B.Ed 1 ½ year
B.Ed 2 ½ year

Critical Thinking And Reflective Practices

Course Code 8611

Department of Early Childhood Education and
Elementary Teacher Education

ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY ISLAMABAD

CRITICAL THINKING AND REFLECTIVE PRACTICES

Unit 1-9   **Course Code: 8611**

FACULTY OF EDUCATION
ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY

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PREFACE

With the turn of new century it was palpable that new skills and capabilities are required to meet the needs of rapidly changing and challenging world around us. It has been realized that the teachers and learners of our education system around the country will need to develop these promising skills and capabilities for the purpose of their own personal and professional development. Critical thinking and reflective practices are of those desired skills and abilities that every classroom now demands from teachers as well as learners, no matter at what level we are teaching or learning. Critical thinking is one of the basic skills that help us to effectively utilize those elements of cognitive process that usually remain implicit. As a result we are enabled to apply various forms of thinking in the process of attaining, understanding and analyzing the information. Once we receive the knowledge we do not merely store it in our memory rather before doing that we critically analyze the content being presented to us. We also learn to critically review the social phenomenon around us. Teachers need to become thinkers and researchers to play a vital role in not just educating but also in improving the field of education.

For the purpose of improving their own practices and for the larger goal of educational development in a country, teachers need to become reflective practitioners. Reflective practice is associated with learning from experience, and is viewed as an important strategy for professionals who embrace lifelong learning. Reflective practices appear in many forms and some of these are reflective writing and research. The kind of research that leads to bring action oriented change is the best mode adopted by the reflective practitioners. Critical thinking and reflective practices both aim at decisions about what to do. As a professional one has to decide how best to achieve the professional goals. Usually we decide what to do on the basis of what we already value or on what we already think makes for a good life. Critical thinking and reflective practice is valuable for two main reasons. First, thinking critically increases our chances of gaining knowledge, and knowledge is valuable. Second, reflective practice is essential to making up one's own mind about what to believe or what to do, which is essential for self-audit and accountability.

There are certain tools and techniques which are used to acquire critical thinking as well as to become reflective practitioner. This course is being offered as a compulsory course for all prospective teachers. The major goal of offering this course is to enable the future teachers to become critical thinkers and reflective practitioners as well as to ensure that they shall be able to develop these twenty first century thinking skills and practices among their students.

I wish you all the best in this course and throughout this program of study that you have chosen for the purpose of learning to teach.

Prof. Dr. Nasir Mehmood
Dean, Faculty of Education

INTRODUCTION

This course is designed for teacher preparation programs at Allama Iqbal Open University. It is expected that the teachers of twenty first century should be able to not only learn and review the current literature, policies and practices in education but may also have the ability to think critically and reflect upon the current practices to bring positive changes. This course will introduce the prospective teachers to critical theory, help them becoming reflective practitioners, initiate action research culture within education, guide them towards critical discourse in verbal, and written form as well as strengthen the community of practice in the profession of teaching. I am sure that this course will help the prospective teachers in their personal and professional development.

Dr. Afshan Huma
Course Coordinator

OBJECTIVES

After completing this course you will be able to:
1. apply critical thinking and critical pedagogy in teaching
2. analyze the content and design classroom instruction in innovative manner
3. review and reflect upon their own teaching practices for further improvement
4. conduct action research within classroom settings
5. become a cautious and active member of community of teaching and learning

COURSE CONTENTS

Unit 1

INTRODUCTION TO CRITICAL THINKING

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CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

Critical thinking is a concept that has been developing in various forms in the past two millenniums. Although the term "critical thinking", was used more commonly in late first half of twentieth century.

Edward Glaser (1941) has defined critical thinking as:
"The ability to think critically, involves three things:
- **an attitude** of being disposed to consider in a thoughtful way the problems and subjects that come within the range of one's experiences,
- **knowledge** of the methods of logical inquiry and reasoning, and
- some **skill** in applying those methods."

According to Glaser, the process of critical thinking comprises a persistent effort to analyze any accepted form of knowledge in the light of new evidence that supports it or challenges it for further analysis. It begins with the ability to recognize problem with the existing knowledge, belief or assumptions then goes on to find workable means of solving the problem. This process includes collection of empirical evidence and then to state the unstated assumptions and values with clear descriptions in understandable language. Clarity and accuracy of interpreting the data is the key to convince those who stand strong on the already constructed knowledge. It is not at all an easy task to cohesively appraise evidence and evaluate arguments, to recognize the existence (or non-existence) of logical relationships between propositions, and then to carefully draw warranted conclusions which are not over generalized. The critical thinkers are ready to put the conclusions and generalizations to test before reconstructing one's patterns of beliefs, and they examine closely before they move on to render judgments about specific things phenomenon of life.

(Edward M. Glaser, *An Experiment in the Development of Critical Thinking,* spoken at Teacher's College, Columbia University, 1941)

After completion of this unit you will be able to
1. Understand the phenomenon of critical thinking
2. Describe how this phenomenon developed in the field of education

LEARNING OUTCOMES

To understand the phenomenon let us begin with a statement by Michael Scriven & Richard Paul (1987), presented at the 8th Annual International Conference on Critical Thinking and Education Reform, that is accepted as a definition by *National Council of Excellence in Critical Thinking, USA;* helps to understand it with more clarity. They elaborated it as" a disciplined process of actively and skillfully conceptualizing, applying, analyzing, synthesizing, and/or evaluating information gathered from, or generated by, observation, experience, reflection, reasoning, or communication, as a guide to belief and action". What makes it a unique process is that it builds upon the evidence and goes to challenging the existing set of assumptions, knowledge and in certain cases even the beliefs. Critical thinkers manage to utilize those elements of thought process that usually remain implicit. These elements include but are not limited to - purpose, problem, or question-at-issue; assumptions; concepts; empirical grounding; reasoning leading to conclusions; implications and consequences; objections from alternative viewpoints; and frame of reference. Hence they are enabled to apply various forms of thinking in the process of analyzing the information. These forms of thinking include but are not limited to - scientific thinking, mathematical thinking, historical thinking, anthropological thinking, economic thinking, moral thinking, and philosophical thinking. This second part of the elaboration of critical thinking suggests that the critical thinkers perceive the reality of world through multiple lenses and it is undoubtedly impossible without having enough knowledge of science, mathematics, history, anthropology, psychology, economics, social and ideological values and philosophy, etc.

According to Scriven & Paul (1987) critical thinking can be subdivided into two broader components: "1) a set of information and belief generating and processing skills, and 2) the habit, based on intellectual commitment, of using those skills to guide behavior." Hence we can clearly distinguish critical thinking from the acquisition and retention of information alone, because critical thinker uses this s information a particular way in which information is sought and treated more deeply. This requires certain set of skills and again the mere possession of a set of skills is not a guarantee of critical thinking unless it involves the continual use of them. It can be stated safely that development of critical thinking is a lifelong process and this process should begin as early in a learners' life as possible.

ACTIVITY 1
Choose a news piece related to education in Pakistan and write a small paragraph in which you describe what you perceive as a problem that needs critical analysis.
Discuss it with your fellows/colleagues and see if your point of view is same as their or not.

One modern school of thought maintains that critical thinking is self-guided, self-disciplined thinking which attempts to reason at the highest level of quality in a fair-

minded way. People, who think critically, consistently attempt to live rationally, reasonably, empathically. They try to get maximum benefit of rational thinking and this they do by minimizing their egocentric and tendencies. Critical thinkers are extroverts and do not put themselves at front. They use the intellectual tools that critical thinking offers i.e. analyze, assess, and improve. They realize that no matter how skilled they are as thinkers, they can always improve their reasoning abilities and they learn from the mistakes in reasoning, human irrationality, prejudices, biases, distortions, uncritically accepted social rules and taboos. They strive to improve the world in whatever ways they can and contribute to a more rational, civilized society. At the same time, they recognize the complexities often inherent in doing so. They avoid over simplification of complicated issues and strive to appropriately consider the details of relevant information. (Linda Elder, 2007). Hence to them a well cultivated critical thinker is the one who:

- raises vital questions and problems,
- gathers and assesses relevant information comes to well-reasoned conclusions and solutions, then offers them after testing against relevant criteria and standards;
- reflects open mindedly within alternative systems of thought, and
- elaborates effectively his/her own conclusions

This process of collecting analyzing and presenting presupposes subscribe to rigorous standards of merit and mindfulness. It involves effective communication and problem solving skills and a dedication to defeat our native "egocentrism and sociocentrism" (Taken from Richard Paul and Linda Elder, *The Miniature Guide to Critical Thinking Concepts and Tools,* Foundation for Critical Thinking Press, 2008).

