

V. 1. THE DISCIPLINES, CURRENT MOVEMENTS, AND INSTRUCTIONAL METHODOLOGY. pdf

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Volume 11, Issue 1, Article R1, Review: Pronouncements about it were first voiced between the climax of government-supported science and higher education and the long retrenchment that began in the s. Early work focused on questions of epistemology and the planning of future universities and educational programs. After a lull, transdisciplinarity re-emerged in the s as an urgent issue relating to the solution of new, highly complex, global concerns, beginning with climate change and sustainability and extending into many areas concerning science, technology, social problems and policy, education, and the arts. In simultaneously studying multiple levels of, and angles on, reality, transdisciplinary work provides an intriguing potential to invigorate scholarly and scientific inquiry both in and outside the academy. A review of its origins, development, and current issues. *Journal of Research Practice*, 11 1 , Article R1. Not only ought scholars to study across the disciplines, nor should disciplinary crossing be limited to joint and cooperative work on projects of mutual interest across disciplines, but a reliance on disciplinary paradigms and an acceptance of disciplines as a basis for organizing knowledge, inquiry, and teaching needs somehow to be transcended. In their place, transdisciplinary theorists propose new principles and criteria for furthering knowledge. As Alfonso Montuori , p. Origins The word transdisciplinarity appears to have been introduced in at a seminar on interdisciplinarity in universities held at the University of Nice and jointly sponsored by the Organisation of Economic Cooperation and Development and the French Ministry of Education. The eminent Swiss psychologist Jean Piaget is generally credited with coining the term e. Mahan goes further than Jantsch, whom he does not cite, criticizing both the compartmentalization of the traditional disciplines and ideals of detachment and aloofness associated with disciplinary inquiry. Although he does not provide a concise definition of transdisciplinarity, the following gives a sense of what he thinks it means and how it can improve the quality of academic work. Transdisciplinary inquiry would be characterized by a common orientation to transcend disciplinary boundaries and an attempt to bring continuity to inquiry and knowledge. Other characteristics would be: The timing was appropriate, since academic and government science had received a boost of glory in public opinion with the success of the Apollo program of manned moon landings. With funding at a peak and conditions of growth, the time was right for thinking big and imagining what the university could be in a perfect world. The notion of the interconnectedness of many seemingly disparate things was thematic in the writings of systems theorists such as R. Buckminster Fuller, Kenneth Boulding, E. West Churchman, who were among the leading public intellectuals of the time. The period was also marked by student unrest and a conflict between the generations Feuer, Many professors sympathized with the radical students and identified with their idealism. Perhaps a side-effect or after-effect of the counterculture was some utopian speculation about the future possibilities for universities, and some of this was expressed in the first writings on transdisciplinarity. Indeed, new colleges and universities were established based on some of these new theories. This set in motion a rapid withdrawal of heretofore massive government funding of higher education beginning in the United States and had the effect of putting on hold all promises for the continuation, much less the expansion, of idealistic plans for educational systems based on emerging concepts about knowledge. Later on, other splinters of interdisciplinary innovation could be seen in new specialties including disability studies and peace and conflict studies, to name two successes. To the extent that courses and academic programs were created around these new concentrations, curricula needed to be defined and ratified, and resources needed to be allocated. Yet the notion of transdisciplinarity introduced at the beginning of the s remained undeveloped and almost uncited until the early s. A rare discussion of transdisciplinarity appearing in this mainly dormant period was a chapter contributed by Joseph J. Kockelmans , a Dutch-born and

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European-trained but US-based philosopher working in the continental tradition, to a book he edited on interdisciplinarity and higher education. For Kockelmans, the purpose of transdisciplinary work is not so much to find a reasonable solution to a given problem under study as to develop a larger, unifying, all-encompassing theoretical framework for scholarly and scientific work. Several developments not necessarily related to each other brought transdisciplinarity back into the limelight not only as an interesting philosophy of education and science but as an urgent matter. The very phenomenon of dividing knowledge into separate disciplines, each with its own personnel, modes of work and thought, and pathways toward accomplishment was previously so taken for granted as to be almost unrecognized, although some, like Donald T. Campbell, had warned earlier of redundancy and gaps in the prevailing system of disciplinary specialization in the social sciences. Earlier writings on the nature of disciplines as intellectual structures by educational theorists Philip H. Phenix and later Paul Dressel and Dora Marcus analyzed the dimensions of meaning embraced by the various disciplines. The new work, by contrast, has looked at disciplines as social constructs, questioning in the process the validity of customary practices surrounding the disciplinary segmentation of knowledge and pointing out the drawbacks inherent in the system of disciplinarity see Lattuca, , pp. Another key factor was the end of the Cold War and the concomitant dismantling of the Iron Curtain, creating some of the conditions for a new so-called globalized workforce. The end of the Cold War meant the end of certain tensions and conflicts but the beginning of others. There was a growing realization that globalization was not necessarily a good thing. First recognized in the early s, what soon became the AIDS pandemic was an example of a quickly moving problem that knew no boundaries and could not be contained Engel, New incarnations of global capitalism in the form of multinational corporations facilitated new forms of labor exploitation as inhumane as any that had existed during the earlier industrial age N. Of course, we no longer lived in the industrial age but in the post-industrial, information age with an economy characterized by the production of knowledge and services rather than the manufacture of physical objects Kumar, An entirely new way of thinking about culture and society, called postmodernism or postmodernity, based on dislocation and a sense of ultimate placelessness, appeared on the horizon, and it had great influence on thought in the social sciences, humanities, and arts beginning in the s Harvey, Climate change is predicted to cause not only unprecedented rises in temperature affecting agriculture and the human habitability of land but also rising sea levels and mass extinctions. Themes of sustainability and global environmental crisis were watchwords in moving the heretofore little-used concept of transdisciplinarity to the foreground of debates about science and planning. Julie Thompson Klein, herself a key interlocutor in debates about new combinations of disciplines in education, pinpoints the United Nations Earth Summit in Rio de Janeiro in as the turning point of awareness about a need for action in the academic and scientific communities. In this and other works, Nicolescu e. Exactly the same year as the First World Congress on Transdisciplinarity took place, another project appeared presenting a somewhat different approach to transdisciplinarity. The authors, Michael Gibbons, Camille Limoges, Helga Nowotny, Simon Schwartzman, Peter Scott, and Martin Trow, had professional backgrounds in the social and policy sciences as they pertained to science, technology, and education, rather than in the hard sciences or philosophy. The fact that their work was collaborative is itself significant, since part of their message concerned the collaboration of experts from diverse fields on specific projects that transcended the boundaries of specific disciplines. Their innovation was the concept of Mode 2 knowledge production, involving knowledge developed for a particular application and involving the work of experts drawn from academia, government, and industry. They stress that such knowledge production and problem solving are not merely applied research and development, nor are they limited to the sciences, technology, or medicine, but extend as well to the humanities, as in museums, architecture, and modes of research that rely on information technology. Mode 2 knowledge production, which the authors link to transdisciplinarity, came about with increased globalization as the Cold War ended. Rather than offering a philosophy of transdisciplinarity, as Nicolescu did, Gibbons et al. It has helped subsequent readers understand transdisciplinarity and has been influential in paving the way for research on the sociology of science, technology, and higher education, as well as policy in those fields. Their text Gibbons et al. Even if

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one does not fully accept Gibbons et al. This new social, economic, political, and bureaucratic organization is crucial in the works of some transdisciplinarians. To some extent, Nicolescu and Gibbons et al. While Nicolescuian transdisciplinarity emphasizes a concept of the human life world and lived meanings following the philosophical traditions exemplified by Edmund Husserl, Martin Heidegger, and Ernst Cassirer, the Zurich tradition prioritizes the interface between science, society, and technology in the contemporary world, according to McGregor b, see also Augsburg, Nicolescu himself, pp. Current Issues in Transdisciplinary Research The appearance of two nearly simultaneous major statements on transdisciplinarity created something of a buzz and caused many researchers and educators to take notice. Through a range of disparate efforts, something approaching a consensus on what transdisciplinarity should be is emerging among researchers who are informed both by the Nicolescuians and the Zurichers. Transdisciplinary work challenges the entire framework of disciplinary thinking and seeks to assemble new approaches from scratch, using materials from existing scholarly disciplines for new purposes. Nicolescu aimed his discussions about the subject and the object at the study of physical, chemical, and biological reality, but he also asserted that his concept of levels of reality which he identified as the key concept of transdisciplinarity is applicable to social inquiry. These considerations require researchers not only to admit to their own subjectivity but to foreground questions about the ethics of studying populations where a power differential exists between the investigator and the subject of research. This has resulted in research that transcends standard interpretive social science and becomes transdisciplinary in that it brings in the subjects of research participating in the research on an equal footing with the investigators. Such an approach is exemplified in an ethnographic and ethnohistorical project of Alaskan natives that resulted in a book and a community-based museum exhibition that simultaneously examine and reflect the values of the Alutiiq people who were not studied as objects of research by experts but shared in the creation of the work Crowell et al. Such a work creates a dialogue between minority and majority cultures, includes participants from outside the academic community, and strives to transcend the traditional dichotomy between objective and subjective viewpoints. Like another book from the same time period, *Exotic No More* MacClancey, it shows the possibility of anthropology, an established social science, to engage at least implicitly with emerging transdisciplinary research paradigms and contributes to the corpus of transdisciplinary research literature. The ethnographic method of participant observation, which was originally developed in cultural anthropology, has more recently been picked up and adapted by other disciplines wanting to gain insights into the thoughts and practices of people being studied. Related to the use of ethnographic methods is the involvement and participation of stakeholders in transdisciplinary projects Bergmann et al. Other research that can be described as transdisciplinary is also aimed at creating engaged, socially responsible science. As we have already seen, a concern with global climate change has been a focal point in coalescing a movement for transdisciplinary research. Many have sought to create a science of sustainability, and such research is closely identified with the transdisciplinary movement Brandt et al. Moreover, the research and educational aims of this work are intertwined Evans, The notion of sustainability has evolved from a concept to a movement involving not only science, government, and industry but citizen participation, including input from religious leaders, consumer awareness, boycotts and protests, and much more Cardonna, With concerns voiced about a possibly dying planet, the need to prevent catastrophe lends a sense of urgency and running against the clock to this work, with a requirement not only to raise awareness but change behavior. Tina Lynn Evans, p. The concept of the wicked problem, first identified and defined by the design theorists Horst W. Rittel and Melvin M. Webber, has grown from being a discussion point in the policy sciences to a focal concern in recent transdisciplinary literature cf. Wicked problems, including conflict and sustainability, that transcend the resources for any single disciplinary or even traditional interdisciplinary approach for solution have become primary sources of material for contemporary transdisciplinary work. These are pressing problems, even crises, reaching in multiple domains or dimensions and involving not just academic disciplines and the interplay among them but also practitioners seeking solutions in the real world outside the academy. Some projects on wicked problems involve using

