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**АНАЛИЗ  
ПРОФЕССИОНАЛЬНО-ОРИЕНТИРОВАННЫХ  
АУТЕНТИЧНЫХ ТЕКСТОВ**

**ANALYSING  
PROFESSIONALLY-ORIENTED  
AUTHENTIC TEXTS**

**Сборник методических материалов  
для магистрантов специальности 1-08 80 06 Общая  
педагогика, история педагогики и образования**

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## ВВЕДЕНИЕ

Изучение иностранных языков является необходимой и неотъемлемой составной частью общеобразовательной профессиональной подготовки научных и научно-педагогических кадров. Это обусловлено интернационализацией научного общения, развитием сотрудничества специалистов и ученых на глобальном уровне и расширением сферы научного дискурса в современной коммуникации. Знание иностранного языка облегчает доступ к научной информации, использование ресурсов Интернета, помогает налаживанию международных научных контактов и расширяет возможности повышения профессионального уровня ученого.

В связи с процессами глобализации усиливаются интеграционные тенденции в науке, культуре и образовании, что повышает роль иностранного языка как посредника всех интеграционных процессов. Именно язык воплощает единство процессов общения, познания и становления личности. В этих условиях цели и задачи изучения языка сближаются с целями и задачами профессиональной подготовки и становления магистранта как ученого, т. е. язык постигается одновременно и вместе с наукой как форма, в которую облекается научное знание в соответствии с условиями научного общения. Современное понимание науки как дискурсивной практики требует при изучении языка приоритетного знания структур и стратегий научного дискурса, форм и средств коммуникации, а также умения ими оперировать. Курс изучения иностранного языка носит, таким образом, профессионально-ориентированный и коммуникативный характер. Его целевая разработка обусловлена необходимостью модернизации отечественного образования и конкретизации его содержания на каждом уровне обучения иностранным языкам.

Целью сборника методических материалов является формирование иноязычной грамотности как средства межкультурного, межличностного и профессионального общения в различных сферах научной деятельности на основе аутентичных текстов. Достижению этой цели способствуют разделы: “The Language of the Text,” “The Structure of the Text,” “The Contents of the Text,” “Complex Assignments.”

Первый раздел включает задания, направленные на формирование лексических навыков и развитие рациональных способов мышления: умения производить различные логические операции (анализ, синтез, установление причинно-следственных связей, аргументирование, обобщение, комментирование), связанные с научной деятельностью на иностранном языке.

Второй и третий разделы способствуют формированию представлений магистрантов о языковых особенностях профессионально-ориентированных аутентичных текстов, овладению умениями структурно и содержательно оформлять речевое высказывание, грамотно реализовывать коммуникативное намерение.

Четвертый раздел обеспечивает обучение магистрантов следующим практическим умениям и навыкам: свободное чтение оригинальной психолого-педагогической литературы; оформление извлеченной из иностранных источников информации в виде перевода, реферата, аннотации; устное общение в монологической и диалогической форме по специальности и общественно-политическим вопросам (доклад, сообщение, презентация, беседа за круглым столом, дискуссия, подведение итогов и т. п.); письменное научное общение на темы, связанные с научной работой (научная статья, тезисы, доклад, перевод, реферирование и аннотирование); различения видов и жанров справочной и научной литературы.

Приложения содержат оригинальные статьи, фрагменты научных работ, содержание которых направлено на развитие иноязычной грамотности, а также научного мировоззрения магистрантов. Приложения включают информацию познавательного характера для расширения кругозора магистрантов.

Данный сборник методических материалов рекомендуется магистрантам и преподавателям лингвистических и педагогических специальностей для практических занятий, подготовки к кандидатскому экзамену по английскому языку.

## UNIT 1 THE LANGUAGE OF THE TEXT

### 1. Read the words and translate them into Russian.

Communication, effective, a teacher, to speak, slow, clear, to use, a word, a student, to be able, to understand, important, a way, a method, a form, a means, to overcome, a non-verbal cue, to receive feedback, to master, vocabulary, to rate, to improve, evaluation, common in, significant, an instructor, perception, learning, experience.

### 2. Group the words according to the parts of speech.

Apply, critical, thinking, skills, academic, process, reading, composition, argumentation, revision, research, presentation, teaching, styles, competent, means, classroom, write, think, subjects, advantages, tactics, behavior, refer.

### 3. Group the words according to the following themes: “Student,” “Communication,” “Research”.

Debate, to exist, fields, to prefer, measures, interaction, gender, socialization, educational, levels, qualification, learning capacity, personal benefits, peers, children, risk, delinquency, achievement, school dropout, inattentiveness, to suggest, impulsiveness, restlessness, to persist, adult life, difficulty, to reach, data, inability, appropriately, parameters, a dialogue, to argue, to agree, questions, strategies, to disprove.

### 4. Form the adjectives from the words below.

Education, significance, effect, importance, difference, presence, qualify, progress, interest, success, quality, quantity, profession, instrument, experiment, pedagogy, practice, impress, psychology, notice, evidence.

**5. Form the verbs from the words below.**

Impressive, teaching, definition, practical, agreeable, persistent, preferable, unreachable, beneficial, learning, revision, perception, presentation.

**6. Make word combinations.**

- |              |                 |
|--------------|-----------------|
| 1) Biased    | a) experience   |
| 2) teaching  | b) systems      |
| 3) female    | c) instructors  |
| 4) learning  | d) communicator |
| 5) essential | e) blindness    |
| 6) competent | f) skill        |
| 7) belief    | g) styles       |
| 8) cultural  | h) perceptions  |

**7. Complete the sentences with the appropriate derivatives of the words given before the text.**

**A. Impress, argue, practice, confident, notice.**

It is important that the teacher is ... present in the classroom. Teach with ..., walk around in the classroom. Even when a teacher doesn't feel that assertive, he/she has to give that ... Pupils feel quickly when a teacher is not very confident and will try to gain control over the teacher and class room situations.

Regularly give positive feedback about a student's behaviour, attitude or task and make sure the class can hear it too. When a student needs a reprimand, don't just shout it out, but go to that student and almost whisper it to him/her. Students will be quiet too since they want to hear what the teacher says to their classmate. Another ... tip to avoid incidents and ... during lesson time is to label books and other materials so that it is clear what belongs to whom.

**B. Refer, psychology, prefer, motive, initiative, punishment.**

Verbal immediacy encompasses linguistic messages that convey interpersonal approach or liking, thus reducing the ... distance between

individuals. Students perceive as more immediate those teachers who use inclusive ... such as “we” instead of “you,” expressions that minimize distance such as “this university” instead of “that university,” present tense instead of past tense, probability such as “will” instead of “may”. Also interpreted as verbally immediate behaviors are teachers' use of humor and self-disclosure in the classroom, calling students by name.

Immediacy research is grounded in approach-avoidance theory. Early conceptualizations of approach-avoidance observed that approach indicates ..., positive evaluation, and liking, whereas avoidance indicates lack of preference, dislike, and, in extreme cases, fear. Thus, a person's affinity for or liking for another person may provide ... to approach the other, to reduce the physical or psychological distance between them. The social impact of approach-avoidance behaviors may be further explained by theories of interpersonal attraction, i.e. affinity between persons and their propensity to interact in order to ... or maintain a relationship. Among the many factors contributing to interpersonal attraction are proximity and reinforcement. Reinforcement suggests that “we like people who reward us and we dislike people who ... us”. In anticipation of physical or psychological reward, then, one may employ immediate behaviors in order to approach another individual.

### **C. Effect, social, care, imply, differ, assess.**

Determining further explanations will require not only an ... faculty's current practices but also how they developed over time through their ... into academia. Understanding the relationship between gender and teaching style can also have ... for practice. Faculty development programs should be aware of results from this study that indicate that gender differences do exist. However, while paying attention to gender and teaching styles is important; practitioners must be ... not to assume that the gap is the same regardless of other faculty and course characteristics. Moreover, although some research indicates that active teaching practices are more ... than lecturing, it is imperative not to assume women are teaching “better” than men. Instead, results from this study can be used as a springboard for conversations about how and why teaching style varies by gender and the best way to meet the needs of both faculty and students in ... environments.

**8. Fill in the gaps with the suitable expressions: visit and revisit; condemn and fetidic; racist, sexist and homophobic; trial and error.**

Many semesters of ... have produced the following annotated bibliography. As we ... the taboo in our classrooms, our bibliography will naturally continue to evolve. Due to the paucity of scholarly research on the value of studying taboo language in the composition classroom, teachers may find themselves relying on primary sources that use ... slurs for very specific purposes. An anonymous Rolling Stone article entitled "Skank Wars!," for example, can be used to open a discussion of the popular media's fondness for applying misogynous epithets to celebrities in ways that simultaneously ... "bad girl" behavior. Other resources can easily be made the starting point of students' research, if not the focus of the unit.

**9. Skim the texts and fill in the gaps with the words which you think may suit.**

1. Importantly, the ... between men and women is not consistent across all contexts and other faculty characteristics. As research on gender continues, it will be ... to determine how and why the gaps are different. Faculty may be developing their own teaching style based on their perceptions of ... and peer expectations. While faculty may have a personal preference for teaching in a certain ..., some could feel pressured to alter their style based on the classroom environment, students, or lack of time due to their other commitments to research and service. Understanding how and ... the gaps vary may also be related to faculty's views on student learning and how they ... their teaching goals for a particular context.

2. Borko and Livingston (1989) described expert teachers' ability to quickly access examples or strategies to reinforce the topic at hand. This ability allowed for ... and efficient lessons. Leinhardt and Greeno (1986) saw that expert teachers had a large ... of routines. These routines can be adapted to each ... and help to increase the time the students are ... with the material. In reviewing the literature, it is clear that the expert teachers have a consistent plan as well as a ... set of strategies and procedures to deal with any student or challenge that arise. For development purposes, teachers will need to ... strategies and routines as well as opportunities to put them into ... and develop new ones.



3. Participation in class ... allows individuals to interact with other students, gain social ..., and access and process information that they could have never gotten on their own. It is truly vital to not only career success after the educational ... is complete, but also for motivation, satisfaction, performance and a variety of emotional indicators during a student's education. Fostering a participative environment is usually the ... of most Western instructors, as there is agreement that an experiential teaching method is incredibly effective. In ..., participation has been linked to critical-thinking skills, problem solving skills, and increased student ....

4. Readers are being taught to scan the informational environment rather than fix ... on a single element. Historically, we might have distinguished between the ... required of farmers and those expected of hunters. The farmer must ... a sequence of tasks that require localized attention; the hunter must scan a complex landscape in search of signs and cues of where a prey may be hiding. For centuries, schools have been designed to ... "farmers" (Hartmann, 1999). In such an organization, the ideal is for all students to ... on one thing, and, indeed, attention is conceived of as the ability to concentrate on one thing for an extended period of ..., while the inability or refusal to maintain such a narrow focus is characterized as a "disorder." Schools adapted to the ... of hunters would have very different practices and might well value the ability to identify the relationship between seemingly unrelated developments within a complex visual field. As we look to the future, one possibility is that schools will be designed to support ... hunters and farmers, ensuring that each child develops multiple modes of ..., multiple strategies for processing information.

5. S. Nipper (1994) suggests that there are basically three generations of distance ... . The first generation is traditional correspondence teaching, the second generation distance teaching he describes as "multi-media"-teaching with broadcasted media, cassettes and some face-to-face tutorials. Both had production and distribution of teaching/... material as the main objective. Communication between the learners has not been the general practice. The ... has mainly been one-way or restricted two-way. Third generation teaching ... on collaboration between the learners in on-line conferencing, with the assistance of a tutor. By communicating in groups, teachers and learners are in a more equal relation. More important: learning, although a personal matter, is no longer an individual matter: one learns best by and with others. To secure communication and socialising in learner networks, a system

allowing asynchronous group communication in an on-line conferencing system, as in CMC (computer mediated communication) has come into increasingly ... use.

**10. Make up sentences with the words given below.**

1. Parents, elders, priests, wise men, traditionally, see, duty, to pass on, knowledge and skills, the next generation.
2. Knowing, doing, teaching, learning, indistinguishable, from.
3. Knowledge, skill, to master.
4. Attention, pay to, training, teaching methods.
5. The great works, medieval scholars, textbooks, use, the purpose of teaching.
6. Today, methods of teaching, influential.
7. Form, small groups, tell, theme.
8. Kids, work, groups.
9. Useful, kids, stimulate, creativity.
10. Divide, class, groups, answer the question.
11. A source of relaxation, get, a lot of answers, a short period of time.
12. Have, complete, evaluation, children's capacity of learning information.

UNIT 2

**THE STRUCTURE OF THE TEXT**

**1. Find the key words in each text and translate them into Russian.**

1. Communication is a complex process. At any stage of this process things may go wrong, making the communication less effective. To be effective, teachers have to try to minimise these barriers to communication. We do this in a number of ways, for example, by making sure that the room is quiet and well lit; by speaking slowly and clearly; by only using words which the students should be able to understand. However, the most important way to overcome the barriers is two-way communication. This means getting regular feedback from students: do they really understand what we are trying to put across? Communication does not only take place by means of words; non-verbal communication (or body language) is equally important. We are all familiar with the kinds of non-verbal communication.

2. The most basic form of communication is non-verbal. Anthropologists theorize that long before human beings used words to talk things over, our ancestors communicated with one another by using their bodies. They gritted their teeth to show anger; they smiled and touched one another to indicate affection. Although we have come a long way since those primitive times, we still use non-verbal cues to express superiority, dependence, dislike, respect, love, and other feelings. Non-verbal communication differs from verbal communication in fundamental ways. For one thing, it is less structured, which makes it more difficult to study. A person cannot pick up a book on non-verbal language and master the vocabulary of gestures, expressions and inflections that are common in our culture. We don't really know how people learn non-verbal behaviour. No one teaches a baby to cry or smile, yet these forms of self-expression are almost universal. Other types of non-verbal communication, such as the meaning of colors and certain gestures, vary from culture to culture.

3. Understanding how and why men and women teach differently is critical to assisting faculty in their efforts to improve their teaching. Student evaluations are a common method for faculty to receive feedback about their teaching. Research has shown that students' evaluations can be significantly influenced by the gender of their instructors. Many studies reveal that students tend to rate female faculty members' differently than male faculty members. Reasons for these findings are multifaceted. For example, students may hold biased perceptions of the differences between men and women faculty. It is also possible, however, that students are accurately assessing the difference between teaching styles that is attributable to the gender of the faculty. A study revealed that students perceived female instructors to be more sensitive and considerate of student ideas whereas male instructors were believed to be more knowledgeable. If students are, even in part, picking up on real differences, understanding the effect of gender on teaching styles is important. Teaching styles differences are based on measures of inclusion and sensitivity preferences. The styles of male and female faculty differ especially in how much each of the genders values student inclusion. Whereas over half of the female faculty members believe that students should be allowed to define the learning experience for themselves and discern their own style, male faculty believe they are the bearers of the information and know what it is best for students.

4. Communication is an essential skill utilized by any teacher. It is important to be a culturally competent communicator. It is also important to identify the belief systems of both the student and teacher to spot blocks to communication. Ethnocentrism is the inability to accept another culture's world view: "My way is the best." Discrimination is differential treatment of an individual due to minority status, actual and perceived: "We just aren't equipped to serve a person like that." Stereotyping is generalizing about a person while ignoring the presence of individual difference: "She's like that because she's Asian — all Asians are non-verbal." Cultural blindness means that differences are ignored and one proceeds as though differences did not exist: "There's no need to worry about a person's culture — if you're a sensitive teacher, you do okay." Cultural imposition is a belief that everyone should conform to the majority: "We know what's best for you, if you don't like it you can go elsewhere."

5. There have been discovered a number of advantages, both practical and personal, associated with the teaching of taboos in class.

In the first place, controversial topics such as taboos are quite productive in terms of allowing students to practise the kinds of skills that we teach in the rhetoric classroom. The challenging nature of a unit on taboos encourages students to learn to apply critical thinking skills to academic processes like reading, composition, argumentation, revision, and research presentation.

Furthermore, by asking students to write and think about subjects that are impolite or even downright offensive, we ask them to move beyond the niches of academic discourse with which they are familiar from their previous English courses. As such, a classroom unit that focuses on the taboo prevents students from re-working those overdone "current events" research paper topics that they relied on to get through high school. They have no template in mind for writing about such subjects, and so they become more aware of their existing writing processes and more open to trying different composition tactics from the ones that they learned before they arrived in the freshman rhetoric classroom.

## **2. Divide each text into paragraphs and explain the offered structure.**

1. One cannot analyze communication mechanisms without referring to the concept of discourse. Verbal language never constitutes homogeneous

entity. As a social instrument of communication and interaction between people, it diversifies and specialises itself according to the users, and current usage to generate different kind of discourses. A communication situation corresponds to an archetypal discourse manifestation that can at least be identified and described by the following three general properties: Socio-educational communication constitutes a kind of assistance in social life and includes loosely structured actions on non-academic topics, to bring about behaviours or teach much needed knowledge in social life situations (in the professional sphere or elsewhere). In other words, it contributes to the harmonious integration of the individual in society. In addition, this type of communication presents but a few institutional constrains. It often deals with focused short term actions, limited in scope and framed as sensitisation or 'educational' campaigns. Within such a scheme, certification, medium or long term evaluations, when they exist, mostly consider whether a given campaign has had an influence on the social behaviour targeted. Conversely, didactic communication is strictly limited to a pedagogic rationale determined by institutions or guardian organisms such as schools and/or industries. Themes and contents are directly related to fixed curricula or industry-defined professional profiles. Consequently, the teaching provided is strongly structured according to modular or curricular constraints, bridges and pathways are organised between levels of qualification and along various schooling paths and, in most cases, a certification is guaranteed on completion of the training.

2. Non-verbal communication also differs from verbal communication in terms of intent and spontaneity. We generally plan our words. When we say, "Please open the door", we have a conscious purpose. We think about the message, if only for a moment. But when we communicate non-verbally, we sometimes do so unconsciously. We don't mean to raise an eyebrow or blush. Those actions come naturally. Without our consent, our emotions are written all over our faces. The non-verbal component of communication is at least as important as the verbal content. For example, when verbal and non-verbal messages contradict, receivers typically believe the non-verbal message. On television, especially, "expressions usually dominate words". Verbal communication is more persuasive when factual arguments are presented, but non-verbal communication is more relevant to impression formation and emotional expression. In the case of 9/11 coverage, one of the most emotional events in recent history, viewers were decoding both factual and emotional information in an attempt to make sense of the event. Studies that

examine only the verbal information and not the visual lead to an incomplete understanding of the impressions viewers may form. Effective communication involves both content and affect. Although often unintentional, non-verbal behaviors can have powerful effects on viewers. A few studies have examined non-verbal behavior and credibility, which is especially relevant to broadcasters. They show that a sender's credibility increased with proximity to observers, less rigid body orientation, more eye contact, nodding, smiling, facial pleasantness, and moderate gesturing. It is likely that the critical component involved in communicating trustworthiness operates on a non-verbal level. Positive expressions convey higher dominance and affiliation, negative expressions convey lower dominance and affiliation, and these are independent of facial attractiveness.

