NATURE AND CONDITIONS OF LEARNING pdf

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Committing and acting or rejecting and not acting. It is a well-worn term often used with little attention to meaning. In the twentieth century it was, arguably, the work of John Dewey that did much to help rescue the notion â€" although even he gave up on it after a long struggle Campbell Dewey distinguished between two senses of the word: Sometimes experience can be seen just in the former sense â€" as a sensation. Sometimes experience can be seen as a sensation. Perhaps the most helpful way of viewing it is as an act of consciousness, an encounter with signals from the senses. He had long believed experience had a strong social dimension. In Experience and Nature, he argued: Experience is already overlaid and saturated with the products of the reflection of past generations and by-gone ages. It is filled with interpretations, classifications, due to sophisticated thought, which have become incorporated Dewey Interestingly, cognitive researchers have generally held on to the idea of experience as part of the way of making sense of the process of learning while incorporating the social. Reflective thinking John Dewey took as his starting point practical, material life, activity. He saw non-reflective experience based on habits as a dominant form of experience. He set out five phases or aspects. Suggestions, in which the mind leaps forward to a possible solution. An intellectualization of the difficulty or perplexity that has been felt directly experienced into a problem to be solved. The use of one suggestion after another as a leading idea, or hypothesis, to initiate and guide observation and other operations in collection of factual material. The mental elaboration of the idea, or supposition as an idea or supposition reasoning, in the sense in which reasoning is a part, not the whole, of inference. Testing the hypothesis by overt, or imaginative action. Later writers such as Boud, Keogh and Walker made emotions more central. Returning to experience â€" that is to say recalling or detailing salient events. Attending to or connecting with feelings â€" this has two aspects: However, it is still a normative model, a process that the writers think should happen. It does not describe what may actually be happening when learning. For example, as Cinnamond and Zimpher Furthermore, do things happen in neat phases or steps? Making connections To be fair to John Dewey, he did appreciate that thinking may not proceed in nice, clear steps, and that the elements he identified in reflective thought are interconnected. While Dewey talked of phases it is more helpful to think of these as processes that are, in effect, occurring concurrently. Nearly a hundred year later, thanks to advances in cognitive science, we have a better understanding of what might be going on. It is becoming quite clear that the brain learns and changes as it learns. The brain learns when challenged. Merriam and Bierema But each of those links is relatively weak. Young brains can rearrange themselves effortlessly as new experiences pour in. As we grow older, the brain connections that we use a lot become swifter and more efficient, and they cover longer distances. Older brains are much less flexible. Their structure has changed from meandering, narrow pathways to straight-ahead, long-distance information superhighways. As we get older our brains can still change, but they are more likely to change only under pressure, and with effort and attention. Older brains are designed to exploit â€" to move quickly to what works. There is a basic tension between exploration and exploitation Cohen et. Framing and acting or not acting One of the important aspects of the taxonomies of outcomes we explored earlier is that they take us beyond the cognitive domain knowledge. To function well in the world, we must attend to the affective attitudes and feelings , psychomotor manual or physical skills , and relational. If learning is fully about change we have to connect reflection with acting â€" and with our mindset or frame of reference what social pedagogues describe as haltung. We must frame our reflection and action. For Aristotle, this meant being guided by a moral disposition to act truly and rightly; a concern to further human