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multiple prongs of research to solve ever-present yet multifaceted social justice problems including crime or poverty, and focusing on issues such as education, health, sanitation, and housing Lawrence, Transdisciplinary work is often dedicated to studying and helping to solve such problems, as shown in examples of projects combining research and action on sustainable housing renovation, sustainability and urban design, and the forecast of water demand Bergmann et al. An entire branch of transdisciplinary work, involving experts from multiple fields along with stakeholders, focuses on community problem solving to facilitate change Stokols, Such projects generally require a division of labor in a team with meetings to discuss findings and brainstorm solutions. While some commentators give the impression that teamwork is a defining characteristic of transdisciplinary research, the team approach is only used in some cases and is not essential to transdisciplinary inquiry. The wickedness of other problems derives from the subtle considerations that need to be weighed in innovating scientific and technological solutions in genomics, biomechanics, nanotechnology, and mechatronics the confluence between mechanics and electronics. Nanotechnology is a field that has become a focal point in the theory and practice of transdisciplinarity Mittelstrass, It involves the use of particles measuring in the range of billionths of a meter in size, practically at the atomic scale. At such a small scale, objects have qualities that can make them significant in many domains, pushing to the limits our understanding of the nature of life in relation to matter, energy, and information. The advent of nanotechnology is thought to have a unifying effect on the political economy of scientific research signifying a swing of the pendulum away from hyperspecialization toward applications and approaches shared by many disciplines Collins, , p. These applications concern industry, biomedicine, and the environment. The potential of nanotechnology for beneficial in computing and medicine or for destructive purposes in germ warfare , for surveillance which can be good or bad for society , and for many other purposes makes it important for policies about the uses of nanotechnology to take into account the concerns and interests of all people, not just those of the scientists, technologists, enterprises, industries or other entities underwriting the research. There are consequences for social justice and the common good Fisher,

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2: Earlychildhood NEWS - Article Reading Center

HOW TO REDESIGN A COLLEGE COURSE USING NCAT'S METHODOLOGY. V. How to Reduce Instructional Costs. The traditional course format requires instructors to carry out all of the development and delivery aspects of a course on their own.

How to Reduce Instructional Costs The traditional course format requires instructors to carry out all of the development and delivery aspects of a course on their own. The traditional format often assumes that small classes are necessary in order to produce positive learning results because the instructor is responsible for all interactions. Responding to every inquiry, comment, or discussion personally; preparing lectures; and the hand grading of assignments, quizzes, and examinations are labor-intensive. Course redesign involves substituting technology for much of that effort, often with assistance from different kinds of personnel. Making the substitutions discussed in the following sections enables each instructor to teach more students than before—without increasing the workload. How can redesign lead to reduced instructional costs? Redesigning a whole course eliminates duplication of effort on the part of instructors and creates opportunities for using alternative staffing patterns. Faculty begin the design process by analyzing the amount of time that each person involved in the course spends on each kind of activity, which often reveals duplication of effort among multiple faculty members. Faculty members teaching the course divide their tasks among themselves, and their efforts target particular aspects of course delivery. By replacing individual development of each course section with shared responsibility for both course development and course delivery, faculty can save substantial amounts of their time while achieving greater course consistency. When redesigns reduce the number of lectures or other classroom presentations that faculty members must prepare for and present and replace those formats with interactive learning resources and team-based learning strategies, faculty time can be reallocated to other tasks either within the same course or in other courses. Moving away from viewing instructors as the sole sources of content knowledge and assistance and instead toward greater reliance on interactive learning materials and greater student-student interaction offers many opportunities for reducing instructional costs. Replacing hand grading with automated grading of homework, quizzes, and exams makes it possible to reduce the cost of providing feedback while improving its quality. Online weekly practice quizzes can replace weekly homework grading, and all grading and record keeping can be automated. Replacing time-consuming human monitoring of student performance with course management software makes it possible to reduce costs while increasing the level and frequency of oversight of student progress. Using instructional software also radically reduces the amount of time that faculty members typically spend on nonacademic tasks like calculating and recording grades, photocopying course materials, posting changes in schedules and course syllabi, sending out special announcements to students, and documenting course materials like syllabi, assignments, and examinations so that they can be used in multiple terms. How can we calculate the number of hours instructors will spend on the redesigned course compared with the traditional course? NCAT has developed a Scope of Effort Worksheet see Appendix D to help campuses document that the number of hours faculty devote to the redesigned course will be the same as or fewer than the number of hours devoted to the traditional format of the course, even if class size grows or the number of sections that faculty carry increases. This is possible because the course redesign off-loads to the technology certain tasks like grading and monitoring student progress. Explaining how this occurs and documenting the changes by using the Scope of Effort Worksheet enable redesign leaders to help others on campus understand the benefits of redesign for both students and faculty. Do cost savings equal saved instructor hours? Planning for cost reduction as a part of redesign consists of two steps. The first is to complete the Scope of Effort Worksheet for the traditional and redesigned formats of the course, which lets you demonstrate how the number of hours spent by each person involved in the course can change. If you stop at the first step, you might create what NCAT calls paper savings. By paper savings we mean savings that represent a workload reduction for

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individual faculty members or others but do not produce cost savings to the department or institution. Reducing time spent by individual faculty members and others as displayed on the Scope of Effort Worksheet is an enabler that allows you to choose a cost savings strategy. For example, a faculty member or TA who spends half the time on the redesigned course that that faculty member or TA did on the traditional course could increase section enrollment or carry two sections without an increase in workload. That then produces real savings for the institution. Does it matter whether our course enrollment is growing or remains stable? If accommodating more students is a goal, you do not have to reduce the number of people involved in teaching the course in order to produce cost savings, although you can do this. How can we re-structure the course to reduce instructional costs? There are three ways to re-structure the course that will reduce costs. Have each instructor carry more students by a. Change the mix of personnel from more expensive to less expensive. Each of these strategies can be used whether your enrollment is growing or stable. When enrollment is stable, cost reduction means fewer resources are devoted to the course. When enrollment is growing, cost reduction means more students can be served on the same resource base. In each case, the cost per student is reduced. Are there examples of having each instructor carry more students by increasing section size? If your enrollment is stable, this will allow you to reduce the number of sections offered and the number of people teaching the course. If your enrollment is growing, this will allow you to serve more students with the same number of people teaching the course. The college reduced the cost of offering General Psychology by decreasing the number of sections 18 , which ranged in size from 18 to 95 students annually, to 6 sections of students each. Capacity was increased from students in the traditional format to students in the redesign. The traditional lecture format of the course, which met three times per week, was replaced by one face-to-face meeting and a variety of online activities. The number of full-time faculty teaching the course was reduced from 10 to 6, and all adjunct instructors were eliminated, with the added benefit of providing greater consistency among sections. One adjunct faculty member led two optional one-hour discussion groups per week, monitored mandatory threaded discussions, and provided technical support for students. Because each faculty member was responsible for three rather than nine hours of lecture per week, faculty had time to develop and teach new upper-level courses. In addition, classroom space was made available for other uses. The redesign of Organizational Management and Leadership enabled the university to increase section size from about 45 students to about 90 and to reduce the number of sections from six to four each term. The traditional lecture format of the course, which met twice a week for 70 minutes each, was replaced by one face-to-face meeting and one online meeting. After the initial redesign, the course could accommodate students rather than the under the traditional format. The team believes that once the course is being taught in a new building with larger classrooms, enrollment can increase to as high as students per term because one classroom will hold and a second classroom will hold This means that the annual enrollment can be increased to about from the current without additional resources. What are examples of increasing the number of sections that each instructor carries for the same workload credit? If your enrollment is stable, this will allow you to offer the same number of sections and reduce the number of people teaching the course. Each course met three times per week. Each section had one class meeting per week in a small computer lab, and students were required to spend two additional hours in a larger lab staffed by faculty and tutors. The full-time-equivalent teaching load per faculty member went from Faculty had been teaching five sections each per semester. In the redesign, faculty members each taught 10 or 11 sections, which met once per week, and they worked 8 to 10 hours in the lab. The University of Alabama UA: As a result of replacing one face-to-face class hour per week with online components in Introductory Spanish I and II and two hours per week in the Intensive Review of Elementary Spanish, UA was able to accommodate more studentsâ€”a 33 percent enrollment increaseâ€”without increasing spending. Those changes were made possible by increasing the student load for a graduate teaching assistant from three to four sections per academic year. Due to replacement of a portion of class meeting time with online components, the teaching load increased but the amount of time graduate teaching assistants spent on the courses remained the same. The redesign enabled UA to offer 60 sections of introductory Spanish