ACTIVITY 2
The news piece you chose related to education in Pakistan and the comments you got from your colleagues…now identify the conflicting ideas
Try to collect more evidence about your own stance and with these evidence talk to those colleagues once again.

1.1 ORIGINS OF CRITICAL APPROACHES IN SOCIAL SCIENCES

Critical thinking is not a new concept. It goes back to at least the known etymology of Socrates' vision of teaching and learning; which goes back not less than 2500 years ago. In those times the method of question-answers and questioning the existing beliefs was a unique mode of critical thinking. Socrates recognized the fact that one cannot rely upon those in "authority" to have complete knowledge and insight. He established that people may have power and high position but still can be intensely confused and irrational. He enhanced the importance of asking profound questions that probe deeply into thoughts before we establish a belief. His method of questioning is now known as "Socratic Questioning" and is the best known strategy of critical thinking teaching so far. In his manner of questioning, Socrates marked the need of deep thinking for clarity and rationality.

Socrates' practices were followed by the critical thinking of Plato, Aristotle, and the Greek thinkers, all of whom emphasized that reality is often very different from what it appears to be and that only specially trained minds are prepared to perceive it the way it appears on the surface (delusive appearances) to the way it is beneath the surface (the deeper realities of life). From this ancient Greek tradition emerged the need, for anyone who desires to comprehend the deeper realities, must think systematically, and draw proposition broadly and deeply because only this is the way to go beyond and beneath surface level observation.

In early middle ages philosophers like Al-Farabi and Thomas Aquinas continued the tradition of systematic critical thinking. Al-Farabi is known with the honorific "the Second Master", after Aristotle. According to Al Farabi Human beings are exceptional in the universe because they are positioned between two worlds: a "higher"-immaterial world of the heavenly and universal intelligibles, and a "lower"-material world of generation and decay. Each level of existence in Al-Farabi's cosmology is characterized by its movement towards perfection, which according to him is possible through "constant intellection and contemplation". Similarly systematic critical thinking was embodied in the writings and teachings of Thomas Aquinas (*Sumna Theologica*) who heightened the awareness not only of the potential power of reasoning but also of the need for reasoning to be systematically cultivated and "cross-examined." Of course, Aquinas' thinking also illustrates that those who think critically do not always reject established beliefs, only those beliefs that lack reasonable foundations.

In the Renaissance (15th and 16th Centuries), a torrent of scholars in Europe became active in thinking critically about religion, society, human nature, and law. Their assumption was that most of the domains of human life were in need of searching analysis and critique. Among these scholars were Colet, Erasmus, and Moore in England. Francis Bacon, in England, was explicitly concerned with the way we seek knowledge. He recognized explicitly that the mind cannot safely be left to its natural tendencies. In his book *The Advancement of Learning*, he argued for the importance of studying the world empirically. He laid the foundation for modern science with his emphasis on the information-gathering processes.

In France, Descartes is the one who gave rebirth to critical thinking in his text be called the ***Rules for the Direction of the Mind***. In it, Descartes argued for the need for a special systematic disciplining of the mind to guide it in thinking. He maintained that there is a need in thinking for clarity and precision. He developed a method of critical thought based on the *principle of systematic doubt*. In the same time period, Sir Thomas Moore developed a model of a new social order, ***Utopia***, in which every domain of the present world was subject to critique. The critical thinking of these Renaissance and post-Renaissance scholars opened the way for the emergence of science and for the development of critical theory as we find it today.

In the Italian Renaissance, Machiavelli's ***The Prince*** critically assessed the politics of the day, and laid the foundation for modern critical political thought. Hobbes and Locke in 16th and 17th Century in England displayed the same confidence in the critical mind of the thinker that was found in the writings of Machiavelli. Hobbes adopted a naturalistic view of the world in which everything was to be explained by evidence and reasoning. Locke defended a common sense analysis of everyday life and thought. It was in this spirit of intellectual freedom and critical thought that people such as Robert Boyle in the 17th Century and Sir Isaac Newton in the 17th and 18th Century did their work. Eighteenth Century thinkers extended the horizons critical thought even further. Applied to the problem of economics, it produced Adam Smith's ***Wealth of Nations***. In the same year, applied to the traditional concept of loyalty to the king, it produced the ***Declaration of Independence***. Applied to reason itself, it produced Kant's ***Critique of Pure Reason***.
In the 19th Century, critical thought was applied to the domain of human social life by Comte and Spencer. Problems of capitalism, and economic critique of Karl Marx are the examples of 19th century work; similarly Darwin's ***Descent of Man***; works of Sigmund Freud on **Psychoanalytic Theory.**

In the 20th Century, our understanding of the power and nature of critical thinking has emerged in increasingly more explicit formulations. In 1906, William Graham Sumner published a land-breaking study of the foundations of sociology and anthropology, ***Folkways***, in which he documented the tendency of the human mind to think socio-centrically and the parallel tendency for schools to serve the (uncritical) function of social indoctrination. He mentioned "Schools make persons all on one pattern, orthodoxy. School education, unless it is regulated by the best knowledge and good sense, will produce men and women who are all of one pattern, as if turned in a lathe" (p. 630). He highlighted the urgent requirement of critical thinking by stating:
The critical faculty is a product of education and training. It is a mental habit and power. It is a prime condition of human welfare that men and women should be trained in it. It is our only guarantee against delusion, deception, superstition, and misapprehension of ourselves and our earthly circumstances. Education is good just so far as it produces well-developed critical faculty. ... Education in the critical faculty is the only education of which it can be truly said that it makes good citizens" (pp. 632, 633).

John Dewey agreed to this and he also focused more on developing thinking skills rather than merely transfer of knowledge. Similarly from the work of Piaget, we get the

awareness of the egocentric and sociocentric tendencies of human thought and of the special need to develop critical thought which is able to reason within multiple standpoints, and to be raised to the level of "conscious realization." From the contribution of depth-psychology, we have learned how easily the human mind is self-deceived, how easily it unconsciously constructs illusions and delusions, how easily it rationalizes and stereotypes, projects and scapegoats. Hundreds of thinkers have contributed to the development of critical thought. Yet for most educational purposes, it is the summing up of base-line common denominators for critical thinking that is most important.

The result of the collective contribution of the history of critical thought is that the basic questions of Socrates can now be much more powerfully and focally framed and used. In every domain of human thought, and within every use of reasoning within any domain, it is now possible to question:
- ends and objectives,
- the status and wording of questions,
- the sources of information and fact,
- the method and quality of information collection,
- the mode of judgment and reasoning used,
- the concepts that make that reasoning possible,
- the assumptions that underlie concepts in use,
- the implications that follow from their use, and
- the point of view or frame of reference within which reasoning takes place.
http://www.criticalthinking.org/pages/a-brief-history-of-the-idea-of-critical-thinking/408

ACTIVTY 3
After reading how the critical thinking was developed and found a required process for learning now see how would you critically analyze the news piece you chose
What is your critical question to the news?
What are people saying about it?
What is the relevant evidence you found?
What is your conclusion about it?
Put your conclusion out at a social network like face book for open discussion…

1.2   CRITICAL THEORY IN EDUCATION
Critical Theory in Education has emerged from the wider discipline of sociology, and focuses at the ways in which political ideology shapes Education as a way of challenging or maintaining existing scheme of privilege and social control within educational planning like any other social sector. It cross-examines the social, cultural, political and economic context of compulsory education to demonstrate how education is serving the dominant cultural interests in any society by developing generations whose members are unable to question or challenge the status quo, and merely accept the dictation they are given by any "Authority". It took a special turn in twentieth century by building up the assumption that society as it is currently constituted under Capitalism is basically unjust, and exploitative. It maintains that those normative values through which societies are

operating and organizing must be challenged and changed if human beings are to apprehend their full potential. Drawing from sociological, psychological and anthropological evidence, critical theory advocates that a better society is possible, but can only be achieved through fundamental changes in values and dispositions, rather than cosmetic changes in the discourse, but that this change can occur within the life opportunities of each individual who is allowed to practice freedom. Its critical analysis is thus directed towards those structures and mechanisms which create and maintain the hegemonic normative values of society and through them the power status quo. The critical theorists soon found their way into the studies of education that were taking place in the mid of twentieth century.