well-being and the good life. This is what the ancient Greeks called phronesis and requires an understanding of other people. It also involves moving between the particular and the general. The mark of a prudent man [is] to be able to deliberate rightly about what is good and what is advantageous for himself; not in particular respects, e. It is something we engage in as human beings and it is directed at other human beings. The practical â€" making judgements Acting. As can be seen from the diagram above, the outcome of the process of making judgements is a further process â€” interaction with others, tools etc. In traditional product definitions of learning this could be called behaviour. It might be that people decide not to change their behaviour or thinking â€” they carry on as they were. Alternatively, there could be a decision to change something. Classically this process involves developing pathways and strategies to meet goals; and deciding what might work best. Putting the plan into action. Evaluating and try again. Here we go back to where we began â€” return to experience; reflect and building understandings; frame; and act. Smith forthcoming I have brought these elements together in a simple diagram. The process of learning is inherently social. We engage with experiences, reflect upon them, frame them consciously or not , and act or not. These processes are inevitably infused with the nature of the environment and experiences. Consciousness of learning One of the significant questions that arises is the extent to which people are conscious of what is going on. Are they aware that they are engaged in learning â€" and what significance does it have if they are? One particularly helpful way of approaching the area has been formulated by Alan Rogers Drawing especially on the work of those who study the learning of language for example, Krashen , Rogers sets out two contrasting approaches: Task-conscious or acquisition learning. Acquisition learning is seen as going on all the time. Examples include much of the learning involved in parenting or with running a home. Some have referred to this kind of learning as unconscious or implicit. In other words, whilst the learner may not be conscious of learning, they are usually aware of the specific task in hand. Learning-conscious or formalized learning. Formalized learning arises from the process of facilitating learning. To this extent there is a consciousness of learning â€" people are aware that the task they are engaged in entails learning. It involves guided episodes of learning. When approached in this way it becomes clear that these contrasting ways of learning can appear in the same context. Both are present in schools. Both are present in families. It is possible to think of the mix of acquisition and formalized learning as forming a continuum. At one extreme lie those unintentional and usually accidental learning events which occur continuously as we walk through life. Next comes incidental learning â€" unconscious learning through acquisition methods which occurs during some other activityâ€¦ Then there are various activities in which we are somewhat more conscious of learning, experiential activities arising from immediate life-related concerns, though even here the focus is still on the taskâ€¦ Then come more purposeful activities â€" occasions where we set out to learn something in a more systematic way, using whatever comes to hand for that purpose, but often deliberately disregarding engagement with teachers and formal institutions of learningâ€¦ Further along the continuum lie the self-directed learning projects on which there is so much literatureâ€¦ More formalized and generalized and consequently less contextualized forms of learning are the distance and open education programmes, where some elements of acquisition learning are often built into the designed learning programme. Towards the further extreme lie more formalized learning programmes of highly decontextualized learning, using material common to all the learners without paying any regard to their individual preferences, agendas or needs. There are of course no clear boundaries between each of these categories. Learning theory The focus on process obviously takes us into the realm of learning theories â€" ideas about how or why change occurs.