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courses, an increase of 15 sections over prior offerings and thereby meeting more of the actual demand. What are examples of changing the mix of personnel from more expensive to less expensive? If your enrollment is stable, this will allow you to offer the same number of sections and reduce the total cost of the people teaching the course because adjuncts, tutors and undergraduate tutors are paid less than full-time faculty, and tutors and undergraduate tutors are paid less than adjuncts. If your enrollment is growing, this will allow you to serve more students, offer more sections and reduce the cost-per-student since adjuncts, tutors and undergraduate tutors are paid less than full-time faculty, and tutors and undergraduate tutors are paid less than adjuncts. In its redesign of English Composition, the college reduced the number of full-time faculty involved in teaching the course from 32 to 8 and substituted less-expensive adjunct faculty without sacrificing quality and consistency. Further savings were realized by reducing the amount of time and resources that the Writing Center staff had traditionally spent in working with students on basic skills. Mid-stage drafts were outsourced to Smarthinking, an online tutorial service. Full-time faculty were freed to teach second-level courses, for which finding adjuncts was much more difficult. The redesign of Human Anatomy at UCM changed the mix of personnel to accommodate an increase in enrollment from students to Lab section size increased from 25 students in the traditional format to 40 students in the redesign. Non-tenure-track faculty replaced tenure-track faculty. The supervised lab sessions supplemented the one large weekly lecture session by engaging students through a team-learning approach. Graduate teaching assistants assisted by undergraduate learning assistants rather than faculty members managed the labs. UCM plans to invest the cost savings in additional upper-level and graduate course offerings or in reassigned time so that faculty can become involved in the graduate research program, a long-standing desire of the UCM administration. What are examples of doing both simultaneously? Most redesigns employ both strategies simultaneously as the following examples illustrate. The instructional mix was changed to include fewer regular faculty and more graduate teaching assistants and undergraduate learning assistants who worked with small groups online, monitored online discussions, and provided individualized feedback for students on quizzes and participation. The cost savings enabled the department to accommodate new student growth and meet the demands of a new graduate program. The redesign reduced the number of in-class meetings by half, replacing them with online activities that included quizzing and small discussion groups. Twelve highly trained undergraduate learning assistants provided support for the online activities. Fewer instructors were needed to teach the course because the number of sections was reduced by a third, from 18 to 6, and required as few as one full-time faculty member versus nine and three adjuncts versus nine to teach the course. That change freed full-time faculty to teach upper-level courses. What does reducing costs mean in practice? It is important to understand the context for reducing costs. In the vast majority of NCAT course redesign projects, the achieved cost savings remained in the department that generated them and were used for instructional purposes. Institutional participants have used cost savings in the following ways. Are there further opportunities for cost savings beyond these strategies? There are, however, a number of variables that may influence whether or not you are able to realize those additional savings such as the number of students who accelerate versus the number who move at a slower pace and scheduling complexities. Because it is difficult to predict how these various elements will play out until you have some experience with the redesign over time, your plan for cost reduction should include one of the strategies listed previously which will result in immediate savings during the first term of full implementation.

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3: Curriculum Definitions and Reference Points

own teaching conceptions upon the best methodology to follow is the key to construct solid foundations. The aim of this chapter is to help Secondary teachers to study the different trends and.

Professional practice doctoral degrees J. These categories were limited to institutions that were not identified as Tribal Colleges or Special Focus Institutions. Level of Research Activity Doctoral universities were assigned to one of three categories based on a measure of research activity. The research activity scale includes the following correlates of research activity: These data were statistically combined using principal components analysis to create two indices of research activity reflecting the total variation across these measures based on the first principal component in each analysis. One index represents the aggregate level of research activity, and the other captures per-capita research activity using the expenditure and staffing measures divided by the number of full-time faculty within the assistant, associate and full professor ranks. The values on each index were then used to locate each institution on a two-dimensional graph. Thus the aggregate and per-capita indices were considered equally, such that institutions that were very high on either index were assigned to the "highest research activity" group, while institutions that were high on at least one but very high on neither were assigned to the "higher research activity" group. Remaining institutions and those not represented in the NSF data collections were assigned to the "moderate research activity" category. Before conducting the analysis, raw data were converted to rank scores to reduce the influence of outliers and to improve discrimination at the lower end of the distributions where many institutions were clustered. Detailed information about how the research activity index was calculated can be found here. These were the most current and complete data available at the time of our analysis, and we judged currency to be more important than temporal alignment of all data sources. As in prior years, although to a lesser extent, there were some cases in which the NSF data were reported at a higher level of aggregation than is needed for classification purposes i. We adopted the allocation scheme developed by the Center for Measuring University Performance [accessed December 3,]. For the staffing data, where aggregate reporting was more pronounced, we used the proportionate distribution of expenditures data to allocate staffing among multiple institutions reported as a single entity on the NSF research staffing survey. Those awarding at least degrees were included among larger programs; those awarding " were included among medium programs; and those awarding "99 were included among smaller programs. In addition, these categories were limited to institutions that were not identified as Tribal Colleges or as Special Focus Institutions. Up to two majors can be reported, and both were considered for this analysis. These institutions met the following criteria: These institutions are divided into two subcategories: The detailed disciplinary designations are available in an Excel spreadsheet. Student mix, within this classification, is determined by a combination of the proportion of total enrollment accounted for by "degree-seeking" students as opposed to "non-degree" students , and the ratio of fall headcount to annual unduplicated headcount. Specifically, we multiply these two ratios and designate as "high traditional," student focus, those institutions for which the product is greater than 0. Institutions for which the produce is lower than. The derived factor was selected due the comprehensiveness of data availability and the distributional properties that allowed for identification of cutoff points for thirds of the institutions. Special Focus Institutions The special-focus designation was based on the concentration of degrees in a single field or set of related fields, at both the undergraduate and graduate levels. Institutions were determined to have a special focus with concentrations of at least 75 percent of undergraduate and graduate degrees.

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4: Humanities - Wikipedia

The term teaching method refers to the general principles, pedagogy and management strategies used for classroom instruction.. Your choice of teaching method depends on what fits you – your educational philosophy, classroom demographic, subject area(s) and school mission statement.

Suffice it to say that some philosophers, as well as focusing inward on the abstract philosophical issues that concern them, are drawn outwards to discuss or comment on issues that are more commonly regarded as falling within the purview of professional educators, educational researchers, policy-makers and the like. An example is Michael Scriven, who in his early career was a prominent philosopher of science; later he became a central figure in the development of the field of evaluation of educational and social programs. See Scriven a, b. At the same time, there are professionals in the educational or closely related spheres who are drawn to discuss one or another of the philosophical issues that they encounter in the course of their work. An example here is the behaviorist psychologist B. Skinner, the central figure in the development of operant conditioning and programmed learning, who in works such as *Walden Two* and *Beyond Freedom and Dignity* grappled – albeit controversially – with major philosophical issues that were related to his work. What makes the field even more amorphous is the existence of works on educational topics, written by well-regarded philosophers who have made major contributions to their discipline; these educational reflections have little or no philosophical content, illustrating the truth that philosophers do not always write philosophy. However, despite this, works in this genre have often been treated as contributions to philosophy of education. Finally, as indicated earlier, the domain of education is vast, the issues it raises are almost overwhelmingly numerous and are of great complexity, and the social significance of the field is second to none. These features make the phenomena and problems of education of great interest to a wide range of socially-concerned intellectuals, who bring with them their own favored conceptual frameworks – concepts, theories and ideologies, methods of analysis and argumentation, metaphysical and other assumptions, and the like. It is not surprising that scholars who work in this broad genre also find a home in the field of philosophy of education. As a result of these various factors, the significant intellectual and social trends of the past few centuries, together with the significant developments in philosophy, all have had an impact on the content of arguments and methods of argumentation in philosophy of education – Marxism, psycho-analysis, existentialism, phenomenology, positivism, post-modernism, pragmatism, neo-liberalism, the several waves of feminism, analytic philosophy in both its ordinary language and more formal guises, are merely the tip of the iceberg. Analytic Philosophy of Education and Its Influence Conceptual analysis, careful assessment of arguments, the rooting out of ambiguity, the drawing of clarifying distinctions – all of which are at least part of the philosophical toolkit – have been respected activities within philosophy from the dawn of the field. No doubt it somewhat over-simplifies the complex path of intellectual history to suggest that what happened in the twentieth century – early on, in the home discipline itself, and with a lag of a decade or more in philosophy of education – is that philosophical analysis came to be viewed by some scholars as being the major philosophical activity or set of activities, or even as being the only viable or reputable activity. The pioneering work in the modern period entirely in an analytic mode was the short monograph by C. Hardie, *Truth and Fallacy in Educational Theory*; reissued in *In his Introduction*, Hardie who had studied with C. Richards made it clear that he was putting all his eggs into the ordinary-language-analysis basket: The Cambridge analytical school, led by Moore, Broad and Wittgenstein, has attempted so to analyse propositions that it will always be apparent whether the disagreement between philosophers is one concerning matters of fact, or is one concerning the use of words, or is, as is frequently the case, a purely emotive one. It is time, I think, that a similar attitude became common in the field of educational theory. Ennis edited the volume *Language and Concepts in Education*; and R. Archambault edited *Philosophical Analysis and Education*, consisting of essays by a number of prominent British writers, most notably R. Among the most influential

