



ICLS 2008
International Conference
on Lesson Study

Lesson Study: A Challenge for Quality Improvement in Education

PROCEEDING

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON LESSON STUDY

**LESSON STUDY: A CHALLENGE FOR QUALITY
IMPROVEMENT IN EDUCATION**

Thursday, 31 July 2008 – Saturday, 2 August 2008

**UNIVERSITAS PENDIDIKAN BANDUNG
INDONESIA**



CONTENT

	Page
Preface	i
Content	ii
Program	1.
K.1 THAILAND'S EXPERIENCE IN LESSON STUDY FOR ENHANCING QUALITY IN EDUCATION Maitree Inprasitha -Center for Research in Mathematics Education Khon Kaen University, Thailand	4.
K.2 LESSON STUDY AS AN INSTRUMENT FOR SCHOOL REFORM: CASES FROM JAPANESE PRACTICES Eisuke Saito, Ph.D. -International Development Center of Japan	5.
K.3 LESSON STUDY IN THE CONTEXT OF EDUCATIONAL REFORMS IN SINGAPORE: POTENTIAL, PRACTICES AND PITFALLS. Christine Kim-Eng Lee and Fang Yanping -National Institute of Education Nanyang Technological University, Singapore	6.
K.4 LESSON STUDY IN INDONESIA: PRACTICE AND CHALLENGES FOR TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT Sumar Hendayana -Faculty of Mathematics and Science Indonesia University of Education	7.
A.1 PROMOTING PRIMARY AND SECONDARY MATHEMATICAL THINKING THROUGH THE SERIES OF SCHOOL-BASED LESSON STUDY ACTIVITIES Dr. Marsigit -Department of Mathematics Education, Faculty of Mathematics and Science, Yogyakarta State University	8.
A.2 DEVELOPMENT OF MATHEMATICS HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS' COMPETENCY THROUGH LESSON STUDY	9.



<p>(A CASE STUDY IN YOGYAKARTA, INDONESIA) Endang Listyani, Djamilah Bondan Widjajanti, Mathilda Susanti, Elly Arliani, Kana Hidayati-Mathematics Education Department, Mathematics & Natural Science Faculty, Yogyakarta State University</p>	
<p>A.3 MEMBANGUN KOMUNITAS BELAJAR MELALUI LESSON STUDY (MGMP MATEMATIKA WILAYAH F KABUPATEN SUMEDANG) Tuti Sugiarti-SMPN 2 Tomo Kabupaten Sumedang</p>	10.
<p>A.4 UPAYA MENINGKATKAN KEMAMPUAN GURU MATEMATIKA MELAKUKAN PENELITIAN TINDAKAN KELAS (PTK) MELALUI KEGIATAN LESSON STUDY Entit Puspita-Jurdik Matematika FPMIPA UPI</p>	11.
<p>A.5 IMPROVING MATHEMATICS TEACHING AND LEARNING: BEST IDEAS AND EXPERIENCES FROM THE IMPLEMENTATION OF LESSON STUDY (A CASE STUDY IN SUMEDANG DISTRICT) Yaya S. Kusumah and Asep Syarif Hidayat-Department of Mathematics Education, (UPI)</p>	12.
<p>B.1 THE IMPLEMENTATION OF LESSON STUDY AS AN EFFORTS TO INCREASE TEACHER SKILL TO PREPARE SCIENCE-PHYSICS INSTRUCTION PROPERLY AT SMP 1 TOMO SUMEDANG Drs. David E Tarigan M.Si¹, Endi Suhendi, M.Si¹, Ade Kokom Mintarsih, S.Pd²⁻¹Department of Physics, Indonesia University of Education, ²MTsN Ujung Jaya, Sumedang, Indonesia</p>	13.
<p>B.2 APPLICATION OF LESSON STUDY BETWEEN PHYSICS DEPARTMENT AND SCHOOL PARTNER ON VARIOUS CITIES IN WEST JAVA Iyon Suyana, Hera Novia-Jurusan Pendidikan Fisika FPMIPA Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia</p>	14.
<p>B.3 UPAYA MENINGKATKAN PENGUASAAN KONSEP DAN</p>	15.



<p>AKTIVITAS BELAJAR SISWA PADA TOPIK GERAK LURUS BERATURAN BERBASIS LESSON STUDY DI SMPN 3 TANJUNGSARI Muslim, Mimin Iryanti¹, Nurhayati²⁻¹ Jurusan Pendidikan Fisika FPMIPA UPI,²SMPN 3 Tanjungsari</p>	
<p>B.4 THE IMPACT OF LESSON STUDY FOR SCIENCE TEACHING AND LEARNING IN JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL AT PASURUAN DISTRICT Lia Yuliati-Physics Department, Malang State University</p>	16.
<p>B.5 TEACHING PHYSICS IS USING AUDIO VISUAL MEDIA AND PRACTICUM METHOD IN SOUND MATTER ¹Iis Rita Wadiawani, S.Pd, ²Tarmilah Hayati, ³Winny Liliawati, S.Pd, M.Si, ³Andhy Setiawan, S.Pd, M.Si-¹SMPN 3 Rancakalong, ²SMPN 3 Sumedang, ³Juridik Fisika FPMIPA UPI</p>	17.
<p>C.1 A JOURNEY OF RENEWAL IN BIOLOGY LEARNING BASED ON HANDS-ON AND MINDS-ON IN SCIENCE EDUCATION Nuryani Y. Rustaman-FPMIPA UPI</p>	18.
<p>C.2 LESSON STUDY IN PLANT PHYSIOLOGY COURSE AT STATE UNIVERSITY OF MALANG Herawati Susilo-State University of Malang</p>	19.
<p>C.3 PEMBELAJARAN PADA KONSEP PERTUMBUHAN DAN PERKEMBANGAN MELALUI LESSON STUDY DI SMPN 1 JATINANGOR DENGAN MENGGUNAKAN EVALUASI KETERAMPILAN PROSES SAINS Eri Hartanti, S.Pd. dan Meti Rahmawati, S.Pd.-SMPN 2 Jatinangor</p>	20.
<p>C.4 CONSTRUCTIVIST APPROACH IN COOPERATIVE LEARNING TO STUDY CLASSIFICATION OF ATHROPOD</p>	21.