2: Classical Conditioning | Simply Psychology

The nature and conditions of learning. [Howard L Kingsley] -- Simply written and well organized, this book could be used by students after one course in general psychology and is an adequate textbook in educational psychology.

Teaching Should Be Consistent With the Nature of Scientific Inquiry Science, mathematics, and technology are defined as much by what they do and how they do it as they are by the results they achieve. To understand them as ways of thinking and doing, as well as bodies of knowledge, requires that students have some experience with the kinds of thought and action that are typical of those fields. Teachers, therefore, should do the following: Start With Questions About Nature Sound teaching usually begins with questions and phenomena that are interesting and familiar to students, not with abstractions or phenomena outside their range of perception, understanding, or knowledge. Engage Students Actively Students need to have many and varied opportunities for collecting, sorting and cataloging; observing, note taking and sketching; interviewing, polling, and surveying; and using hand lenses, microscopes, thermometers, cameras, and other common instruments. They should dissect; measure, count, graph, and compute; explore the chemical properties of common substances; plant and cultivate; and systematically observe the social behavior of humans and other animals. Among these activities, none is more important than measurement, in that figuring out what to measure, what instruments to use, how to check the correctness of measurements, and how to configure and make sense out of the results are at the heart of much of science and engineering. This puts a premium, just as science does, on careful observation and thoughtful analysis. Students need guidance, encouragement, and practice in collecting, sorting, and analyzing evidence, and in building arguments based on it. However, if such activities are not to be destructively boring, they must lead to some intellectually satisfying payoff that students care about. Provide Historical Perspectives During their school years, students should encounter many scientific ideas presented in historical context. It matters less which particular episodes teachers select in addition to the few key episodes presented in Chapter 10 than that the selection represent the scope and diversity of the scientific enterprise. Students can develop a sense of how science really happens by learning something of the growth of scientific ideas, of the twists and turns on the way to our current understanding of such ideas, of the roles played by different investigators and commentators, and of the interplay between evidence and theory over time. It is important, for example, for students to become aware that women and minorities have made significant contributions in spite of the barriers put in their way by society; that the roots of science, mathematics, and technology go back to the early Egyptian, Greek, Arabic, and Chinese cultures; and that scientists bring to their work the values and prejudices of the cultures in which they live. Insist on Clear Expression Effective oral and written communication is so important in every facet of life that teachers of every subject and at every level should place a high priority on it for all students. Use a Team Approach The collaborative nature of scientific and technological work should be strongly reinforced by frequent group activity in the classroom. Scientists and engineers work mostly in groups and less often as isolated investigators. Similarly, students should gain experience sharing responsibility for learning with each other. In the process of coming to common understandings, students in a group must frequently inform each other about procedures and meanings, argue over findings, and assess how the task is progressing. In the context of team responsibility, feedback and communication become more realistic and of a character very different from the usual individualistic textbook-homework-recitation approach. The nature of inquiry depends on what is being investigated, and what is learned depends on the methods used. Science teaching that attempts solely to impart to students the accumulated knowledge of a field leads to very little understanding and certainly not to the development of intellectual independence and facility. Science teachers should help students to acquire both scientific knowledge of the world and scientific habits of mind at the same time. Deemphasize the Memorization of Technical Vocabulary Understanding rather than vocabulary should be the main purpose of science teaching. Some technical terms are therefore helpful for everyone, but the number of essential ones is relatively small. If teachers introduce technical terms only as needed to clarify thinking and promote effective communication, then students will gradually build a functional vocabulary that will survive beyond the next test. For teachers to concentrate on vocabulary, however, is to detract from science as a process, to put learning for understanding in jeopardy, and to risk being misled about what students have learned. Science Teaching Should Reflect Scientific Values Science is more than a body of knowledge and a way of accumulating and validating that knowledge. It is also a social activity that incorporates certain human values. However, they are all highly characteristic of the scientific endeavor. In learning science, students should encounter such values as part of their experience, not as empty claims. This suggests that teachers should strive to do the following: Welcome Curiosity Science, mathematics, and technology do not create curiosity. Thus, science teachers should encourage students to raise questions about the material being studied, help them learn to frame their questions clearly enough to begin to search for answers, suggest to them productive ways for finding answers, and reward those who raise and then pursue unusual but relevant questions. In the science classroom, wondering should be as highly valued as knowing. Reward Creativity Scientists, mathematicians, and engineers prize the