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products of APE was the analysis developed by Hirst and Peters and Peters of the concept of education itself. A criminal who has been reformed has changed for the better, and has developed a commitment to the new mode of life if one or other of these conditions does not hold, a speaker of standard English would not say the criminal has been reformed. Clearly the analogy with reform breaks down with respect to the knowledge and understanding conditions. The concept of indoctrination was also of great interest to analytic philosophers of education, for, it was argued, getting clear about precisely what constitutes indoctrination also would serve to clarify the border that demarcates it from acceptable educational processes. Thus, whether or not an instructional episode was a case of indoctrination was determined by the content taught, the intention of the instructor, the methods of instruction used, the outcomes of the instruction, or by some combination of these. Adherents of the different analyses used the same general type of argument to make their case, namely, appeal to normal and aberrant usage. Unfortunately, ordinary language analysis did not lead to unanimity of opinion about where this border was located, and rival analyses of the concept were put forward. First, there were growing criticisms that the work of analytic philosophers of education had become focused upon minutiae and in the main was bereft of practical import. It is worth noting that an article in *Time*, reprinted in Lucas, had put forward the same criticism of mainstream philosophy. Fourth, during the decade of the seventies when these various critiques of analytic philosophy were in the process of eroding its luster, a spate of translations from the Continent stimulated some philosophers of education in Britain and North America to set out in new directions, and to adopt a new style of writing and argumentation. The classic works of Heidegger and Husserl also found new admirers; and feminist philosophers of education were finding their voices. Maxine Greene published a number of pieces in the sixties and seventies, including *The Dialectic of Freedom*; the influential book by Nel Noddings, *Caring*; in more recent years all these trends have continued. APE was and is no longer the center of interest, although, as indicated below, it still retains its voice. Areas of Contemporary Activity As was stressed at the outset, the field of education is huge and contains within it a virtually inexhaustible number of issues that are of philosophical interest. To attempt comprehensive coverage of how philosophers of education have been working within this thicket would be a quixotic task for a large single volume and is out of the question for a solitary encyclopedia entry. Nevertheless, a valiant attempt to give an overview was made in *A Companion to the Philosophy of Education Current*, which contains more than six-hundred pages divided into forty-five chapters each of which surveys a subfield of work. The following random selection of chapter topics gives a sense of the enormous scope of the field: Sex education, special education, science education, aesthetic education, theories of teaching and learning, religious education, knowledge, truth and learning, cultivating reason, the measurement of learning, multicultural education, education and the politics of identity, education and standards of living, motivation and classroom management, feminism, critical theory, postmodernism, romanticism, the purposes of universities, affirmative action in higher education, and professional education. The *Oxford Handbook of Philosophy of Education* Siegel contains a similarly broad range of articles on among other things the epistemic and moral aims of education, liberal education and its imminent demise, thinking and reasoning, fallibilism and fallibility, indoctrination, authenticity, the development of rationality, Socratic teaching, educating the imagination, caring and empathy in moral education, the limits of moral education, the cultivation of character, values education, curriculum and the value of knowledge, education and democracy, art and education, science education and religious toleration, constructivism and scientific methods, multicultural education, prejudice, authority and the interests of children, and on pragmatist, feminist, and postmodernist approaches to philosophy of education. Given this enormous range, there is no non-arbitrary way to select a small number of topics for further discussion, nor can the topics that are chosen be pursued in great depth. In tackling it, care needs to be taken to distinguish between education and schooling—for although education can occur in schools, so can mis-education, and many other things can take place there that are educationally orthogonal such as the provision of free or subsidized lunches and the development of social networks; and it also must be recognized that education can occur in the home, in libraries and museums, in churches and clubs, in

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solitary interaction with the public media, and the like. In developing a curriculum whether in a specific subject area, or more broadly as the whole range of offerings in an educational institution or system, a number of difficult decisions need to be made. Issues such as the proper ordering or sequencing of topics in the chosen subject, the time to be allocated to each topic, the lab work or excursions or projects that are appropriate for particular topics, can all be regarded as technical issues best resolved either by educationists who have a depth of experience with the target age group or by experts in the psychology of learning and the like. Is the justification that is given for teaching Economics in some schools coherent and convincing? The justifications offered for all such aims have been controversial, and alternative justifications of a single proposed aim can provoke philosophical controversy. Consider the aim of autonomy. These two formulations are related, for it is arguable that our educational institutions should aim to equip individuals to pursue this good life—although this is not obvious, both because it is not clear that there is one conception of the good or flourishing life that is the good or flourishing life for everyone, and it is not clear that this is a question that should be settled in advance rather than determined by students for themselves. Thus, for example, if our view of human flourishing includes the capacity to think and act autonomously, then the case can be made that educational institutions—and their curricula—should aim to prepare, or help to prepare, autonomous individuals. A rival justification of the aim of autonomy, associated with Kant, champions the educational fostering of autonomy not on the basis of its contribution to human flourishing, but rather the obligation to treat students with respect as persons Scheffler []; Siegel It is also possible to reject the fostering of autonomy as an educational aim Hand Assuming that the aim can be justified, how students should be helped to become autonomous or develop a conception of the good life and pursue it is of course not immediately obvious, and much philosophical ink has been spilled on the general question of how best to determine curriculum content. One influential line of argument was developed by Paul Hirst, who argued that knowledge is essential for developing and then pursuing a conception of the good life, and because logical analysis shows, he argued, that there are seven basic forms of knowledge, the case can be made that the function of the curriculum is to introduce students to each of these forms Hirst ; see Phillips In the closing decades of the twentieth century there were numerous discussions of curriculum theory, particularly from Marxist and postmodern perspectives, that offered the sobering analysis that in many educational systems, including those in Western democracies, the curriculum did indeed reflect and serve the interests of powerful cultural elites. A closely related question is this: Scheffler argued that we should opt for the latter: The function of education—is rather to liberate the mind, strengthen its critical powers, [and] inform it with knowledge and the capacity for independent inquiry. Or should every student pursue the same curriculum as far as each is able? Medically, this is dubious, while the educational version—forcing students to work, until they exit the system, on topics that do not interest them and for which they have no facility or motivation—has even less merit. For a critique of Adler and his Paideia Proposal, see Noddings Over time, as they moved up the educational ladder it would become obvious that some had reached the limit imposed upon them by nature, and they would be directed off into appropriate social roles in which they would find fulfillment, for their abilities would match the demands of these roles. Those who continued on with their education would eventually become members of the ruling class of Guardians. The book spurred a period of ferment in political philosophy that included, among other things, new research on educationally fundamental themes. Fair equality of opportunity entailed that the distribution of education would not put the children of those who currently occupied coveted social positions at any competitive advantage over other, equally talented and motivated children seeking the qualifications for those positions Rawls Its purpose was to prevent socio-economic differences from hardening into social castes that were perpetuated across generations. One obvious criticism of fair equality of opportunity is that it does not prohibit an educational distribution that lavished resources on the most talented children while offering minimal opportunities to others. So long as untalented students from wealthy families were assigned opportunities no better than those available to their untalented peers among the poor, no breach of the principle would occur. Even the most moderate egalitarians might find such a distributive regime to be

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intuitively repugnant. All citizens must enjoy the same basic liberties, and equal liberty always has moral priority over equal opportunity: Further, inequality in the distribution of income and wealth are permitted only to the degree that it serves the interests of the least advantaged group in society. But even with these qualifications, fair equality of opportunity is arguably less than really fair to anyone. But surely it is relevant, given that a principle of educational justice must be responsive to the full range of educationally important goods. Suppose we revise our account of the goods included in educational distribution so that aesthetic appreciation, say, and the necessary understanding and virtue for conscientious citizenship count for just as much as job-related skills. An interesting implication of doing so is that the rationale for requiring equality under any just distribution becomes decreasingly clear. That is because job-related skills are positional whereas the other educational goods are not. If you and I both aspire to a career in business management for which we are equally qualified, any increase in your job-related skills is a corresponding disadvantage to me unless I can catch up. Positional goods have a competitive structure by definition, though the ends of civic or aesthetic education do not fit that structure. If you and I aspire to be good citizens and are equal in civic understanding and virtue, an advance in your civic education is no disadvantage to me. On the contrary, it is easier to be a good citizen the better other citizens learn to be. At the very least, so far as non-positional goods figure in our conception of what counts as a good education, the moral stakes of inequality are thereby lowered. In fact, an emerging alternative to fair equality of opportunity is a principle that stipulates some benchmark of adequacy in achievement or opportunity as the relevant standard of distribution. But it is misleading to represent this as a contrast between egalitarian and sufficientarian conceptions. Philosophically serious interpretations of adequacy derive from the ideal of equal citizenship; Satz; Anderson. This was arguably true in *A Theory of Justice* but it is certainly true in his later work *Dworkin*. The debate between adherents of equal opportunity and those misnamed as sufficientarians is certainly not over. Further progress will likely hinge on explicating the most compelling conception of the egalitarian foundation from which distributive principles are to be inferred. In his earlier book, the theory of justice had been presented as if it were universally valid. But Rawls had come to think that any theory of justice presented as such was open to reasonable rejection. A more circumspect approach to justification would seek grounds for justice as fairness in an overlapping consensus between the many reasonable values and doctrines that thrive in a democratic political culture. Rawls argued that such a culture is informed by a shared ideal of free and equal citizenship that provided a new, distinctively democratic framework for justifying a conception of justice. But the salience it gave to questions about citizenship in the fabric of liberal political theory had important educational implications. How was the ideal of free and equal citizenship to be instantiated in education in a way that accommodated the range of reasonable values and doctrines encompassed in an overlapping consensus? *Political Liberalism* has inspired a range of answers to that question cf. Callan; Clayton; Bull. Other philosophers besides Rawls in the 1980s took up a cluster of questions about civic education, and not always from a liberal perspective. As a full-standing alternative to liberalism, communitarianism might have little to recommend it. But it was a spur for liberal philosophers to think about how communities could be built and sustained to support the more familiar projects of liberal politics. Furthermore, its arguments often converged with those advanced by feminist exponents of the ethic of care; Noddings; Gilligan.