3. Interestingly, the largest disciplinary differences exist between hard and soft fields, suggesting that these fields have different preferred teaching styles. The gap between men and women in life fields is smaller on both dependent measures than for non-life fields. This suggests some interaction between gender and disciplinary socialization or norms. Socialization into life fields may diminish the gender effect as a result of the gender balance. It may also be that life fields are more likely to deal with gender differences as a part of course content, which could have an effect on how instructors decide to teach. Interestingly though, life fields tend to lecture more and do less active practices than non-life fields, even after controlling for other disciplinary and course characteristics. There is a difference in the gender gap for active practices between pure and applied fields. Both pure and applied fields are male dominated, so the diminishing of the gender differences may be due to the strong traditions about teaching in pure fields. The interaction between course size and gender is an indication that some practicalities can interrupt gender differences. It may simply be too difficult once a course reaches a certain size to continue to use active practices. Interestingly, this diminished gap in active practices for larger classes does not manifest itself as a significant diminishing of the gap in lecturing, suggesting that women tend to move away from active practices toward something other than lecturing. This study has several key implications for future research. First, while there is an overall effect of gender supporting the notion that women have a greater affinity for active practices, gender should not be treated as if it effects all groups of faculty with the same strength. The difference in the gender gaps between disciplinary groupings

is a perfect example. Explaining why these differences exist seems like a logical follow-up to this work.

Is there a perceived need for the gender differences in teaching? In other words, is it that men and women are, in general, equally equipped for effective instruction, but they differ in their practice because they actively choose their instructional methods based on an understanding of what will work best for their students? Alternatively, is the gap simply a product of tradition or a byproduct of gender socialization (i.e., women, because of social norms, tend to pay more attention to their teaching and do better at matching instructional modes to their classroom needs)?

4. Form some small groups from the class and tell them the daily theme. The kids are working in groups. Give each group a piece of drawing. Let all the groups come in front of the class and present their drawing. Encourage the other pupils to ask questions about it. Put the drawings on the walls, and let all the pupils come and write a small note on the drawing. This is how you make sure that every kid receives feedback about his work. They also have the chance to compare their work with others. Draw a lotus on the table and ask one kid at a time to write his opinion about the theme on one petal. This is very useful as a lot of kids will say what they want to say and also could stimulate creativity. This is one of the teacher resources that use the group strategy. Write the problem in the middle of a five cornered star. In every corner write: what? Who? Where? Why? When? Divide the class into five groups and ask every group to answer the question. It is very easy to apply, as you don't need a lot of teacher resources to make this work. It is a source of relaxation and you can get a lot of answers in a short period of time. Also helps the kids to make connections between several concepts. Announce the theme to the class, and let them write everything about it. Ask some questions, present the theme rigorously, and then let the kids write their impressions again. This method is connected with the opinion feedback. Try this again after a few days. You will have a complete evaluation about the children's capacity of learning information. The pupils will also be conscious about their learning capacity.

5. Readings on taboo subject matter are often missing from both the typical rhetoric anthology and the syllabi of our students' other coursework. As any quick perusal of media popular to students (including hip hop and hard rock music and television shows like South Park and Family Guy) will show, subject matter and language that is widely considered taboo is a big

part of our students' everyday lives. Thus, a unit on taboo provides instructors with an opportunity to teach students to academically explore resources that are beyond the scope used for the traditional research paper and to train an academic eye on popular sources that they would usually consider to be outside of the purview of scholarship. For example, teachers have students peruse primary sources through archival research, create their own scholarly sources by conducting interviews or surveys with their peers, and use traditional reference sources like the Oxford English Dictionary in conversation with popular texts such as YouTube videos. The subject matter of our particular units on race and gender are also especially suited to the classroom because they help to drive home to students that the ways in which our words are used, and the manner in which we intellectually frame the objects of our discourse, matter. Language taboos are all about who gets to say what and how they can say it. The rules of verbal etiquette determine the euphemisms that are okay for broad audiences and those that should not be spoken around the dinner table. Students who have been inculcated in the "rules" of a particular taboo tend to think of these proscriptions as "natural" and set in stone, that words and ideas mean the things that they do because "that is just the way things are." Asking students to research the ways that taboos develop over the course of time, the way that language shifts its meaning as it is deployed by living speakers, can help them to see other cultural issues that they think of as resolved under a new rubric of openness and debate.

### **3. Arrange the passages of each text in the logical order.**

1. The relationship between language and physical well-being also plays a central role in discussions of misogynous and ethnic slurs. While researching the controversy surrounding the ubiquity of the word "nigger" in rap and hip hop, one student discovered the slur scrawled across a dorm mate's door. Such raw, unsettling evidence of the connection between verbal and physical violence compelled her to question the degree to which positive and even downright playful appropriations of slurs can rob them of their hateful sting. Clearly, discussions of the taboo drive home for students how the way in which one controls and shapes the terms of a debate can have powerful and far-reaching effects.

Once students are convinced that taboos are culturally constructed, it is worthwhile to transition to thinking about the consequences that such taboos



have for the lives of real people. For example, once a topic such as menstruation is labeled as taboo, we become much less likely as a society to invest attention and resources into the study of that topic. This can lead to the rise of easily preventable disasters.

Of course, there are those who have argued that politics and controversy have no place in the classroom. One worry is that a class that is focused on such issues will morph into a platform from which teachers can instill their own political beliefs into their students. We agree that such a classroom structure in which the teacher “resolves” contentious issues by telling students what they should or should not think is both totally inappropriate and contrary to the mission of rhetoric instruction. It is our belief that this potential problem can be avoided if proper care is taken to frame out for students the purpose for which the taboo is being evoked. So long as we continually and consistently attach every reading and every activity to a particular scholarly practice that we expect the students to attempt, we can escape the trap of inculcating our students with our own viewpoints.

Finally, teaching taboos has brought about some personal benefits for our students that we did not expect. For many of our students, writing is a rather scary proposition. Facing the blank page or the empty screen is something they dread. However, students have expressed to us that our taboo units helped them to feel as though they “broke the ice.” Students felt that, once they discovered that they were capable of writing a paper about such uncomfortable subjects, more conventional assignments seemed easier. They tended to feel that, if they could write about menstruation or about curse words, of all things, then they could write about any subject that they come across in their academic careers.

2. Peer relationships have been found to be an important predictor of positive adult adjustment and behavior. Difficulty in finding friends leads to feelings of low self-esteem and these feelings usually continue into adulthood.

Attention-deficit hyperactivity disorder or ADHD is a common childhood condition that can be treated. ADHD may affect certain areas of the brain that allow problem solving, planning ahead, understanding others' actions, and impulse control. The symptoms must also create a real handicap in at least two of the following areas of the child's life: in the classroom, on the playground, at home, in the community, or in social settings.

Children with poor social skills are at risk for delinquency, academic underachievement, and school dropout. Even though the inattentiveness, impulsiveness, and restlessness frequently persist into adult life, these

problems are of less importance as the child gets older. Rather, the main difficulty ADHD patients encounter as they reach maturity is their inability to interact appropriately with others.

ADHD children often lack the social skills that are essential to success in life. These children can be socially inept, and their lack of interpersonal skills may cause them a multitude of difficulties. In addition, positive relationships with friends in childhood provide a critical buffer against stress and help to protect against psychological and psychiatric problems. ADHD children lack these positive interactions and thus are at risk for a number of emotional problems. Probably 60% of ADHD children suffer from peer rejection.

ADHD children tend to be more impulsive and aggressive than other children. Teachers observe that the social interactions of ADHD children more often involve fighting and interrupting others. These children are more intense than others and behave inappropriately in social contexts. For example, ADHD children are more likely to yell, run around and talk at unsuitable times. They also tend to want to dominate play, engage in off task behaviors and engage more in teasing and physical jostling of peers. This sets up a process of peer rejection.

ADHD children are less often chosen by peers to be best friends, partners in activities, or seat mates. As the children grow older, their social problems seem to get worse. Their inappropriate behavior leads to further social rejection and exacerbates their inability to relate to others appropriately. Long term these children are more likely to have difficulty finding and maintaining successful careers. This is not surprising since social aptitude can make or break careers and relationships in the adult world.

3. Here are some effective child discipline techniques using instruction. State boundaries and commands clearly and concisely. As parents, we cannot flip-flop when children try to bargain or negotiate — and they will. Children will test us to see if we will give in to their persuasive pleas (no matter their age). We must deliver our instructions calmly, yet steadfastly, not as a quivering request. It is more effective to say, “Do not go into the street. Stay in our yard,” instead of “Mommy doesn’t want you to leave the yard, ok?” Children must know when parents are serious.

Through proper discipline, children learn how to function in a family and society that is full of boundaries, rules, and laws by which we all must abide. With it, children gain a sense of security, protection, and often feel accomplishment. Without proper discipline, children are at risk for a variety of behavioral and emotional problems.

How do we effectively implement child discipline? The Bible says parents have a God-given responsibility to train their child in the way he should go. That challenge often requires that we first learn to discipline ourselves in the matters of child rearing. Whether parenting skills come naturally or we learn them through trial and error, they are accomplished by consistency, encouragement, and example.

Our authority must be clearly, consistently established. Use only the necessary words, and teach your children to develop eye contact and listening skills. Show, by example, that you listen to them as you expect them to listen. Remember to make rewards and disciplinary consequences not only age appropriate, but also task appropriate. Don't over-punish minor misbehaviors.

Teach your child that all actions bring consequences. Encourage them when they make good choices. They need to know the benefits of obeying and making good choices, as well as the negative consequences for disobedience.

Child discipline is one of the most important elements of successful parenting, yet more and more, parents just don't know what to do. Discipline (or training) might simply be defined as a process to help children learn appropriate behaviors and make good choices. In addition, loving, effective discipline aids a child in exercising self-control, accountability, and mutual respect.

4. Physical or corporal punishment comprises actions intended to cause the child physical pain or discomfort but not injuries. Minor physical punishment includes shaking the child and slapping or hitting him or her on the hand, arm, leg or bottom. Severe physical punishment includes hitting the child on the face, head or ears, or hitting the child hard or repeatedly.

Child discipline should start in the beginning. You should enjoy holding, cuddling, and talking with your baby. Studies have reported that infants respond to the sounds of the human voice. Talking to your child early may help in your child's brain development and train them to know what we expect by our tone (i.e. "Mommy loves you" or "It's time to go to sleep now").

Your baby will learn very quickly that crying brings response. When a child is hungry and cries, it gets fed. Begin training your infant to know the times he will be held and cuddled and the times he needs to be put in his crib. Speaking coupled with action is where child training should begin.

Violent discipline is defined as actions taken by a parent or caregiver that are intended to cause a child physical pain or emotional distress as a way to correct behaviour and act as a deterrent. Violent discipline can take two forms: psychological aggression and physical, or corporal, punishment. The former includes shouting, yelling and screaming at the child, and addressing her or him with offensive names.

Most new parents think about discipline only after negative behaviors begin. Your child does not automatically know what is expected; you must spend time teaching him. While we encourage our children to learn to make choices, they need our guidance. It is to their benefit to lovingly lead them into compliance with praise for the positives. From the start, put forth effort in your responsibility as a parent. Your child will thank you for it.

5. To help the child overcome the complex of unattractiveness, you need patience and constant attention to his appearance. If the “inconvenient” part of body really needs correction, tell a teenager how to better cope with it, nor in any way making fun of excessive attention to this matter. Sometimes it is enough simply to change her hairdo/hairstyle or to pick up another style of dress.

Almost every teenager finds a flaw in their appearance, causing psychological distress. Someone confuses thinness; someone does not seem to measure the stall. Any part of body can cause serious experiences.

But, as practice shows, the most dissatisfaction with appearance at puberty is the nature of nit-picking and driven by the desire to look more attractive. Then you have every day, choosing the words, repeating a child that he is really beautiful and will be even better because, growing up, all are beautiful.

Requiring permanent academic excellence parents lead children to believe that they are loved not for what they are but for their successes. Try to protect the child from the most common complex. Praise him. You should not only pay attention to negative behavior. Praise for help and a kind word will give the child strength to believe in himself. Do not indulge the child. When a child with a habit of permissiveness enters the independent world, the reaction of others may make him withdraw into himself. Do not “advertise” your child to his relatives and friends, if your child is sensitive and unassuming. It is not worth conducting unnecessary tests, requesting to read poetry, sing a song.

Students of vocational schools, the best students at Harvard, children with braces on his teeth, beautiful women with long legs, pathological losers in love affairs, Don Juans with a triple-digit “track record” suffer from inferiority complex. Complex roots grow from childhood or early adulthood.

#### **4. Make a plan of each text.**

1. We have found that one good way to “warm students up” to the idea that we will be spending time discussing taboos in the classroom is to start off with a taboo that seems less threatening and controversial. The various

rules and practices that surround food are a good example of this type of taboo. Most students do not realize that they have painstakingly absorbed a number of rules from their culture about which kinds of edible matter are “food” and which are disgusting and vile. These distinctions are phrased in the language of morality. For example, to eat the parts of an animal that Western middle class individuals usually do not eat, like the eyes or the genitals, or to eat species that their cultures do not usually raise for food, like horses, cats, or dogs, is “wrong.” We have especially enjoyed classroom discussions about whether or not of cannibalism can or should be condemned as immoral. Asking students to come to see their relationship with food as culturally constructed is an excellent way to open up a conceptual crack into the matrix of morality, manners, and taboos that they think of as natural and universal, which in turn might short-circuit feelings of discomfort when more dearly held assumptions are challenged. Although students' responses to our units have largely been quite favorable, we should note that a few students have shown reluctance to explore subject matter they regard as inappropriate, if not immoral. While many students overcame any reservations they may have had as soon as they recognized the project as an opportunity to write academically and authoritatively about unconventional academic topics, a few students have tested our resourcefulness and powers of persuasion. Brainstorming lists of more innocuous-looking slurs — words like “flip,” “cracker,” and “queen” — is one strategy for putting students who prefer not to use patently offensive language at ease. Asking students to think of situations in which they wouldn't be surprised to hear inappropriate language can also help prepare students to pull taboo language out of the closet. By investigating why offensive language seems “natural” in certain contexts (such as a men's locker room or an episode of “Sex and the City”), students ultimately circle back to the question of why it seems so unnatural in the classroom; perhaps more importantly, they begin to confront the politics of the distinction between “natural” and “unnatural” language. They begin, in other words, to wonder exactly who decides what taboo is and what is not.

2. There has been much talk lately about global culture and its inexorable advance throughout the world following the fall of the “iron curtain.” The key components of this global culture are the new communication networks (in particular, the Internet), free information exchange and capital flow, the expansion of international corporations, tourism, etc. In fact, by talking about a global culture we most often mean — explicitly or implicitly, approvingly or disapprovingly — Panamericanism.

On the other hand, the concept of multiculturalism is still holding strong. According to this concept, all cultures, even small and historically dominated ones, have a value of their own and must be equally represented, both within big national cultures and internationally.

Globalism and multiculturalism engage in ideological wars and sometimes in street fights with each other. So, are we doomed to this struggle or is a third way still possible?

The prospects of either globalism or so-called “multiculturalism” look equally grim to me. A single culture throughout the world, the same Hollywood and rock music with minor local variations (“American by content, national by form”)... Or a multitude of small cultures that are closed onto themselves and that come out in the big world only to demonstrate their “pride” and then hide again in their ethnic enclave or sexual closet...

Globalism and multiculturalism share one common feature which is determinism. In the first case, determinism parades as “an irreversible trend of world development, common to all countries and nations” (globalism); in the other case, as an “insurmountable dependence of culture on gender, race, ethnos and sexual orientation of its representatives” (multiculturalism). The rigid frameworks of these concepts leave no freedom of choice for the individual, who is doomed to this or that culture by his or her physical origin or by the global domination of one culture.

The world may even be moving towards a combination of these two determinisms: one horizontal and the other vertical, the former represented by American globalism (“mass culture”) and the latter — by multiculturalism, also of the same American type (“the pride of minorities”). However, when two grim prospects are brought together, neither of them gets any brighter. Two determinisms do not make an individual freer, even though they create the illusion that one can play on their contradictions and hide from the one in the shelter of the other.

Transculture is a model of cultural development, which differs from both leveling globalism and isolating pluralism. Among the many freedoms proclaimed as inalienable rights of the individual, there emerges yet another freedom which is probably the most meaningful one — the freedom from one’s own culture, in which one was born and educated.

This is completely different from the political right to freely choose one’s place of living, to emigrate and to cross state borders. Too many people who leave the geographical location of their culture remain, for the rest of their lives, prisoners of its language and traditions. Other migrants, having turned their back on their past, become prisoners of a different, newly acquired culture. Perhaps, only a small number of people, when acceding to two or several cultures, are able to keep their freedom from any of them.

Transculture is a new aspect of cultural development, which transcends the borders of traditional national, racial, gender and professional cultures. Transculture overcomes the isolation of these traditions, language and value determinations, and broadens the field of “supra-cultural” creativity. We acquire transculture at the boundaries of our own culture and at the crossroads with other cultures. Transculture is a freedom that cannot be proclaimed, but only sought and partly realized through the risky experience of one’s own cultural wanderings and transmutations.

3. Traditionally, the Tuesday of the first full week of May is the National Teacher Day in the USA. Therefore the actual date varies from one year to another. Teacher Day is a remarkable occasion to show our teacher appreciation, whether we are students or we wish to compliment a former teacher. Additionally, the whole week is considered as the Teacher Appreciation Week, and lots of activities are carried out on this occasion. The origins of Teacher Day are murky. Around 1944 Mattye Whyte Woodridge, an Arkansas teacher, began corresponding with political and education leaders about the need for a national day to honor teachers and show teacher appreciation. Woodridge wrote to Eleanor Roosevelt who in 1953 persuaded the 81st Congress to proclaim a National Teacher Day that would serve to the purpose of celebrating teacher appreciation across the nation.

The National Education Association (NEA) along with its Kansas and Indiana state affiliates and the Dodge City (Kan.) local lobbied Congress to create a national day celebrating teachers. Congress declared March 7, 1980, as National Teacher Day for that year only. NEA and its affiliates continued to observe Teacher Day on the first Tuesday in March until 1985, when NEA and the National PTA established Teacher Appreciation Week as the first full week of May. The NEA Representative Assembly then voted to make the Tuesday of that week National Teacher Day.

Teachers are true heroes in our communities, who through their dedication to children work millions of small miracles every day. And the vast majority of teachers in the United States are proud to be advocates for children, public education, and their profession. Additionally, there are hundreds of teachers and education support professionals actively serving in the U.S. military.

National Teacher Day focuses on the contributions teachers make to help children succeed in school and in life. Public schools are where children learn to be Americans. School is where they learn the Pledge of Allegiance and the U.S. Constitution. It provides students their first opportunity to vote. It is where we all learn that wherever we are from, we are united as Americans.

### **5. Sort out the information and make up three different texts.**

Printed matter forms the most obvious kind of communication medium among teachers. In all countries there are both general and specialist educational journals and newspapers; educational bodies of various kinds issue their own newsletters, broadsheets, and bulletins. The volume of material published in this form has increased enormously. In some countries books, journal articles, and research reports are systematically abstracted and distributed, and some schools have their own library and information services.