Critical theory in education thus throws a critical eye upon the history, the development and practice of education and educational contextualization. It holds that education in the modern world is shaped by the ideologies and power structures that devolve from all previous and current schools of thought i.e. Socialism, Capitalism, and etc. The critical theorists hold that the education in its current form serves to reproduce these conditions in ways which benefit the already-powerful. Critical Education Theory strives to promotes an ideology of education as an instrument of social transformation and as a means of attaining social, cultural, and economic equity. Initially, it did this from Marxist point of view, but gradually has adopted many of the doctrine and theories of Cultural Studies to reveal how cultural codes play a primary role in both curriculum development and classroom practices. The field of critical theory in education hence covers a wide range of Social and Educational issues – the Context, Curriculum, the pedagogy or teaching style, the role of the State, the influence of corporate powers, the as well as the issues of Cultural and Individual Identity etc.

Source: http://www.tonywardedu.com/critical-education-theory/a-history-of-critical-education-theory

1.3   ESSENTIAL ASPECTS OF CRITICAL THINKING
Here instead of looking more into curriculum planning first of all the question is what are the essential aspects of critical thinking that we need to develop among teachers as well as learners? Although the list of these aspects cannot be exhaustive or all inclusive yet the most prominent features may include but not limited to the following:

a)   **In order to help their students to develop critical-thinking skills and to take critical action, teachers need to:**
- have a sound knowledge base from which to support students as they delve more deeply into content
- remain open to challenge by students, not representing themselves as the sole source of knowledge
- encourage students to look at the big picture by engaging them in critical-thinking processes that have relevance beyond the classroom
- be prepared to listen to voices that originate in the classroom and to use students' personal experiences as starting points for gathering information

- encourage students to question and challenge existing beliefs, structures, and practices
- avoid offering 'how to do it' approaches
- encourage students to be sensitive to the feelings of others
- provide opportunities for inquiry by giving students time for planning, processing, and debriefing
- structure lessons so that students can work safely and co-operatively and develop creative forms of shared responsibility
- encourage students to take critical action. When students learn to use democratic processes inside the classroom, they can transfer these to situations outside the classroom

For students, learning to think critically and to take critical action will include:
- learning to take responsibility for analyzing and evaluating information
- giving each other feedback about their analyses, evaluations, and actions
- questioning and challenging each other's assumptions in a non-threatening manner
- learning to identify any inequalities and power relationships within contexts in health education, physical education, and home economics, focusing on how these positions are sometimes reinforced through organizational structures and through certain forms of language
- reflecting on people's assumptions, beliefs, and behaviours, taking into account a range of factors
- generating alternative solutions and accepting them or critiquing them in a sensitive manner
- developing the confidence to work with others in taking critical action

It is expected that by adopting this elaboration of critical thinking and applying their learning in education contexts, students can**:**
- think about and evaluate their own thinking and behavior on issues related to health education, physical education, and home economics
- make reasonable and defensible decisions about issues related to individual and community well-being
- challenge and take action (individually and collectively) to address social, cultural, economic, and political inequalities
- understand the role and significance of the movement culture and its influence on our daily lives and the lives of people in our community

Hence as an outcome the learners will:
- become broad and adventurous thinkers
- generate innovative solutions
- use their reasoning skills to analyze and evaluate
- plan and think strategically

The list above is based on Smyth (2000, page 507).

1.4 TEACHER AS A CRITICAL THINKER

One of the major goals of education is to enable the learners to understand ideas that are important, useful, and powerful. Another goal is to develop the appetite to think analytically and critically about what they are being presented with in the form of books and teaching. Third goal is to help them to use what they know to enhance their own lives and also to contribute to their society, culture and civilization as well as to the global community. Hence critical thinking is not an isolated goal unrelated to other important goals in education. Rather, it is a seminal goal which, done well, simultaneously facilitates a rainbow of other ends. It is best conceived, therefore, as the hub around which all other educational ends cluster. For example, as students learn to think more critically, they become more proficient at historical, scientific, and mathematical thinking. They develop skills, abilities, and values critical to success in everyday life. All of this assumes, of course, that those who teach have a solid grounding in critical thinking and in the teaching strategies essential to it.

These three goals work as a drive for education to promote critical thinking which is based on certain assumptions.
1. Brains are physiological while minds are developed.
2. Curriculum is a mind-grooming instrument.
3. Education should strive upon preparing learners for self-direction.
4. Graduates should be prepared for thinking their way through the challenging life
5. Careful analysis, clear thinking, and reasoned deliberation are fundamental to democratic life.

On the basis of these considerations the capacity for critical assessment and analysis emerges as fundamental for enjoying a good quality of life. But to develop a deep understanding of the foundations of critical thinking involves a long-term approach to learning and applying those foundations. James Stigler, co-author of the book, *The Teaching Gap: Best Ideas from the World's Teachers for Improving Education in the Classroom*, comments on the importance of long term professional development of educational planners, managers, teachers, and learners.
 (https://sta.uwi.edu/ct/ctande.asp).

Commitment to critical thinking affects how one thinks through the design of instruction and how one thinks through the content one is learning. As a teacher one needs to pay dual attention; s/he needs to be a critical thinker first and then teach through critical analysis so that the learners may also learn the critical thinking skills. Thus a teacher needs to recognize that teaching in a critical manner is essential for:
- skilled reading, writing, speaking, and listening
- skilled reasoning within all subject areas
- skilled decision-making and problem-solving
- skilled analysis and evaluation
- skilled civic and personal choices, etc.

It is not possible and no one can claim that a short term professional development will make all teachers critical thinkers and there is no way to bring critical thinking successfully into instruction across the curriculum over night. But to begin with a teacher education program may include basic courses so that it may: **1)** function to heighten the awareness of faculty to the challenge of bringing critical thinking substantively into instruction, **2)** provide some strategies for up-grading the effectiveness of instruction, and **3)** lay a foundation for follow-up workshops.

A rather long-term approach to critical thinking professional development enables teachers to internalize and apply the fundamentals of critical thinking at a deeper level. Through a long-term approach, teachers can restructure their courses so that students develop as inquisitive and disciplined thinkers and questioning minds. Its success depends on a number of variables. One develops as a critical thinker in a way similar to the way in which one learns to perform well in basketball, ballet, or on the piano. First of all, one must understand the basic principles. Secondly, one must regularly engage in self-monitored, self-evaluative practice (putting the principles to work in practice) progressively up-grading one understands and skill thereby.

Teachers need to recognize explicitly that critical thinking is not just one of many divergent educational aims, but is rather a way of teaching and learning at a high level of effectiveness. They learn to use all other reform trends as a support for a high level of thinking in both the teaching and learning process.

ACTIVITY 4

Take a book chapter, or an article published in a research journal; read it through at least twice and then try to answer these questions:

- What is your previous knowledge about the?
- How did you come to know this?
- How do you feel about this issue or situation?
- What is something new that you found after reading?
- What are your beliefs about this knowledge? And why do you believe this?
- What information is missing from this piece of writing?
- Why is this information important?
- Have the social, cultural, economic, political, and/or ethical aspects of this topic been considered?
- Whose voice is heard in this writing, or article?
- Do you think this writing serves a special agenda?
- Who is being advantaged?
- Who is not being heard or served?
- Who is being disadvantaged?
- What are the inequalities that exist in this writing?
- What needs to be change?
- How can you contribute to this change?

You are now in a position to write a critical review of the piece of writing you chose.