<p>(Experience from Lesson Study in SMPN 1 Paseh) Sutarto¹, Diana Rochintaniawati², Yanti Hamdiyati²⁻¹ ¹SMPN 1 Paseh, Biology Education Department FPMIPA UPI</p>	
<p>D.1 TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT THROUGH CHEMISTRY EDUCATION LESSON STUDY AT TANJUNGSARI Liliasari-Chemistry Education Department, Faculty of Mathematics and Science Education Indonesia University of Education</p>	22.
<p>D.2 PEMBELAJARAN PEMISAHAN CAMPURAN DENGAN METODE PRAKTIKUM DI SMP (Implementasi Lesson Study Kimia di Kabupaten Sumedang) Susiwi¹, Cincin Cintami², Gebi Dwiyanti¹, Galuh Yuliani¹⁻¹ ¹Jurusan Pendidikan Kimia FPMIPA UPI Bandung, ²SMP Negeri 4 Sumedang</p>	23.
<p>D.3 STRENGTHENING IN-SERVICE TEACHER OF NATURAL SCIENCE THROUGH LESSON STUDY AT LANGKAT DISTRICT Dr. Retno Dwi Suyanti Msi-Department Of Chemistry Faculty of Math and Science Unimed</p>	24.
<p>D.4 OVERVIEW OF LESSON STUDY ACTIVITIES FROM CHEMISTRY DIVISION AT SUMEDANG DISTRICT. Florentina Maria Titin Supriyanti-Chemistry Education Department, Mathematics and Science Education Faculty, UPI</p>	25.
<p>D.5 IMPLEMENTATION OF AUTHENTIC ASSESSMENT BY TEACHERS: SCHOOL BASED LESSON STUDY EXPERIENCES IN SUMEDANG Ana Ratna Wulan-FPMIPA UPI</p>	26.
<p>E.1 LESSON STUDY TO IMPROVE THE ABILITY IN ORGANIZING CLASS FOR THE UNIVERSITY STUDENT OF PROFESSION TRAINING PROGRAM</p>	27.



Dra. Noverita Nukman-SMAN 1 Lembang	
E.2 IMPLEMENTING LESSON STUDY IN MICROTEACHING OF PRESERVICE TEACHERS Diah Aryulina-FKIP - Universitas Bengkulu	28.
E.3 MAKING LESSON STUDY MORE EFFECTIVE: A COGNITIVE LOAD APPROACH Endah Retnowati, M.Ed. -Department of Mathematics Education Faculty of Mathematics and Natural Sciences Yogyakarta State University	29.
E.4 ANALYSIS OF TEACHER AND STUDENT PERCEPTION ABOUT LESSON STUDY SCHOOL-BASE IN SUMEDANG DISTRICT Asep Sutiadi -Department of Physics Education, Indonesia University of Education.	30.
E.5 LEARNING FROM TEACHERS AND STUDENTS IN LESSON STUDY ACTIVITIES Elly Ariani & Djamilah Bondan Widjajanti -Mathematics Education Department, Mathematics & Natural Science Faculty, Yogyakarta State University	31.
F.1 SCHOOL-UNIVERSITY PARTNERSHIP THROUGH LESSON STUDY APPROACH: AN INDONESIAN CASE Tatang Suratno -Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia	32.
F.2 KEPALA SEKOLAH SEBAGAI INOVATOR DAN MOTIVATOR Drs. Muhtar Hendrawan -Kepala SMPN 1 Tomo Sumedang	33.
F.3 FOOD FOR THOUGHT: FACILITATING LESSON STUDY WITHIN THE UNIVERSITY'S STUDENT WORKGROUP - AN AUSTRALIAN CASE Hadrian G. Djajadikerta, PhD -School of Accounting, Finance and	34.



Economics Faculty of Business and Law Edith Cowan University	
F.4 MEMBANGUN PROFESIONALISME GURU DENGAN LESSON STUDY MELALUI KEPEMIMPINAN KEPALA SEKOLAH H. Karso-UNIVERSITAS PENDIDIKAN INDONESIA	35.
F.5 AKTUALISASI PENGAWASAN DALAM LESSON STUDY Timbul Kusdijantono -Pengawas Dinas Pendidikan Kabupaten Sumedang	36.
A.6 LISTENING TO THE STUDENT'S IDEAS OF MATHEMATICS AS A STARTING POINT TO TEACH TWO WAY COMMUNICATION (*) Turmudi -Indonesia University of Education	37.
A.7 EVALUASI DAMPAK KEGIATAN LESSON STUDY PADA KEMAMPUAN GURU DALAM MENGELOLA PEMBELAJARAN MATEMATIKA SMP DI KABUPATEN SUMEDANG Ade Rohayati -Jurusan Pendidikan Matematika FPMIPA Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia	38.
A.8 IMPROVING STUDENTS' ABILITY IN PROBLEM SOLVING THROUGH PROBLEM-BASED LEARNING IN LESSON STUDY ACTIVITY Djamilah Bondan Widjajanti -Mathematics Education Department, Mathematics & Natural Science Faculty, Yogyakarta State University	39.
A.9 DOES LESSON STUDY CHANGE TEACHERS' CONCEPTIONS OF MATHEMATICS TEACHING ? Endang Mulyana -Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia	40.
A.10 EXPLORING ELEMENTS OF EPISTEMOLOGICAL KNOWLEDGE THROUGH ANALYSIS OF A MATHEMATICS TEACHING EPISODE OF LESSON STUDY Dadang Juandi -Mathematics Departement Indonesia University of	41.