Infant school, pre-school, and the first or second year of formal schooling are collectively termed Early Childhood Education in the United States. Formal primary education is called Elementary Education and ranges from first grade through grade 4, 5, or 6, depending on state and district regulations. The upper level of primary education is often organized separately into a unit called Middle School, which begins at grade 4, 5, or 6 and ends at grade 6, 7, or 8. Likewise, the lower grades of secondary education (years 7, 8, or 9 depending on state and district regulations) are sometimes organized separately into what is called Junior High School. Regular (including upper) secondary education is called High School, beginning in grade 8, 9, or 10 and ending at grade 12, again depending on state and district regulations.

Current views of teacher-learning move beyond the view of the teacher as an individual entity attempting to master content knowledge and unravel the hidden dimensions of his or her own teaching, and consider learning as a social process. Rather than teaching being viewed as the transfer of knowledge, it is understood as creating conditions for the co-construction of knowledge and understanding through social participation. There are several forms such participation may take.

One strategy is known as dialogic teaching, that is, teaching which centers around conversations with other teachers focusing on teaching and learning issues during which teachers examine their own beliefs and practices and engage in collaborative planning, problem solving, and decision-making.

Training on the job involves more than courses, conferences, and other organized study programs. Such efforts belong to a much broader system of communication whereby all those who are involved in the educational enterprise — teachers, administrators, research workers, curriculum-development specialists, teacher trainers — keep in touch with one another and with developments in their respective fields. One must therefore consider the media that are available for in-service education as well as institutional arrangements by means of which such training is provided.



The subject matter of a discipline is generally referred to as content knowledge. Content knowledge refers to what teachers need to know about what they teach (rather than what they know about teaching itself), and constitutes knowledge that would not be shared with teachers of other subject areas. Two aspects of content knowledge need to be distinguished: disciplinary knowledge and pedagogical content knowledge. Disciplinary knowledge refers to a circumscribed body of knowledge that is considered by the language teaching profession to be essential to gaining membership of the profession. Disciplinary knowledge is part of professional education, and does not translate into practical skills.

When language teaching emerged as an academic discipline in the 1960s, this disciplinary knowledge was largely drawn from the field of general linguistics, but today it encompasses a much broader range of content. Pedagogical content knowledge on the other hand refers to knowledge that provides a basis for language teaching. It is knowledge which is drawn from the study of language teaching and language learning itself and which can be applied in different ways to the resolution of practical issues in language teaching.

Thus, different schools divide the 12 years into various stages. Most common are the 6-3-3, consisting of 6 years of elementary school, 3 years of junior high, and 3 of high school; and the 6-2-4, consisting of 2 years of junior high and 4 years of high school. These years are referred to as freshman (9th), sophomore (10th), junior (11th), and senior (12th). There is no division into academic or vocational streams. Instead, junior and senior high schools offer a wide variety of courses, some of which are required of all students, the others elective (elected by the student).

**6. Prepare a text “Key Components Required for Enhanced Teaching” based on the scheme below.**



## UNIT 3

### THE CONTENTS OF THE TEXT

#### 1. Give a title to each text.

1. Second Language Teacher Education (SLTE) is a relatively new specialization within language teaching and, in the form that we know it today, dates from the 1960s. It was during the 1960s that language teaching began a major period of expansion worldwide and that new methodologies emerged to reinvigorate the field of second and foreign language teaching. The origins of specific approaches to teacher training for language teachers began around this time with training programs designed to give prospective teachers the practical classroom skills needed to teach the new methods. The discipline of applied linguistics dates from the same period, and with it came a body of specialized academic knowledge and theory that provided the foundation of the new discipline. The relationship between practical teaching skills and academic knowledge, and their representation in SLTE programs has generated a debate ever since.

But the field of SLTE did not really begin to establish its own identity within language teaching until it was recognized that an understanding of the nature of teacher-learning is central to both theory and practice in language teacher education. A focus on teacher-learning as a field of inquiry seeks to examine the mental processes involved in teacher-learning and acknowledges the “situated” and the social nature of learning.

2. For many years, researchers viewed teaching as a purely instrumental activity involving the transfer of knowledge and skills. The same was true of teacher education. It was only in the 1980’s that educational researchers began to conceive of teaching as something more — as an activity that is deeply and inescapably moral in nature.

What, do we mean, though, by “moral”? A simple definition is offered in the following: morality is that set of a person’s beliefs which are evaluative in nature, that is, which concern matters of what is good and what is bad, what is right and what is wrong.

In other words, teaching is “moral” because it involves making decisions about what is good and right (and what is bad and wrong) for your students. The moral dimension of teaching and teacher education is clearly visible in at least three important aspects of our work. First, all teaching involves relation, and all relations between people are moral in nature — the way we

treat one another is always a matter of good and bad. Second, teaching aims at changing students. The assumption must be that this change is for the better — that is, our teaching makes students' lives in some way richer, more fulfilled and more fulfilling. Third, the classroom is such a complex environment, and each class so unique, that educational research can never tell us exactly how to teach — at most it can give us some guidelines. For the most part we have to rely on what I call “professional faith” — the informed belief that we are teaching the best way we know how.

3. For those practitioners and researchers in teacher education who find the perspective outlined here to be compelling, the question naturally arises of what this means for the conduct of research in our field. It would seem that a combination of certain qualities — the unique character of each teaching encounter; the fact that we are teaching students to become teachers; and the equally important fact that in teacher education, in the great majority of cases those who do the teacher education also conduct research into it — this combination, then, suggests to me that self-study of teacher education is a particularly apt and useful form of research.

Self-study of teacher education emphasizes what Watson (2007) calls “small stories,” and often focuses on critical incidents (Tripp, 1994) in teacher education practice. Dinkelman (2003), in arguing for the importance of self-study in mainstream teacher education, presents five arguments for why it is an especially appropriate model for teacher educators who are conducting research: the congruence of reflection with the activity of teaching, the potential of self-study for knowledge production, the opportunity to model reflective practice, the value for students of participating in self-study, possibilities for programmatic change.

Self-study produces inquiry that is focused on situated practice: on actual classes taught by particular teacher educators to particular teacher learners. It is narrative-based, accepting the premise that teachers and teacher educators learn through narrative forms of knowing as least much as through propositional knowledge. It is reflective, encouraging the practitioner to think critically about her own practice. And it is theorized, meaning that we don't merely describe “what we did” in a given class, but strive for deeper conceptualizations of our work and alternative ways of understanding the processes and outcomes of teacher education.

4. Briefly charting the history of teacher preparation is instructive in learning how the United States arrived at its current model. While state-approved

teacher preparation programs are the norm throughout the nation today, this has not always been the case. It was only after the Civil War that most states required teachers to pass a locally administered examination to receive a state certificate, typically including a test in basic skills, but also in U.S. history, geography, spelling and grammar. Still, the state role in teacher preparation was kept to a minimum, with no uniform approach to teacher certification applied in the 19th century. Around the turn of the century, however, relatively small teachers colleges and departments of pedagogy at some of the nation's universities were converted into undergraduate and graduate schools of education. These revamped institutions developed specializations in fields such as school administration, curriculum development and educational psychology.

As historians David Angus and Diane Ravitch have argued, the creation of schools of education marked a turning point in the history of American education. The formal establishment of schools of education had two reverberating effects: the division between classroom teachers and teacher educators, and the formalized split between pedagogy and the traditional disciplines of the liberal arts and sciences.

5. Whereas history, English and science departments stressed the importance of subject-area knowledge for teachers, the new leaders of the teaching profession in schools of education and teacher colleges stressed the importance of courses in pedagogy and passing related tests. Authority over teacher certification was increasingly focused at the state level, and its substance was increasingly focused on the completion of teacher education programs. This replaced the former system, which had emphasized local certificates and the passing of subject-matter examinations. Leaders in the teaching profession sought to boost the professional image and prestige of teaching, seeking to elevate it to the status of law or medicine, by controlling entry into the teaching ranks through increasingly prescriptive state laws and regulations.

**2. Read the text and answer the questions that follow.**

To make a good learning or study environment, the course developers must bear in mind something called “constructive alignment.” According to John Biggs (1999), this process denotes the aim of removing inconsistencies between the curriculum, teaching methods, assessment procedures and educational environment and learning objectives. Clearly defined learning

objectives are crucial. Instructional design must articulate educational purposes and construct tasks and learning activities appropriate to those purposes.

When the goals and the study environment have been established, the student must be given access to resources to work with in order to achieve the goals. The course developer thus has to map the learning-enhancing resources for each section and then give access to or produce these resources. In order to support the student in finding her/his way in a “sea of information”, it would be advantageous to give the student more resources than he can use. The crux is that the student must learn to get an overview of the mass of information and then critically pick and choose. Learning resources can be the Internet, textbooks, articles, summaries, graphics/photos, animations, on-line lectures (video), on-line lectures with power point slides, video clippings, quizzes, on-line auto-correcting self-assessment tests.

The learning goals focus somewhat less on knowledge acquisition by individuals, and more on knowledge-generation with others. An effective learner is versatile and can actively utilize different strategies and approaches for different contexts and purposes, for example gaining understanding from texts, creating knowledge with others through a project, actively listening to an exposition, building dialogue with people of different stances and so on. Effective learning advances effective learning processes: distinctions between process and outcome decrease.

“Increasingly, transferable generic skills — which it is expected will be required for future employment — are being specified as learning objectives. For instance, adaptability, creativity, communication and social skills, problem solving, organisation, time management, being able to work independently, meta-cognition and the use of information technology are being identified as important as are personal competencies which develop citizenship”(V. Bayliss, 1998).

It seems the more time the student can spend collaborating in problem-solving with peers, the better. Co-operative cultures and group investigation methods give better academic results. Learners develop interpersonal and management skills, and improved communication skills and positive multiethnic relations. The effective learner is described as active and strategic, skilled in cooperation, dialogue and creating knowledge with others, is able to develop goals and plans and monitors his/her own learning.

Experience indicates that tutor follow-up is crucial. When individual assignments and group assignments, including “Tutor Marked Assignments” are given, the tutor must call or contact students who have not contributed within the deadline. These types of collaborative studies entail that the pure

individual constructivist approach cannot be followed. Studies anytime, anywhere are not quite compatible with social constructivist collaborative studies. The group must meet deadlines, and that means group members depend on each other's contributions at correct timing.

When an on-line course has been planned, with academic content, generic skills to learn and practice, and a meta-learning environment with study guide; an archive of resources is available and all parts have gone through a process of constructive alignment, the course can be constructed in a "Content Management System" (CMS). The CMS version can then be incorporated in a "Learning Management System" (LMS) to facilitate communication, collaboration and administration. The students and the study groups will also be able to publish their findings, articles, reports, tests and websites in individual student folders and in group folders using the LMS.

The students and the tutors need training in Computer Mediated Communication. Such tools are e-mail, on-line conferencing (virtual group room), asynchronous and synchronous. Phone, video-conferences and web-pages may be additional tools. At times during the study, to ensure "the human touch", facilitate cooperation and personal communication, and hands-on tutoring when necessary, face-to face meetings should be arranged.

### Questions

1. What is "constructive alignment"?
2. What are the functions of the course developer?
3. What can be the learning resources?
4. What do the learning goals focus on?
5. What are the characteristics of an effective learner?
6. What is V. Bayliss's pedagogical concept?
7. What does experience indicate?
8. What is the idea of "the human touch"?

### 3. Agree or disagree.

1. The learner must carry out a variety of cognitive operations on new information, in order to make it personally meaningful. The type of cognitive processing in which the learner engages will be the major determinant of what they learn. The important contrast between the types of cognitive processes that a learner may carry out is between 'deep processing' and 'shallow processing'. In the former, the learner expends considerable mental effort in making personal sense of new information, with the result that they

can be said to understand it. In the latter, they may (at best) add the information to memory in such a way that they can repeat it word-for-word, but without any semblance of real understanding.

2. What a learner already knows will not play a large role in determining what sense they can make of new information. The extent of relevant prior knowledge — particularly knowledge activated during the learning process — is a major factor in determining the efficacy of a particular learning event.

3. Every learner builds their own knowledge in an idiosyncratic way, using past experience and existing knowledge to make sense of new information. Since two learners have the same knowledge and experience, all new information is dealt with in different ways by different learners. This does not mean that a teacher can have no insight into a learner's idiosyncratic ways of knowing.

4. Effective learning is characterised by both (a) the learner's awareness of their own learning activity and (b) the learner's ability to take action based on this reflection. When a learner stands back from their current task, or 'moves up' to look at it from a higher level, they are said to be engaging in metacognitive activity. Metacognitive skills include reflection and self-regulation. Effective learners often have a good idea about how they learn, and are able to use that knowledge to monitor and adjust their approach to problems.

5. Teachers do not always have clear ideas about why they are asking learners to undertake certain tasks (for example, working through a set of exercises in a text book). The model of learning says that clear goals are needed if learning is to be effective, and that these goals need to be understood by the learner. These goals may be set by the learner, or the teacher, or through a process of negotiation involving both.

6. The social and physical context in which cognition (and learning) take place is usually not very influential in shaping both processes and outcomes. Cognition can be distributed across individuals and artifacts, such that what a single individual can do on their own may be very different from what they can do when working with other people and/or with tools and other physical resources.

**4. Match the propositions about good learning with their explanations.**

- 1) Learning involves constructing understandings that are acceptable within communities of practice.
  - 2) Learning should be extensive.
  - 3) Learning is a natural outcome of the normal workings of communities of practice.
  - 4) Engagement and practice make for good learning.
  - 5) Learning involves challenge and scaffolding.
  - 6) Learning is situated and hard to transfer.
  - 7) Learning is conversational and interactive.
  - 8) Learning involves effective use of reflection.
  - 9) Learning must embody an idea of progression.
  - 10) Motivation is something designed into curriculum, not something added by charismatic teaching.
  - 11) Learning is not significantly limited by fixed abilities.
  - 12) Teaching contributes to learning, but in various ways.
- a) It is no longer defensible to define the outcomes of higher education purely and simply in terms of mastery of a subject. Outcomes now also need to include more generally useful skills, including so-called transferable skills, the capacity to act as an autonomous lifelong learner, a belief in one's own efficacy, etc.
  - b) Learning involves acts of sense making within a community that shares common interests, practices, language and other cultural artefacts and tools. Access to disembodied information has little to do with real learning.
  - c) Participation in the day-to-day life of a community of practice is inseparable from learning. If someone has a legitimised role within a community of practice — however peripheral that role may seem — they cannot help but learn. Learning may best be seen as induction into one or more communities of practice.
  - d) What is learned in one context tends to be hard to transfer to another — indeed the idea of “transfer” may be suspect. However, learning does require learners to be able to recognise community boundaries. It requires use of knowledge abstracted



from specific contexts and the ability to work with different ways of knowing.

- e) Learning demands application (engagement in practice); skill-acquisition demands opportunities for repetition, feedback, fine-tuning, automation, etc.
- f) Learning can be a by-product of taking on a challenging new task; challenge and learning go hand in hand but challenge should not overwhelm. What one can do with others is in advance of what one can do alone — the scaffolding they provide helps one accept and overcome challenges.
- g) Learning involves qualitative change in understandings rather than quantitative accumulation of factual knowledge. Learners typically move from relatively simple to more complex beliefs about the nature of knowledge and learning.
- h) Learning and practice in communities is inseparable from discourse; generation of narratives and explanations are key to sense-making; understanding others' accounts of the world is an important aspect of academic learning; sharing in the construction of knowledge demands communication and other forms of social interaction.
- j) Conversations can be with others but they can also be with

oneself; self-explanations and 'replaying' and analysing one's experiences are important parts of sense-making.

- k) IQ and other claimants to be measures of "general ability" are poor predictors of complex learning or successful progression within a community of practice; engagement/application entail hard work not good genes and are cultural not inherited; specific knowledge rather than general ability is a potent influence on learning; other so-called stable traits are more context-sensitive than acknowledged.
- l) People are motivated by goals they value, especially ones they have had chance to help shape; goals should be challenging but achievable; feedback aids persistence; intrinsic motivation accompanies a personal belief in the value of one's efforts.
- m) Direct teaching can be appropriate in helping learners reach mastery of tightly-structured subject matters — factual and rule-based material and skills coaching can be well served by direct teaching. But much of learning involves uncertainty, complexity, ambiguity, weighing of evidence and judgement. Direct teaching is much less useful than planning and facilitating appropriate learning experiences.

## 5. Expand each text.

1. Yet the same point can be raised with dialogical pedagogies. A dialogue is not simply a momentary engagement between two or more people; it is a discursive relation situated against the background of previous relations involving them and the relation of what they are speaking today to the history of those words spoken before them. These background conditions are also not simply matters of choice, and they impinge upon the dialogical relation in ways that may shape or limit the possibilities of communication and understanding. Often these relations are expressed as forms of power or privilege that shape the purposes and limits of discourse because of the relative positions of people that place asymmetrical constraints on who can speak, who can be heard, and who has a stake in maintaining a particular dialogue, or in challenging it.

2. We want to stress here the growing impact of new information and communication technologies on educational aims and practices and upon the teacher and student roles. It is not a matter of new technologies replacing teachers, but of radically changing our views about what the teaching role entails. As vast amounts of information, opportunities for exploration and discovery, and media for communication become readily available in classrooms. Teachers will need to see themselves more as guides and interpreters, not as sources of authority. In some cases the significance of a distinct teaching role recedes into the background. On the side of students (many of whom often end up teaching the teacher about how these technologies work and what can be found with them) their roles and identities are shifting in the digital context of direct communication (e-mail or chat rooms) and indirect communication mediated by web pages, avatars, MUD or MOO personae, and other representations of a “virtual” identity.

3. The form of philosophical dialogues, often entirely or partly imagined has reinforced a view of dialogue as a finite and bounded engagement, often described with little or no context, and with scant consideration given to what might have transpired before or after the dialogue at hand. This has tended to support the idea of a dialogue as a unitary, goal-oriented conversation with a discrete purpose, and a beginning, middle, and end, not as a slice of an ongoing communicative relation (as it usually is in educational settings). The third shift has involved a greater emphasis on the social construction of knowledge and understanding. Within research on teaching

and learning recent years have seen a growth of interest in such problems as situated cognition, group learning, the relation of expert and novice understandings, real-world problem solving, distributed intelligence, and a whole range of similar notions that address in different ways the actual means by which the learning of individuals occurs in the contexts of existing social relations.

4. This expansion of the term “text” may at first seem to threaten a dilution of meaning. But it has proven to be a useful analytic step, because while eliding differences across media, it brings to the fore the relation of discourse to other social practices, the construction of meaning by participants, and the possibility of textual analysis as a unifying construct across disciplines. Scholes (1985) argues that when students learn textual analysis in this broader sense they develop a rigorous and general practice far more valuable than understandings of any particular readings. As Beach (1997) notes, once we consider these multiple reader stances and reader identities, we recognize how the meaning of individual texts emerges out of a relation to multiple other discourses in which both text and reader participate. This means that reading involves a relation to a text in front of us (oral or written), but a “reading” also of these larger intertextual relations.