FURTHER READING

CRITICAL THINKING IN EVERYDAY LIFE

Most of us are not what we could be. We are less. We have great capacity. But most of it is dormant; most is undeveloped. Improvement in thinking is like improvement in basketball, in ballet, or in playing the saxophone. It is unlikely to take place in the absence of a conscious commitment to learn. As long as we take our thinking for granted, we don't do the work required for improvement.

Development in thinking requires a gradual process requiring plateaus of learning and just plain hard work. It is not possible to become an excellent thinker simply because one wills it. Changing one's habits of thought is a long-range project, happening over years, not weeks or months. The essential traits of a critical thinker require an extended period of development.

How, then, can we develop as critical thinkers? How can we help ourselves and our students to practice better thinking in everyday life?

First, we must understand that there are stages required for development as a critical thinker:

Stage One: The Unreflective Thinker (we are unaware of significant problems in our thinking)
Stage Two: The Challenged Thinker (we become aware of problems in our thinking)
Stage Three: The Beginning Thinker (we try to improve but without regular practice)
Stage Four: The Practicing Thinker (we recognize the necessity of regular practice)
Stage Five: The Advanced Thinker (we advance in accordance with our practice)
Stage Six: The Master Thinker (skilled & insightful thinking become second nature to us)

We develop through these stages if we:
1. accept the fact that there are serious problems in our thinking (accepting the challenge to our thinking) and
2.   begin regular practice.

In this article, we will explain 9 strategies that any motivated person can use to develop as a thinker. As we explain the strategy, we will describe it as if we were talking directly

to such a person. Further details to our descriptions may need to be added for those who know little about critical thinking.

1.   Use "Wasted" Time.
2.   A Problem A Day.
3.   Internalize Intellectual Standards.
4.   Keep An Intellectual Journal.
5.   Reshape Your Character.
6.   Deal with Your Ego.
7.   Redefine the Way You See Things.
8.   Get in touch with your emotions.
9.   Analyze group influences on your life.

There is nothing magical about our ideas. No one of them is essential. Nevertheless, each represents a plausible way to begin to do something concrete to improve thinking in a regular way. Though you probably can't do all of these at the same time, we recommend an approach in which you experiment with all of these over an extended period of time.

First Strategy: Use "Wasted" Time. All humans waste some time; that is, fail to use all of their time productively or even pleasurably. Sometimes we jump from one diversion to another, without enjoying any of them. Sometimes we become irritated about matters beyond our control. Sometimes we fail to plan well causing us negative consequences we could easily have avoided (for example, we spend time unnecessarily trapped in traffic — though we could have left a half hour earlier and avoided the rush). Sometimes we worry unproductively. Sometimes we spend time regretting what is past. Sometimes we just stare off blankly into space.

The key is that the time is "gone" even though, if we had thought about it and considered our options, we would never have deliberately spent our time in the way we did. So why not take advantage of the time you normally waste by practicing your critical thinking during that otherwise wasted time? For example, instead of sitting in front of the TV at the end of the day flicking from channel to channel in a vain search for a program worth watching, spend that time, or at least part of it, thinking back over your day and evaluating your strengths and weaknesses. For example, you might ask yourself questions like these:

When did I do my worst thinking today? When did I do my best? What in fact did I think about today? Did I figure anything out? Did I allow any negative thinking to frustrate me

unnecessarily? If I had to repeat today what would I do differently? Why? Did I do anything today to further my long-term goals? Did I act in accordance with my own expressed values? If I spent every day this way for 10 years, would I at the end have accomplished something worthy of that time?

It would be important of course to take a little time with each question. It would also be useful to record your observations so that you are forced to spell out details and be explicit in what you recognize and see. As time passes, you will notice patterns in your thinking.

Second Strategy: A Problem A Day. At the beginning of each day (perhaps driving to work or going to school) choose a problem to work on when you have free moments. Figure out the logic of the problem by identifying its elements. In other words, systematically think through the questions: What exactly is the problem? How can I put it into the form of a question. How does it relate to my goals, purposes, and needs?

1. Wherever possible take problems one by one. State the problem as clearly and precisely as you can.
2. Study the problem to make clear the "kind" of problem you are dealing with. Figure out, for example, what sorts of things you are going to have to do to solve it. Distinguish Problems over which you have some control from problems over which you have no control. Set aside the problems over which you have no control, concentrating your efforts on those problems you can potentially solve.
3. Figure out the information you need and actively seek that information. 4.Carefully analyze and interpret the information you collect, drawing what reasonable inferences you can.
5. Figure out your options for action. What can you do in the short term? In the long term? Distinguish problems under your control from problems beyond your control. Recognize explicitly your limitations as far as money, time, and power.
6. Evaluate your options, taking into account their advantages and disadvantages in the situation you are in.
7. Adopt a strategic approach to the problem and follow through on that strategy. This may involve direct action or a carefully thought-through wait-and-see strategy.
8. When you act, monitor the implications of your action as they begin to emerge. Be ready at a moment's notice to revise your strategy if the situation requires it. Be prepared to shift your strategy or your analysis or statement of the problem, or all three, as more information about the problem becomes available to you.

Third Strategy: Internalize Intellectual Standards. Each week, develop a heightened awareness of one of the universal intellectual standards (clarity, precision, accuracy, relevance, depth, breadth, logicalness, significance). Focus one week on clarity, the next on accuracy, etc. For example, if you are focusing on clarity for the week, try to notice when you are being unclear in communicating with others. Notice when others are unclear in what they are saying.

When you are reading, notice whether you are clear about what you are reading. When you orally express or write out your views (for whatever reason), ask yourself whether you are clear about what you are trying to say. In doing this, of course, focus on four techniques of clarification : **1) Stating what you are saying** explicitly and precisely (with careful consideration given to your choice of words), **2) Elaborating** on your meaning in other words, **3) Giving examples** of what you mean from experiences you have had, and **4) Using analogies**, metaphors, pictures, or diagrams to illustrate what you mean. In other words, you will frequently STATE, ELABORATE, ILLUSTRATE, AND EXEMPLIFY your points. You will regularly ask others to do the same.

Fourth Strategy: Keep An Intellectual Journal. Each week, write out a certain number of journal entries. Use the following format (keeping each numbered stage separate):
1. Situation. Describe a situation that is, or was, emotionally significant to you (that is, that you deeply care about). Focus on one situation at a time.
2. Your Response. Describe what you did in response to that situation. Be specific and exact.
3. Analysis. Then analyze, in the light of what you have written, what precisely was going on in the situation. Dig beneath the surface.
4. Assessment. Assess the implications of your analysis. What did you learn about yourself? What would you do differently if you could re-live the situation?

Strategy Five: Reshape Your Character. Choose one intellectual trait---intellectual perseverance, autonomy, empathy, courage, humility, etc.--- to strive for each month, focusing on how you can develop that trait in yourself. For example, concentrating on intellectual humility, begin to notice when you admit you are wrong. Notice when you refuse to admit you are wrong, even in the face of glaring evidence that you are in fact wrong. Notice when you become defensive when another person tries to point out a deficiency in your work, or your thinking. Notice when your intellectual arrogance keeps you from learning, for example, when you say to yourself "I already know everything I need to know

about this subject." Or, "I know as much as he does. Who does he think he is forcing his opinions on me?" By owning your "ignorance," you can begin to deal with it.

Strategy Six: Deal with Your Egocentrism. Egocentric thinking is found in the disposition in human nature to think with an automatic subconscious bias in favor of oneself. On a daily basis, you can begin to observe your egocentric thinking in action by contemplating questions like these: Under what circumstances do I think with a bias in favor of myself? Did I ever become irritable over small things? Did I do or say anything "irrational" to get my way? Did I try to impose my will upon others? Did I ever fail to speak my mind when I felt strongly about something, and then later feel resentment? Once you identify egocentric thinking in operation, you can then work to replace it with more rational thought through systematic self-reflection, thinking along the lines of: What would a rational person feel in this or that situation? What would a rational person do? How does that compare with what I want to do? (Hint: If you find that you continually conclude that a rational person would behave just as you behaved you are probably engaging in self-deception.)