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5: Constructivism (philosophy of education) - Wikipedia

Technological advances in recent years have greatly lowered the barriers for using eye tracking (ET) as a research tool in laboratory and field settings. However, despite its potential and widespread application in other disciplines, the use of ET in organizational research remains sparse.

Although the assessment components of RTI universal screening and progress monitoring are essential elements of implementation, it is the instruction that occurs as a function of the outcomes of the assessments that truly drives the changes we hope to see in students who are identified as being at some level of risk for not meeting academic expectations. Typically, RTI models consist of three tiers of instructional processes, although some models discuss an additional fourth tier and other models subdivide the tiers into smaller units. At Tier 1, considered the key component of tiered instruction, all students receive instruction within an evidence-based, scientifically researched core program. Usually, the Tier 1 instructional program is synonymous with the core reading or math curriculum that is typically aligned with state standards. The intent of the core program is the delivery of a high-quality instructional program in reading or math that has established known outcomes that cut across the skill development of the targeted area. Schools spend significant amounts of time, money, and personnel to make sure that the Tier 1 core program is well chosen from among the many choices available from commercial publishers. The teaching staff must receive sufficient and ongoing professional development to deliver the Tier 1 core instructional program in the way it was designed. The expectation is that if the Tier 1 program is implemented with a high degree of integrity and by highly trained teachers, then most of the students receiving this instruction will show outcomes upon assessment that indicate a level of proficiency that meets minimal benchmarks for performance in the skill area. Although these percentages represent the ideal level of expected outcomes, it may take several years of implementing RTI models to reach such outcome levels in schools with high percentages of students who are struggling. In these schools with high percentages of children not reaching proficiency in Tier 1, schools need to organize the RTI model in a way that allows for tiered instruction to be implemented by the available personnel. An approach to such organization is discussed later in this article. Although we would like to find responsiveness to the core program at Tier 1 to be sufficient for all children, for some students the level of instruction is not successful in helping them achieve minimal levels of expected competency. All children receive Tier 1 instruction, but those children in need of supplemental intervention receive additional instruction at Tier 2 or Tier 3. Tier 2 consists of children who fall below the expected levels of accomplishment called benchmarks and are at some risk for academic failure but who are still above levels considered to indicate a high risk for failure. The needs of these students are identified through the assessment process, and instructional programs are delivered that focus on their specific needs. Typically, depending on the model of RTI being used, small groups consist of anywhere from about 5 to 8 children. Tier 3 consists of children who are considered to be at high risk for failure and, if not responsive, are considered to be candidates for identification as having special education needs. The groups of students at Tier 3 are of much smaller sizes, ranging from 3 to 5 children, with some models using one-to-one instruction. In such models where one-to-one instruction is used, Tier 3 is usually considered special education; however, in many models it is viewed as a tier that includes children who are not identified as being in need of special education but whose needs are at the intensive level. Differentiating Tiers 2 and 3 Tiers of instruction can be differentiated on several dimensions. One dimension is the intensity of the instruction. Because students at Tier 2 are below expected benchmarks for their grade but have less intensive needs than those at Tier 3, interventions at Tier 2 involve instructional programs that are aimed at a level of skill development considered to be further along the continuum of skill acquisition than that seen at Tier 3. For example, a 2nd grade student who has been placed into Tier 2 for reading may already have well-developed skills in phonics and alphabetic principles underlying the reading process but may be struggling with the development of fluency in reading connected text. By

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contrast, a similar 2nd grade student identified as being at high risk and placed into Tier 3 may lack the more foundational skills of decoding and need intensive work on phonics. Another dimension may be the frequency of the delivery of the tiered instruction. In some models of RTI, the same intervention may be used for students at Tiers 2 and 3, but the difference is the amount of time that the student spends within the tiered instruction. In one model, students may spend 30 minutes per day, three days per week with a particular intervention focused on enhancing vocabulary development, while those students at Tier 3 spend 30 minutes per day, five days per week in the same intervention. Some models of RTI combine both the intensity and quantity of supplemental instruction. In these models, students in Tier 2 may receive this additional instruction 30 minutes per day for 5 days per week, while those in Tier 3 receive the instruction 45 minutes per day, five days per week, plus an additional 60 minutes each week. RTI has the flexibility that allows schools to define the nature of the tiered instruction along one or a combination of these dimensions. Another key differentiation between the tiers is the level of progress monitoring that is used at each tier. In some models the frequency of progress monitoring is defined as weekly or every other week for Tier 2 and twice a week for Tier 3. How special education fits into a tiered instructional model is always a question that occurs within RTI models. Different models have placed special education in different ways within the process. In some models, Tier 3 is defined as special education. This level of intensity is typically for children who have not been responsive to the Tier 2 level of instruction and, therefore, are considered in need of more individualized instructional delivery consistent with individualized education programs IEPs. Some RTI models contain three tiers of instructional intensity, as described above, prior to special education, where special education is viewed as "Tier 4. When an RTI model is introduced to a school, one must consider how to fit those already-identified students with IEPs into the model. Although the large majority of identified students in these models are placed at Tier 3 that is why they are identified as in need of special education , a percentage of these students may be found to have skill deficits more consistent with those nonidentified students placed at Tier 2. The effectiveness of special education for these students would naturally result in some students having skills that are more consistent with those in the "some-risk" category than those at high risk. Of course, identified special education students found to have skills consistent with students placed into Tier 1 should be considered for possible declassification. Indeed, RTI offers a clear mechanism for students to move out of special education classification based on the data reflecting levels of skill acquisition. Some individuals may question the difference between a student at Tier 3 who is not identified and an identified special education student who is at Tier 3. In addition, these students are afforded the legal protections and accountability that are required by law. Organizing the School for Tiered Instruction The key to providing tiered instruction lies in the establishment of a workable schedule that maximizes school personnel resources and a high degree of collaboration among all members of the teaching force of a school. We have found that in many schools using RTI models, the assignment of specific blocks of time each day devoted to tiered instruction proves to be a workable mechanism for organization. Schools use various terms for the tiered instructional block such as "tier time," "power hour," or "skill groups. The schedule assigns specific teachers to each block, with general education teachers assigned mostly to Tier 1 green , reading specialists typically assigned to Tier 2 yellow and Tier 3 red , and special education teachers assigned to Tier 3. In addition, general education teachers trained on the delivery of specific instructional programs are also periodically assigned to Tier 2. A somewhat unique aspect of this particular model is the fact that during "tier time," those students currently at benchmark are grouped together and teachers design instructional lessons that are viewed as enrichment to the core reading program. These groups are usually as large as or larger than the regular classroom size and can range up to 20 students. Teachers are encouraged to be creative and add dimensions of instructional lessons that are standards aligned to the core curriculum but may go beyond the existing required 90 minutes of core reading instruction delivered to all students. For example, in this school one 4th grade teacher during a unit in the core reading program devoted to poetry had students learning how to write haikus, something not included within the core reading program but clearly aligned to the reading standards for that grade. By dividing the entire grade into

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tiered instruction, the model provides to students who are already achieving at benchmark levels opportunities for enrichment that go beyond the core instructional program. Another aspect of the aforementioned school schedule, as illustrated in Figure 2, was the inclusion of assigned times each week when progress-monitoring data would be collected on students in Tiers 2 and 3.

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6: Teaching Methods

Curriculum development is a local, regional, or state/provincial level process that student teachers often have difficulty comprehending (Hansen, Fliesser, Froelich, & McClain,).

Exploring theory and practice Curriculum theory and practice. The organization of schooling and further education has long been associated with the idea of a curriculum. But what actually is curriculum, and how might it be conceptualized? We explore curriculum theory and practice and its relation to informal education. It was, literally, a course. In Latin curriculum was a racing chariot; currere was to run. A useful starting point for us here might be the definition offered by John Kerr and taken up by Vic Kelly in a standard work on the subject. This gives us some basis to move on “ and for the moment all we need to do is highlight two of the key features: Learning is planned and guided. We have to specify in advance what we are seeking to achieve and how we are to go about it. The definition refers to schooling. We should recognize that our current appreciation of curriculum theory and practice emerged in the school and in relation to other schooling ideas such as subject and lesson. In what follows we are going to look at four ways of approaching curriculum theory and practice: Curriculum as a body of knowledge to be transmitted. Curriculum as an attempt to achieve certain ends in students “ product. More this will be revealed as we examine the theory underpinning individual models. Curriculum as a syllabus to be transmitted Many people still equate a curriculum with a syllabus. Syllabus, naturally, originates from the Greek although there was some confusion in its usage due to early misprints. Basically it means a concise statement or table of the heads of a discourse, the contents of a treatise, the subjects of a series of lectures. What we can see in such documents is a series of headings with some additional notes which set out the areas that may be examined. A syllabus will not generally indicate the relative importance of its topics or the order in which they are to be studied. Thus, an approach to curriculum theory and practice which focuses on syllabus is only really concerned with content. Where people still equate curriculum with a syllabus they are likely to limit their planning to a consideration of the content or the body of knowledge that they wish to transmit. Curriculum as product The dominant modes of describing and managing education are today couched in the productive form. Education is most often seen as a technical exercise. Objectives are set, a plan drawn up, then applied, and the outcomes products measured. It is a way of thinking about education that has grown in influence in the United Kingdom since the late s with the rise of vocationalism and the concern with competencies. Thus, in the late s and the s many of the debates about the National Curriculum for schools did not so much concern how the curriculum was thought about as to what its objectives and content might be. Tyler that dominate theory and practice within this tradition. The central theory [of curriculum] is simple. Human life, however varied, consists in the performance of specific activities. Education that prepares for life is one that prepares definitely and adequately for these specific activities. However numerous and diverse they may be for any social class they can be discovered. This requires only that one go out into the world of affairs and discover the particulars of which their affairs consist. These will show the abilities, attitudes, habits, appreciations and forms of knowledge that men need. These will be the objectives of the curriculum. They will be numerous, definite and particularized. The curriculum will then be that series of experiences which children and youth must have by way of obtaining those objectives. Basically what he proposed was greater division of labour with jobs being simplified; an extension of managerial control over all elements of the workplace; and cost accounting based on systematic time-and-motion study. All three elements were involved in this conception of curriculum theory and practice. For example, one of the attractions of this approach to curriculum theory was that it involved detailed attention to what people needed to know in order to work, live their lives and so on. One telling criticism that was made, and can continue to be made, of such approaches is that there is no social vision or programme to guide the process of curriculum construction. As it stands it is a technical exercise. The Progressive movement lost much of its momentum in the late s in the United States and from that period