creative use of imagination. Encourage a Spirit of Healthy Questioning Science, mathematics, and engineering prosper because of the institutionalized skepticism of their practitioners. In science classrooms, it should be the normal practice for teachers to raise such questions as: How do we know? What is the evidence? What is the argument that interprets the evidence? Are there alternative explanations or other ways of solving the problem that could be better? The aim should be to get students into the habit of posing such questions and framing answers. Avoid Dogmatism Students should experience science as a process for extending understanding, not as unalterable truth. This means that teachers must take care not to convey the impression that they themselves or the textbooks are absolute authorities whose conclusions are always correct. By dealing with the credibility of scientific claims, the overturn of accepted scientific beliefs, and what to make out of disagreements among scientists, science teachers can help students to balance the necessity for accepting a great deal of science on faith against the importance of keeping an open mind. Promote Aesthetic Responses Many people regard science as cold and uninteresting. However, a scientific understanding of, say, the formation of stars, the blue of the sky, or the construction of the human heart need not displace the romantic and spiritual meanings of such phenomena. Teachers of science, mathematics, and technology should establish a learning environment in which students are able to broaden and deepen their response to the beauty of ideas, methods, tools, structures, objects, and living organisms. Science Teaching Should Aim to Counteract Learning Anxieties Teachers should recognize that for many students, the learning of mathematics and science involves feelings of severe anxiety and fear of failure. No doubt this results partly from what is taught and the way it is taught, and partly from attitudes picked up incidentally very early in schooling from parents and teachers who are themselves ill at ease with science and mathematics. Far from dismissing math and science anxiety as groundless, though, teachers should assure students that they understand the problem and will work with them to overcome it. Teachers can take such measures as the following: Build on Success Teachers should make sure that students have some sense of success in learning science and mathematics, and they should deemphasize getting all the right answers as being the main criterion of success. After all, science itself, as Alfred North Whitehead said, is never quite right. Understanding anything is never absolute, and it takes many forms. Provide Abundant Experience in Using Tools Many students are fearful of using laboratory instruments and other tools. This fear may result primarily from the lack of opportunity many of them have to become familiar with tools in safe circumstances. Girls in particular suffer from the mistaken notion that boys are naturally more adept at using tools. Starting in the earliest grades, all students should gradually gain familiarity with tools and the proper use of tools. By the time they finish school, all students should have had supervised experience with common hand tools, soldering irons, electrical meters, drafting tools, optical and sound equipment, calculators, and computers. Support the Roles of Girls and Minorities in Science Because the scientific and engineering professions have been predominantly male and white, female and minority students could easily get the impression that these fields are beyond them or are otherwise unsuited to them. Teachers should select learning materials that illustrate the contributions of women and minorities, bring in role models, and make it clear to female and minority students that they are expected to study the same subjects at the same level as everyone else and to perform as well. Emphasize Group Learning A group approach has motivational value apart from the need to use team learning as noted earlier to promote an understanding of how science and engineering work. Overemphasis on competition among students for high grades distorts what ought to be the prime motive for studying science: Competition among students in the science classroom may also result in many of them developing a dislike of science and losing their confidence in their ability to learn science. Science Teaching Should Extend Beyond the School Children learn from their parents, siblings, other relatives, peers, and adult authority figures, as well as from teachers. They learn from movies, television, radio, records, trade books and magazines, and home computers, and from going to museums and zoos, parties, club meetings, rock concerts, and sports events, as well as from schoolbooks and the school environment in general. Science teachers should exploit the rich resources of the larger community and involve parents and other concerned adults in useful ways. It is also important for teachers to recognize that some of what their students learn informally is wrong, incomplete, poorly understood, or misunderstood, but that formal education can help students to restructure that knowledge and acquire new knowledge. Teaching Should Take Its Time In learning science, students need time for exploring, for making observations, for taking wrong turns, for testing ideas, for doing things over again; time for building things, calibrating instruments, collecting things, constructing physical and mathematical models for testing ideas; time for learning whatever mathematics, technology, and science they may need to deal with the questions at hand; time for asking around, reading, and arguing; time for wrestling with unfamiliar and counterintuitive ideas and for coming to see the advantage in thinking in a different way. Moreover, any topic in science, mathematics, or technology that is taught only in a single lesson or unit is unlikely to leave a trace by the end of schooling. To take hold and mature, concepts must not just be presented to students from time to time but must be offered to them periodically in different contexts and at increasing levels of sophistication.