Education	
B.6 PENERAPAN MEDIA ELEKTRONIK VCD DAN OHP UNTUK MENINGKATKAN MOTIVASI DAN HASIL BELAJAR SISWA PADA KONSEP ENERGI DAN DAYA LISTRIK: IMPLEMENTASI LESSON STUDY FISIKA ¹ Usuludin Latif; ² Agus Danawan, ² Unang Purwana- ¹ SMPN 2 Cimalaka, ² Jurdik Fisika FPMIPA UPI	42.
B.7 THE QUALITY IMPROVEMENT OF IMPLEMENTATION LESSON STUDY MGMP PHYSICS PROGRAM IN SUMEDANG DISTRICT BASE ON RESULT OF MONITORING SISTTEMS PROGRAM Ida Kaniawati- Jurusan Pendidikan Fisika FPMIPA UPI	43.
B.8 LESSON STUDY: BEST PRACTICES AND CHALLENGES IN QUALITY IMPROVEMENT OF JUNIOR SECONDARY SCHOOL PHYSICS THROUGH COLLABORATIVE BASED LEARNING Asep Supriatna- SMPN 9 Sumedang	44.
B.9 THE IMPLEMENTATION OF LESSON STUDY OF SUBJECT MATTER TEACHER ASSOCIATION (MGMP) IN DARMARAJA SUMEDANG DISTRICT: PROGRESS AND CHALENGGES ¹ Ai Deti, ² Purwanto, ² Lina Aviyanti- ¹ SMPN 2 Jatigede Sumedang ² Physics Education Department, FPMIPA UPI	45.
B.10 PROFILE ABILITY OF TEACHER IN REFLECTION ACTIVITY AT LESSON STUDY PROGRAM Winny Liliawati, S.Pd, M.Si, Andhy Setiawan, S.Pd, M.Si, Ridwan Efendi, M.Pd - Department of Physics Education, UPI	46.
C.5 EXCAVATE THE ABILITY OF GIFTED AND TALENTED STUDENTS TO PLAN AND TO DO EXPERIMENT THROUGH LESSON STUDY IN SMA 1	47.

<p>SUMEDANG ¹Siti Sriyati dan ²Lin Gustini-¹Lecturer in Biology Departement FPMIPA UPI Bandung, ²Teacher in SMA 1 Sumedang</p>	
<p>C.6 THE EFFECTIVENESS OF AUDIO-VISUAL TEACHING MEDIA IN SUPPORTING STUDENT LEARNING OF HUMAN GROWTH ¹Eni Nuraeni, ¹Taufik Rahman, ²Mia Hermayati Arief - ¹Department of Biology, Indonesia University of ducation, ²SMPN 1 Congeang Sumedang</p>	48.
<p>C.7 EFFORT OF TEACHER PARTICIPATION IMPROVEMENT WAS IN EDUCATION COMMUNITY IPA PASS BY LESSON STUDY Mimin Nurjhani K, & Widi Purwianingsih,-Jurusan Pendidikan Biologi FPMIPA UPI</p>	49.
<p>C.8 KEMAMPUAN GENERIC SEBAGAI TREND BARU UNTUK LESSON STUDY Taufik Rahman-Jurdik Biologi FPMIPA UPI</p>	50.
<p>D.6 MONITORING AND EVALUATION STRATEGY OF LESSON STUDY PROGRAM Harry Firman-Indonesia University of Education</p>	51.
<p>D.7 SOME CASES IN IMPLEMENTING DISCUSSION METHOD IN LEARNING PROCESS IN LESSON STUDY ACTIVITY Himmawati Puji Lestari-Mathematics Education Department of Mathematics and Science Faculty, Yogyakarta State University</p>	52.
<p>D.8 OPEN- ENDED APPROACH IN LESSON STUDY ACTIVITES Nurjanah-Indonesia University of Education</p>	53.
<p>D.9 SOCIALIZATION OF LESSON STUDY TO STUDENTS TEACHER THROUGH PARTICIPATION LEARNING MODEL</p>	54.