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the work of Ralph W. Tyler, in particular, has made a lasting impression on curriculum theory and practice. His theory was based on four fundamental questions: What educational purposes should the school seek to attain? What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes? How can these educational experiences be effectively organized? How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained? Diagnosis of need Step 2: Formulation of objectives Step 3: Selection of content Step 4: Organization of content Step 5: Selection of learning experiences Step 6: Organization of learning experiences Step 7: Determination of what to evaluate and of the ways and means of doing it. Taba The attraction of this way of approaching curriculum theory and practice is that it is systematic and has considerable organizing power. Central to the approach is the formulation of behavioural objectives " providing a clear notion of outcome so that content and method may be organized and the results evaluated. There are a number of issues with this approach to curriculum theory and practice. The first is that the plan or programme assumes great importance. For example, we might look at a more recent definition of curriculum as: The problem here is that such programmes inevitably exist prior to and outside the learning experiences. This takes much away from learners. They can end up with little or no voice. They are told what they must learn and how they will do it. The success or failure of both the programme and the individual learners is judged on the basis of whether pre-specified changes occur in the behaviour and person of the learner the meeting of behavioural objectives. If the plan is tightly adhered to, there can only be limited opportunity for educators to make use of the interactions that occur. It also can deskill educators in another way. The logic of this approach is for the curriculum to be designed outside of the classroom or school, as is the case with the National Curriculum in the UK. Educators then apply programmes and are judged by the products of their actions. It turns educators into technicians. Second, there are questions around the nature of objectives. This model is hot on measurability. It implies that behaviour can be objectively, mechanistically measured. There are obvious dangers here " there always has to be some uncertainty about what is being measured. We only have to reflect on questions of success in our work. It is often very difficult to judge what the impact of particular experiences has been. Sometimes it is years after the event that we come to appreciate something of what has happened. For example, most informal educators who have been around a few years will have had the experience of an ex-participant telling them in great detail about how some forgotten event forgotten to the worker that is brought about some fundamental change. Yet there is something more. In order to measure, things have to be broken down into smaller and smaller units. The result, as many of you will have experienced, can be long lists of often trivial skills or competencies. This can lead to a focus in this approach to curriculum theory and practice on the parts rather than the whole; on the trivial, rather than the significant. It can lead to an approach to education and assessment which resembles a shopping list. When all the items are ticked, the person has passed the course or has learnt something. The role of overall judgment is somehow sidelined. Third, there is a real problem when we come to examine what educators actually do in the classroom, for example. Much of the research concerning teacher thinking and classroom interaction, and curriculum innovation has pointed to the lack of impact on actual pedagogic practice of objectives see Stenhouse ; and Cornbleth , for example. One way of viewing this is that teachers simply get it wrong " they ought to work with objectives. I think we need to take this problem very seriously and not dismiss it in this way. The difficulties that educators experience with objectives in the classroom may point to something inherently wrong with the approach " that it is not grounded in the study of educational exchanges. It is a model of curriculum theory and practice largely imported from technological and industrial settings. Fourth, there is the problem of unanticipated results. The focus on pre-specified goals may lead both educators and learners to overlook learning that is occurring as a result of their interactions, but which is not listed as an objective. The apparent simplicity and rationality of this approach to curriculum theory and practice, and the way in which it mimics industrial management have been powerful factors in its success. A further appeal has been the ability of academics to use the model to attack teachers: I believe there is a tendency, recurrent enough to suggest that it may be endemic in the approach, for academics in education to use the objectives

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model as a stick with which to beat teachers. The demand for objectives is a demand for justification rather than a description of ends. It is not about curriculum design, but rather an expression of irritation in the problems of accountability in education.

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7: Carnegie Classifications | Basic Classification Methodology

Guthrie et al. () compared three instructional methods for third-grade reading: a traditional approach, a strategies instruction only approach, and an approach with strategies instruction and constructivist motivation techniques including student choices, collaboration, and hands-on activities.

Phenomenology is commonly understood in either of two ways: The discipline of phenomenology may be defined initially as the study of structures of experience, or consciousness. Phenomenology studies conscious experience as experienced from the subjective or first person point of view. This field of philosophy is then to be distinguished from, and related to, the other main fields of philosophy: The historical movement of phenomenology is the philosophical tradition launched in the first half of the 20th century by Edmund Husserl, Martin Heidegger, Maurice Merleau-Ponty, Jean-Paul Sartre, et al. In that movement, the discipline of phenomenology was prized as the proper foundation of all philosophy—as opposed, say, to ethics or metaphysics or epistemology. The methods and characterization of the discipline were widely debated by Husserl and his successors, and these debates continue to the present day. The definition of phenomenology offered above will thus be debatable, for example, by Heideggerians, but it remains the starting point in characterizing the discipline. However, our experience is normally much richer in content than mere sensation. Phenomenology as a discipline has been central to the tradition of continental European philosophy throughout the 20th century, while philosophy of mind has evolved in the Austro-Anglo-American tradition of analytic philosophy that developed throughout the 20th century. Yet the fundamental character of our mental activity is pursued in overlapping ways within these two traditions. Accordingly, the perspective on phenomenology drawn in this article will accommodate both traditions. The main concern here will be to characterize the discipline of phenomenology, in a contemporary purview, while also highlighting the historical tradition that brought the discipline into its own. Basically, phenomenology studies the structure of various types of experience ranging from perception, thought, memory, imagination, emotion, desire, and volition to bodily awareness, embodied action, and social activity, including linguistic activity. These make up the meaning or content of a given experience, and are distinct from the things they present or mean. The basic intentional structure of consciousness, we find in reflection or analysis, involves further forms of experience. Furthermore, in a different dimension, we find various grounds or enabling conditions—conditions of the possibility—of intentionality, including embodiment, bodily skills, cultural context, language and other social practices, social background, and contextual aspects of intentional activities. Thus, phenomenology leads from conscious experience into conditions that help to give experience its intentionality. Traditional phenomenology has focused on subjective, practical, and social conditions of experience. Recent philosophy of mind, however, has focused especially on the neural substrate of experience, on how conscious experience and mental representation or intentionality are grounded in brain activity. It remains a difficult question how much of these grounds of experience fall within the province of phenomenology as a discipline. Cultural conditions thus seem closer to our experience and to our familiar self-understanding than do the electrochemical workings of our brain, much less our dependence on quantum-mechanical states of physical systems to which we may belong. The cautious thing to say is that phenomenology leads in some ways into at least some background conditions of our experience. The Discipline of Phenomenology The discipline of phenomenology is defined by its domain of study, its methods, and its main results. Phenomenology studies structures of conscious experience as experienced from the first-person point of view, along with relevant conditions of experience. The central structure of an experience is its intentionality, the way it is directed through its content or meaning toward a certain object in the world. We all experience various types of experience including perception, imagination, thought, emotion, desire, volition, and action. Thus, the domain of phenomenology is the range of experiences including these types among others. Experience includes not only relatively passive experience as in vision or hearing, but also active experience as in walking or