Strategy Seven: Redefine the Way You See Things. We live in a world, both personal and social, in which every situation is "defined," that is, given a meaning. How a situation is defined determines not only how we feel about it, but also how we act in it, and what implications it has for us. However, virtually every situation can be defined in more than one way. This fact carries with it tremendous opportunities. In principle, it lies within your power and mine to make our lives more happy and fulfilling than they are. Many of the negative definitions that we give to situations in our lives could in principle be transformed into positive ones. We can be happy when otherwise we would have been sad.

We can be fulfilled when otherwise we would have been frustrated. In this strategy, we practice redefining the way we see things, turning negatives into positives, dead-ends into new beginnings, mistakes into opportunities to learn. To make this strategy practical, we should create some specific guidelines for ourselves. For example, we might make ourselves a list of five to ten recurrent negative contexts in which we feel frustrated, angry, unhappy, or worried. We could then identify the definition in each case that is at the root of the negative emotion. We would then choose a plausible alternative definition for each and then plan for our new responses as well as new emotions. For example, if you tend to worry about all problems, both the ones you can do something about and those that you can't; you can review the thinking in this nursery rhyme:

"For every problem under the sun, there is a solution or there is none. If there be one, think till you find it. If there be none, then never mind it."

Let's look at another example. You do not have to define your initial approach to a member of the opposite sex in terms of the definition "his/her response will determine whether or not I am an attractive person." Alternatively, you could define it in terms of the definition "let me test to see if this person is initially drawn to me given the way they perceive me." With the first definition in mind, you feel personally put down if the person is not "interested" in you; with the second definition you explicitly recognize that people respond not to the way a stranger is, but the way they look to them subjectively. You therefore do not take a failure to show interest in you (on the part of another) as a "defect" in you.

Strategy Eight: Get in touch with your emotions: Whenever you feel some negative emotion, systematically ask yourself: What, exactly, is the thinking leading to this emotion? For example, if you are angry, ask yourself, what is the thinking that is making me angry? What other ways could I think about this situation? For example, can you think about the situation so as to see the humor in it and what is pitiable in it? If you can, concentrate on that thinking and your emotions will (eventually) shift to match it.

Strategy Nine: Analyze group influences on your life: Closely analyze the behavior that is encouraged, and discouraged, in the groups to which you belong. For any given group, what are you "required" to believe? What are you "forbidden" to do? Every group enforces some level of conformity. Most people live much too much within the view of themselves projected by others. Discover what pressure you are bowing to and think explicitly about whether or not to reject that pressure.

Conclusion: The key point to keep in mind when devising strategies is that you are engaged in a personal experiment. You are testing ideas in your everyday life. You are integrating them, and building on them, in the light of your actual experience. For example, suppose you find the strategy "Redefine the Way You See Things" to be intuitive to you. So you use it to begin. Pretty soon you find yourself noticing the social definitions that rule many situations in your life. You recognize how your behavior is shaped and controlled by the definitions in use:
1. "I'm giving a party," (Everyone therefore knows to act in a "partying" way)
2. "The funeral is Tuesday," (There are specific social behaviors expected at a funeral)

3.   "Jack is an acquaintance, not really a friend." (We behave very differently in the two cases)

You begin to see how important and pervasive social definitions are. You begin to redefine situations in ways that run contrary to some commonly accepted definitions. You notice then how redefining situations (and relationships) enables you to "Get in Touch With Your Emotions." You recognize that the way you think (that is, define things) generates the emotions you experience. When you think you are threatened (i.e., define a situation as "threatening"), you feel fear. If you define a situation as a "failure," you may feel depressed. On the other hand, if you define that same situation as a "lesson or opportunity to learn" you feel empowered to learn. When you recognize this control that you are capable of exercising, the two strategies begin to work together and reinforce each other.

Next consider how you could integrate strategy #9 ("Analyze group influences on your life") into your practice. One of the main things that groups do is control us by controlling the definitions we are allowed to operate with. When a group defines some things as "cool" and some as "dumb, " the members of the group try to appear "cool" and not appear "dumb." When the boss of a business says, "That makes a lot of sense," his subordinates know they are not to say, "No, it is ridiculous." And they know this because defining someone as the "boss" gives him/her special privileges to define situations and relationships.

You now have three interwoven strategies: you "Redefine the Way You See Things," "Get in touch with your emotions," and "Analyze group influences on your life." The three strategies are integrated into one. You can now experiment with any of the other strategies, looking for opportunities to integrate them into your thinking and your life. If you follow through on some plan analogous to what we have described, you are developing as a thinker. More precisely, you are becoming a "Practicing" Thinker. Your practice will bring advancement. And with advancement, skilled and insightful thinking may becomes more and more natural to you.

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Unit 2

CRITICAL THEORY AND PEDAGOGY

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27

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

This unit introduces the learners to the theories that emerged in history and became the roots of critical thinking and pedagogy. Various theorists were later named as "critical theorists" as their theories fall into the classification of critical theory under the Transformatory Emanicipatory Pradigm of social sciences. This paradigm builds upon the assumption that reality is not only multi-layered and interpreted but can also be changed with conscious intervention of human beings. The class difference around the world was based upon economic and socio-cultural aspects. Thus these theorists challenged both and paved way for re-thinking education to change the reality of this world. You will not only feel disturbed but also go through a realization while reading this unit. How education becomes a source of classification and how it can resist this classification if dealt with conscious efforts.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

After completion of this unit you will be able to
1. Understand the phenomenon of Politics of Education
2. Realize the issues of social disorders in terms of Social Class Theories
3. Critically analyze the challenges of Exclusion and Marginalization
4. Choose effective classroom pedagogy to enable critical thinking and conversation

2.1 POLITICS OF EDUCATION

Politics is usually defined as a process by which groups of people make certain decisions. Here the social relations are involved along with authority or power. It also consists of the methods or tactics to formulate and apply policy. Politics involve the use and the regulation of power, influence and authority, especially in the allocation of things which people want. No group of people could live together for long without effective controls over power. Rules have to be made and made known to everyone. Authority is a relationship at the very core of a political system in which men obey because they believe it proper to do so.

Michel Foucault (1926-1984), the French postmodernist, has been hugely influential in shaping understandings of power, leading away from the analysis of actors who use power as an instrument of imposition, and even away from the discreet structures in which those actors operate, toward the idea that 'power is everywhere', diffused and embodied in discours e, knowledge and 'regimes of truth'. Power for Foucault is what makes us what we are, operating on a quite different level from other theories. Foucault challenges the idea that power is wielded by people or groups by way of 'episodic' or 'sovereign' acts of domination or imposition, seeing it instead as dispersed and pervasive. 'Power is everywhere' and 'comes from everywhere' so in this sense is neither an agency nor a structure (Foucault 1998: 63). Instead it is a kind of 'metapower' or 'regime of truth' that pervades society, and which is in constant flux and negotiation. Foucault uses the term 'power/knowledge' to signify that power is constituted through accepted forms of knowledge, scientific understanding and 'truth'.

Politics isn't some evil, dark discipline. It's just one more way to use relationships to get things done. Good leaders understand this and use politics to their advantage. This requires understanding power structures and learning when to negotiate and when to draw the line. The term "politics" is commonly found in the organizational context, and often carries with it a negative connotation. So, exactly what is politics, where is politics found, and how is politics recognized? According to Ramsey (2006), "Wherever there is power to be had, resources to be divided, recognition to be earned, or influence to be brokered, there is politics". Furthermore, Ramsey (2006) went on to say, "Wherever there are leaders and followers, there is politics". Thus, throughout any school system, politics must be everywhere, but that is not necessarily all bad. Ramsey (2006) added that "politics is another basic tool that all successful leaders use to achieve goals through other people".

Politics in actual pervades most of our daily routine matters and certainly our education system. Under politics issues such as peoples' rights, immigration, homelessness, unions, poverty, inclusion, funding, social justice, and activism are raised. Thus the bottom line is that all acts of group decision-making in the education system are political. According to Owen (2006) educational politics revolves around three entities i.e. people, values and

resources. Resources involve knowledge. Freire (1982) who is considered to be the best well known advocate of the relevance of education was critical of how decisions were made regarding the experiences which children encountered. The issue is the degree of teachers' understanding of the process by which such decisions are made, and the teachers' roles and participation in the process.