Yanti Herlanti-UIN Syarif Hidayatullah Jakarta	
E.6 LEARNING REFORM THROUGH ENTIRE SCHOOL LESSON STUDY (ESLS) in SMPN-1 TOMO DISTRICT SUMEDANG Drs.Parsaoran Siahaan, M.Pd -Physics Departement - FPMIPA-Indonesia University of Education	55.
E.7 LESSON STUDY IN INDONESIA: INTROSPECT AND PROSPECT Ari Widodo -Department of Biology Education, Faculty of Mathematics and Science Education Indonesia University of Education	56.
E.8 RANCANGAN RE-DESAIN PEMBELAJARAN SAINS PROGRAM LESSON STUDY ¹Soni, ²Setiya Utari, ²Heni Rusnayati - ¹ SMPN 5 Sumedang ² Physics Education Department Indonesia University of Education	57.
E.9 THE NEED OF QUALITY INSURANCE IN LESSON STUDY Hikmat -Department of Physics Education, Indonesian University of Education.	58.
F.6 PROMOTING TEACHER COLLABORATION THROUGH LESSON STUDY: WHAT CAN WE LEARN FROM TWO PROVINCES' EXPERIENCE? Asep Sapa'at -Lembaga Pengembangan Insani Dompot Dhuafa	59.
F.7 MENINGKATKAN KUALITAS DIRI MELALUI AKTIFITAS LESSON STUDY Drs. H. Erman Suherman, M.Pd. -Jurusan Pendidikan Matematika FPMIPA Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia.	60.
F.8 LESSON STUDY: SELF EVALUATION FOR PROFESSIONAL TEACHERS Suhendra -Jurusan Pendidikan Matematiks FPMIPA UPI	61.
F.9 AN EXPERIENCED LESSON STUDY BASED ON SCHOOL AT SMPN 4 SUMEDANG EDUCATED YEAR 2007/2008	62.



Encum Sumiaty -Mathematic Education FPMIPA UPI	
POSTER 1 GUIDED-PRESENTATION AS ACTIVE LEARNING STRATEGY IN TEACHING AND LEARNING OF ANALYTICAL CHEMISTRY Khamidinal -Department of Chemistry Education, Faculty of Science and Technology, State Islamic University of Sunan Kalijaga, Yogyakarta, Indonesia.	63.
POSTER 2 THE EFFORT IMPROVE MOTIVATION LEARN STUDENT THROUGH LESSON STUDY ACTIVITY BIOLOGICAL IN SMPIT IMAM BUKHARI Otoh Rusmana, S.Pd. -SMPIT Imam Bukhari	64.
POSTER 3 OPPORTUNITY TO BECOME A RESEARCHER THROUGH “RESEARCH LESSON”; CASE STUDY IN D GROUP OF MGMP IPA SUMEDANG CITY, WEST JAVA-INDONESIA Rini Solihat and Riandi -Biology Department-Science and Mathematics Faculty, Indonesia Education University	65.
POSTER 4 IMPLEMENTASI LESSON STUDY DENGAN PENDEKATAN MULTY CREATIVE LEARNING Barnawi -Madrasah Aliyah Alhikmah 2)	66.
POSTER 5 PERAN ELGAS DALAM MENINGKATKAN PEMAHAMAN KONSEP KIMIA FISIK DAN KETERAMPILAN GENERIK SAINS MAHASISWA PENDIDIKAN KIMIA Ijang Rohman¹, Liliasari², dan Muhamad A. Martoprawiro³⁻¹ Mahasiswa SPs Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia ² Dosen SPs Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia ³ Dosen Kimia FMIPA ITB	67.
POSTER 6 ANALISIS INTERAKSI SISWA PADA PEMBELAJARAN UNSUR DAN SENYAWA DENGAN PEMANFAATAN SUPLEMEN BACAAN MENGGUNAKAN MODEL KONSTRUKTIVISME Wiwi Siswaningsih dan Heli Siti Halimatul M. -Program Studi	68.



Pendidikan Kimia Universitas Pendidikan Indonesia	
POSTER 7 THE PENTAGON PROBLEM: GEOMETRIC REASONING WITH TECHNOLOGY Mohamad Rahmat and Endang Dedy -Mathematics Education, Indonesia University of Education	69.
POSTER 8 INNOVATIVE TEACHING: USING ANIMATION IN A NERVOUS SYSTEM LEARNING Dadang Machmudin, Eni Nuraeni, Cucun Yuniawati -Department of Biology, Indonesia University of Education	70.
POSTER 9 CONCEPTS MAPPING AS EVALUATION TOOLS TO IMPROVE MISCONCEPTION AND MISPERCEPTION ON EVOLUTION IN CONSTRUCTIVISTICS WAY Fransisca Sudargo Tapilouw dan Ammi Syulasmi. -Department of Biology, Indonesia University of Education	71.
IDENTIFICATION OF MULTIPLICATIVE THINKING IN ELEMENTARY SCHOOL CHILDREN Sufyani Prabawanto -Indonesian Education University	72.
Campus Map	73.
Venue Map	74.
Notes	77.



PROGRAM SCHEDULE OF INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON LESSON STUDY 2008

Conference Day 1

Thursday, 31 July 2008

07:30 – 08:30	<i>Registration</i>
08:30 – 09:30	<i>Opening Ceremony</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • OC Report • Opening Speech of Rector of UPI • Launching of ICLS
09:30 – 10:00	<i>Coffee Break</i>
10:00 – 12:30	<i>Plenary Session 1</i> Chairperson: Prof. Yaya Surya Kusumah, M.Sc., Ph.D. <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Thailand's Experience in Lesson Study for Enhancing Quality in Education. Maitree Inprasitha, Ph.D. (Center for Research in Mathematics Education, Khon Kaen University, Thailand) 2. Lesson Study as an Instrument for School Reform: A Case of Japanese Practices. Eisuke Saito, Ph.D. (International Development Center of Japan)
12:30 – 13:30	<i>Lunch Break</i>
13:30 – 16:00	<i>Parallel Session 1</i> at Room S-301, S-302, S-303, S-304, S-305, S-306