5. The audience of a parent education course is more complicated than a usual audience. The primary audience are the parents but their children are also a part of the audience and require independent consideration. What do you need to know about the parents? The educational background of the parents in your group may be important. If there are migrants in your audience they may have problems with complicated language and you may need to use easier language, for instance. Migrants may also require cultural adjustment. If the audience are primarily academics it may be tempting to assume they have no need for extensive explanations, which may be wrong. Having studied a specific subject doesn't necessarily make you a fast learner in an entirely different subject, even if it may help. You might also want to know the reading habits of your audience: can they be expected to read longer texts or should your course aim for a high degree of interactivity between one or several lecturers and the audience?

6. A dilemma in education is the apparent contradiction between boundaries and autonomy. On the one hand parents must set limits, because children and young people may otherwise sometimes do things they may

later see as nonsense themselves. On the other hand it is an important aspect of education to grant autonomy to teenagers, which allows the teenager to make his own experiences and to become more independent. A greater independence of a teenager should also be seen as a basic need, similar to the need for autonomy that already occurs with children. Thus parents navigate in the area of tension between necessary limits and necessary freedoms.

7. When institutions establish an inter-institutional collaboration, a virtual university, it is important to agree on a common platform or learning environment for the students attending this university. The first step is to establish a common home page for this virtual institution, where students get all the information they need (e.g., how to register, costs involved, minimum technical specifications, equipment needed, exams, courses available, names of teachers, etc.). More importantly, the network learning environment would represent a shared space where partner institutions would jointly develop and implement courses, and where instructors and students would interact.

**6. Study the table and describe the three main pedagogical approaches to teaching.**

<b>INSTRUCTIONAL</b>
<p>This approach is the traditional, teacher and content-focused approach, described as mainly “surface” teaching. It tends to see learners as rather passive receptors absorbing and regurgitating what the teacher tells them. The learners are dependent on their teacher, who selects the sources, decides pace and judges the student’s performance. Basically, the instructional approach sees “knowledge” as fairly static and objective. From the learner’s perspective this can be described as “she taught me...”. The approach is an effective tool for the teacher to set the pace, cover the syllabus and be in control. It does not usually call for deeper understanding, and encourages “performers”. The instructional approach might not always be sufficient, nor the most efficient way to learn.</p>
<b>CONSTRUCTIVIST</b>
<p>This approach argues that people have to be active learners and construct knowledge themselves. The knowledge is seen as more subjective, dynamic and expanding rather than objective and static. The main tasks here are processing and understanding of information, making</p>

sense of the surrounding world. The learner has a clear responsibility for his own learning. This approach can be summed up as “I made sense of...”. Constructivism demands participation at all levels and moves responsibility and empowerment down the hierarchy, thereby flattening it. The teacher, the “instructivist” — will increasingly become a “Guide on the Side”.

### SOCIAL CONSTRUCTIVIST

Social constructivism means that the student joins a knowledge-generating community and in collaboration with others solves real problems as part of studies. In a social constructivist environment the teacher will himself be a learner together with his students, as the generic skills of collaboration, problem solving and creating new knowledge are important goals by themselves. The time and pacing will be seen as less relevant compared to instructional studies. The tasks will be processing and assessing knowledge and generating and co-constructing new knowledge.

## UNIT 4 COMPLEX ASSIGNMENTS

### 1. Translate the text into Russian, learn to read the selected passage.

1. Generally speaking, in federal countries such as the United States, Canada, and Australia, each state or province sets its own requirements for certification, which inevitably do much to shape the content and organization of the teacher-education programs. The variety of such regulations often means that teachers who have received their education and training in one province or state are not qualified to teach in schools elsewhere without satisfying additional requirements. In England this responsibility is exercised by regional consortia of colleges, local educational authorities, universities, and teacher interests known as area training organizations that were established after 1944.

*There are likewise considerable variations among countries in the way in which teachers are appointed to their first posts after graduation from college or university. In a small number of countries, students have a completely free choice among all the schools of the type in which their training qualifies them to teach, and they make their applications directly to the school in which they wish to serve. A more common pattern is that of appointment to the service of a local, state, or provincial authority, which then places the teacher in a school where a suitable vacancy exists.*

In some places there is a tendency for beginning teachers to be placed in schools in more remote or less desirable areas. In countries that have universal military service, such as Israel, it is sometimes possible for trained teachers to satisfy military requirements by being drafted to a school of the government's choice. Another aspect of the diversity of certification requirements is the extent to which teachers are permitted to undertake work in subjects other than those they specialized in at college or university.

Generally speaking, where national and state rules exist they tend to be interpreted liberally during periods of teacher shortage and more stringently as the supply of teachers improves; it is often possible for a teacher to secure the additional qualifications required to undertake a greater variety of work by taking university summer sessions or other kinds of in-service courses. Coming decades are likely to see continuing development and change in teacher education.

2. Education includes learning to know, to do, to live together and to be. Since education is universal and necessary, it implies meeting the needs of living beings, of training all of the subjective and social capacities of a person. Education, in fact, may be the most important and widespread art, in the sense of a continuous work in progress in which persons learn how to live on and in the world. But education is an art also because it is the way of an unfolding of the complex and singular aspects of the individual and explores the limits of human capacity.

*A philosophical perspective on teacher education means underlining the need to develop and increase responsibility in teacher education towards life in all forms, expressed in organic unconscious life as well as in conscious and free, imaginative and moral life that is peculiar to humans. In fact, being a synergy of those virtualities that constitute a determined form of life, education is responsible for the creation of the life of the world. If we detach these considerations from the ontological domain and translate them into the pedagogical one, we discover that they mirror the various levels of education itself: (a) physical coordination and well-being, (b) subjective skills, intellectual capabilities, (c) creativity and creative imagination, (d) spiritual search for harmony and conscience of an inness in the whole, (e) link with other humans, construction of peaceful co-life, (f) evaluation of personal and social action in the history of human-kind.*

Above all, education is the way in which a new human life acquires the greatest part of knowledge and capacity (in cultural, relational, and practical respects): this shows that education is the main modality of coherence and safety of life development.

Education, seen as the instrument for spreading a socially shared form of existence called culture, is the principal tool for society to develop by promoting some practices while weakening or eliminating others. If we refer to synergy as a conscious work of unification of energies and of effectuation of the unity of the self-according to the most complete unfolding of inner virtualities, then education, as a modality of human development must be conscious of this connection with natural conditions and with the exigency of their full development. Teacher education could assume these considerations, especially concerning sustainable education.

3. To many parents, children's fears make no sense at all. Nevertheless, to children, monsters lurking in the dark or scary noises coming from the attic are quite real.

*Around your child's second birthday, he or she may become frightened by things that did not cause fear before — the neighbor's dog, the dark, the bathtub drain, and loud noises. Several factors contribute to a child developing fears by age 2. Children between the ages of 2 and 6 have experienced real fear or pain from being lost, injured, or bitten. They also have vivid imaginations and struggle with the idea of cause and effect. A toddler knows something about size and shape, but not enough to be sure that he or she won't be sucked down into the bathtub drain or into a flushing toilet. Older children also are aware of dangers that they hear about or see on TV. It's hard to know what is real and what is not.*

*Toddlers' anxiety about separation is an indication of growth. Before your toddler turned 2, he or she forgot you after you left, and settled down quickly. Now your child worries about and puzzles over your departure. Always tell your child that you are leaving. Sneaking out decreases trust. It may help to get your child absorbed in an activity before you leave. An elaborate ritual of waving bye-bye and blowing good-bye kisses also may help.*

Preschoolers are more self-assured than toddlers, but occasionally experience fears about being separated from a parent when starting a new school or child care arrangement, staying overnight with a relative, or moving to a new home. Ease into new situations gradually. Visiting the new school several times before the first day, or staying with your child for the first day or two can make a big difference.

Many young children worry about going down the drain with the water. No amount of logical talk will change this. Avoid letting the water drain out while your child is still in the tub or even in the bathroom. If your child



seems fearful of water, you might try letting him or her play first with a pan of water, then in the sink, and finally over the edge of the tub.

Dogs are often loud, fast moving, and unpredictable. Many children fear them. Respect your child's fear of strange dogs. If you wish to introduce your child to a friendly dog, first try sharing pictures of the dog with your child. Next watch the dog from a distance, and finally approach the dog together. You may want to demonstrate how to pet the dog, but don't force your child to pet the dog, too.

4. To make a good learning or study environment, the course developers must bear in mind something called “constructive alignment.” According to John Biggs this process denotes the aim of removing inconsistencies between the curriculums, teaching methods, assessment procedures, educational environment and learning objectives. Clearly defined learning objectives are crucial. Instructional design must articulate educational purposes and construct tasks and learning activities appropriate to those purposes.

*When the goals and the study environment have been established, the student must be given access to resources to work with in order to achieve the goals. The course developer thus has to map the learning-enhancing resources for each section and then give access to or produce these resources. In order to support the student in finding her/his way in a “sea of information”, it would be advantageous to give the student more resources than s/he can use. The crux is that s/he must learn to get an overview of the mass of information and then critically pick and choose. Learning resources can be the Internet, textbooks, articles, summaries, graphics/photos, animations, on-line lectures (video), on-line lectures with power point slides, video clippings, quizzes, on-line auto-correcting self-assessment tests etc. The learning goals focus somewhat less on knowledge acquisition by individuals, and more on knowledge-generation with others.*

It seems the more time the student can spend collaborating in problem-solving with peers, the better. Co-operative cultures and group investigation methods give better academic results. Learners develop interpersonal and management skills and improved communication skills and positive multiethnic relations. The effective learner is described as active and strategic, skilled in cooperation, dialogue and creating knowledge with others, is able to develop goals and plans and monitors his/her own learning — reflection on the process of learning is believed to be an essential ingredient in the development of expert learners.

Experience indicates that tutor follow-up is crucial. When individual assignments and group assignments, including “Tutor Marked Assignments” are given, the tutor must call or contact students who have not contributed within the deadline. These types of collaborative studies entail that the pure “individual constructivist” approach cannot be followed.

5. There is a growing consensus around ‘good learning’, perhaps best summarised by thinking of learning as a guided process of knowledge-construction. We are likely to have greater success in improving learning outcomes if we design in accordance with a model that emphasises the following six characteristics of learning: learning is active, cumulative, individual, self-regulated, goal-oriented and situated.

*The learner must carry out a variety of cognitive operations on new information, in order to make it personally meaningful. The type of cognitive processing in which the learner engages will be the major determinant of what they learn. One important contrast between the types of cognitive processes that a learner may carry out is between ‘deep processing’ and ‘shallow processing’. In the former, the learner expends considerable mental effort in making personal sense of new information, with the result that they can be said to understand it. In the latter, they may (at best) add the information to memory in such a way that they can repeat it word-for-word, but without any semblance of real understanding.*

*What a learner already knows will play a large part in determining what sense they can make of new information. The extent of relevant prior knowledge — particularly knowledge activated during the learning process — is a major factor in determining the efficacy of a particular learning event.*

Every learner builds their own knowledge in an idiosyncratic way, using past experience and existing knowledge to make sense of new information. Since no two learners have the same knowledge and experience, all new information is dealt with in different ways by different learners. This does *not* mean that a teacher can have *no* insight into a learner’s idiosyncratic ways of knowing, just that there may sometimes be tight limits on the scope of such insights.

Effective learning is characterised by both (a) the learner’s awareness of their own learning activity, and (b) the learner’s ability to take action based on this reflection. When a learner stands back from their current task, or ‘moves up’ to look at it from a higher level, they are said to be engaging in metacognitive activity. Metacognitive skills include reflection and self-regulation. Effective learners often have a good idea about how they learn, and are able to use that knowledge to monitor and adjust their approach to problems.

6. The educational setting is a way of representing the coming together of tasks, activities and environment. The distinction between tasks and activities is necessitated by two factors: the strengthening influence of so-called constructivist approaches to learning and the increasingly high value placed on learner-managed learning.

*Those with professional responsibility for helping other people to learn can meet these responsibilities by carrying out two kinds of work. The first is concerned with the design of good learning tasks. A learning task is a specification for learner activity. Its design draws on the best of what we know about how people learn, on a deep knowledge of academic subject matter and/or vocational competences, and on knowledge of the learners. Essays, laboratory exercises, a structured discussion session or debate, a diagnostic exercise, a topic to research, an artefact to build, a program to write — all these are examples of kinds of learning task. A task needs to be sufficiently well-specified that the chances of a learner engaging in unproductive activity are kept within tolerable limits. Its specification will also need a degree of openness in order to meet variable learner needs and initiate a creative response.*

The second kind of work required of educators is the design and management of the learning environment. This term is very heavily used in the educational literature. There are surprisingly few clear definitions of the term and there are several quite different common usages. Here, we use the term to mean the physical environment — the physical setting — within which learners work. It includes everything from paper and pen to textbooks, computers, the Internet and all its on-line information resources.

Alain Wisner makes the important distinction between “task” and “activity”. Tasks are what managers set. Activity is what people actually do. Educators set tasks. Learners interpret the specifications of the task. Their subsequent activity is a more or less rational response to the task, shaped and constrained by all the other tasks they have to face. It is perfectly legitimate for activity to be different from the task which initiated it. If we want learners to take more responsibility for their own learning, we have to rely on them to make their own interpretations of learning tasks. We also have to recognise that learners are busy people and learning is only one of the things they have to fit into the day.

7. In the world outside education, good software systems are built around a proper understanding of how people actually do their work — rather than on the basis of a manager's view of how the work should be done. If it is

possible to construct the environment so that it encourages real world activity which is close to the task as set, so much the better. But technology which enforces an unacceptably restricted interpretation of the task will be rejected by its intended users.

*The consequence of learning activity is a set of learning outcomes. Outcomes can take on a special significance in educational technology development projects because some people would like to take them as an index of the success of the project, or at least of some of its innovative elements. Using outcome measures as an index of success is fraught with difficulties. That doesn't mean we can ignore outcome measures. Sometimes they give a very clear indication of failure, and we can all learn a lot from failures. But when they seem to indicate success, we usually find it very difficult to make a confident attribution of credit. The learners' scores on tests may have improved significantly: but why? Was it the type of computer we used, or the particular multimedia resources that ran on it? Was it the pedagogical approach we used? Was it the enthusiasm of the teachers? Was it novelty? Was it an interaction between some or all of these factors? There has been an extended debate within educational technology about the difficulties of assigning credit.*

Part of the complexity of the problem may stem from assuming an identity between task and activity. Partly it may stem from having too global a view of an innovative educational intervention, failing to distinguish the contribution of its component parts or failing to use an appropriately wide range of outcome measures. Part of the value of having a pedagogical framework such as the one sketched here is to help with analysing an educational intervention into component parts — to help with the assignment of credit. A consequence is that we need a representative set of outcome measures. This does not mean just a good broad set of measures of learning outcomes. It also means having good ways of capturing the outcomes of work in our projects on the several components of the framework. These may not be the learning outcomes for the learner, but they are among the learning outcomes for the project.

8. The challenge to include is one that addresses all levels of an education system including pedagogy. Understanding pedagogy is important because this illuminates the frames that teachers use, more or less consciously, as they make the final transformation of whatever organisation of schooling they work in, and form of curriculum they have been given, into

the words and actions that make up teaching and learning: teaching is an act while pedagogy is both act and discourse.

*Pedagogy encompasses the performance of teaching together with the theories, beliefs, policies and controversies that inform and shape it. Pedagogy connects the apparently self-contained act of teaching with culture, structure and mechanisms of social control. The fundamental question teachers ask as they face a class in person and in their imagination is: how do I help this student or these students learn these resources in this place?*

*This requires a varying degree and balance of knowledge of oneself, of the students, of the curriculum, of the resources available, of the teaching and learning environment, and of the likely interactions between all of these. What one considers valid and useful knowledge within these aspects is framed by one's own more or less conscious theories of learning and teaching and the purposes of education.*

Pedagogy impacts: not just on the treatment of curriculum content, but also on the use of space, the handling of time, the grouping of pupils, the formulation of tasks, the balance of activities, the focus and criteria of judgements and, above all, the structure, content and control of pupil-teacher talk'.

This paper undertakes a broad cross-national analysis of some aspects of pedagogy as they relate to implementing inclusive education in developing countries. This cross-national stance is considered appropriate because of the increasingly international agendas for action and suggested solutions for reforming education generally and for including disabled children in education.

Alexander (2000) argues that curriculum is usefully seen as a part of pedagogy, and at the level of national curricula there are also several forces that operate to increase standardisation across the world, for example as developing countries copy institutions such as education from more economically successful nations. There is a small but growing recognition of the importance of pedagogy in achieving education for all.

9. For education one potentially significant difference between pupils is academic ability. North American and UK mainstream societies, from which some donor technical advice on inclusive education originates, includes a strand of educational thought in which students have innate and therefore relatively fixed levels of ability.

A belief in largely innate ability combined with a belief in the importance of individualism can lead to the conclusion that children should be allowed to learn in their own way and at their own pace.

*The Japanese education system has had relatively little influence from the discourses of Western education, perhaps allowing the expression of a traditionally collective culture in a formal education system. This provides an alternative perspective from which pedagogy in developing countries can be viewed. Mitchell and Desai describe the Japanese pedagogical approach to difference as one that sees all people as born with equal capacities to achieve with rare exceptions and where individual differences are created through cumulative effort not innate ability. In their pedagogy teachers therefore generally pay little attention to individual differences and see all students as being capable of succeeding in school and since all students are equal, any special attention is seen as discriminatory.*

Teachers expect effort from their students and view this as important as success, allied to this “Self-discipline is important and is moulded through experiencing hardship”. Finally, the more collective nature of society, where ‘the boundaries between self and other are not clearly distinguishable’ mean that education is also about social and emotional development through building relationships within the class and other school social groups such as afterschool clubs. Mitchell and Desai conclude that: taken together the cultural values that permeate Japan, to a greater or lesser extent, provided some understanding for the reluctance of Japanese schools to fully embrace a Western model of inclusive education. Such a model would challenge such notions as the relationship between individuals and the broader society, the rejection of innate differences, the importance of effort to achieve success. This description of Japanese pedagogy raises questions about whether these attitudes are common in other relatively collective cultures and the implications of importing the individualism of either a neo-liberal or progressive approach.

10. The advantage of expecting all children to achieve the same and “stay together”, breaks down at a certain point however when some children appear unable to do this. They are either in and “with” us, or not able to be “with” us.

In developing countries where many children “drop out” of school, how much do teachers look at their own teaching or the curriculum or other aspects of the school system for a reason for this, and how much to they explain this through factors that may be located within the child or within their environment?

*A student teacher interviewed in a study in Malawi seemed to locate the problem of under-achievement in children or their families, while still*

*feeling some degree of responsibility to counter this. His comments that he teaches them “until they know what they are doing”, whereas in higher standards “when pupils do not understand you may just go on”, suggest that teachers might use different pedagogy for different sections of the primary school. Perhaps teachers felt able to be more inclusive when the selective pressures of examinations were further away.*

*Although there are other barriers to learning, pedagogy in many countries appears to fail large numbers of children, including disabled children, when an inflexible curriculum races ahead of what they have been able to learn, leaving them struggling to learn by rote sometimes through a language in which neither they nor their teachers are sufficiently fluent. Such an assumption of pupil homogeneity proposes that the learning needs of all pupils are the same.*

For example, there is an assumption of homogeneity both within classes and across the nation in the minute-by-minute guide to teaching strategies in some curriculum documents studied in Malawi. It therefore becomes a barrier to further inclusion at the point when teachers and school systems locate the problem for underachievement within children, and feel limited responsibility. For some teachers keeping to the curriculum for the grade becomes so important that when pupils do not understand you may just go on.