The decisions in the education system are made by the educational leaders. Educational leadership involves working with teachers and other education professionals on systemic plans to improve educational programming and outcomes. From pre-school to higher education, leaders in the industry include teachers, superintendents, principals, administrators, department chairs and deans. In order to have the choice to participate in the decision-making process of education system, it is necessary to have the knowledge of the key people who have power affecting these decisions. Educational leadership is usually associated with formal organizational position in schools. So discussions about school leadership tend to refer to one or more of the following:
- District Officers
- Head Teachers/ Principals
- Deputy and Assistant Head Teachers
- Heads of Department
- Subject Specialists

However, there are also informal leaders such as specialist leaders whose influence stems from their subject knowledge or skills with group of learners, or individuals who have social influence with their peers and control views and attitudes.

Decision making within the education system is in large part a political process, involving number of key players. To begin with there are legislators in decision-making regarding curriculum, a number of powerful sponsors adept at persuading local school boards, state legislatures, state departments of education, and accrediting agencies are central in institutionalizing reforms. Education-related decisions by officials at all levels of government may be influenced by varied concerns.

Similarly, corporations and their representatives have become involved in influencing education policy at local, state, and federal levels, in their pursuit of employees who possess the skills and knowledge needed by a productive workforce. Educational concerns may motivate professional organizations and educational planners to work toward particular goals. They together may work on policy decisions, including financial allocations. Teachers and administrators may use information from national associations to encourage local school officials to limit the sizes of classes assigned to laboratory rooms, select particular textbooks or curricular programs, or increase funding for instructional technology.

In particular, concerns regarding equity, stemming from efforts of organized groups, federal legislation, and court orders, may affect decisions about resource allocations, testing accommodations, and curricular offerings. At local level, parents and guardians may work to ensure their children's access to high-level courses well-prepared technology teachers, and culturally appropriate science programs. Civil right groups may lobby state legislators for changes in education funding to ensure that all children have access to high quality teachers and learning opportunities. Education related decisions of officeholders and other policy makers are also influenced by media that convey information and shape public perceptions. At the local level, news stories and editorials centering on the lack of textbooks and laboratory facilities in urban schools may heighten public awareness of inequities in the education system. Local media coverage of students' achievement scores also informs and influences community views.

Working through the political dynamics in the public school systems falls within the realm of school leadership. Politics is present at every level of the school leader's involvement in the educational process, ranging in scope from local to national. The challenge facing the school leader is to acknowledge the reality that politics is a part of the daily routine and to work with the process to ensure that educationally sound decisions will be ultimately beneficial for the students in the school. The decisions made by school leaders, regarding educational processes for students in the school, potentially have a greater overall impact than the decisions made by other certified personnel in the districts. Moreover, the level of political involvement is likely the greatest at higher administrative levels. With these two thoughts in mind, there is no question that extreme caution and good judgment must be exercised in the final decisions that are made with respect to student learning. While recognizing the importance of national level politics, most experienced educational leaders would attest to the statement that local politics are very real and have the ability to influence decision-making processes.

The responsibility of educational leaders is to ensure that students learn, regardless of political implications. Ultimately, the educational decisions made must be basedon what is best for the students in the school. The bureaucracy which administers the education services, especially in a developing country, is very much the instrument of political as well as educational decisions. For the decisions reflect the dominance of certain pressure and interest groups over others, whether they are concerned with the content of educational courses or with who gets them, how they get them, and when they get them. Education, then, is a reflection of the political system of a nation, and always to some extent the instrument of the national government. Its shape and purposes will be determined not only in the conflict which results in legislation, but also by the competition for power, influence and authority between the legislature and the

bureaucracy; between political parties; within the dominant party, and within the bureaucracy.

A complicating factor in the politics of education is, of course, the clash between the demands of a modernizing educational system and a traditional religious educational system. The clash may be no less real where the religious system offering organized education has been introduced with colonial government, where the Christian missions may also operate to some extent as instruments of modernity. They may clash with the educational efforts of older literate religious systems. In some countries where modernization is in full career, special difficulties may arise because the government regards itself as the conserver of a particular religion through the education system. But educational planning for modernization is by definition a secular activity, constituting a break with an apparently safe tradition. Instead of providing non-material interests in a rapidly changing and uncertain world, it involves the commitment of the young to changes in material living standards to citizenship of a nation with an uncertain future. For it helps to increase appreciation of material goods, while the economic future cannot, except within the broadest limits, be predicted by government or by the planners. Educational planning is therefore a central political activity.

In a developing country, where the educational plan is a vital part of the national plan for economic development, how can it be otherwise? How may economic development, for instance, be planned without planning for trained manpower from the educational system; or national support for the plan be won or the plan be feasible without planned educational activity? Can one imagine a government which does not set the political objectives of the plan taking into account the national interest, and its own survival? Relationships of government to people, of citizen to citizen, of the nation to other nations, will be affected by the educational activity planned and implemented. The educational planner, then, can hardly be content with the construction of an ideal plan, based only or even mainly on what education ought to be. The planner has to accept the political facts (which will be highly variable through time and from one country to another) as the foundations on which it is to be built. He must also look with a critical eye at the educational aims stated in the national plan. Educational planning as a highly political activity may with justice can be described, like politics, as the 'art of the possible'. On the other hand the planner is primarily an educator. Therefore he must be prepared to question the principles on which the political and economic planners have operated or their lack of principle. Responsibility of the planners is to do what they can to prepare people, and especially the young, for an unpredictable future. As the flowering of human potential, education, unlike economic or political development, is an end in itself.

2.2   SOCIAL CLASS THEORIES

Social class, also known as **class society**, is a set of concepts in the political and social sciences theory which focuses on models of social stratification where people are grouped into a set of hierarchical social categories. It is usually categorized commonly as the upper, middle, and lower classes. The sociologists, political scientists, anthropologists, and social historians consider class as an essential object of analysis. However, there is not a consensus on the best definition of the "class", and the term has different contextual meanings. In common parlance, the term "social class" is usually synonymous with "socio-economic class", defined as people having the same social, economic, or educational status, e.g., the working class or an emerging professional class. As far as academics is concerned, it distinguishes social class and socioeconomic status, with the former referring to one's relatively stable socio-cultural background and the latter referring to one's current social and economic situation which is more changeable over time.

The term *class* first came into wide use in the early 19th century, it replaced terms such as *rank* and *order* describing the major hierarchical groupings in society. The changes in the structure of western European societies after the industrial and political revolutions of the late 18th century were reflected by the usage of this term. Feudal distinctions of rank were decliningand the new social groups that were developing are the commercial and industrial capitalists and the urban working class in the new factories were defined mainly in economic terms, either by the ownership of capital or, conversely, by dependence on wages. Although the term *class* has been applied to social groups in a wide range of societies, including ancient city-states, early empires, and caste or feudal societies, it is most usefully confined to the social divisions in modern societies, particularly industrialized ones. Social classes must be distinguished from status groups; the former are based primarily upon economic interests, while the latter are constituted by evaluations of the honour or prestige of an occupation, cultural position, or family descent.

2.2.1 Early Theories of Class

Theories of social class were fully elaborated only in the 19th century as the modern social sciences. The issues of social stratification and inequalities were discussed by political philosophers such as Thomas Hobbes, John Locke, and Jean-Jacques Rousseau. The French and English writers in the late 18th and early 19th centuries put forward the idea that a society's form of political life is determined by the nonpolitical elements in society, such as the economic system and the family. This idea was taken ahead by the French social theorist Henri de Saint-Simon, who argued that a state's form of government corresponded to the character of the underlying system of economic production. The theory of the proletariat or urban working class was introduced by Saint-Simon's successors as a major political force in modern society, which directly influenced the development of Karl Marx's theory of class. For Marx, what distinguishes one type of society from another is its mode of production(i.e., the nature of its technology and division of labour), and each mode of production engenders a distinctive class system in which one class controls and directs the process of production while

another class is, or other classes are, the direct producers and providers of services to the dominant class.