Conference Day 2 Friday, 1 August 2008

08:00 – 09:30	<p><i>Plenary Session 2</i> Chairperson: Dr. Anna Permanasari, M.Si.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Lesson Study in the Context of Educational Reforms in Singapore: Potential, Practices and Pitfalls. Christine Kim-Eng Lee and Fang Yanping. (National Institute of Education Nanyang Technological University, Singapore) Lesson Study in Indonesia: Practice and Challenges for Teacher Professional Development. Sumar Hendayana, Ph.D. (Indonesia University of Education)
09:30 – 10:00	<i>Coffee Break</i>
10:00 – 11:00	<i>Plenary Session 2 (Continued)</i>
11:00 – 13:30	<i>Lunch Break</i>
13:30 – 16:00	<i>Parallel Session 2</i> at Room S-301, S-302, S-303, S-304, S-305, S-306
16:00 – 17:00	<i>Closing Ceremony</i>

Workshop Saturday, 2 August 2008

06:30 – 07:00	<i>Preparation</i>
07:00 – 09:00	<i>Trip to Sumedang</i>
09:00 – 12:00	<i>Open Lesson</i>
11:00 – 13:00	<i>Lunch Break</i>
13:00 – 15:00	<i>Discussion</i>
15:00 – 17:00	<i>Trip to Bandung</i>



Parallel Session 1					
S.301 Moderator: Elah Nurlaelah, M.Si.	S.301 Moderator: Heni Rusnayati, M.Si.	S.303 Moderator: Diana Rochintaniawati, M.Ed.	S.304 Moderator: Ali Kusrijadi, M.Si.	S.305 Moderator: Amprasto, M.Si.	S.306 Moderator: Fitri Khoerunisa, M.Si.
A.1	B.1	C.1	D.1	E.1	F.1
A.2	B.2	C.2	D.2	E.2	F.2
A.3	B.3	C.3	D.3	E.3	F.3
A.4	B.4	C.4	D.4	E.4	F.4
A.5	B.5		D.5	E.5	F.5

Parallel Session 2					
S.301 Moderator: Elah Nurlaelah, M.Si.	S.301 Moderator: Heni Rusnayati, M.Si.	S.303 Moderator: Diana Rochintaniawati, M.Ed.	S.304 Moderator: Ali Kusrijadi, M.Si.	S.305 Moderator: Amprasto, M.Si.	S.306 Moderator: Fitri Khoerunisa, M.Si.
A.6	B.6	C.5	D.6	E.6	F.6
A.7	B.7	C.6	D.7	E.7	F.7
A.8	B.8	C.7	D.8	E.8	F.8
A.9	B.9	C.8	D.9	E.9	F.9
A.10	B.10				



MAKING LESSON STUDY MORE EFFECTIVE: A COGNITIVE LOAD APPROACH

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Abstract

Cognitive Load Theory provides principles of learning based on human cognitive architecture. Our knowledge of human cognitive architecture has illuminated our understanding of how knowledge is acquired and automated. It is particularly concerned with the fact that working memory is severely limited and that these limits may be circumvented by retrieving prior knowledge stored in unlimited long term memory. The theory suggests that when to be learned material have a high intrinsic cognitive load, for example novel material or problem solving, instructional learning that require a low extraneous cognitive load on working memory would likely be effective. The effectiveness of instructional designs based on cognitive load theory has been shown by numerous controlled experiments across domain specific knowledge.

This paper is intended to find out the implementation of the principles of cognitive load theory within lesson studies and so improving the effectiveness of lesson studies. Concerning the ground theory is how information is naturally processed by our cognitive architecture; cognitive load theory should have provided us how to conduct lesson studies that is in accord with natural information processing. Understanding how students construct and automate knowledge would also improve lesson studies.

Keywords: lesson study, knowledge construction, cognitive load



A. Introduction

Lesson study is basically a collaborative research toward classroom activities among teachers or in service teachers. Specifically, it is mainly concerned with how students learn of the subject matter. The lesson study could involve some aspects regarding students learning activities, which are instructional learning, learning settings, classroom facilities and syllabus. Nevertheless, these aspects should be integrated in order to facilitate students with learning. Students' performances after learning might be the major outcome expected from classroom activities, and indeed the lesson study is proposed to figure out successful classroom activities in bridging students with effective learning.

Learning occurs if students construct or automate schemas. Schema construction and automation is naturally processed by our human cognitive architecture. The term "cognitive architecture" refers to how our cognitive is structured including how learning and understanding is organised. It should have been understood that without our understanding of how students' cognitive architecture works, teachers would be challenged with unanswered questions such as why some material are easy for some students but for the others, why some students cannot learn effectively, why problem



solving is difficult or why some attractive presentations do not facilitate learning.

The following discussion provides description of cognitive load theory that underlies on human cognitive architecture and sources of cognitive load. Further, this paper presents to what extent the theory benefits lesson study programs.

B. Cognitive Load Theory

Cognitive load theory is based on human cognitive architecture. Cognitive architecture has been deeply discussed since the early of 1930s by various researchers and is still intensively studied today. A basic information processing model of human cognitive architecture, the modal model, was proposed by Shiffrin and Atkinson (1969) and is presented in Figure 1.