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hammering a nail or kicking a ball. The range will be specific to each species of being that enjoys consciousness; our focus is on our own, human, experience. Not all conscious beings will, or will be able to, practice phenomenology, as we do. Conscious experiences have a unique feature: Other things in the world we may observe and engage. But we do not experience them, in the sense of living through or performing them. This experiential or first-person feature—“that of being experienced”—is an essential part of the nature or structure of conscious experience: How shall we study conscious experience? We reflect on various types of experiences just as we experience them. That is to say, we proceed from the first-person point of view. However, we do not normally characterize an experience at the time we are performing it. In many cases we do not have that capability: Rather, we acquire a background of having lived through a given type of experience, and we look to our familiarity with that type of experience: The practice of phenomenology assumes such familiarity with the type of experiences to be characterized. Importantly, also, it is types of experience that phenomenology pursues, rather than a particular fleeting experience—“unless its type is what interests us. Classical phenomenologists practiced some three distinguishable methods. Thus, Husserl and Merleau-Ponty spoke of pure description of lived experience. In this vein, Heidegger and his followers spoke of hermeneutics, the art of interpretation in context, especially social and linguistic context. In the end, all the classical phenomenologists practiced analysis of experience, factoring out notable features for further elaboration. These traditional methods have been ramified in recent decades, expanding the methods available to phenomenology. What makes an experience conscious is a certain awareness one has of the experience while living through or performing it. Does this awareness-of-experience consist in a kind of inner observation of the experience, as if one were doing two things at once? Recent theorists have proposed both. Or is it a different form of inherent structure? Sartre took this line, drawing on Brentano and Husserl. These issues are beyond the scope of this article, but notice that these results of phenomenological analysis shape the characterization of the domain of study and the methodology appropriate to the domain. For awareness-of-experience is a defining trait of conscious experience, the trait that gives experience a first-person, lived character. It is that lived character of experience that allows a first-person perspective on the object of study, namely, experience, and that perspective is characteristic of the methodology of phenomenology. Conscious experience is the starting point of phenomenology, but experience shades off into less overtly conscious phenomena. As Husserl and others stressed, we are only vaguely aware of things in the margin or periphery of attention, and we are only implicitly aware of the wider horizon of things in the world around us. Moreover, as Heidegger stressed, in practical activities like walking along, or hammering a nail, or speaking our native tongue, we are not explicitly conscious of our habitual patterns of action. Furthermore, as psychoanalysts have stressed, much of our intentional mental activity is not conscious at all, but may become conscious in the process of therapy or interrogation, as we come to realize how we feel or think about something. We should allow, then, that the domain of phenomenology—“our own experience”—spreads out from conscious experience into semi-conscious and even unconscious mental activity, along with relevant background conditions implicitly invoked in our experience. These issues are subject to debate; the point here is to open the door to the question of where to draw the boundary of the domain of phenomenology. To begin an elementary exercise in phenomenology, consider some typical experiences one might have in everyday life, characterized in the first person: I see that fishing boat off the coast as dusk descends over the Pacific. I hear that helicopter whirring overhead as it approaches the hospital. I am thinking that phenomenology differs from psychology. I wish that warm rain from Mexico were falling like last week. I imagine a fearsome creature like that in my nightmare. I intend to finish my writing by noon. I walk carefully around the broken glass on the sidewalk. I stroke a backhand cross-court with that certain underspin. I am searching for the words to make my point in conversation. Here are rudimentary characterizations of some familiar types of experience. Each sentence is a simple form of phenomenological description, articulating in everyday English the structure of the type of experience so described. The verb indicates the type of intentional activity described: Of central importance is the way that objects of awareness are presented or intended in our experiences, especially, the

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way we see or conceive or think about objects. In effect, the object-phrase expresses the noema of the act described, that is, to the extent that language has appropriate expressive power. The overall form of the given sentence articulates the basic form of intentionality in the experience: Rich phenomenological description or interpretation, as in Husserl, Merleau-Ponty et al. But such simple descriptions bring out the basic form of intentionality. As we interpret the phenomenological description further, we may assess the relevance of the context of experience. And we may turn to wider conditions of the possibility of that type of experience. In this way, in the practice of phenomenology, we classify, describe, interpret, and analyze structures of experiences in ways that answer to our own experience. In such interpretive-descriptive analyses of experience, we immediately observe that we are analyzing familiar forms of consciousness, conscious experience of or about this or that. Intentionality is thus the salient structure of our experience, and much of phenomenology proceeds as the study of different aspects of intentionality. Thus, we explore structures of the stream of consciousness, the enduring self, the embodied self, and bodily action. Furthermore, as we reflect on how these phenomena work, we turn to the analysis of relevant conditions that enable our experiences to occur as they do, and to represent or intend as they do. Phenomenology then leads into analyses of conditions of the possibility of intentionality, conditions involving motor skills and habits, background social practices, and often language, with its special place in human affairs. The science of phenomena as distinct from being ontology. That division of any science which describes and classifies its phenomena. From the Greek phainomenon, appearance. In physics and philosophy of science, the term is used in the second sense, albeit only occasionally. In its root meaning, then, phenomenology is the study of phenomena: Yet the discipline of phenomenology did not blossom until the 20th century and remains poorly understood in many circles of contemporary philosophy. What is that discipline? How did philosophy move from a root concept of phenomena to the discipline of phenomenology? Immanuel Kant used the term occasionally in various writings, as did Johann Gottlieb Fichte. From there Edmund Husserl took up the term for his new science of consciousness, and the rest is history. Suppose we say phenomenology studies phenomena:

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8: ECRP Vol. 4 No. Three Approaches from Europe: Waldorf, Montessori, and Reggio Emilia

Journal of Research Practice Volume 11, Issue 1, Article R1, Review: Transdisciplinarity: A Review of Its Origins, Development, and Current Issues.

Three Approaches from Europe: Waldorf, Montessori, and Reggio Emilia Carolyn Pope Edwards University of Nebraska at Lincoln Abstract Waldorf, Montessori, and Reggio Emilia are three progressive approaches to early childhood education that appear to be growing in influence in North America and to have many points in common. This article provides a brief comparative introduction and highlights several key areas of similarity and contrast. All three approaches represent an explicit idealism and turn away from war and violence toward peace and reconstruction. They are built on coherent visions of how to improve human society by helping children realize their full potential as intelligent, creative, whole persons. In each approach, children are viewed as active authors of their own development, strongly influenced by natural, dynamic, self-righting forces within themselves, opening the way toward growth and learning. Teachers depend for their work with children on carefully prepared, aesthetically pleasing environments that serve as a pedagogical tool and provide strong messages about the curriculum and about respect for children. Partnering with parents is highly valued in all three approaches, and children are evaluated by means other than traditional tests and grades. However, there are also many areas of difference, some at the level of principle and others at the level of strategy. The article ends with discussion of the methods that researchers apply to analyze the strengths and weaknesses of each approach. Introduction Europe has been a rich source of many influential educational ideas. In elementary and early childhood education, three of the best-known approaches with European origins are Waldorf, Montessori, and Reggio Emilia. All three are seen as strong educational alternatives to traditional education and as sources of inspiration for progressive educational reform. Contemporary interest in these approaches leads the public and the professional community to ask many questions about their parallels and contrasts. Many observers have noticed common themes and elements in their views of children and their development. What exactly are their respective historical origins and foundational philosophical premises and concepts about child development and learning? This article provides an overview and comparison of the three approaches, to introduce them to readers and highlight key points of similarity and difference. Of course, in actuality, great variation can be expected to exist in how any educational model or approach plays out in application. Schools and classrooms do not necessarily look alike just because they derive from the same philosophy, and this article can at most describe only the general tendencies that may not correctly describe particular schools or programs. To understand a specific institution, one must observe its environments and teacher-child interactions, read its documents, interview staff, and talk to past and present parents and children. History All three approaches represent an explicit idealism and turn away from violence, toward peace and reconstruction. School communities struggle continually to keep their guiding principles alive in current, meaningful ways and not to let them degrade into slogans. Waldorf education was founded by Rudolf Steiner , a maverick Austrian scientist and philosophical thinker. His interests intersected spiritual and scientific planes: In , in the wake of the devastation of World War I, Steiner was invited by Emil Molt to found a school for the employees of the Waldorf-Astoria cigarette factory in Stuttgart, Germany. The vision was that this new kind of school would educate human beings able to create a just and peaceful society. It defied the conventions of the time in being coeducational bringing boys and girls together in the classroom , open to children of any background without entrance examination , comprehensive from preschool level through high school , and independent of external control a self-governing administrative unit. The original Waldorf school in Stuttgart began with first grade, not preschool. The first Waldorf early childhood program kindergarten was started later in another city. Today, Waldorf education continues to be a well-defined model with every school administratively independent Barnes, ; Oppenheimer, Bob Lathe and Nancy Parsons [http:](http://) The Web sites [http:](http://) There are 10 Steiner teacher-training institutes in the United States and 2 in Canada see

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http: Her movement spread to other countries, especially after the Fascist regime denounced Montessori methods of education and she left Italy. During this time, however, the movement flourished in Europe and India. In the s, American educator Nancy Rambush led a movement of renewal, and Montessori education spread as an independent school movement Loeffler, There are probably 5, or more schools calling themselves "Montessori" in the United States Ruenzel, The Web sites provide information about program history, philosophy, accreditation, teacher training, and published resources. The AMS Web site provides information about their teacher research network and a set of position papers on such topics as learning and assessment, inclusion, infant programs, math and music education, multiage grouping, and holistic peace education. In the s, furthermore, American parents began to advocate for Montessori education in public schools, leading to hundreds of Montessori programs often magnet programs at the preschool and elementary levels, and now increasingly at the middle and high school levels Chattin-McNichols, b. Montessori education at the infant-toddler level is also growing rapidly. Reggio Emilia is a city in northern Italy where educators, parents, and children began working together after World War II to reconstruct society and build an exemplary system of municipal preschools and infant-toddler centers New, Under leadership of the visionary founding director, Loris Malaguzzi , the system evolved from a parent cooperative movement into a city-run system that exercises a leadership role in Italy and throughout Europe, and now increasingly in Asia, Australia, North America, and other parts of the world New, Reggio Emilia is not a formal model like Waldorf and Montessori, with defined methods, teacher certification standards, and accreditation processes. The International Reggio Exchange, and updates study tour, conference, and contact information [http: Child Development Theory and Curriculum](http://ChildDevelopmentTheoryandCurriculum) All three approaches view children as active authors of their own development, strongly influenced by natural, dynamic, self-righting forces within themselves, opening the way toward growth and learning. Rudolf Steiner believed in a unity of spirit, soul, and body, and that good education restores the balance between thinking, willing, and feeling Steiner, Before age 7, nursery and kindergarten children learn through imitation and doing Schwartz, Imaginary play is considered the most important "work" of the young child and the activity through which the child grows physically, intellectually, and emotionally. The educational focus is on bodily exploration, constructive and creative play, and oral never written language, story, and song. On a given morning, children might do such things as sing songs, paint with watercolors, color with beeswax crayons, cook, hear a story told with puppets, go on a nature walk, work in the garden, build with wooden blocks, or make houses using play stands and cloth. Through these activities, they become deeply engaged and develop powers of concentration and motivation. A significant portion of the school morning is devoted to uninterrupted imaginary play. Recognition of the importance of "rhythm" and of balance of energetic and restful play leads teachers to follow a cyclical schedule of yearly, weekly, and daily activities, including festivals and foods. From 7 to 14 years, children stay with the same teacher and classroom group, and they become a very close-knit group as they explore the world through conscious imagination or "feeling intelligence" Finser, The teacher presents a curriculum that has structure and sequence but that relies on lessons unaccompanied by textbooks. This approach fosters an integrated, multisensorial approach to learning and expression, with more emphasis on oral listening and memory than is found in other early childhood models for the primary years. For example, the teacher might introduce an arithmetical operation by telling a story where the numbers are characters in a drama or render the history of the Norman Conquest as an exciting tale. Children listen as the teacher presents the material, and they integrate what they have learned as they design and illustrate with care and beauty their own lesson books. In essence, they compose their own texts, which preserve for them what they have learned in their own personal format, documents and treasures of their learning experiences. Children study literature, folktales, and mythology; rhythmic musical movement eurythmy ; practical crafts; natural sciences; foreign languages; art; and music. Out of doors, they may construct play shelters with boards, branches, and other materials. During the high school years, the rational, abstract power of the intellect emerges, and adolescents focus on ethics, social responsibility, and mastery of complex and rigorous subject matter, with specialized teachers. Images of Waldorf education grades K in four