Others however feel able to adapt the curriculum and reject the pace set by those higher up the educational system. One experienced teacher interviewed in a study of lower primary pedagogy in Malawi, took the teacher’s guide and pointed at the list of contributors saying “These people, do they know infants? They don’t!”

## **2. Retell the text in Russian.**

1. Culture and society are not the same thing. While cultures are complexes of learned behavior patterns and perceptions, societies are groups of interacting organisms. People are not the only animals that have societies. Schools of fish, flocks of birds, and hives of bees are societies. In the case of humans, however, societies are groups of people who directly or indirectly interact with each other. People in human societies also generally perceive that their society is distinct from other societies in terms of shared traditions and expectations.

While human societies and cultures are not the same thing, they are inextricably connected because culture is created and transmitted to others in

a society. Cultures are not the product of lone individuals. They are the continuously evolving products of people interacting with each other. Cultural patterns such as language and politics make no sense except in terms of the interaction of people. If you were the only human on earth, there would be no need for language or government.

In summary, culture can be defined as membership in a discourse community that shares a common social space and history, and common imaginings. Skelton and Allen add: “Moreover, any one individual’s experience of culture will be affected by the multiple aspects of their identity — race, gender, sex, age, sexuality, class, caste position, religion, geography, and so forth — and it is likely to alter in various circumstances”. Thus, culture is both a manifestation of a group, or a community, and of an individual’s experience within it, or apart from it. As a group, members engage with one another in a shared social space. A common social space need not mean a shared physical space, of course, as in the communities and cultures that have made a virtual space for themselves online. But culture is not just about the group.

2. An atmosphere or environment that nurtures the motivation to learn can be cultivated in the home, in the classroom, or, at a broader level, throughout an entire school. Much of the recent research on educational motivation has rightly centered on the classroom, where the majority of learning takes place and where students are most likely to acquire a strong motivation to gain new knowledge. But achieving the goal of making the individual classroom a place that naturally motivates students to learn is much easier if students and teachers function in a school culture where academic success and the motivation to learn is expected, respected, and rewarded. An atmosphere where students learn to love learning for learning’s sake, especially insofar as it evolves into academic achievement, is a chief characteristic of an effective school.

School leaders have a number of channels through which they can shape a school’s culture or climate. Good communication is, of course, central to successfully achieving goals. But actions must demonstrate what the words convey. Meaningless practices and symbols need to be analyzed and revitalized. Emerging visions, dreams, and hopes need to be articulated and celebrated. The culture can be embodied and transformed through such channels as the school’s shared values, heroes, rituals, ceremonies, stories, and cultural networks. If motivation and academic achievement are to be a definitive part of a school’s culture, they must be communicated and



celebrated in as many forums as possible. There are a variety of practical ways that goals related to motivation and academic achievement can be communicated.

In regard to practitioner autonomy, teachers have little autonomy in their jobs, especially when compared to other professions such as medicine and law. Teachers' autonomy can be, and usually is, limited by the state, administrators and etc. In countries where teachers have more autonomy to define their jobs and their practices (such as in France, the UK and the USA), they are able to perceive their job as a profession.

The professional development of teachers is unequivocally affected by the level of autonomy granted in the profession. In regard to collective autonomy, "teaching has been less successful than the major professions achieving self-governing status and independence from the state. In perhaps the majority of countries, teachers are state employees expected to carry out the educational policies laid down by the central government.

In most countries, teachers are more likely to be organized into unions rather than into professional organizations, and this, of course, has an effect on the perception of teaching as a profession. In addition, during the late 1990s in many countries, the state has been gaining increasingly more control over teaching practices and the preparation of teachers, as can be seen in the number of countries that are now asking teachers to complete state tests in order to be certified (UK, USA etc.), and in the number of countries where the curricula of teacher-preparation programmes are dictated by the state (as is the case in most African and Latin American countries). In most professions, professional values can be derived by making the professional accountable to the client. Yet, this is nearly impossible to do with regard to teachers, as they have a multitude of clients. Also, in many professions there is a code of ethics that guides the practices of these professionals. Only a few countries have developed a code of ethics for teachers.

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4. Even when most of the literature nowadays is focusing on the perception of teachers as professionals, there is still some disagreement as to what kind of professionals they are. In the conception of teachers as clinicians, teaching is regarded as a process of problem-solving and decision-making similar to the processes followed by physicians. Usually this body of research has led to studies of the processes that teachers follow when planning their work, and of their thinking processes while in the classroom. One of the main tributaries to this metaphor is the keen interest educators take in understanding the process that medical students follow in their training to become physicians, and their idea that teachers must follow a similar process.

Teacher-education programmes and professional-development programmes have focused on developing teachers' knowledge and particular skills. These skills will allow teachers to construct learning activities that can be implemented within the classroom that will allow them to help each student, both individually and in a group context, and that will give them the necessary tools to make informed decisions in their practice. Other researchers in this field have focused on the differences between novice and expert teachers, particularly in the way that they plan and reflect on their work. This research has had an impact on teacher preparation and professional development, as educators have been trying to find means by which the knowledge and skills of the experienced teachers can become

more accessible to the novice; ways in which teachers can develop the skills and abilities necessary to be reflective practitioners; and the ways in which schools can be organized to provide time and space for teachers to be able to analyze their reflections and improve their practices as a result.

5. Teachers have also been considered as researchers. The idea of regarding teachers as researchers was popularized by the curriculum reform movement in the United Kingdom in the 1980s and was soon accepted in the USA. At the end of the twentieth century, learning about and developing the necessary skills and knowledge to complete teacher research is considered an important factor in the professionalization of teachers and the improvement of teaching standards. This is not the case in the USA only, but in other countries as well.

Action research is certainly gaining acceptance in classrooms and is approximating the status of teachers to the status of other educators and professionals as they do now generate knowledge. This will be discussed in more detail in the section on models, as action research has been presented as a model of professional development. It should be noted, however, that the recognition of teachers as researchers is not supported by all educators. In fact, Goodson (2000) has said that the conceptualization of teachers as researchers has initiated a detailed examination of pedagogical practice while neglecting any reflection on teachers' lives as professionals. In summary, while it is accepted that good teaching reflects artistry as much as technique, the fact remains that there is little that policy can do to develop artistry. Regarding teachers as workers limits our view of the kind of educational opportunities that can encourage the development of teachers and the kind of education that they need to cater to the multiple demands of preparing the younger generations to live as contributing members of society. The language of "teacher training" is the inevitable companion of the 'teacher-worker' metaphor. These metaphors are inadequate to meet the new demands which teachers are facing, the demands to make high levels of learning accessible to a diverse student body.

6. With the start of the new millennium, many societies are engaged in serious and promising educational reforms. One of the key elements in most of these reforms is the professional development of teachers; societies are finally acknowledging that teachers are not only one of the 'variables' that need to be changed in order to improve their education systems, but they are also the most significant change agents in these reforms. This double role of

teachers in educational reforms — being both subjects and objects of change — makes the field of teacher professional development a growing and challenging area, and one that has received major attention during the past few years. Learning how to teach, and working to become an excellent teacher, is a long-term process that requires not only the development of very practical and complex skills under the guidance and supervision of experts, but also the acquisition of specific knowledge and the promotion of certain ethical values and attitudes. In the words of Calderhead and Shorrock, in addition to “knowing what” and “knowing how”, teachers must also be competent in “knowing why” and “knowing when”.

The professional development of teachers is a lifelong process which begins with the initial preparation that teachers receive (whether at an institute of teacher education or actually on the job) and continues until retirement. Because teacher professional development is changing so rapidly and so frequently all around the world, we are aware that even the most recent literature may already present models or experiences that are no longer being implemented in a particular country. Professional development, in a broad sense, refers to the development of a person in his or her professional role. More specifically, teacher development is the professional growth a teacher achieves as a result of gaining increased experience and examining his or her teaching systematically.

7. The learned men of ancient times became teachers. Priests and prophets taught children of the wealthy and noble, the skills to take up their roles as leaders and businessmen. The priests' position was elevated above many strata of society, and they were treated accordingly for their knowledge and wisdom. Teacher appreciation was a widespread feeling, and respect for teachers was proportional to their high value in those societies.

One of the most learned men of all time, Confucius (561B.C.), became the first private teacher in history. Born of a once noble family fallen on hard times, he found himself as an adolescent with a thirst for knowledge and nowhere to drink, since only the royal or noble were allowed an education. Because all the teachers were government officials, there was no way around the State policy. He solved it by going to work for a nobleman, whom he could accompany on his extensive travels. Such was his reputation; people sought him out to teach their sons. Confucius received more teacher appreciation than anyone before. He took any student eager to learn, and with the regular subjects, imparted his personal wisdoms for developing responsibility and moral character through discipline.

In ancient Greece, long acknowledged as the seat of philosophy and wisdom, the value of educating their children was recognized very early on, with some households engaging their own teacher. Teacher appreciation was an obligation for any self-respected Greek. Learned men, continued to impart wisdom on into the first years of Christianity, including the scribes in the Bible, who were often men that taught law as well. Through the first centuries A. D. Roman families often had educated slaves to teach their children, some of which were captives from other countries.

8. Western history of teacher training, education history, teaching theories, education of teachers, modern history of education, began in the 18th century Germany: teaching seminaries educating teachers were the first formal teacher training in Western history of education and teaching. The earliest formal arrangements for teacher preparation, introduced in some of the German states during the early part of the 18th century, included both pre-service and in-service training. A seminary or normal school for young men who had already passed through an elementary, or even a superior school, and who were preparing to be teachers, by making additional attainments, and acquiring a knowledge of the human mind, and the principles of education as a science, and of its methods as an art was set up in Halle in 1706. By the end of the century there were 30 such institutions in operation in Germany.

With the establishment of higher learning in the early 1700s, the curriculum of college preparatory and university institutions broadened considerably. However not all things were equal inside the schoolroom. In 1749, Ben Franklin's concept of an academy of learning consisted of an English school and a Classical school. The Latin master had a title, and the English master had none. The Latin master made twice the salary, and the English master had twice the students. The 17th and 18th centuries faced the greatest growth in education for more than the privileged, and also a dramatic rise in the training of teachers, and propounding of educational theories.

Systematic training was linked to an equally systematic process of certification, control of teaching conditions, and in-service study. All public teachers were required to attend a series of meetings to extend their practical knowledge. Parochial conferences took place monthly in the winter, district conferences bimonthly in the summer.

9. English speaking countries' history of education and teaching, formal teacher education and training began with the University of Edinburgh's

creating a chair in education. In Western history of education, England's progress involved pedagogy and Herbart Spencer's teaching techniques in teacher education and training. In the USA's history of education and teaching the Darwinian hypothesis influenced John Dewey at the University of Chicago Laboratory Schools. New York's Teachers College, founded 1888, was incorporated into the Columbia University, 1893, establishing its teacher training college, announcing: "The purpose of the Teacher Training College is to afford opportunity, both theoretical and practical, for the training of teachers, of both sexes, for kindergartens and elementary schools and secondary schools, of principals, supervisors, and superintendents of schools, and of specialists in various branches of school work, involving normal schools and colleges" — it became the basis, in Western history of education and teaching, for teacher education and training and Teacher Colleges.

During the first 30 years of the 19th century, teacher preparation in the United States, Britain, and elsewhere was dominated by the monitorial methods introduced by Andrew Bell and Joseph Lancaster. In the simplest terms, the method involved a master instructing a number of senior pupils or "monitors," who then passed on their newly acquired knowledge to a larger number of pupils. Such methods were cheap, simple, and, it was widely believed, effective. They required a necessary emphasis upon facts, drill, repetition, mechanical learning, and ease of teaching. By 1820 there were 20 Lancastrian schools in the state of New York, where the system had official status until the middle of the century.

10. The influence of Darwinian evolutionary ideas upon pedagogy was very marked. To the extent that the evolutionary viewpoint emphasized the processes by which individuals become adapted to their environment, as in the teachings of the English philosopher Herbert Spencer, their influence was profoundly conservative. But evolutionary ideas were also embodied within the child development theories of the American psychologist G. Stanley Hall, who argued that the stages of individual growth recapitulated those of social evolution and therefore that the distinctive character and status of childhood must be respected.

The American philosopher W. James also included evolutionary notions in his psychology. James's emphasis, however, was not so much upon the processes by which individuals adapt as upon those through which they react creatively and positively with their circumstances, helping to shape and change these to meet their needs. James's formulation of associationism, the building up of useful habit systems, had implications for the study of learning

that teacher educators were quick to recognize and that were made more significant by the later experiments of the American psychologist Edward L. Thorndike (1874—1949). Thorndike’s work with animals stands at the beginning of a tradition that continues to the present day. The laws of learning that he formulated have for long been a staple of teacher-training courses in many countries. Thorndike saw psychology as the basis of a genuinely scientific pedagogy and claimed that “just as the science and art of agriculture depend upon chemistry and botany, so the art of education depends upon physiology and psychology.” He went on to argue, with a degree of confidence that rings strangely today.

A complete science of psychology would tell every fact about everyone’s intellect and character and behavior, would tell the cause of every change in human nature, would tell the result which every educational force — every act of every person that changed any other or the agent himself — would have.

### **3. Retell the texts in English.**

1. Information and communication technologies (ICT) are having an increasing impact, affecting the way we live, work and play as well as the ways in which we access information, communicate and learn. To meet the challenges of the knowledge society, it is crucial to understand how people learn and how ICTs can assist in the learning process. The last 200 years we have transformed our society from a relatively static one to a society where the only constant is change. Certainty is gone. There is an abundance of perspectives on everything, even on fundamental scientific units. The discovery in quantum physics that an event is ultimately inseparable from its observation undermines the assumption that science is objective and impersonal. Science has tried to formulate general explanatory laws that apply universally, which were in operation before they were discovered, and which would have been discovered sooner or later by somebody. This impersonal objectivity is partly gone. There is a shift from a largely mechanical view of the world to a more ecological, holistic and constructivist view. This transition in our understanding of the world can be described as a rapid development towards increasing complexity; a state of affairs in which entities, data, or even theories within a particular domain or framework exceeds one’s resources for handling them. Some would even argue that we are rapidly moving towards a state of super-complexity; a state of affairs where one is faced with alternative frameworks of interpretation required to make sense of

one's world and to act purposively on it. In this super-complex world, individual learners need to have powers of self-reliance that can cope with and act purposively in an inchoate, unpredictable and continually changing and challenging world. This can be presented in educational terms as a paradigm shift.

2. To teach and learn in a holistic way, probably entails a “deeper” approach. There are several ways of teaching and learning. These ways can be seen in a teacher's perspective, and in a learner's perspective. Samuelowicz and Bain (1992) suggest that there are five levels of teaching, going from a “surface” approach to a “deeper” approach. These levels are described as: imparting knowledge; transmitting knowledge; facilitating understanding; changing students' conceptions and finally; supporting student learning. Conversely, as seen from the student's perspective, Sæljø (1979) describes six levels of learning going from a surface to a deeper approach: quantitative increases in knowledge; memorizing; acquisition for subsequent utilization of facts or methods; abstraction of meaning; interpretative process aimed at understanding reality and; developing as a person.

The central idea of “effective learning” is based on the difference between “performers” and “learners”. While the learner believes that effort leads to success, the performer thinks that ability will do it. The learner thinks she/he has ability to learn and improve, while the performer is concerned about how others judge her/his performance. The learner will have a preference for challenging tasks, while the performer gets satisfaction in doing better than others. The learner will go for personal satisfaction from success, while the performer will emphasize competition. When engaged in a task, the learner will have a problem solving approach, while the performer will tend to evaluate herself/himself negatively when the task is difficult. The learner will have concern for improving her/his competence, while the performer will have concern for proving his competence. Focus on performance will tend to result in greater helplessness, reduced help-seeking, less strategy use and greater focus on grade feedback.

3. While arrangements of one kind or another for the education of the young have existed at all times and in all societies, it is only recently that schools have emerged as distinctive institutions for this purpose on a mass scale, and teachers as a distinctive occupational category. Parents, elders, priests, and wise men have traditionally seen it as their duty to pass on their knowledge and skills to the next generation. As Aristotle put it, the surest



sign of wisdom is a man's ability to teach what he knows. Knowing, doing, teaching, and learning were for many centuries — and in some societies are still today — indistinguishable from one another. For the most part the induction of the young into the ways of acting, feeling, thinking, and believing that are characteristic of their society has been an informal — if serious and important — process, accomplished chiefly by means of personal contact with full-fledged adults, by sharing in common activities, and by acquiring the myths, legends, and folk beliefs of the culture. Formal ceremonies, such as the puberty rite, marked the point at which it was assumed that a certain range of knowledge and skill had been mastered and that the individual could be admitted to full participation in tribal life. Even in the formally established schools of the Greek city-states and of the medieval world there was little separation between, on the one hand, the processes of organizing and setting down knowledge and, on the other, those of teaching this knowledge to others. This does not mean, however, that prior to the 19th century little attention was given to training in teaching methods as distinct from “subjects.” The great works of medieval scholasticism were essentially textbooks that were designed to be used for the purpose of teaching. Today, as in the medieval world, methods of teaching and the organization of knowledge continue to be reciprocally influential.

4. The American philosopher William James included evolutionary notions in psychology. James's emphasis, however, was not so much upon the processes by which individuals adapt as upon those through which they react creatively and positively with their circumstances, helping to shape and change these to meet their needs. James's formulation of associations, the building up of useful habit systems, had implications for the study of learning that teacher educators were quick to recognize and that were made more significant by the later experiments of the American psychologist Edward L. Thorndike. The laws of learning that he formulated have for long been a staple of teacher-training courses in many countries. Thorndike saw psychology as the basis of a genuinely scientific pedagogy and claimed that “just as the science and art of agriculture depend upon chemistry and botany, so the art of education depends upon physiology and psychology.”

The greatest influence on teacher-training curricula in the United States and many other countries was exercised not by the experimental psychologists but by the pragmatist philosopher John Dewey. Dewey began with a conception of the nature of scientific method that he generalized into a specific pedagogical approach (popularized as the “project” method). This

he combined with a consideration of the nature of the child's interests and capacities for learning and life experience, the nature and claims of different types of subject matter, and the importance of democratic values in the social context of the school. Just as James's psychology gave back to the teacher and the school some of the influence on individual development that the interpreters of evolutionary adaptation had seemed to deny, so Dewey's notion of the school as the embodiment of community ideals and the spearhead of social reform lent a new importance to the processes of teacher education.

5. There is a "wind of change" evident in early childhood education and care in so much of Europe today. In most modern societies, questions of quality of publicly funded services for children have been an issue of professional and political debate since the early 1990s. Several strands have emerged in the discourse, attempting to determine the way we look at early childhood institutions and how we value them from different perspectives. It does make a difference whether we choose a political, pedagogical or even an economic approach to describe the tasks of early childhood education and care. There might even be more complexity. If we choose a pedagogical perspective — probably most of us would do so — we still need to explain whether our focus is on children or practitioners, on learning or teaching or even on the assessment itself. Any of these possible approaches comes with an underlying assumption of "quality", although it is not always clear what hides behind this term.