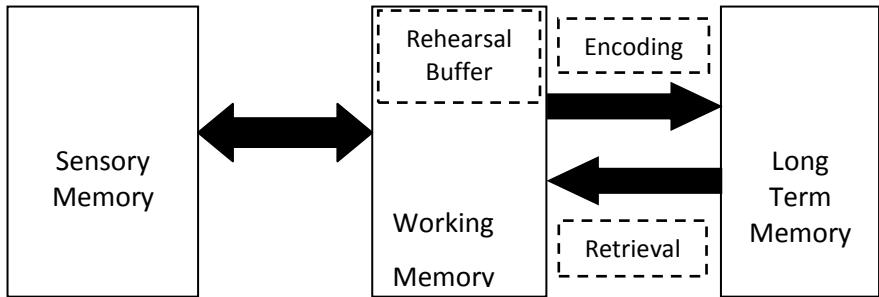


Figure 1 . *The Modal Model (adapted from Shiffrin & Atkinson, 1969, p. 180)*

This model has been further developed to give detailed descriptions of the structure of memory (See Baddeley, 1992; Ericsson & Kintsch, 1995) and cognitive processes including learning, understanding and its evolution (See Bruning, Scraw, Norby, & Ronning, 2004; Sweller, 2004, 2006, 2007). The model described in Figure 1 involves some aspects of the information processing system used in human cognition: sensory memory, working memory and long term memory. How these parts work is described as follows.



Sensory Memory

Sensory memory is assumed as a bridge between information from the outside world and the information processor in the human brain. We have five senses: sights, sounds, smells, tastes and touches, which enable us to recognise environment. So far, it is known that sensory memory comprises of a visual sensory register and an auditory sensory register, which store information from the sense of sight and sound respectively (Bruning et al., 2004).

However, information attends this memory for just a few seconds or perhaps a fraction of seconds. Information flows quickly through this memory, unless the information is passed over into working memory to be recognised, identified and assigned meaning to.

Therefore, some information are forgotten quickly and replaced by new coming information. This replacement is necessary because the continuous changes of information from our environment. Sensory memory is not responsible for processing the meaning or the information. It merely identifies inputs and sends them to short term memory (working memory) as the thinking processor. The result, which is the meaning attached to the information, will be either stored in long term memory or passed on to sensory memory to act behaviour.



Long Term Memory

Long term memory provides permanent storage in human cognitive architecture. The natural information processing in human includes the information stored in this memory. It has an unlimited capacity to store organised information or knowledge structures that determines how we deal with information in working memory. Level of expertise in a specific domain is also determined by the information stored in long-term memory.

Knowledge structures are mental constructs called schemas. Schemas provide a mechanism to recognise patterns or configurations or elements of information as a single element categorised according to the manner in which it will be used (Sweller, 1999; Sweller & Cooper, 1985; Sweller, van Merriënboer, & Paas, 1998). A variety of interacting elements may be categorised within a single schema. The number of interacting elements that can be categorised (chunked) as a single element depends on retrieved schemas. For example, mathematical equations vary in terms of symbols, connections or functions. A quadratic equation schema permits us to identify a quadratic form as a single category, eliminating the variation of its symbols. If such a schema is not stored in long term memory, the equations may be treated as



several simple patterns of symbols associated without any mathematical meaning.

The schematic structure in long term memory determines levels of expertise in a particular area (Sweller et al., 1998). De Groot (1978) investigated why chess grand masters perform better than less able players, by examining both more and less able players who were required to reproduce chess configurations taken from real games. The result demonstrated that more able players performed this task more accurately and more quickly than less able players. Chase and Simon (1973) revealed that both master and amateur players are equally able to reproduce random chess configurations. Simon and Gilmartin (1973) suggested that master players had stored hundreds of thousands of chess configurations. The investigations concluded that expert players spend many years learning about chess. The more they learn, the more schematic networks are structured. Thus, they become familiar with a large number of chess configurations. Consequently, they can easily and accurately reproduce the configuration taken from real games which they are familiar with, but they cannot reproduce any random configuration because they are not familiar with these. In other words, master players almost certainly win games because they draw on their huge number of



chess configurations stored in long term memory to recognise a configuration and the best move associated with it. They do not rely on sophisticated problem solving strategies.

Moreover, experts appear able to quickly recognise patterns of information and so eliminate procedures in solving problems because their well organised schemas enable them to mentally integrate some procedures and directly go forward to the task goal (De Groot, 1978). More knowledgeable learners are also likely to have an effective way of encoding schemas to long term memory and retrieving prior schemas because they engage a large number of relevant schemas in their domain. Consequently, they solve problems faster. Nevertheless, in some cases, experts might solve problems more slowly than novices because they might think about the problem in more detail and more carefully before deriving decisions. Experts attempt to understand problems rather than jump immediately to solution strategies. This was indicated by the study of Chi, Feltovich and Glaser (1981) who found that experts' solutions are derived on the basis of the principles that can be applied to solve the problems but novices' solutions are derived on the basis of the problems' surface attributes.



The schema structures of experts and novices may be represented in Figure 2.

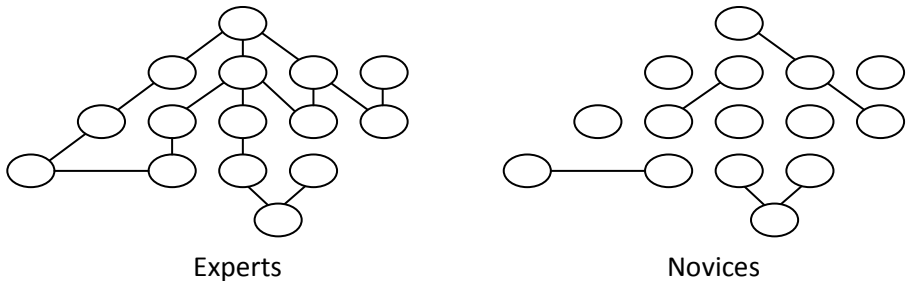


Figure 2. *Experts and Novices Schema Structures*

Having a well organised schematic structure certainly would support learning and solving problems. Ericsson (2003) argued that only by deliberate practice, which means an intensive, extended, meaningful learning, will a well organised schematic structure be developed. Even if learners are talented in a specific area or have high intelligence, deliberate practice is required to built hierarchically ordered schemas (Cooper, 1998; Ericsson, 2003; Ericsson & Kintsch, 1995; Sweller, 1999). Without extensive practice, people will not develop a large knowledge base.



