposing groups, with gang violence carrying over from neighborhoods into some schools.

<u>School environment</u>

Here the causes of violence are related to schools: they are related to school systems, the type of relationship with the school (how the teacher manages the class,…) teaching practices of teachers which are not favorable to students, for example, the use of those methods which don't allow students to be active, etc.

III.5.2. Prevention and intervention on violence and conflicts

The important intervention is to stop school violence from occurring.

Improve social and cultural conditions in order to reduce violence regardless of where the violence occurs. Examples include reducing <u>media violence</u>, reshaping social <u>norms</u>, and restructuring <u>educational systems</u>.

Enhance students' social and emotional development

- increases empathy
- improves emotional awareness and management
- reduces aggressive orientations and hostile attributions

Create a safe learning environment

- decreases anti-social behavior that leads to violence
- decreases conflicts between groups of students
- decreases suspensions, absenteeism, and dropout rates

Create a Constructive Learning Environment

- improves school climate
- improves classroom climate
- improves academic achievement

The teacher must also pay attention to certain things to avoid conflicts and thus prevent good relations with his students.

Planning rules and procedures

From the beginning of the school year, students should be aware of the behaviors expected of them because it was found that rules introduced at the beginning are more efficient. Teachers must show that whenever the rules are violated, there are always consequences, they must recall and explain it again to their students. Effective teachers must be careful in planning rules, by avoiding abuse with details. Rules must also be clear and negotiated and all the actors have to stick to.

Adopt good Attitudes as teacher

The teacher reflects certain values and attitudes which may affect student outcomes. Effective attitudes are those that give students the opportunity to improve and succeed, those that do not frustrate the students. If the level of achievement of success can lead to

frustrations the teacher is required to avoid them. To improve relationships with students, according to ROFFEY, (2007), a teacher can give students autonomy and opportunities for decision making, "by giving them choices in assignments, engaging them in developing classroom rules, and encouraging them to express their opinions in classroom discussions. It is also important to get to know your students by learning what they enjoy to do outside of school, such as hobbies or sports. Other methods of improving methods of positive relationships between students and teachers could be to organize nonacademic extracurricular activities for students and teachers to participate together, have students and teacher eat lunch together in small groups a few times a week, having homeroom teachers act as advisors for students

Teacher incentives, tolerant, supportive, warm, not frustrating, confident, flexible, have the advantage of influencing the success and well-being of their students.

The enthusiasm of teachers

It can be manifested to different ways: the speed of the voice, changes in intonation, eye movement, gestures vocabulary and so alive. Therefore, students whose teachers are committed are more motivated and more likely to learn better.

Acceptance of students 'ideas:

It is important that teachers give respect and consideration to students' contributions. It is a sign that teacher takes care of students and that attitude will enable the students to take initiatives and this may affect their activity and reduce their anxiety.

The spirit of communication:

As it has been seen before, in terms of communication effective teachers are often humorous and often tell their personal stories during their presentation, they tend to talk to students and longer if possible individually.

The supervision of student work:

The teacher in his classroom has to maximize students' engagement in their task. Effective teachers, are those who exercise constant supervision, Particular emphasis is placed on supervision during individual work. They easily know more about difficulties and students'

needs and finally they know how to. adapt the lesson to students 'level.-Teachers monitor the class or group

-Teachers may also pay attention to individual students

-Teachers keep vigilance against the class

The relationship with parents

Effective teachers inform parents that homework is important and give advice on how to help students to work at home. But also, the same advice is given regarding discipline. The most general observation is that it's not often that teachers invite parents to observe their children at school.

CHAPTERIV: LEARNING PROCESS
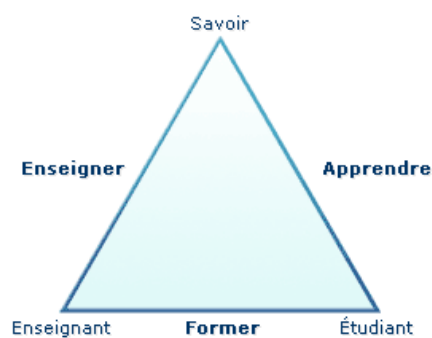
The emphasis is put on axis students and knowledge. The role of the teacher consist on facilitating the students on the appropriation of this knowledge. We say that in this case teacher is only the guide, the facilitator. There are different and complementary theories which explain how students succeed in their learning: behaviorism, cognitivism, and constructivism. Behaviorism focuses only on the objectively observable aspects of learning. Cognitive theories look beyond behavior to explain brain-based learning. And constructivism views learning as a process in which the learner actively constructs or builds new ideas or concepts.

IV.1 Different theories of learning

IV.1.1 Cognitive theory of learning

The Cognitive Learning Theory explains why the brain is the most incredible network of information processing and interpretation in the body as we learn things

According to cognitivists, when we talk about "learning", we usually mean "to think using the brain". This basic concept of learning is the main viewpoint in the Cognitive Learning

Theory .The theory has been used to explain mental processes as they are influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors, which eventually bring about learning in an individual.

Cognitive Learning Theory implies that the different processes concerning learning can be explained by analyzing the mental processes first. It posits that **with effective cognitive processes, learning is easier** and new information can be stored in the memory for a long time. On the other hand, ineffective cognitive processes result to learning difficulties that can be seen anytime during the lifetime of an individual.

IV.1.2. Behaviorist theory of learning

As it is known, when we talk about behaviorism we remember two types of conditioning. By **classical conditioning**, experiences has shown that when an organism is placed in conditions which stimulate him the change of behavior is automatic; meaning that a **stimulus** is enough to provoke **a response**.