3: Chapter Effective Learning and Teaching

The five major sections of the book consider the fundamental nature of learning, fundamental principles of learning, improvement, the learning curve and physical handicaps to learning, forms of learning and retention and transfer of learning.

By Saul McLeod , updated Classical conditioning also known as Pavlovian conditioning is learning through association and was discovered by Pavlov , a Russian physiologist. In simple terms two stimuli are linked together to produce a new learned response in a person or animal. Everything from speech to emotional responses was simply patterns of stimulus and response. Watson denied completely the existence of the mind or consciousness. Watson believed that all individual differences in behavior were due to different experiences of learning. Classical Conditioning Examples There are three stages of classical conditioning. At each stage the stimuli and responses are given special scientific terms: In this respect, no new behavior has been learned yet. This stage also involves another stimulus which has no effect on a person and is called the neutral stimulus NS. The NS could be a person, object, place, etc. The neutral stimulus in classical conditioning does not produce a response until it is paired with the unconditioned stimulus. During this stage a stimulus which produces no response i. For example, a stomach virus UCS might be associated with eating a certain food such as chocolate CS. For classical conditioning to be effective, the conditioned stimulus should occur before the unconditioned stimulus, rather than after it, or during the same time. Thus, the conditioned stimulus acts as a type of signal or cue for the unconditioned stimulus. Often during this stage, the UCS must be associated with the CS on a number of occasions, or trials, for learning to take place. However, one trail learning can happen on certain occasions when it is not necessary for an association to be strengthened over time such as being sick after food poisoning or drinking too much alcohol. Did it also apply to humans? In a famous though ethically dubious experiment, Watson and Rayner showed that it did. Little Albert was a 9-month-old infant who was tested on his reactions to various stimuli. He was shown a white rat, a rabbit, a monkey and various masks. Albert described as "on the whole stolid and unemotional" showed no fear of any of these stimuli. However, what did startle him and cause him to be afraid was if a hammer was struck against a steel bar behind his head. The sudden loud noise would cause "little Albert to burst into tears. When Little Albert was just over 11 months old, the white rat was presented, and seconds later the hammer was struck against the steel bar. This was done seven times over the next seven weeks, and each time Little Albert burst into tears. By now little Albert only had to see the rat and he immediately showed every sign of fear. He would cry whether or not the hammer was hit against the steel bar and he would attempt to crawl away. In addition, the Watson and Rayner found that Albert developed phobias of objects which shared characteristics with the rat; including the family dog, a fur coat, some cotton wool and a Father Christmas mask! This process is known as generalization. Watson and Rayner had shown that classical conditioning could be used to create a phobia. A phobia is an irrational fear, i. Over the next few weeks and months, Little Albert was observed and ten days after conditioning his fear of the rat was much less marked. This dying out of a learned response is called extinction. However, even after a full month it was still evident, and the association could be renewed by repeating the original procedure a few times. Classical Conditioning in the Classroom The implications of classical conditioning in the classroom are less important than those of operant conditioning , but there is a still need for teachers to try to make sure that students associate positive emotional experiences with learning. If a student associates negative emotional experiences with school, then this can obviously have bad results, such as creating a school phobia. For example, if a student is bullied at school they may learn to associate the school with fear. It could also explain why some students show a particular dislike of certain subjects that continue throughout their academic career. This could happen if a student is humiliated or punished in class by a teacher. Critical Evaluation Classical conditioning emphasizes the importance of learning from the environment, and supports nurture over nature. However, it is limiting to describe behavior solely in terms of either nature or nurture , and attempts to do this underestimate the complexity of human behavior. It is more likely that behavior is due to an interaction between nature biology and nurture environment. A strength of classical conditioning theory is that it is scientific. For example, Pavlov showed how classical conditioning could be used to make a dog salivate to the sound of a bell. Classical conditioning is also a reductionist explanation of behavior. This is because a complex behavior is broken down into smaller stimulus-response units of behavior. Supporters of a reductionist approach say that it is scientific. Breaking complicated behaviors down to small parts means that they can be scientifically tested. However, some would argue that the reductionist view lacks validity. Thus, while reductionism is useful, it can lead to incomplete explanations. A final criticism of classical conditioning theory is that it is deterministic. This means that it does not allow for any degree of free will in the individual. Accordingly, a person has no control over the reactions they have learned from classical conditioning, such as a phobia. The deterministic approach also has important implications for psychology as a science. Scientists are interested in discovering laws which can then be used to predict events. However, by creating general laws of behavior, deterministic psychology underestimates the uniqueness of human beings and their freedom to choose their own destiny. Psychology as the behaviorist views it. Psychological Review, 20, â€” Journal of Experimental Psychology, 3 1 , pp. How to reference this article:

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The significance of these classifications is that each different type requires different types of instruction. Gagne identifies five major categories of learning: Different internal and external conditions are necessary for each type of learning. For example, for cognitive strategies to be learned, there must be a chance to practice developing new solutions to problems; to learn attitudes, the learner must be exposed to a credible role model or persuasive arguments. Gagne suggests that learning tasks for intellectual skills can be organized in a hierarchy according to complexity: The primary significance of the hierarchy is to identify prerequisites that should be completed to facilitate learning at each level. Learning hierarchies provide a basis for the sequencing of instruction. In addition, the theory outlines nine instructional events and corresponding cognitive processes: Gaining attention reception Informing learners of the objective expectancy Stimulating recall of prior learning retrieval Presenting the stimulus selective perception Providing learning guidance semantic encoding Eliciting performance responding Assessing performance retrieval Enhancing retention and transfer generalization. Gagne addresses the role of instructional technology in learning. Example The following example illustrates a teaching sequence corresponding to the nine instructional events for the objective, Recognize an equilateral triangle: Gain attention â€" show variety of computer generated triangles Identify objective â€" pose question: Principles Different instruction is required for different learning outcomes. Events of learning operate on the learner in ways that constitute the conditions of learning. The specific operations that constitute instructional events are different for each different type of learning outcome. Learning hierarchies define what intellectual skills are to be learned and a sequence of instruction. Military training and principles of learning. American Psychologist, 17, The Conditions of Learning 4th Ed. Essentials of Learning for Instruction 2nd Ed. Principles of Instructional Design 4th Ed.