The relations between the classes are opposing because they are in conflict over the appropriation of what is produced, and in certain periods, when the mode of production itself is changing as a result of developments in technology and in the utilization of labour, such conflicts become extreme and a new class challenges the dominance of the existing rulers of society. The dominant class, according to Marx, controls not only material production but also the production of ideas; it thus establishes a particular cultural style and a dominant political doctrine, and its control over society is consolidated in a particular type of political system. Rising classes that gain strength and influence as a result of changes in the mode of production generate political doctrines and movements in opposition to the ruling class. The theory of class is at the centre of Marx's social theory, for it is the social classes formed within a particular mode of production that tend to establish a particular form of state, animate political conflicts, and bring about major changes in the structure of society.

2.2.2 Contemporary Theories of Class
Majority of theories of class are chiefly concerned with revising, refuting, or providing an alternative to Marxism. Early in the 20th century, German sociologist Max Weber questioned the importance of social classes in the political development of modern societies, pointing out that religious patterns, nationalism, and other factors played significant roles. Weber proposed limiting the concept of class to impersonal income distinctions between groups, thereby distinguishing class from social status, collectivities, or political hierarchies. But the Marxian emphasis on the importance of class conflict i.e. on the conflict and struggle between the classes for control of the means of production has been the most controversial issue dividing social theorists in their analysis of class structure. Many opponents of Marxist theory have focused attention on the functional interdependence of different classes and their coordinated collaboration with each other. Indeed, by the late 20th century it seemed undeniable that the classes in capitalist societies had tended to lose their distinctive character, while the clash between them had declined to such an extent that in most economically advanced countries it no longer produced serious political conflict. Moreover, Marxism's prediction of the proletariat's successful revolution against the bourgeoisie and its replacement of the capitalist system with a classless society have rung increasingly hollow in light of the dismal record of most 20th-century Marxist governments and their wholesale collapse from internal causes between 1989 and 1991. Finally, some sociologists have concluded that gradations in social and economic status are continuous in western societies, which suggests that class boundaries have grown less distinct.

Bourdieu's social reproduction thesis focused research on the relation between education, family, and social classes. Bourdieu argued that education plays an important role in aiding and abetting the reproduction of social inequality and social exclusion. Cultural capital holds central importance in the process of social reproduction because inequalities in cultural capital reflect inequalities in social class. But the reproduction of these

inequalities is facilitated in schools where teachers' pedagogic actions promote the cultural capital of the dominant class by rewarding students who possess such capital and by penalizing others who do not. Thus, the school becomes one of the central agents of social exclusion and reproduction. Bourdieu argues that schools and teachers aid and assist this family based reproduction process by rewarding possession of elite cultural capital in students and by setting up elitist standards rigged to favor upper and middle class children and exclude others.

For Bourdieu, the education systems of developed societies are functioning in such a way that they justify class inequalities. Success in the education system is supported by the possession of 'cultural capital' and of upper class habits. Lower class students do not in general have these traits, so the failure of the majority of these students is unavoidable. This explains class inequalities in educational achievement. However, success and failure in the education system is seen as due to individual gifts or the lacking them.

Bourdieu states that *Cultural Capital* consists of familiarity with the dominant culture in a society, and especially the ability to understand and use 'educated' language. It is evident that the possession of cultural capital varies with social class. This makes it very difficult for lower class pupils to succeed in the educational system. Bourdieu asserts that, since the education system assumes the possession of cultural capital, which few students in fact possess, there is a great deal of inefficiency in 'pedagogic transmission' i.e. teaching. This is because students simply do not understand what their teachers are trying to get across. For Bourdieu, this is particularly apparent in the universities, where students are afraid of revealing the extent of their ignorance. Despite the fact that lower-class pupils are seriously disadvantaged in the competition for educational credentials, the results of this competition are seen as meritocratic and therefore as legitimate. In addition, Bourdieu claims that social inequalities are legitimated by the educational credentials held by those in dominant positions. This means that the education system has a key role in maintaining the status quo. However, Bourdieu's emphasis remained on the non-material resources possessed by the higher-class household yet we have evidence that the dramatic fall in the material costs to families of education due to educational reforms, such as the universal provision of free and compulsory secondary education, have not diminished the degree of association between class origins and educational attainment. This suggests that the educational advantage and disadvantage which parents pass on to their children may not be entirely caused or resolved by economic factors and that the notion of cultural capital is therefore worthy of serious attention.

ACTIVITY

While you were studying at School/College; were you conscious of social class conflict? How will you narrate it with reference to your schooling?

If you studied in a public school/college then talk to a student who studied in a private school/college or vice versa.

2.3 SOCIAL EXCLUSION AND MARGINALIZATION

Social exclusion, and **marginalization**, is the phenomenon of social disadvantage to the periphery of society. This term was first used in France and is now used widely around the world. It is commonly used in sociology, education, psychology, politics and economics where the exclusion becomes a major challenge. Social exclusion is the process where individuals or group of people are systematically denied the full access to different rights, opportunities and resources that are supposed to be available to all members of society. These rights are usually fundamental to social integration within that particular group such as housing, employment, healthcare, education, civic engagement, and democratic participation. The social exclusion is faced by people or groups of people usually referred to as 'disadvantaged groups'. The 'disadvantaged' is a generic term for individuals or groups of people who:

- Face special problems such as physical or mental disability
- Lack <u>money</u> or economic support
- Are politically deemed to be without sufficient <u>power</u> or other means of influence

In common usage 'the disadvantaged' is a generic term for those "from lower-income backgrounds" or "from minority groups". The "economically disadvantaged" is a term used by government institutions usually while allocating free services such as school meals to the students who are members of households that meet the income eligibility guidelines for free or reduced-price services.

Isolation resulting from social exclusion can be connected to a person's <u>social class</u>, race, skin color, <u>ethnicity</u>, <u>living standards</u>, or religion. Anyone who appears to be different in any way from <u>perceived norms</u> of a community may thereby become subject to offensive or subtle forms of social exclusion. The outcome of social exclusion is that affected individuals or communities are prevented from participating fully in the economic, social, and political life of the society in which they live. Social exclusion appears at individual or group level in four correlated dimensions i.e. lack of access to social rights, material poverty, limited social participation and lack of normative integration. Hence it becomes the combined result of personal risk factors i.e. age, gender, race; macro social change such as development of demographic, economic and labor market; state legislation and the actual behavior of organizations and citizens. The concept of social exclusion appears to be a complex and multidimensional phenomena.

2.3.1 Origins of the concept of social exclusion

The concept of social exclusion became increasingly prominent in Western Europe in the latter part of the twentieth century and mainly in 1990s. While the concept's historical roots can be traced back to Aristotle, the modern notion of exclusion emerged in France in the 1970s, linked to a perceived breakdown in social cohesion following civil unrest in the late 1960s in the context of growing unemployment and socio-economic inequalities. From France, its use spread through the European Union's institutions, unpacking the

poverty discourse. It was adopted particularly by the UK's New Labour government elected in the late 1990s when the International Labour Organization also took a lead in driving the concept out to less developed countries. Its emergence has also been linked at some points to the rise of neo-liberal ideology and individualism from the 1970s.

Part of the rise in concerns of the social exclusion can be attributed to its political appeal. It has been argued that it is perceived as less threatening than poverty and depending upon its extent it becomes acceptable in some political positions. e.g. revised immigration and migrants rights in European and United States. In addition, its popularity may in part be attributable to a belief that the concept of social exclusion offers an original perspective on the social world. The concept being multi-dimensional, holds the potential to provide new insights into the nature, causes and consequences of poverty, deprivation, inequalities, marginalization and discrimination. The discourse of social exclusion gives new direction to policy planning, specifically in terms of educational outreach. Yet, the limitations of applying a concept developed in the developed nations with well-developed welfare systems, to countries and nations where weak governance, least welfare mechanisms, and a majority of the population living in extreme poverty, is a big challenge. More generally, the danger that 'exclusion' may be used as a screen to hide extreme poverty and as a blaming label to make the poor responsible for their condition has also been recognized.

2.3.2 Meanings of social exclusion
Silver (1994), Levitas (1998; 2005) and Beall (2002) made important contributions to understand the ideological and political roots of different definitions and elaborated the implications for policy and practices that are required to address 'social exclusion'. While many definitions of 'social exclusion' incorporate apparently contradictory connotations, the "labelling approach" helped to make a clear distinction between 'the excluded' from the rest of society, and to operationalize and measure 'social exclusion'.