In operant conditioning, on the contrary, to obtain a response an organism must do some operations and by using **reinforcements** such rewards and if necessary punishments, the wished **response** will occur.

IV.1.3. Constructive theory of learning

The learning theories of Jean Piaget, Jerome Bruner, Lev Vygotsky and John Dewey serve as the foundation of constructivist learning theory. Learning is not the same as remembering; it is an active "meaning- making" process. Only information that has been structured and organized by the students can pass into the Long Term Memory and can be used in real life. This organization process is helped by doing rather than listening.

Constructivism views learning as a process in which the **learner actively constructs or builds new ideas or concepts** based upon current and past knowledge or experience. In other words, "learning involves constructing one's own knowledge from one's own experiences." Constructivist learning, therefore, is a very personal endeavor, whereby internalized concepts, rules, and general principles may consequently be applied in a practical real-world context. This is also known as social constructivism .

Social constructivists posit that knowledge is constructed when individuals engage **socially** in talk and activity about **shared problems or tasks**. Learning is seen as the process by which individuals are introduced to a culture by more skilled members".

Constructivism itself has many variations, such as <u>active learning</u>**, <u>discovery learning, and knowledge building</u>**. Regardless of the variety, constructivism promotes a student's free exploration within a given framework or structure. The teacher acts as a facilitator who encourages students to discover principles for themselves and to construct knowledge by working to solve realistic problems. Aspects of constructivism can be found in self-directed learning, transformational learning, experiential learning, situated cognition, and reflective practice and religious practice.

IV.1.3.1. Conceptions/ Representations of learners

Students are never "totally empty" while facing a new learning. In fact, they posses always an already known, that is a certain idea about the notions to be approached, an opinion against which the teacher is often brought to fight. It is said that they are a spontaneous conception or representation of it.

 What is the origin of these representations?

Several hypotheses coexist about the origins of these representations: practice, the popular culture(that would recapitulate mistakes of the past), the teaching itself(the teacher himself/herself convey the representations),…

Representations are seen as very resistant, because they often become more developed since the childhood and, some survive sometimes until the adult age, even for an expert. JONNAERT (1988), finds that a person who learns **constructs his/her knowledge from his/her "already known"**, meaning from the set of his/her knowledge and past representations. According to him, a student arrive at school with knowledge either acquired out of the school, or acquired out of the school, or acquired during the previous school activities. ASTOLFI (1995), show as that even if "the already known" ca be scientifically false, it serves as an efficient and functional explanation system fo the learners.

IV.1.3.2. The socio-cognitive conflict: explicative process of the progress

In a class, pupils give different responses during interaction. These differences generate the process of socio-cognitive conflict that can be summarized as follows:

Different responses, either both are wrong or one is wrong and the other is right provoking a double disequilibrium: **inter-individual disequilibrium** between the individuals whose responses oppose them; **intra-individual disequilibrium** resulting from the consciousness of another response inviting to doubt his own response. But the problem to solve is not reducible to a socio-cognitive conflict. **It is the social fundamental nature of the activity that forces individuals to coordinate their points of view to reach the consensus**. Wanting to overcome the inter-individual cognitive disequilibrium: children who have participated in certain social coordinations become then capable of doing these coordination alone (Mugny and Doise, 1983). The progress is done by internalization of new inter-individual coordination whose resolution of socio-cognitive conflict is mandatory.

The constructive power of socio-cognitive conflict shows the important role of the social interactions, this time between peers in the cognitive development. The later s facilitated by the regulation of the socio-cognitive conflict. Students must actively engage themselves in the socio-cognitive regulation, accept to confront their different responses and coordinate their points of view.

At this point, people asked themselves whether the existence of affiliated relations between partners was not of the nature to facilitate such dynamics. In fact, it is well known that affective as well as relational regulations that precede collective work have an influence on the way work relations and interactions are organized. Empirical data confirm that the existence of affiliated relations facilitate the establishment of effective socio-cognitive regulations and the improvement of individual competences.

An attentive analysis of the interactions shows that, in some cases, the common resolution of a task can contribute to the restructuring of affinity relations (Hartup, 1988). In fact, it happens more often that it is at collaborative occasions at work, not however wanted before, that the privileged relations are tied.

IV.1.3.3. Learners' errors according to different learning theories

Research conducted by ASTOLFI (1997) lead us to identify two main points of view concerning errors.

*Errors are negative in the transmissive and behaviorist models.

Behaviorist and transmissive models believe in a natural acquisition of knowledge.

For transmissive model, learning is efficient if students have listen to the teacher, by observing all demonstrations done in the class; if they have paid attention to all his explanations,…

For behavioral model, also, a student who has been stimulated with concrete examples, rewards, and other types of motivations during his learning, he must absolutely succeed. If students do errors whereas they have been facilitated, those errors are regarded as failures of learning and that can be explained in two ways: Firstly, the teacher is judged incompetent because he is not able to motivate, to stimulate his students; secondly, there are students who are responsible to their failure in that way they have not been attentive.

* Errors are positive in constructive model

The way to consider the error has changed. Researchers generally moved from a negative conception to another conception where error is indicator of learning process and as a witness to identify students' difficulties.

Without denying that there are errors due to inattention or lack of interest, researchers have shown that it is possible to use the errors to understand how students build their understanding and found a better educational intervention. ASTOLFI(1997) affirms that "error is necessary and constitutive of knowledge". He wants to show that instead of a considering errors as a deviation from the norm, it is important to seek to understand the logic of the error and exploit it to improve learning.

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