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different schools can be found in the video "Waldorf Education: She saw development as a series of six-year periods, like repeating triangular waves, each with its own particular sensitivities. A constructivist, she posited an active child, eager for knowledge and prepared to learn, seeking perfection through reality, play, and work. In Montessori education, children usually are grouped into multiage classrooms spanning three years, in order to promote adult-child continuity and close peer relationships. In both, the child seeks sensory input, regulation of movement, order, and freedom to choose activities and explore them deeply without interruption in a carefully prepared serene and beautiful environment that helps the child choose well Greenwald, During the infant-toddler birth to age 3 and primary age 3 to 6 years, classrooms usually have more than one teacher. To introduce new curriculum, teachers present demonstration lessons at the point when an individual or small group indicates readiness to advance in the sequence of self-correcting materials, in the areas of practical life, sensorial, mathematics, language, science and geography, and art and music Humphryes, Montessori designed famous materials still in use; photos of some of these can be found at [http:](http://) In addition, other classroom materials are created or put together by individual teachers or groups as they carefully consider their classroom observations. The Montessori curriculum is highly individualized but with scope and sequence and clearcut domains. The individualization results in some young children mastering reading and writing before age 6 following Montessori "writing to read" methods. Preschool children in full-day programs usually address the Montessori curriculum in the morning and typical child-care play including fantasy play in the afternoon. From age 6 to 12, children are expected to explore a wider world and develop rational problem solving, cooperative social relations, imagination and aesthetics, and complex cultural knowledge. From 12 to 18, children reconstruct themselves as social beings and are humanistic explorers, real-world problem solvers, and rational seekers of justice. He drew a powerful image of the child, social from birth, full of intelligence, curiosity, and wonder. This resourceful child generates changes in the systems in which he or she is involved and becomes a "producer of culture, values, and rights" Rinaldi, a, p. Teachers seek to hold before them this powerful image as they support children in exploring and investigating. The curriculum has purposive progression but not scope and sequence. Teaching and learning are negotiated, emergent processes between adults and children, involving generous time and in-depth revisiting and reviewing. Close, multiyear adult-child and peer relations are fostered, usually through a looping organization. Long-term, open-ended projects are important vehicles for collaborative work, in classroom environments carefully prepared to offer complexity, beauty, and a sense of well-being and ease. The Reggio Emilia approach was developed within and for the municipal child care and education programs serving children under 6 and therefore is not an elementary school approach. Roles of the Teacher The teachers in these approaches share in common the goals to be nurturers, partners, and guides to children. They depend on carefully prepared, aesthetically pleasing environments as a pedagogical tool, providing strong messages about the curriculum and respect for children. Partnering with parents is highly valued in all three approaches. However, their contrasting views of the nature of children and of learning lead them to act out differing roles in the classroom. Of course, in all three approaches, teacher roles with children change with age; adults are more nurturing with younger children. The Waldorf teacher generally plays a performance role in the classroom as he or she leads or models many whole-group activities involving integration of the academic and the artistic with an explicit spirituality. The teacher is also a didactic moral leader, seeking to provide an intimate classroom atmosphere permeated with a sense of harmony and full of themes about caring for the community and for the natural and living worlds. The teacher needs a classroom in which children can bring together their thinking, feeling, and willing, no matter what their personalities and temperaments Durach, Color and the use of natural materials and carefully chosen props such as open-ended, handmade toys and dolls with minimal detail to encourage the imagination are intrinsic to the uncluttered, warm and homelike, aesthetically pleasing Waldorf environments Schwartz, Examples of Waldorf materials can be seen at the Website [http:](http://) They are more reticent at the early childhood levels of Waldorf and more directive and didactic in the elementary and secondary classrooms. In the kindergarten classroom, teachers seek to be subtle in their guidance, yet always aware of everything going on

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in the room Schwartz, The Montessori teacher plays the role of unobtrusive director in the classroom as children individually or in small groups engage in self-directed activity. Interrupting children when engaged in purposeful activity interferes with their momentum, interest, and inner workings of thought Greenwald,

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9: How to Redesign A College Course Guide: Chapter V

*Motor Learning Chapter 1. * Movement product we provide the best instructional experiences for student and/ or client.*

Instructional Design is based on theoretical and practical research in the areas of cognition, educational psychology, and problem solving. This article provides a short overview and points to more specialized articles. According to Reigeluth Methods of instruction can be broken down into more detailed component methods Methods are probabilistic, rather than deterministic Sara McNeil defines the Instructional design from four different perspectives: Instructional Design as a Process: Instructional Design is the systematic development of instructional specifications using learning and instructional theory to ensure the quality of instruction. It is the entire process of analysis of learning needs and goals and the development of a delivery system to meet those needs. It includes development of instructional materials and activities; and tryout and evaluation of all instruction and learner activities. Instructional Design as a Discipline: Instructional Design is that branch of knowledge concerned with research and theory about instructional strategies and the process for developing and implementing those strategies. Instructional Design as a Science: Instructional Design is the science of creating detailed specifications for the development, implementation, evaluation, and maintenance of situations that facilitate the learning of both large and small units of subject matter at all levels of complexity. Instructional Design as Reality: Instructional Design can start at any point in the design process. Often a glimmer of an idea is developed to give the core of an instruction situation. By the time the entire process is done the designer looks back and she or he checks to see that all parts of the "science" have been taken into account. Then the entire process is written up as if it occurred in a systematic fashion. According to the hypertext history in instructional design retrieved However, one usually traces back the conceptual foundations of instructional design to behaviorist theorists like Thorndike and Watson, and later Pressey and Skinner. In other words, the birth of instructional design is strongly related on one hand to the emergence of empirical research in psychology and education and on the other to specific needs of the system. All these disciplines have their word to say about pedagogic strategy. Instructional design and educational technology depend on each other for several reasons: Large scale applications e. They need a good instructional design method which is based on sound instructional design models. Technology can only enhance the learning process if there is an improvement teaching strategies and methods one does not learn better through a simple media effect. Fourth, The planning of an a learning environment in the sense of Instructional Design should be evidence orientated. This means, that decisions for methods, design and motivation are accredited through empirical results. This can be reached through design patterns, edit formats which have been approved to solve a problem. Note that Instructional Technology is often used as synonym for Educational technology , but with the idea that: Moreover, the method can kill the project, e. However, regardless of these kinds of fears, instructional design theory provides at least solid foundations against which you can evaluate a design. Some instructional designers do try to look at invariants of good pedagogy and adapt design theory to emerging new pedagogies. A good example is Reigeluth, known first for his behaviorist reader entitled: Instructional Design Theories and Models: An Overview of Their Current Status. A second volume, edited in as "Instructional-Design Theories and Models: A New Paradigm of Instructional Theory" gave a lot of space to constructivist designs. A third volume is under preparation. Does the courseware relate to real world problems? Does the courseware activate prior knowledge or experience? Does the courseware demonstrate what is to be learned? Can learners practice and apply acquired knowledge or skill? Are learners encouraged to integrate transfer the new knowledge or skill into their everyday life? It is not always easy to draw a line between "models" and "methods". This is particularly the case for frameworks like Instructional systems design ISD. An instructional design method defines how to organize the whole design process whereas an instructional design model represents a class of a pedagogical design, i. See also the various articles in the category design methods. An Instructional design model is a method, i. Usually restricted to a given class of

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subjects and contexts. Instructional design models usually have a stronger focus on learning theory than instructional design methods. Whether derived from whim or from serious research, a model offers its user a means of comprehending an otherwise incomprehensible problem. An instructional design model gives structure and meaning to an I. Models help us to visualize the problem, to break it down into discrete, manageable units. The value of a specific model is determined within the context of use. Like any other instrument, a model assumes a specific intention of its user. There are two factors which influence the Design, and the learners behavior. Internal factors are things like learners previous knowledge and motivation, external factors are things like the designing of learning environment. With regard to these factors there are three possibilities to decide. The first is a decision against every design model, but this is handicraft work without reflection. The second possibility is to choose one designing model. The third is choosing some aspects from separate Designing Models, which a designer thinks are important for his project. Important for the decision of a design are also the goals an E-Learning Tool, has. These could for example be:

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