Schema automation considerably contributes to enhancing information processing (Kalyuga, Ayres, Chandler, & Sweller, 2003; Pass, Renkl, & Sweller, 2004; Sweller, 1999). Schema automation occurs when schemas from long term memory are processed unconsciously in working memory. Schema automation results from frequent practice. To illustrate, the first time we learn how to read a word, we must pay attention to each letter, but with practice we need less effort to read; thus we can process other information by reading thousands of words. Schemas incorporating letters, words, meanings of words and sentences are automatically recognised during reading allowing us to unconsciously decode written information.

Working Memory

Working memory is part of the brain system that initially receives and holds information from sensory memory (Bruning et al., 2004). What we are currently thinking is information that is actually in our working memory. Therefore, we also call working memory as thinking processor. Working memory manipulates, encodes and structures information in the form of schemas, by retrieving prior schemas from long term memory to recognise current information, to create connection and to maintain them step by step by



simultaneously contrasting, comparing and combining in a somehow in order to give meaning and understand the information.

Under most circumstance, human working memory capacity is limited, able to store no more than 7 ± 2 chunks of information simultaneously (Miller, 1956). Peterson and Peterson (1959) indicated that the number of those elements that can still be processed simultaneously considerably decreases within a few seconds because of interference, decay and replacement by new information. Simultaneous information processing in the verbal and visual components may exceed a working memory capacity. As a consequence of a limited working memory, process of transferring new information to long term memory is slow and incremental.

Working memory can be considered to consist of four subcomponents: a central executive as the attention controller and to organise the other slave components: a phonological or articulator loop to maintain speech based information; a visual-spatial sketchpad for dealing with visual images; and an episodic buffer to (1) integrate information from phonological and visual-spatial components and (2) link new and prior information from long term memory (Baddeley, 2000; 2002). Prior knowledge, either



stored in long term memory or borrowed from other people by written or oral communication, can act as the central executive. The central executive functions to direct our attention, hold and organise new information.

As indicated above, prior schemas from our long term memory act as an executive in working memory and so determine how to deal with new information. If there is a lack of relevant schemas from long term memory, random generation followed by tests of effectiveness is an unavoidable process, unless relevant information can be borrowed from other resources, for instances from worked examples or others' long term memory. Accordingly, if schemas concerning potential moves to solve a problem is unavailable in our or others' long term memory, working memory will randomly generate a move using a general problem solving strategy and test the effectiveness of this move. Ineffective or non-beneficial moves are rejected while effective ones are stored as new schemas in long term memory.

It has been discussed that well organised schemas in long term memory distinguish experts from novices in a domain (Kalyuga et al., 2003; Kalyuga, Chandler, & Sweller, 1998; Sweller, 1999). Well



defined schemas enable experts in a domain to solve problems working forward to the goal, because they can recognise what is known and have the procedural actions leading to solution. In contrast, novices tend to solve problems using a searching based strategy by creating sub-goals from the problem goal, rather than from the given information and then randomly match them with possible moves. When errors occur, problem solvers establish another sub-goal and try to find operators to reach it. Such a process of problem solving search is called means-ends-analysis and imposes a heavy working memory load (Ayres & Sweller, 1990; Sweller & Chandler, 1994). This indicates why direct instruction is important when acquiring secondary knowledge.

If long term memory has unlimited amounts of information consisting of organised schemas that can be transferred to working memory, working memory load can be extended (Sweller, 2007). Consequently, the freeing of working memory capacity can be employed to assimilate, accommodate and construct new higher level schemas. Thus, learning is enhanced into an expert level.

Sources of Cognitive Load



Sweller (2006) and Cooper (1998) define cognitive load as the total amount of mental activity imposed on working memory. Cognitive load can be divided into three categories: intrinsic, extraneous and germane cognitive load. Cognitive overload occurs if the total cognitive load exceeds working memory capacity. Accordingly, learning process will be compromised because too much burden in working memory reduces probability of changes to long term memory (Sweller, 2006).

Some materials have natural difficulty because they consist of a set of concepts that must be processed simultaneously in working memory to be understood. Cognitive load caused by these materials is categorised intrinsic cognitive load (Cooper, 1998, Sweller 1999, 2006). For example, the mental calculation of $5+4$ has lower intrinsic cognitive load than the derivative of $d(2x-1)^2/dx$. Material that is low in element interactivity does not contain interacting elements and thus each element can be learnt individually. The intrinsic cognitive load is low. Conversely, some material is high in element interactivity where the elements are associated with each other and so have to be processed by working memory simultaneously. The intrinsic cognitive load is high.



Intrinsic cognitive load cannot be modified by instructional learning. In other words, material which is high in element interactivity, if presented by any instructions will remain high element interactivity (Cooper, 1998). Sweller (2006) suggests that material which has high intrinsic load should be initially thought in isolated elements and learned the relevant interaction afterwards. Although understanding is not obtained at the first stage, by this way learning can be advanced because learners already acquire the conditional knowledge of the interacted elements.