5: Conditions of Learning (Robert Gagne) - www.enganchecubano.com

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Tanvi Jain Environmental Factors of Learning: The influence of environment begins since the time of the conception of the child in the womb of the mother. The external environment starts from the time of birth of the child. The external environment refers to the surroundings which prevail in home, school and locality. He establishes relationship with them. Some of the environmental factors are as under: Chief surroundings are as under: Natural surrounding covers the climatic and atmospheric conditions. For a limited time, humidity and high temperature can be tolerated but prolonged humidity and high temperature become unbearable. They decrease mental efficiency. The intellectual productivity and creativeness of people living in hot regions are much low. Likewise, the morning time is always better for mastering difficult tasks. Studies on the academic progress of evening school students show losses of efficiency varying from one to six percent. Social surroundings Includes especially the environment of home, school and locality. Learning is affected by physical conditions at home such as large family, small family specific family of the study insufficient ventilation, improper lighting, uncomfortable temperature, noisy home environment due to use of radio, and TV etc. The socio-emotional factors such as child rearing practices, reward and punishment, scope for freedom in activities are decision making play and study facilities, disorganization and discord among birth positions such as eldest or youngest child has his definite influence on learning. Cultural Demands and Social Expectation: They influence learning deeply; the spirit of culture is reflected in its social and educational institutions. For instance, in an industrialized culture, the emphasis mostly centers mechanical science and preparing children for highly mechanized vocations. Likewise, in an agriculture based community, the educational process focuses on preparing its members for those skills which are suited to the needs of an agrarian community. Relationship with Teachers, Parents and Peers: This relationship can be explained as under: The teacher is an important constituent in the instructional process. The way he teaches and manages the students has an effect on their learning. An authoritarian teacher will create an aggression and hostility among students. On the contrary for it a democratic teacher will create a participatory climate for learning. The democratic environment leads students to constructive and cooperative behaviour. Generally, students learn better in a democratic setup because they like democratic procedures. It plays a vital role in the learning process of the student. If the child-parents relationship is based on mutual respect and faith, it can facilitate his or her learning. On the contrary to it a distorted and unhealthy environment, adversely affects the learning of the student. The upward mobility brings resistance on the part of the student to learn. This relationship also plays an important role in learning. Student-student relationship in the classroom, school, society, etc. The climate solely depends upon their relationships. A sound relationship provides a tension free environment to the student enabling him to learn more and to complete in the class. If the relationship among peers is not good, it adversely affects their learning. Media Influence of Learning: According to the psychologists, the media is an important component of transmitting information. Media can be divided into two broad categories Print and Non-print media. Their brief description is as under: It refers to texts or printed materials. It is economical and has traditionally been used for the pedagogical purposes. It is also known as modern electronic media. It has certain unique qualities which in certain cases facilities learning much far faster than the print media. Certain non-print media formats and delivery systems contribute a lot to students learning activities. For example, audio tapes or computer can be used effectively to drill and practice in language and learning arithmetic. Electronic media can contribute a lot to promote the discovery approach to learning. Non print media performs following functions 1. Help them actively involved in the learning process.

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9: How Environmental Factors Affects our Learning Process?

Different internal and external conditions are necessary for each type of learning. For example, for cognitive strategies to be learned, there must be a chance to practice developing new solutions to problems; to learn attitudes, the learner must be exposed to a credible role model or persuasive arguments.

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