With the increasing division of labour in all modern societies, education of and care for young children has turned into a profession itself. The responsibility for bringing up children has increasingly been extended from the family domain to public institutions in most modern societies. And whenever a common social practice — any social practice — is professionalized, the professionals need to legitimate what they do and prove that they do it better than before. And so, in common speech, "quality" turns out to be a synonym for "good" or even "best" practice. But how can we tell what might be "good", "better" or more or less adequate, regarding our provisions, services and institutions for young children and their families? Looking back at the discourse on "quality" in the last decades, we can identify three main strands: relying on scientific expertise; recognising multiple perspectives; recontextualising "quality." Each of these leads to a distinct practice of defining, assessing and supporting quality.

6. Many people have an idea of “culture” that developed in Europe during the 18th and early 19th centuries. This notion of culture reflected inequalities within European societies, and between European powers and their colonies around the world. It identifies “culture” with “civilization” and contrasts it with “nature.” According to this way of thinking, one can classify some countries and nations as more civilized than others, and some people as more cultured than others. Some cultural theorists have thus tried to eliminate popular or mass culture from the definition of culture. Theorists regard culture as simply the result of “the best that has been thought and said in the world.” Arnold contrasted mass/popular culture with social chaos or anarchy. On this account, culture links closely with social cultivation: the progressive refinement of human behavior. Arnold consistently uses the word this way: “... culture being a pursuit of our total perfection by means of getting to know, on all the matters which most concern us, the best which has been thought and said in the world”. In practice, culture referred to elite activities and the word “cultured” described people who knew about, and took part in, these activities. These are often called “high culture”, namely the culture of the ruling social group, to distinguish them from mass culture or popular culture. From the 19th century onwards, some social critics have accepted this contrast between the highest and lowest culture, but have stressed the refinement and of sophistication of high culture as corrupting and unnatural developments that obscure and distort people's essential nature. On this account, folk music honestly expresses a natural way of life, and classical music seems superficial and decadent.

7. Cultural studies developed in the late 20th century, in part through the re-introduction of Marxist thought into sociology, and in part through the articulation of sociology and other academic disciplines such as literary criticism. This movement aimed to focus on the analysis of subcultures in capitalist societies. Following the non-anthropological tradition, cultural studies generally focus on the study of consumption goods. Because the 18th- and 19th-century distinction between “high” and “low” culture seems inappropriate to apply to the mass-produced and mass-marketed consumption goods which cultural studies analyses, these scholars refer instead to “popular culture”. Today, some anthropologists have joined the project of cultural studies. Most, however, reject the identification of culture with consumption goods. Furthermore, many now reject the notion of culture as bounded, and consequently reject the notion of subculture. Instead, they see culture as a complex web of shifting patterns that link people in different

locales and that link social formations of different scales. According to this view, any group can construct its own cultural identity. Currently, a debate is underway regarding whether or not culture can actually change fundamental human cognition. Researchers are divided on the question. Cultures, by predisposition, both embrace and resist change, depending on culture traits. For example, men and women have complementary roles in many cultures. One gender might desire changes that affect the other, as happened in the second half of the 20th century in western cultures. Thus there are both dynamic influences that encourage acceptance of new things, and conservative forces that resist change. Social conflict and the development of technologies can produce changes within a society by altering social dynamics and promoting new cultural models.

8. Culture, it would seem, provides certain contributions to the survival of humankind. Cultures die out because they did not provide sufficient vitality for the culture to survive and/or they met with catastrophic conditions that allowed their culture to be overtaken by other cultures. This process, it would seem, is a kind of evolutionary sorting process between cultures that collide with one another. Those principles that lend vitality to one culture can often be inculcated into the values of the next culture. Therefore, to study the value roots or the basis of various cultures via intercultural communication disciplines, might lend predictability to either the survival of a particular culture and/or understanding of its predictable elemental roots. It is theorized here that the cultures that remain most open to change in a way that brings to bear these core values for survivability, are the cultures that have the most to gain with respect to survivability, not only for the particular culture, but maybe for human civilizations as a whole. This produces a seemingly interesting paradox. Human culture is a problem formation and problem resolution process and uses higher order abstractions via speech communication to provide for change. Some cultures can produce superficial change, but do not have the core values which allow them to produce second order change that could advance the culture into survivability. Cultures are afflicted similarly. That is, they appear to be making all sorts of changes as measured by cultural traits, but in fact, the core values remain intact that prevent or enhance the survivability of the culture. Human beings advanced from caves to houses for a reason. Political ideological cultures have emerged as well.

9. Students also need to develop technical skills. They need to know how to log on, to search, and to use various programs, to focus a camera, to edit footage, to do some basic programming and so forth. Yet, to reduce the new media literacies to technical skills would be a mistake on the order of confusing penmanship with composition. Because the technologies are undergoing such rapid change, it is probably impossible to codify which technologies or techniques students must know. As media literacy advocates have claimed during the past several decades, students also must acquire a basic understanding of the ways media representations structure our perceptions of the world; the economic and cultural contexts within which mass media is produced and circulated; the motives and goals that shape the media they consume; and alternative practices that operate outside the commercial mainstream. Such groups have long called for schools to foster a critical understanding of media as one of the most powerful social, economic, political, and cultural institutions of our era. What we are calling here the new media literacies should be taken as an expansion of the mass media literacies. All of these skills are necessary but they are not sufficient, which brings us to our second point about the notion of twenty-first century literacy: the new media literacies should be seen as social skills, as ways of interacting within a larger community, and not simply an individualized skill to be used for personal expression. We must push further by talking about how meaning emerges collectively and collaboratively in the new media environment and how creativity operates differently in an open-source culture based on sampling, appropriation, transformation, and repurposing. The social production of the meaning represents a profound change in how we understand literacy.

10. Changes in the media environment are altering our understanding of literacy and requiring new habits of mind, new ways of processing culture and interacting with the world around us. We are just beginning to identify and assess these emerging sets of social skills and cultural competencies. We have only a broad sense of which competencies are most likely to matter as young people move from the realms of play and education and into the adult world of work and society. What follows, then, is a provisional list of eleven core skills needed to participate within the new media landscape. These skills have been identified both by reviewing the existing body of scholarship on new media literacies and by surveying the forms of informal learning taking place in the participatory culture. As suggested above, mastering these skills remains a key step in preparing young people to participate

fully in public, community and economic life. In short, these are skills some youth are learning through participatory culture, but they are also skills that all youth need to learn if they are going to be equal participants in the world of tomorrow. We identify a range of activities that might be deployed in schools or afterschool programs, across a range of disciplines and subject matter, to foster these social skills and cultural competencies. These activities are by no means an exhaustive list but rather are simply illustrations of the kind of work already being done in each area. One goal of this report is to challenge those who have responsibility for teaching our young people to think more systematically and creatively about the many different ways they might build these skills into their day-to-day activities in ways that are appropriate to the content they are teaching. The new media literacies should be seen as social skills, as ways of interacting within a larger community, and not simply an individualized skill to be used for personal expression.

#### **4. Respond to the questions.**

1. What is the topic of your thesis?
2. Who is your dissertation mentor? Does he have any degrees?
3. Does your research agree with modern times?
4. What is your work about?
5. How did you get yourself interested in this work?
6. How did you plan your work?
7. How did your motivation change over working at the thesis?
8. How did you manage your time?
9. How did you conduct the experiment?
10. What have you found out?
11. What fact has led you to learn more facts?
12. How do you know your test was fair?
13. Why do you trust the data you have produced?
14. How do you know your data answers your question?
15. Was your data precise enough to be helpful?
16. Does your thesis contain any new ideas?
17. What thinking processes did you use?
18. Were you successful?
19. What problems did you overcome? How did you do this?
20. What's been the most useful thing learned during the experiment?
21. What have you learned that you did not know before?

22. What facts can you now link together?
23. What's the most important fact learned?
24. What have you learned that has changed how you think about this problem/idea/concept?
25. Did anyone find a similar thing?
26. Did anyone find something different? Do you still think that's right?
27. What tools have been useful?
28. What were your most useful questions?
29. How did you go about reading the information?
30. Did you think of the questions first or did you allow the information to "guide" you?
31. How did you interact with the information?
32. What was the moment when you realised that you had learned something which corrected your previous ideas?
33. How often did you reflect?
34. How did you attempt to join ideas together?
35. What questions do you still want to ask about the concept?
36. Did you think creatively? How did you do this?
37. What skills have you developed over this challenge?
38. If you were to do this again what would you do differently?
39. What will you do differently next time?
40. What's the next step in your research?
41. What areas are you still finding difficult?
42. Do you need to redo any sections?

**5. Reflective practices: describe any memorable pedagogical experience of yours.**

**6. Make a scientific report on one of the themes: "Pedagogical Communication," "Methods of Teaching," "Teaching Styles," "Children's Problems and Complexes," "Conducting Research," "Information Technologies," "The Internet."**

**7. Translate the texts into English.**

1. Под образовательным пространством понимается та сфера общественной деятельности, где осуществляется целенаправленное социокультурное воспроизводство человека, формирование и развитие личности, индивидуальности. В рамках образовательного пространства реализуется производство социально-духовного, интеллектуального

и экономического потенциала нового общества, наращивание человеческого капитала.

Образовательное пространство имеет территориальную обозначенность и другие качественные характеристики, позволяющие полноценно удовлетворить потребности развития, социализации и культурной идентификации детей и молодежи при обязательном соблюдении требований их безопасности. В качестве организационной структуры, обеспечивающей решение этих задач в рамках определенной территории, выступает образовательная система, построенная на принципах здоровьесберегающей, безопасной для жизни и здоровья, единой образовательной политики и образовательной деятельности.

Безопасность образовательного пространства обеспечивается единством действий всех субъектов образования и сопряженных с ним сфер, особенно культуры, медицины, экологии, социальной защиты, безопасности систем жизнеобеспечения. Это единая образовательная политика, направленная на сохранение и укрепление физического, репродуктивного, психического, социального и духовного здоровья детей и молодежи.

2. Инновационная деятельность в сфере образования вызвана необходимостью изменения содержания и организации образования и направлена на поиск новых способов структурирования его системы. Поэтому возникает новая предметность в научно-практической деятельности педагогов и руководителей — инжиниринг образовательного пространства, составляющей которого является проектная деятельность по изменению структуры образовательного пространства. Цели и задачи проектной деятельности направлены на совершенствование структуры образовательных систем и их функций.

Формальное описание объекта проектирования — важный этап проектной деятельности. Такой подход делает возможным проектирование образовательных систем на любом иерархическом уровне.

3. Проектирование развития — создание проекта, в котором:

- а) предметом проектирования является развитие системы;
- б) заложены механизм и этапы развития системы, ее эволюции к «конечному состоянию», которое отражает степень решенности проектных задач и является этапом развития системы.

Проектирование развития на основе эволюционно-синергетической парадигмы — создание проекта, в котором не задаются в натуральном, готовом виде механизмы развития, а определяются:



а) условия как необходимые предпосылки для формирования механизмов развития системы в процессе реализации проекта;

б) этапы развития системы в соответствии с универсальными моделями развития сложных систем;

в) механизмы и способы управления развитием на каждом этапе.

Проектная деятельность, оформленная как технология, предполагает определенные этапы деятельности, в которых отражены как особенности предмета проектирования, так и особенности самой проектной деятельности. Обнаружение проблематики, определение ее актуальности, значения в развитии и совершенствовании образования — первый и важный этап проекта. Любой проект — это заявка на ресурс, который потребуется для реализации проекта, поэтому необходимость его реализации должна быть обоснована. Определение и формулировка проектной задачи — второй этап в проектной деятельности. Обнаруженная проблематика должна перейти в новое качество — проектную задачу. Построение модели развития на основе методологии синергетики — это третий этап.

4. Образовательное пространство — это динамическое единство субъектов образовательного процесса и системы их отношений. Образовательная среда — продукт отношений между субъектами образовательного пространства. Образовательная среда сама является его субъектом, тем самым подчеркивается ее активный характер.

Образовательная программа — структурная и функциональная единица образовательного пространства, целью которой является решение конкретных образовательных задач. Модель развития образовательной программы (образовательного пространства) — это образ процесса их возникновения, становления и развития. Освоение понятий не должно ограничиваться знанием определений этих понятий. Они должны быть способными их раскрыть.

5. Процесс образования — это процесс последовательного изменения отношений между субъектами образовательного пространства. Поэтому предметом проектной деятельности являются отношения, их изменение, развитие, эволюция. В качестве методологического основания проектной деятельности выбрана эволюционно-синергетическая парадигма. Синергетика дает универсальные модели развития сложных систем, какими являются образовательные системы. Изменение структуры образовательного пространства, а значит, изменение структуры отношений между его

субъектами носит характер эволюции и, в соответствии с синергетикой, является процессом нелинейным. Универсальные модели синергетики позволяют понимать, что происходит в реальных системах, определить этап, на котором находится система в данный момент времени, обнаружить характерные признаки кризиса в системе, найти и определить управляющие параметры системы, чтобы на основе этого строить эффективную систему управления развитием.

Проектирование развития образовательного пространства на основе синергетики имеет свои особенности. Описание образовательного пространства, определение его субъектов — важная часть проекта.

Введение нами понятий «образовательная программа» и «образовательное пространство» позволяет использовать моделирование как универсальный способ проектирования развития образовательных систем. Под образовательным пространством может пониматься любая, определенная (описанная) нами система отношений между субъектами образовательного пространства. Объектом проектной деятельности может быть образовательное пространство ученика, класса, школы, социальной группы. Количественный и качественный состав субъектов образовательного пространства как объекта проектной деятельности определяется ее целями и задачами. Идея и методологические основы проектирования развития на принципах синергетики предполагают варьирование количества участников (субъектов) в ходе реализации проекта.

6. Образовательная программа как структурно-функциональная единица образовательного пространства так же, как образовательное пространство, может иметь различные масштабы, от образовательной программы, решающей какие-либо учебные задачи в определенной предметной области, до образовательных программ, реализуемых в рамках учебного заведения. Поэтому развитие образовательной программы как реализация проекта так или иначе имеет отношение к образовательному пространству, его изменению и развитию. Образовательная программа в данном случае является элементом образовательного пространства. Чем больше та или иная образовательная программа представлена в структуре образовательного пространства, тем более проект развития такой образовательной программы может рассматриваться как проект развития образовательного пространства.

Если образовательная программа появляется в структуре образовательного пространства как новый вид деятельности или функциональное новообразование, она так или иначе вступает во взаимодействие не только

с другими программами, но и с образовательной системой в целом, которая обладает определенной устойчивостью. Мера этой устойчивости в динамике развития образовательного пространства может сильно меняться. От этого будет меняться характер складывающихся отношений между новым и существующим.

7. Образовательное пространство представляет собой структурированное многообразие отношений между субъектами образовательного процесса. Отношения между субъектами образовательного пространства обусловлены процессами трансляции информации. Поэтому для определения структуры образовательного пространства используем понятие информационного поля как множества источников информации и среды, в которой она распространяется. Информация рассматривается здесь как характеристика меры упорядоченности отношений элементов в системе, как мера снятой неопределенности их поведения. Информационное поле является фрагментом транслированного в образовательное пространство информационного пространства общества, которое представляет собой многообразие форм упорядоченности социальных отношений, законов их функционирования и развития.

8. Образовательное пространство может рассматриваться как сфера взаимодействия трех его субъектов: учителя, ученика и среды между ними. Вывод Л. Выготского о трехстороннем активном процессе (активен учитель, активен ученик, активна среда между ними) позволяет рассматривать трехкомпонентное взаимодействие субъектов образовательного пространства как единый процесс целенаправленного формирования личности ребенка. В этом процессе взаимодействие субъектов образовательного пространства, учителя и ученика, представлено как активное отношение со средой, которую можно рассматривать как информационный компонент образовательного пространства, структурированного так, что он сам оказывает активное воздействие на других субъектов образовательного пространства. Эта структура может быть определена по Л. Выготскому как «идеальная форма среды». Активное взаимодействие субъектов образовательного пространства приводит к формированию «среды совместной деятельности», ее «отчуждению» от них, превращению ее в субъект образовательного пространства. При этом происходит формирование и оформление ее собственных целей как системообразующего фактора.

## 8. Write a review on the articles.

A.

### PARENTING STYLES

Parenting styles are categorized by different features. There is a categorization with two axes (more affection upwards, more direction to the right). Alternatively the authoritative parenting style is simply described as the middle ground between authoritarian parenting and anti-authoritarian parenting.

A parenting style that combines different parenting styles dependent on the situation is called flexible parenting style. The flexible parenting style is meant to respond to the current situation and personal characteristics of the persons involved. One could consequently demand as a criterion for an actual flexible parenting style that the educator has this understanding, otherwise the flexible parenting style easily becomes an excuse for aimlessness.

A possible proposal for a new parenting style is the balanced-flexible parenting style where each additional freedom at a given time has a logical consequence. Parents could however argue that the basic idea of this parenting style is not really new.

A parent education course can also offer anti-parenting styles and explain what is wrong with them. The aimless-nagging parenting style, for instance, is just constant criticism for criticism's sake, one can assume a self-serving bias here. The secretly-dictatorial parenting style avoids exaggerated authority but the educator actually tries to decide all sorts of things, which should be the affairs of the teenager. The religious-fanatic parenting style delegates all authority to a non-negotiable belief, which is not necessarily a true religion, it can, for instance, be the belief that young people have to take over the profession of their parents. A demanding-supporting parenting style can also easily overstrain a teenager.

With anti-parenting styles it is important that the audience understands the explanations as humorous, but still every parenting style contains sufficient information in order to allow the audience to learn something. It should not be intended that parents might feel personally addressed. The humorous presentation should obviously criticize the abstract exaggeration and not the audience.

*T. Gordon*

## B.

### DIALOGUE AND DIFFERENCE

Dialogue, understood within the discursive context, engages the issue of difference at various levels. First, there is the fact of diversity as a condition of all learning: It is precisely where people differ in outlook, background, belief, experience, and so forth, that dialogue creates an opportunity for some to learn from and with others. Such diversity, however, does not only create a set of possibilities and opportunities; it also constitutes a potential barrier — for it is these very same differences that can lead to misunderstandings, disagreements, or speaking at cross purposes. Dialogue exists at the points of tension and difficulty between these possibilities.

At a second level, differences speak to positions in broader contexts that go beyond the identities of the persons engaged in dialogue. In many cases, these differences are invested with elements of power and privilege in relation to one another; these elements can be highlighted or exacerbated even further when they overlap with elements of power and privilege invested in institutionalized roles (including “teacher” and “student”). The discursive view of dialogue presented here means always situating the particular dialogical relation within the web of other relations that exist between and among participants.

At a third level, the issue of multiple effects, broached earlier, complicates the picture still further. No social act ever causes only what it intends. The perspective of difference adds to this complexity. Multiplying the dimensions along which we see ourselves and others as related or different makes it impossible to focus on unidirectional effects, on straightforward intentions, on clear demarcations of purpose and responsibility. As we have seen, even who the agents are is a shifting determination; so is the language with which they speak. The complex dynamics between teacher and student have multiple effects (and effects that are different for different types of students), not all of which can be subsumed under intentional teaching acts. While problematizing the sense of predictability and responsibility in any dialogical relation, this view of difference also introduces another imperative for dialogue: that where persons cannot know all that they intend, cannot know all that what they say signifies for different hearers, or cannot see all the effects that their acts produce, it becomes all the more important to keep open a process in which others can call to attention, question, or challenge the nature of the dialogue itself and the consequences it might have for them.