Extraneous cognitive load relates with instructional learning used to present to-be-learned information (Cooper, 1998, Sweller, 1999, 2006). If instructions ignore the natural principles of information processing on human cognitive architecture, they might cause heavy extraneous cognitive load. In order to reduce extraneous cognitive load, instructional learning should be designed according to learners' prior knowledge level and the novelty of the material.

An approach that has been well established by various research in many domain specific, worked example, shows that novice learners learn better using this approach compared with using a problem solving approach. They would be benefited using worked examples



because they do not have sufficient prior knowledge to solve problems and thus need more guidance in learning. In this case, worked example approach is lower extraneous cognitive load. However, for more knowledgeable learners, worked examples would not be advantageous. It could higher extraneous cognitive load because of redundancy effect. More knowledgeable learners might already have prior knowledge to solve problems and thus the worked example is redundant. Less guidance instructions is better for more knowledgeable learners because they already possess higher level of expertise.

Material presented with diagram can also cause heavy extraneous cognitive load, when split attention occurs. It is frequently found description for the diagram is separated from the correspondence diagram. This demands high extraneous cognitive load in working memory because this presentation requires us to integrate some information in the diagram and the text. Such presentation might also cause redundancy if the diagram is self explained. It means that the instruction to learn the description of the text imposes higher extraneous cognitive load.



Another way to prevent heavy extraneous cognitive load is the uses of goal free problem. Using goal free problems is better because it prevents means-ends-analysis that do not guide us to construct schemas into a well define building in long term memory (Sweller, 1999, 2004). Students who use means-ends-analysis require a heavy extraneous cognitive load because they do not have sufficient schemas to solve problems. The use of goal free problems would direct students to identify given information and run required possible process, instead of jumping to the goal of problems without necessarily construct schema for solving problems in forward direction.

Germane cognitive load concerns with the degree of effort involved in the productive learning (Sweller, 2006). Activities associating with schema acquisition and automation would increase germane cognitive load. This load would be available if the working memory capacity is not exceeded by intrinsic and extraneous cognitive load. It is ultimate to manage extraneous cognitive load when to be learned material imposes high intrinsic cognitive load and hence free working memory load could be directed for germane activities.



C. Making Lesson Study More Effective

The above discussion provides us some advance insight of how students' construct knowledge. Moreover, the above description presents us how expertise is developed. It is widely known that classroom activities is centred to students, which means that any activities in the classroom conducted by teachers is merely for learning done by the students. Students who are responsible for their knowledge construction, however, teachers are more responsible for facilitating students for effective learning. On the other hand, lesson study is conducted to find out the effective way to facilitate effective learning. Accordingly, our knowledge of how students' cognitively process knowledge is ultimate. Thus, approaches developed by cognitive load theory should have assisted us toward the more effective lesson study.

Cognitive load theory provides general principles of natural information processing. These principles are generated as the consequences of cognitive processes in human cognitive architecture. Consequently, these principles must be considered in order to conduct learning activities that is in accord with students' cognitive processes. These principles are as follows.



- (1) There is unlimited schema can be stored in long term memory. This schema might be retrieved either consciously or automatically by working memory and permits us to recognise and organise information in working memory.
- (2) Working memory is severely limited when dealing with novel information. Its capacity is critical to learning. Learning, which means schema construction, schema reorganisation or schema changes in long term memory, merely occurs when working memory is not over loaded.
- (3) Schema automation and acquisition allow us to circumvent our limited working memory when dealing with novel information. Schema acquisition and automation are essential to enhance learning and therefore instructions should be directed to these activities.
- (4) Acquiring knowledge specific in domain, for instance problem solving strategy, requires explicit instructions, in particular for novice learners.

Cognitive Load Theory focuses on the critical feature of working memory capacity. Ultimately, our understanding of classroom activities that facilitate students' working memory in a manageable level would provide us a deeper insight of their learning activities.



As aforementioned, there are three sources of cognitive load. It is important for researchers who are involved in lesson study to comprehend the management of this cognitive load, in order to analyse effectiveness of the classroom design. Following are three questions concerning cognitive load should be addressed that might be advantageous for discussion in lesson study:

(1) The intrinsic cognitive load: what is the degree of element interactivity in the study material aligned to the nature of the material and expertise level of learners? Have teacher organised the material according to students' prior knowledge level?

(2) The extraneous cognitive load: How teacher present to be learned material? how much mental effort do learners need to cognitively process the presented information?

(3) The germane cognitive load: Are there any cognitive resources left after the intrinsic and extraneous cognitive load for schema acquisition or automation? Does teacher direct students to germane activity?

Such questions are essential for effective and efficient learning activity. Moreover, cognitive load theorist has been developed some methods to manage cognitive load in working memory during learning (for instances: Atkinson, Derry, Renkl, & Worthan, 2000; Ayres, 2006; Chandler & Sweller, 1991; Kirschner, 2002; Mayer &



Moreno, 2003; Morrison & Anglin, 2005; Paas & Van Gog, 2006; Sweller, 1999). Referring to these research results would definitely benefit for lesson studies.

To summarise, human cognitive architecture describes how students think or learn. It is an essential knowledge in order to conduct effective cognitive processes in classrooms. Cognitive load theory provides principles for instructional learning designs that is in accord with human cognitive architecture. As lesson study is aimed to collaboratively learn how students learn and think, using cognitive load approach would make lesson study more effective.

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