This also implies that the boundaries of who is “part” of a dialogue, or who has a stake in it, can themselves be contested.

At a fourth level, difference raises question with the very aims of “understanding,” “agreement,” “consensus,” and “community” that are typical objectives of dialogue. In some cases, differences may be so great that incommensurabilities simply frustrate the process of dialogue from going very far. In other cases, the history and context of differences put some persons and groups in asymmetrical positions relative to goals like “consensus” or “community”: to be with means to be like; but to be like means to be alienated from qualities of self or relations to others. The risks and temptations of this sort of dynamic can be very subtle, infused with all sorts of mixed intentions (including those of sincerely trying to help people). Dialogue, because it derives from humanistic traditions, because it explicitly eschews methods of overt domination or coercion, and because it expresses values such as reciprocity and respect for all participants, is (ironically) all the more susceptible to the trap of good intentions.

Differences — differences of identity and position relative to one another, differences in the meanings that language has for different people, differences in the stakes that persons have in the varied activities and practices at hand and in their consequences, differences in the ways that people engage and experience the mediating objects and texts that represent discursive elements — all run through this context and problematize the effort to analyze it in simple cause and effect terms or to delineate certain effects as pedagogically relevant and others not.

The considerations about dialogue raised in this section yield a significant shift in thinking about dialogue as a pedagogical communicative relation. Instead of traditional models of dialogue, which have tended to prescribe a particular form of communicative interaction, and which have been generated out of a priori assumptions about the ways that language should work, the view developed here is articulated specifically with the perspective of discursive analysis in mind. This account yields a more multivalent account of dialogue: that it can take very different verbal (and nonverbal forms); that it can arise in very different sorts of circumstances; that it can be mediated by very different sorts of textual or representational practices; that it can be directed toward quite different purposes, and can have still further effects apart from how it may be intended; that these different forms will have different degrees of familiarity or utility for different sorts of people, and different degrees of suitability for different subject matters.

In our view, the significance of this approach to understanding dialogue is not that it abrogates the value of prescriptive norms. Rather, it identifies these norms as themselves discursively constituted, not as givens. Moreover, it interrogates the consequences in practice of invoking certain models of dialogue, and their norms, in discursive contexts where the potentialities in principle of dialogue run up against contexts of situated roles, of institutionalized power and privilege, of multiple forms and styles of discourse, of cultural and other kinds of difference, and so on.

At the same time, however, we also want to emphasize the prescriptive elements inherent in any discursive model. The success of any communicative process depends on a set of shared, if often tacit and unspoken, norms about the acceptable forms and purposes of communication. As is often the case with such norms, they are typically invisible in the ordinary course of events, and become salient only when they are breached, or when one or another participant wants to question them. Difficulties emerge, of course, when these implicit norms vary, as they do, between or across different communities of discourse; although we believe that there are strong reasons to conclude that they cannot differ entirely, and that some norms appear to be inherent to the communicative process itself. As a result, one important educational aim is to identify these norms and to seek to foster respect for them so that learners can engage in successful communication and diagnose what is happening when communication goes awry.

This shift in viewpoint has enormous implications, both for our views about how education should proceed and what aims it should serve. First, it reveals the fundamental tension between ground-level assumptions about the teacher as authority, as director of classroom dynamics, as provider of information, and as evaluator of student responses, with an awareness of classroom discourse as an arena of intersubjective meaning-making in which multiple voices have a share. Second, it makes educators aware of the non-neutral features of dominant discourses, both in the sense of formal languages and in the dynamics of language in use, as factors in shaping, limiting, and in some cases excluding discursive possibilities for certain participants. Where these dynamics are linked with identity-formation and interactions with contexts outside the classroom, the issues go far beyond the questions often associated with public debates over ESL and bilingual education. A deeper issue is when and how engagements with different patterns of discourse can create the conditions for developing multiple literacies that do not require simple choices or priorities among primary and secondary languages; the conditions of dialogue involve accommodation

along two-way paths, and not simply reorienting those who are different along dominant patterns and norms. Third, then, this means a reflection on our larger educational aims, beyond the dichotomy of unquestioned goals of assimilation with dominant norms and beliefs, on the one hand, versus a rejection of what is common and the desire to preserve discrete cultural elements and traditions at all costs. We believe that educators need to think beyond these options, to an awareness of how a respect and tolerance for difference is necessary even when one is trying to pursue common learning goals and, conversely, how the melding and transformation of culture and language is inevitable in moments of discursive engagement. As a result, the sensitive problem becomes a matter of educators appreciating the potential for creating conflict, suffering, or resistance even when the explicit purpose is one of transmitting information or teaching “valuable skills” while, at the same time, being prepared to question assumptions about the neutrality or value of dominant forms of discursive engagement (simply because they happen to be dominant).

*Nicholas C. Burbules and Bertram C. Bruce*

C.

### HISTORICAL DEVELOPMENT OF PEDAGOGICAL CULTURE

Pre-pedagogical education is a natural and direct way of value exchange. Shared information as a background of individual knowledge is denoted by the life itself, by the primary need to survive and exist. The main criterion of knowledge and skills is the ability to meet actual practical necessity, immediate application dominates and it does not demand serious changes to adjust. Reflection is not necessary or its functioning is limited by a sort of a natural experiment, imitation. Educational ideas are not generalized. Experience by doing constitutes the background of the folk pedagogy. Family and the way it lives is the only educator, it creates norms to transfer experience to the younger generation.

There is nothing new or unknown, and the study course on folk pedagogy used to be as one of several courses that comprise the professional programme, till the teachers themselves noticed, that in the large stream of the foreign pedagogical literature with a lot of approaches, theories and models they felt themselves at a loss. Observations and discussions with teachers confirmed the anticipated stability of the roots, the primary



experience of up-bringing, basis of the folk pedagogy. The student teachers confirmed their rising interest in the folk pedagogy with the aim to interpret and better understand the ideas that have come from abroad. It seems that folk pedagogy as a component of the actual pedagogical culture adds to its reality, meets the needs of the teachers, parents and pupils and is related to the feeling of stability at least in the periods characterized by rapid change.

Traditional education, reproductive pedagogical culture is characterized by norms of organized education. Up-bringing and education in general constitute one of the man's activities with specific aims, professionals able to carry out the aims. A certain amount of special knowledge is created and selected to differentiate education and thus decide for its inequality, which is usually connected with alienation as a possibility. Pedagogy as a transformation science serves for it, and the possibility that one and the same pedagogical system of a teaching-learning model produces different or quite opposite results. In education there predominate descriptive and interpretive models-methods, that are based on information about values, created by generations' culture to be transformed and forwarded to the learners, who are mainly in the role of observers.

Open borders, growing migration, economic and political contacts, transnational or global organizations contradict (from slight to destructive) to local ethnic-based understanding of values, cultural settings and structures that usually appear to be more transnational due to their essence and functions than local and ethnic. Rapid introduction of global activities are often comprehended as both a sort of contradiction between national and global values and as values to be introduced immediately. The subject of discussions among teachers and students is quite often related to this problem. It is even more actualized by the peculiarities of our pedagogical reality: our families are used to share the educational tasks between the family and school, and the school is obliged to deal with the value education alongside with the family. It is unacceptable that our school deals only with knowledge and skills. That is why our understanding of education is much closer to that of German and Russian than Anglo-American. Though the majority of literature that enters the country is in English.

One could expect that normative, traditional pedagogy can help the educators reach the desired results. Observation and discussions with the teachers lead to a conclusion, that the period of transition and rapid social changes caused by this process makes the feeling of pedagogical crisis grow. The existing pedagogical theories in this social reality cannot help the educators solve the sharp problems they have to face, they do not meet all the expectations of the teachers.

Though normative pedagogy is usually considered to represent a higher level of pedagogical culture than the folk pedagogy, the latter gains additional votes and its popularity grows. It is less criticized than the traditional pedagogy: folk pedagogy has reached its goal and met the needs of the civilization of that time, it used to be a part of the culture and besides it functioned as a set of pedagogical ideas in the past (we do not experience its actual limitations); future pedagogical visions are less criticized because they are not a pedagogical reality yet — it is still to come and its promising possibilities attract hopes and expectations of the professionals. Thus the actual reality undergoes severe critics. It is criticized for being too limited (often because all of them are not learned by teachers and thus cannot help them), for being regulated by the state and other political structures, for standards of education and the official procedure of evaluation.

Though the dominating attitude of the teachers support the changes and obtained opportunities, quite often teachers with a portion of nostalgia complain — the government cares less of education if compared to that of a totalitarian system (then it was easier to reach the goal within definite frames and following strictly defined norms).

Society of knowledge and information is coming to initiate a new pedagogical culture. It is easy to foresee that an individual would hardly be able to process the growing amount of information and besides acquire values to remain a human being. Information processing becomes more and more alien to an individual and mediated by the processing machines. Shall we be able to create a pedagogical culture and pedagogical reality good for value acquisition in balance with one's knowledge and responsibility for the possible consequences of our activities. How shall we define the outcomes of education and knowledge in particular — mainly as information and its usage or mainly as moral responsibility? Besides we have to take into consideration that man has created technical devices able to process information much faster than man's individual brain does it, than man's understanding and responsibility develops.

Traditional, reproductive, normative pedagogy is to be developed into the creative pedagogical culture — another stage of its development with highly reflective individuals. Holistic, integrated and at the same time versatile view on man, mankind, world, space is necessary to overcome the limited character of pedagogy and understanding of human development — characteristics of an entirely new quality, that might provide inner forces for a man to survive, live, be happy.

Education during the long history of this phenomenon has had and is still having several functions, one of them is to transfer cultural values both by the content of teaching-learning or education in general and by the quality education itself comes to be a reality. Relation to both national and global culture appears in the personal culture of teachers and their students. The latter perceive better what meets their needs and is supported in their families. Thus culture as a component of teaching-learning in a specific way appears in all the components of this: culture is a quality of social development, it is inherited from generation to generation by education (school, life itself, contacts with people etc.); concrete population though in contacts with other areas use to live in their natural and social environment with specific features of their culture, which is protected to some extent by education (ethnic, national, language, other local peculiarities), and education aims at such general goals as survival, welfare, creation of appropriate background for prosperous life of future generation; at the same time education is a way cultural values are enriched by introduction of the cultural values of other nations or those that are recognized as general human values, and the acceptance of values is measured by the actual need of identity; the stronger is the feeling of losing one's ethnic or national identity, the higher is the activity of the community to protect their cultural values, the larger is the desire to define particular educational aims to protect and preserve them; verbal and non-verbal symbols comprise the content of teaching-learning according to the dominating (or recognized as such) cultural values and they are oriented to the ability of the learners to acquire them, use symbols in thinking, to vary language and its expressiveness, make use of other products of a cultured man's activity, communicate, produce and process information etc. that is common to homo sapiens; man's activity interferes with the nature and changes the environment, but the activity of a cultured man is characterized by responsibility of preserving the environment — this ability can be reached by education (family, school, community etc); common human values within a concrete culture exist in the specific for the local culture forms, which can display a vast scale diversity both in details and philosophical approaches, therefore the values of one cultural setting can appear as destructive for the other one and cause the feeling of discomfort, especially if religious beliefs are concerned; exchange of cultural values expands due to the global co-operation, but this process cannot be too fast to match the speed of the changes in people's beliefs and let people adopt to the changes to avoid destructive outcomes of the process — education can soften the process by the component of culture in the curriculum.

Both the subject matter and the way global tendencies are introduced by education are historically concrete and related to the local culture. Changes in education of the societies in transition coincide with the already appearing features of the information and knowledge society, it makes the process both more complicated and challenging. Within the pedagogical culture, which is based on normative theories, pedagogical reality appears in several characteristic ways (some of them coincide with the pedagogical paradigms). It depends on the basic factor, which keeps the components of the pedagogical process in a functioning system:

Process with the child in the centre is characterized by its background criteria — free individual development of a child. All the other components (teacher's activity, methods, organization, arrangement of the subject matter etc.) are subordinate to the needs and possibilities of the child as far as the culture of the period allows to. As child-centred process exists within the social environment and culture in the status of an opposition to the dominating normative process — an island in the wide world (Campanella, Rousseau, Montessori etc.). Pedagogical process already by its nature needs purposeful activities to become a reality, a child-centred process needs efforts of a special quality to maintain and preserve its functioning.

Teacher-centred process covers a vast range of specific qualities — from authoritarian teachers and their dictatorship to the democratic and humanistic ones with a high respect to their students. Quite often such a process leaves behind its century and mass experience. Subject matter is in the centre, and teachers address their efforts to cover the information. Ruling policy oriented pedagogical process usually becomes a reality in totalitarian systems. The government creates structures to work out regulations and control education according to the official standards. The system can be highly productive as to a part of the population, people who like to follow strict prescriptions. The mutual relations are vertical, though within one school with highly collaborative stuff democratic relations are also possible.

On cooperation and interactive functioning based pedagogical process is characterized by horizontal mutual relations and follow high respect to the needs of both the students and teachers. Activities are deliberately harmonized, free development of students is the dominating aim, the process is humane. It facilitates self-development of the students. Innovations are the criteria of the pedagogical process and background of quality of education. This pedagogical reality can be considered as an attempt to introduce the next stage of the pedagogical culture.

The findings of the research also indicated that teachers' attitude towards innovations of the national teacher education programmes and school curriculum is positive, though it differs between the rural (national culture dominates) and urban (more open to global cooperation) population. It is followed by a certain difference in teachers' and parents' views on global influence and subjects their children have to learn: parents become concern of the possibilities for their children to get a job; teachers are open to innovations though sometimes it is difficult to recognize them in their everyday routine.

A significant positive correlation was stated between teachers' education both academic and professional, and the quality aspects of teaching-studying-learning both as to the national context and global influences. Students of the master programme are more aware of the theoretical approaches and methodological diversity in education. Master students' respect to the national traditions and the ways they are inherited is more vivid if compared to that of the students of the professional programmes. The first ones are looking for sound pedagogical knowledge and understanding to integrate novelties and the national traditions of education, while the students who follow the professional programmes are more willing to collect technologies and practical issues, and are less particular about their origin.

*I. Žogla*

## PEDAGOGICAL CULTURE, PROFESSIONAL CULTURE AND PROFESSIONAL-PEDAGOGICAL CULTURE

I. V. Bujan, I. I. Model regard professional culture as an attributive property of the professional group of people, growing out of labour division. In the literature the concept “professional culture” is defined as a level and quality of vocational training of the expert, the reflection of the society’s requirements to the cultural level of the people engaged in some professional activities. The high level of professional culture, according to I. F. Isaev, is characterized by the well-developed professional thinking and consciousness revealed in the ability to solve professional problems. He defines professional culture as a certain degree of mastering the ways of special professional problems solved by a member of the professional group. Special knowledge and the experience of its realization in professional activities make professional culture.

V. L. Benin maintains the necessity of the professional type of thinking formation which leaves a specific mark on the mentality and behaviour of the person. His ideas are conformable to E. F. Zeer's statement who underlines that in the course of the profession cognition there are qualitative changes, both in the person, and in the structure of his activity. The research of “professional culture” led to the emergence of the term “pedagogical culture.” Pedagogy encompasses the performance of teaching together with the theories, beliefs, policies and controversies that inform and shape it. Pedagogy connects the apparently self-contained act of teaching with culture, structure and mechanisms of social control.

For the first time the concept under consideration was used in V. A. Suhomlinski's works who considers pedagogical culture as a personal characteristic of teachers, parents and heads of educational bodies. Pedagogical culture in V. A. Slastenin's research stands out as a result of pedagogical creativity. According to S. A. Dneprov, the concept “pedagogical culture” contains in itself the culture of behaviour (etiquette), moral education, the culture of life including personal needs and interests, the organization of personal time, aesthetic tastes in the choice of consumer goods (the ability to dress, decorate the dwelling), aesthetic properties of mimicry and pantomime, grace, a standard of speech inherent in the person.

Culture also embodies the standard of work, the ability to correctly organize the workplace, to find ways for achieving the maximum possible

scientific results, qualities of knowledge and good breeding of pupils. It is possible to say that many researchers consider pedagogical culture an important part of general culture of the person, revealed in the system of professional qualities and specificity of pedagogical activity. And the synthesis of general and pedagogical culture is an integral part of successful professional-pedagogical activity. There are different points of view on the parity of professional and pedagogical culture. Some researchers regard the concept “pedagogical culture” broader rather than “professional culture” as it characterizes qualitatively not only the work of the teacher, but also the type of the pedagogical influence of a certain community.

In I. F. Isaev's research professional culture and the mechanism of its functioning are considered at four levels in which pedagogical culture acts as a substructure of professional culture. However the author notices that the people who are engaged in educational practice, both at professional, and at nonprofessional level can be “bearers” of pedagogical culture. Accordingly, pedagogical culture has a wider spectrum unlike professional culture.

In studying the phenomenon of culture I. F. Isaev marks the tendency which is expressed in the aspiration to integrate various aspects of culture, representing it as a whole. It unites the concepts “professional” and “pedagogical” culture and enters the term “professional- pedagogical culture.” It gives an understanding of it as a certain level of professional-pedagogical activity. Thus, the term “professional-pedagogical culture” most fully reflects the activity of the teacher and can be considered with the reference to teachers of different subjects. Historically the area of pedagogical activity is connected with various professional spheres (linguistics, history, mathematics, physics, biology, sports etc.) which have the specificity and make certain demands to subject matter preparation of the teacher. Together with natural science and humanitarian disciplines in educational sphere there was a special area of pedagogical activity based on various kinds of arts (literature, music, fine arts, choreography, etc.).

The structure of pedagogical culture contains the following components: professional consciousness and pedagogical activity.

F. Hoyle (1995) presents a helpful analysis of teaching based on five criteria used to define a “profession.” These are: social function, knowledge, practitioner autonomy, collective autonomy and professional values.

## TEACHING AS A PROFESSION

From the social function point of view, teaching is of paramount importance to the well-being of society and of the individual, and thus receives the status of profession. On the other hand, in regard to knowledge, the knowledge base of a teacher is a cause for debate. In order teaching could be considered as a profession, the fact that this knowledge is crucial and can only be acquired through specific training and education must be commonly recognized.

However, if the assumption is that just about anyone can acquire this knowledge through experience, and then teaching is no different from craft-oriented occupations. Teacher educators in general have shown that practice does make a difference in the preparation of teachers, but only practice that is founded on theoretical models and reflective ideas. This is an important fact that needs to be disseminated as it is strong evidence supporting the importance of teacher professional-development programmes at any level of the system.

In regard to practitioner autonomy, teachers have little autonomy in their jobs, especially when compared to other professions such as medicine and law. Teachers' autonomy can be, and usually is, limited by the state, administrators and principals, local communities, etc. In countries where teachers have more autonomy to define their jobs and their practices (such as in France, the UK and the USA), they are able to perceive their job as a profession. This is not the case in countries where teachers have very little or no autonomy (such as Venezuela, Paraguay, Pakistan). In these countries, principals, supervisors, inspectors and other administrators are constantly determining the role of teachers, constraining the communication between teachers and parents, and even dictating the content of day-to-day classroom activities. The state also regularizes teachers' activities by ordering teachers to follow a prescribed curriculum prepared by specific educators, known as "experts", who are not teachers themselves. The professional development of teachers is unequivocally affected by the level of autonomy granted in the profession. In regard to collective autonomy, teaching has been less successful than the major professions achieving self-governing status and independence from the state. In the majority of countries, teachers are state employees expected to carry out the educational policies laid down by the central government.



In most countries, teachers are more likely to be organized into unions rather than into professional organizations, and this has an effect on the perception of teaching as a profession. In addition, during the late 1990s in many countries, the state has been gaining increasingly more control over teaching practices and the preparation of teachers, as can be seen in the number of countries that are now asking teachers to complete state tests in order to be certified (UK, USA), and in the number of countries where the curricula of teacher-preparation programmes are dictated by the state (as is the case in most African and Latin American countries).

In most professions professional values can be derived by making the professional accountable to the client. Yet, this is nearly impossible to do with regard to teachers, as they have a multitude of clients. Also, in many professions there is a code of ethics that guides the practices of these professionals. Only a few countries have developed a code of ethics for teachers. Given these criteria, it is clear to see why it is so often argued whether or not teaching is a profession, and whether or not teachers can do anything to improve their status in society. Yet, most people agree that the professionalization of teachers is prerequisite to the successful improvement of the quality of education and is, thus, of great interest to policy-makers and educators. Fortunately, the tendency over the last few years has been to begin to accept teaching as a profession and, consequently, the transformation from teacher-training to teacher professional development. Finally, in regard to professional values, it is very hard to identify any particular set of values in the teaching profession comparable to those common in professions such as medicine and law. In most professions, professional values can be derived by making the professional accountable to the client.

What kind of professionals? Even when most of the literature nowadays is focusing on the perception of teachers as professionals, there is still some disagreement as to what kind of professionals they are. In the conception of teachers as clinicians, teaching is regarded as a process of problem-solving and decision-making similar to the processes followed by physicians. Usually this body of research has led to studies of the processes that teachers follow when planning their work, and of their thinking processes while in the classroom. One of the main tributaries to this metaphor is the keen interest educators take in understanding the process that medical students follow in their training to become physicians, and their idea that teachers must follow a similar process. Studies inspired by this metaphor have focused on how teachers make judgements and decisions about particular cases and difficult situations, and also on their typical classroom practices and what

kind of variables they pay attention to during lessons. Teacher-education programmes and professional development programmes have focused on developing teachers' knowledge (of children, the curriculum, teaching strategies, school facilities and educational objectives) and of particular skills. These skills will allow teachers to construct learning activities that can be implemented within the classroom that will allow them to help each student, both individually and in a group context, and that will give them the necessary tools to make informed decisions in their practice.

Other researchers in this field have focused on the differences between novice and expert teachers, particularly in the way that they plan and reflect on their work. This research has had an impact on teacher preparation and professional development, as educators have been trying to find means by which the knowledge and skills of the experienced teachers can become more accessible to the novice; ways in which teachers (both pre-service and in-service) can develop the skills and abilities necessary to be reflective practitioners; and the ways in which schools can be organized to provide time and space for teachers to be able to analyze their reflections and improve their practices as a result. These concerns have had an impact on the professional development of teachers, particularly as it relates to in-service development both for the novice and for the mentor teacher, who can then achieve a higher level of professionalism.

Teachers have also been considered as researchers. The idea of regarding teachers as researchers was popularized by the curriculum reform movement in the United Kingdom in the 1980s and was soon accepted in the USA. At the end of the twentieth century learning about and developing the necessary skills and knowledge to complete teacher research is considered an important factor in the professionalization of teachers and the improvement of teaching standards. This is not the case in the USA only, but in other countries as well, although it is still not a widespread notion. Action research is certainly gaining acceptance in classrooms and is approximating the status of teachers to the status of other educators and professionals as they do now generate knowledge. This will be discussed in more detail in the section on models, as action research has been presented as a model of professional development. It should be noted, however, that the recognition of teachers as researchers is not supported by all educators. In fact, I. Goodson (2000) has said that the conceptualization of teachers as researchers has initiated a detailed examination of pedagogical practice while neglecting any reflection on teachers' lives as professionals. In summary, while it is accepted that good

teaching reflects artistry as much as technique, the fact remains that there is little that policy can do to develop artistry.

Regarding teachers as workers limits our view of the kind of educational opportunities that can encourage the development of teachers and the kind of education that they need to cater to the multiple demands of preparing the younger generations to live as contributing members of society. The language of “teacher training” (as opposed to teacher education or teacher preparation) is the inevitable companion of the “teacher-worker” metaphor. These metaphors are inadequate to meet the new demands which teachers are facing, the demands to make high levels of learning accessible to a diverse student body, the demands to create school learning organizations that recognize and welcome new opportunities to develop students’ judgements and abilities to deal with changes within their context.

By definition, professionals can introduce highly specialized expertise to solve complex problems, and yet historically “teaching has fallen short of the status of profession” (R. Lewis, 2000). Professionals are at the top of a hierarchical pyramid of occupations, they are the experts in a particular field, and they rationally employ advanced knowledge for common good. Attracting a new talent to the teaching field calls, in part, for an increased status of teachers and teaching, the same status that modern societies accord to professionals, symbolic analysts, and those who are employed in the “knowledge” sector of the service economy. In order for schools to meet the demands of our times, teachers need to be prepared, perceived and treated as professionals.

## WHAT IS TEACHER PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT?

Professional development, in a broad sense, refers to the development of a person in his or her professional role. More specifically, teacher development is the professional growth a teacher achieves as a result of gaining increased experience and examining his or her teaching systematically.

Professional development includes formal experiences (attending workshops and professional meetings, mentoring, etc.) and informal experiences (reading professional publications, watching television documentaries related to an academic discipline, etc.). This conception of professional development is, therefore, broader than career development, which is defined as the growth that occurs as the teacher moves through the professional career cycle, and broader than staff development, which is the provision of organized in-service programmes designed to foster the growth of groups of teachers; it is only one of the systematic interventions that can be used for teacher development.

When looking at professional development, one must examine the content of the experiences, the processes by which the professional development will occur, and the contexts in which it will take place. This perspective is, in a way, new to teaching. For years the only form of “professional development” available to teachers was “staff development” or “in-service training”, usually consisting of workshops or short-term courses that would offer teachers new information on a particular aspect of their work.

Teacher professional development was usually unrelated to the teachers’ work. Only in the past few years has the professional development of teachers been considered a long-term process that includes regular opportunities and experiences planned systematically to promote growth and development in the profession. This shift has been so dramatic that many have referred to it as a new image of teacher learning, a new model of teacher education, a revolution in education, and even a new paradigm of professional development. There has recently been a significant increase in the level of interest and support that teachers throughout the world are receiving in their professional development.

The new perspective of professional development has several characteristics:

1. It is based on constructivism rather than on a “transmission-oriented model”. As a consequence, teachers are treated as active learners who are engaged in the concrete tasks of teaching, assessment, observation and reflection.

2. It is perceived as a long-term process as it acknowledges the fact that teachers learn over time. As a result, a series of related experiences is seen to be the most effective as it allows teachers to relate prior knowledge to new experiences.

3. It is perceived as a process that takes place within a particular context. Contrary to the traditional staff development opportunities that did not relate “training” to actual classroom experiences, the most effective form of professional development is the one which is based in schools and is related to the daily activities of teachers and learners. Schools are transformed into communities of learners, communities of inquiry, professional communities and caring communities because teachers are engaged in professional development activities. The most successful teacher development opportunities are “on-the-job learning” activities such as study groups, action research and portfolios.

4. Many identify this process as one that is intimately linked to school reform; professional development is a process of culture building and not of mere skill training which is affected by the coherence of the school programme. In this case, teachers are empowered as professionals, and therefore should receive the same treatment that they themselves are expected to give their students.

5. A teacher is conceived as a reflective practitioner, someone who enters the profession with a certain knowledge base, and who will acquire new knowledge and experiences based on that prior knowledge. In doing so, the role of professional development is to aid teachers in building new pedagogical theories and practices and to help them develop their expertise in the field.

6. Professional development is conceived as a collaborative process. Even though there may be some opportunities for isolated work and reflection, most effective professional development occurs when there are meaningful interactions, not only among teachers themselves, but also between administrators, parents and other community members.

7. Professional development may look and be very different in diverse settings, and even within a single setting, it can have a variety of dimensions.

## PRACTICAL TRAINING

Professional and practical studies constitute the third major element in the teacher-preparation program. Teaching practice has always been important, initially carried out in the model or demonstration school attached to the normal school or college, later in the schools of the neighbourhood, and more recently in a variety of school, college, and community settings. The model and demonstration school was frequently criticized for the unreality of its teaching settings; some model schools attached to universities tended to become academically oriented and ceased to play an experimental role. But if there are advantages in practicing in more typical schools, there are also difficulties in relating the variety of experience thus attained to the purpose and content of the college course, particularly when there are discrepancies between the methods and approaches taught in the colleges and those that the student encounters in the school. In some countries, experienced teachers view the work of teacher-preparing institutions with a certain amount of disdain. It is sometimes claimed that college and university staff lack the recent, firsthand experience of schools that is needed if training is to be fully effective. Efforts have been made to reduce the separation between school and college; these include the transfer of college staff to periods of classroom teaching and of experienced teachers to college work, dual appointment to a college and to a school where the “teacher-tutor” assumes responsibility for supervision of the student’s school-based work, the involvement of teachers’ organizations in the determination of national policy on teacher education, the involvement of individual teachers in the government and committee work of teacher-preparing institutions, and the use of periods of school-based teacher education in which a tutor and group of student teachers are attached to a school or a number of schools for an extended period of observation, practical teaching, and theoretical study. Courses are also being devised in which periods of education, training, and paid employment in schools alternate with one another to make up a four- or five-year program.

Generally speaking, in federal countries such as the United States, Canada, and Australia, each state or province sets its own requirements for certification, which inevitably do much to shape the content and organization of the teacher-education programs. The variety of such regulations often means that teachers who have received their education and training in one

province or state are not qualified to teach in schools elsewhere without satisfying additional requirements. In other countries, such as England and France, requirements are determined on a national basis. Responsibility for recommending the granting of qualified teacher status may, however, be delegated. In England this responsibility is exercised by regional consortia of colleges, local educational authorities, universities, and teacher interests known as area training organizations that were established after 1944.

There are likewise considerable variations among countries in the way in which teachers are appointed to their first posts after graduation from college or university. In a small number of countries, students have a completely free choice among all the schools of the type in which their training qualifies them to teach, and they make their applications directly to the school in which they wish to serve. A more common pattern is that of appointment to the service of a local, state, or provincial authority, which then places the teacher in a school where a suitable vacancy exists. In some places there is a tendency for beginning teachers to be placed in schools in more remote or less desirable areas. In countries that have universal military service, such as Israel, it is sometimes possible for trained teachers to satisfy military requirements by being drafted to a school of the government's choice.

Another aspect of the diversity of certification requirements is the extent to which teachers are permitted to undertake work in subjects other than those they specialized in at college or university. Generally speaking, where national and state rules exist they tend to be interpreted liberally during periods of teacher shortage and more stringently as the supply of teachers improves; it is often possible for a teacher to secure the additional qualifications required to undertake a greater variety of work by taking university summer sessions or other kinds of in-service courses.

## FUTURE DEVELOPMENTS IN TEACHER EDUCATION

Coming decades are likely to see continuing development and change in teacher education. Post-secondary and higher education may soon reach between a third and a half of the population in many advanced countries. The teacher must adjust to new developments in educational technology, the growth of human knowledge, and the problem of creating a relevant and appropriate curriculum from the enormous range of material available. There will be new understanding of how children develop and learn. The patterns of authority in society will continue to change, and it is likely that there will be a greater recognition of the importance of moral and personal education in a world of pluralistic values and goals. All these factors will affect the ways in which teachers are educated and trained.

In all countries, whether or not any fundamental institutional changes are contemplated, there are evidences of radical change in the structure of ideas and assumptions that underlie the preparation of teachers. But it is unlikely that coming decades will see the introduction of any comprehensive pedagogical system resembling those of the 19th century. No single theory of learning or teaching is likely to satisfy the diversity of individual needs and societal arrangements.

The varying perceptions which societies, policy-makers, and teacher educators have of teachers are an influential factor on how teachers are prepared and how their professional development is promoted. Views on the role of teachers are culturally and socially embedded, and teachers' own perspectives of their role and profession affect, and are affected by, the conception of teaching that is prevalent in their societies.

Teachers have been likened to artists, particularly when the literature refers to the process of teaching as being an art rather than a science. This idea was presented in 1891 by W. James in his book "Talks to Teachers in Psychology" and still exists over a century later, despite the fact that little evidence has been gathered to support the concept of teaching being an art and that "little theoretical work devoted to analyzing what 'art' means in this widely used metaphor." There are two points of interest raised by this metaphor: one being that it is usually employed by writers other than educational researchers; the other is that usually when the metaphor is used, there is no clarification as to what kind of artist the teacher is, whether he or she is executing his or her own production, or interpreting someone else's.



It appears that the origin of the metaphor of teaching being an art is related to the indeterminate skills that are usually associated with the process of teaching. Some of the research carried out to test the validity of this metaphor has focused on the indeterminate variables of the art of teaching, the hidden curriculum, and the tacit, implicit, and unexamined facets of the profession. When policy-makers think of teaching as an art, little is done to promote the professional development of teachers, as, usually, those who believe that teaching is an art also believe that people are “born” teachers (as opposed to trained as teachers) and that their development as teachers is “natural” (as opposed to planned and systematically promoted). Even now in the twenty-first century, when so much is known about the skills and knowledge that teachers need to learn and practise in order to be effective teachers, many, in and outside of teaching, still believe that teachers are born with a special gift, and thus professional development is not of great importance.

Virtual education, beginning with non-presence and in a context of virtual learning, does not necessarily claim to be born out of a specific pedagogical orientation. In traditional education, different orientations and didactics may coexist, provided they are coherent with the pedagogical ends and educational goals. The same is true for virtuality. In virtual environments, learning is the result of a process. We will evaluate it in exactly the same way we evaluate, from a humanist perspective, the process in which the student creates his learning. This can take on several forms: the product of practice, work using simulators or an action resulting from a critical analysis. Consequently, if different perspectives for analysis or educational evaluation are authorised by traditional teaching, the same is possible in the virtual context. The most important difference between traditional and virtual education lies in the change of space and the educational potential that results from optimising each space. We cannot work in the same way in different places, even if the educational aims and, therefore, the results being pursued, are the same. But we must know right from the start that the road being followed is different. The success or failure of the educational activity will arise from the recognition of this difference. The virtual education models will fail if they try to copy traditional teaching model.

## PEDAGOGICAL SKILL (MASTERY)

The following step to the teacher's professionalism is pedagogical skill. Pedagogical skill as the qualitative characteristic of educational activity, the highest degree of perfection, manifests itself in the high level application of forms, methods, means and technologies of teaching and psychological and-pedagogical theory in practice. Certain creative elements can be observed in it, but they are not obligatory. The term "creativity" is associated with the creation of new cultural and material assets. Pedagogical creativity also comprises certain novelty aspects, but more often this novelty is connected not only with the promotion of new ideas, but with the modification of teaching methods and ways, their certain modernization.

The general characteristics of a teacher's professional skill:

1. Acknowledging major social problems masters are guided by solving the perspective problems connected with all-round, harmonious development of each pupil. This high aim defines the strategy and tactics of pedagogical activities which are characterised by the choice of forms, methods and means of teaching. The activity of the teacher-master represents a complete program of actions aimed at a person's all-around development and stage by stage advancement to the basic and strategic target.

2. The maximum use of the richest possibilities of a lesson thanks to the creative and rational organisation of pedagogical communication.

3. Possessing an art of dialogue where the exchange of information takes place according to social norms and values, ways of behaviour.

4. Inspiring the pupils not only to study, but also to open their inner world, interests and predilections.

5. Finding out new resources of educating pupils, mobilizing their own resources, advanced pedagogical experience. The state of constant dissatisfaction and creative search, the aspiration to be regularly engaged in self-education is typical of the teacher-master.

6. The individual style of teaching is typical of teachers-masters.

The fundamental basis for pedagogical skill is professional knowledge. Professional knowledge comprises the knowledge of the subject, its technique, pedagogies and psychology, general cultural knowledge. The important feature of professional pedagogical knowledge is its integrated character which is revealed in the ability of the teacher to synthesize different

sciences. Professional knowledge is also characterized by such an important feature as a personal touch and a position.

Position is the valuable, personal relation to the activity. The position characterizes a certain level of a person's development. Pedagogical position comprises world outlook and behavioral patterns. The world outlook component includes acknowledging the importance of pedagogical position, the right choice of the profession, possessing the system of pedagogical principles. The position of the teacher depends on the relation to pedagogical work as to the main meaning of life and is revealed in love and respect to children, responsibility for the destiny of each child.

The teacher should possess different cultures.

1. *The Culture of Appearance:*

– bearing: a straight line; the ability to sit straight, hands lie freely on the table; smartness, concentration;

– clothes: accuracy; modesty; colour harmony; the conformity of the clothes to the age, fashion; a sense of proportion in the choice of ornaments;

– make-up (moderation);

– hairdress (accuracy);

– mimicry: an expression of goodwill, calmness; confidence (but not self-confidence); the eye look is directed at the interlocutor; emotional expressiveness; the conformity of the look to the character of speech;

– pantomime: the gestures are pertinent, organic and natural; the gait is elastic, rhythmical, easy; the movements are flexible, measured, easy; the absence of constraint in movements; the absence of fussiness and nervousness; the ability to stand up and sit down silently.

2. *The Culture of Pedagogical Dialogue:*

– a quiet, benevolent tone in a dialogue: the abilities to listen to the interlocutor, ask questions, come into contact with another person and understand another person, to be guided in the dialogue; the ability to analyze the performance;

– the aspiration to establish an eye contact: you look at the interlocutor while communicating;

– the ability to see and understand the reaction of the listeners;

– the ability to arouse interest in the performance, the story, the appearance; to express the readiness and desire to communicate;

– self-control.

Self-control is the pedagogical behaviour corresponding to professional requirements. Self-control is the regulation which is carried out by the person as the subject of activity aimed at reducing the possibilities of the person

according to the requirements of the activity. Self-control can be personal and moral. In personal self-control the active and effective relation of the person to another person, his moral and social orientations, professional purposefulness are shown. Moral self-control is the process characterising the ability of the person to behave according to the moral standards, estimations and professional requirements. The structural mechanism of self-control consists of the following components: the ability to remove excessive stress, excitement; the ability to overcome the indecision, the lack of desire in itself before the performance; the ability to remain emotionally steady in stressful situations;

– standard of speech.

The Standard of speech: grammatically correct speech, lexical riches, emotionally coloured speech, techniques of speech (sonority, flexibility of the voice); riches of the intonation; correctly chosen force of the voice; accurate diction (the absence of twang, lisp and other defects); observing the necessary tempo of speech.

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