Social exclusion is the term which has its specific meanings drawn from its evolution around the world, it may not be possible that the phrase 'social exclusion' is used in different ways at different times reflecting different institutional, political, historical and geographic contexts. Here let us explore some of the meanings attaching to the concept of social exclusion and consider these in relationship with policy and actions aimed at addressing social exclusion. The concept of "social exclusion" is being continually redefined over time and have different policy implications. The term 'social exclusion' needs to first identify the groups at risk of exclusion; the meanings of the phrase itself in a society will depend upon the question that who are the people being excluded from social processes and interactions; at the second stage it asks for the explanation of the processes involved and the levels at which exclusion is exhibited or exposed; and last but not the least it also takes its meanings from the actors involved.

Having all these multidimensional aspects some consensus on the meanings of 'social exclusion' can be described as:

It is a multidimensional process, around social, political, cultural and economic dimensions, and operating at different social levels; impacting in different ways to differing degrees over time; focusing on exclusion as the split of relationships between people and the society resulting in a lack of social participation, social protection, social integration and power dynamics.

'Social exclusion' has been conceptualized as social behaviors of dominating social groups affecting a subgroup of the population and keeping them outside mainstream social systems and relationships. Similarly, social exclusion can be referred as the processes hidden in unequal power distributions within a federation or state that in result create inequalities or multiple disadvantages. On the one hand a school of thought stands that emphasize lack of participation of individuals in society and on the other hand is the one that identify social exclusion in terms of lack of access to basic rights for members of particular group or community. In terms of who or what is generating exclusion, and important aspect is causal role of diverse 'agents' ranging from globalization to excluded individuals and groups themselves. Access and participation can be perceived as the key elements in the process of social exclusion vs inclusion. But the participation depends on the extent to which different societal groups have access to the relevant socio-economic resources, services, goods and structures as well as decision-making positions and processes. Another dimension is that full social participation also requires mutual trust. Wherever such trust is lacking, social bonding is disrupted.

2.3.3 Factors influencing social exclusion
Two sets of factors become a source of increase or decrease of social exclusion-Structural Factors and Cultural Factors

1. **Structural Factors**
   a) **Economic-technological factors:**
      Which economic background do you come from and where it stands in the society? One major set of factors is functioning of the labor market, flexibility of the labor market, decline of urban labor markets resulting in fewer jobs in cities and increasing local concentrations of benefit recipients, international competition, globalization (employment shift to low-wage or low-tax countries, strategic operations of multi-nationals) as well as new technologies and their deployment.

   b) **Socio-demographic factors:**
      Which part of the country or world do you come from and how is it viewed in the society? Another set is derived from increase of duration of dependency due to increased life expectancy; increasing labor supply with stable; extended school participation and shortened employment duration

over the life span; decreasing birth rate, increasing individualization (single households); and development of an ethnical multiform, multicultural society and increase of number of immigrants with unfavorable work prospects

2.   **Cultural Factors**
Do you fit in with the cultural norms? There is a major role of generally accepted opinions, cultural values and norms and expectations of gender roles; attitudes with regard to ethnic minorities and towards vulnerable groups in general; development of a 'deprivation culture' in isolated and excluded groups or communities with a high risk of passing exclusion on from one generation to the other as well as general perception of poverty and inequality.

2.3.5 Education and social exclusion/inclusion

Education is neither the sole cause of nor can be the sole solution for social exclusion. Nevertheless, there are good reasons to perceive educational achievement or rather, the access to and utilization of education, training and learning opportunities as a key factor in the process of becoming excluded. Lack of equality in access to good education can contribute to or at least increase the chance on becoming excluded, since it highly determines the further educational career and with that the working career. At the same time, the access to 'high quality' education is not distributed evenly among different social groups. Families with a lower socio-economic status or children from low-skilled parents with either no work or relatively unstable, low-skilled and low-paid work appear to have less chance to complete upper secondary education or to enter tertiary education. Likewise, children from immigrant families appear to have fewer chances to complete upper secondary education.

It has been indicated by many theorists that education; training and learning cannot guarantee success, but in the era of knowledge economy these modes and ways are becoming increasingly a necessary part of social success. It is evident that people on very low and insecure incomes or in poverty, many of whom are out of the labor market with limited prospects of securing a source of regular income, and who live in poor housing and communities, are among those to whom the term 'exclusion' most obviously applies. Throughout the past century, a lot of attention has been paid to inequality of opportunities in education. There is substantial evidence that educational achievement and educational performance are highly correlated with the socioeconomic background of pupils. The same seems to hold for 'ethnicity' as an independent variable, though here the picture is more scattered depending on mediating factors like the age at which immigrant children arrived in a city or country of residence, whether or not they were born in that city or country of residence and the level of educational achievement and socio-economic background of the parents.

2.4   WORK OF CRITICAL THEORISTS

Foucault, Bourdieu and Friere
Michel Foucault (1926 –1984) was a French philosopher, historian, philologist and literary critic. His theories focused the relationship between power and knowledge, and how the power structures at institutional levels are used as a form of social control. Though often cited as a postmodernist, but Foucault did not adopt these labels rather presented his thought as a critical history of modernity. Foucault was leading in shaping up the understandings of power, picking up from the analysis of actors who use power as a tool of oppression, and even into the judicious structures in which those actors function.

Foucault's main Idea

'power is everywhere', diffused and embodied in discourse, knowledge and 'regimes of truth'.

Foucault challenges the idea that power is wielded by people or groups by way of 'episodic' or 'sovereign' acts of domination or coercion, seeing it instead as dispersed and pervasive. 'Power is everywhere' and 'comes from everywhere' so in this sense is neither an agency nor a structure. Instead it is a kind of 'metapower' or 'regime of truth' that pervades society, and which is in constant flux and negotiation. Foucault uses the term 'power/knowledge' to signify that power is constituted through accepted forms of knowledge, scientific understanding and 'truth':

> 'Truth is a thing of this world: it is produced only by virtue of multiple forms of constraint. And it induces regular effects of power. Each society has its regime of truth, its "general politics" of truth: that is, the types of discourse which it accepts and makes function as true; the mechanisms and instances

41

which enable one to distinguish true and false statements, the means by which each is sanctioned; the techniques and procedures accorded value in the acquisition of truth; the status of those who are charged with saying what counts as true.' (Foucault, in Rabinow 1991).

Foucault was fascinated by the mechanisms of prison surveillance, school discipline, systems for the administration and control of populations, and the promotion of norms about bodily conduct. A key point about Foucault's approach to power is that it transcends politics and sees power as an everyday, socialised and embodied phenomenon. This is why state-centric power struggles, including revolutions, do not always lead to change in the social order. For some, Foucault's concept of power is so elusive and removed from agency or structure that there seems to be little scope for practical action. But he has been hugely influential in pointing to the ways that norms can be so embedded as to be beyond our perception causing us to discipline ourselves without any willful coercion from others.

Contrary to many interpretations, Foucault believed in possibilities for action and resistance. He was an active social and political commentator who saw a role for the 'organic intellectual'. His ideas about action were, like Hayward's, concerned with our capacities to recognize and question socialized norms and constraints. To challenge power is not a matter of seeking some 'absolute truth' (which is in any case a socially produced power), but of detaching the power of truth from the forms of hegemony, social, economic, and cultural, within which it operates at the present time. Discourse can be a site of both power and resistance, with scope to evade, subvert or contest strategies of power.

Pierre Bourdieu (1930- 2002) was a French sociologist primarily concerned with the dynamics of power in society, ways in which power is relocated and how the social order is maintained within and across generations. He extended the idea of <u>capital</u> to categories such as <u>social capital</u>, <u>cultural capital</u>, financial capital, and <u>symbolic capital</u>. For Bourdieu each individual occupies a position in a multidimensional social space; he or she is not defined only by <u>social class</u> membership, but by every single kind of capital he or she can articulate through social relations. That capital includes the value of social networks, which Bourdieu showed, could be used to produce or reproduce inequality.

Ultimately, each relatively autonomous field of modern life, such as economy, politics, arts, journalism, bureaucracy, science or education engenders a specific complex of social relations where the agents will engage their everyday practice. Through this practice, they'll develop a certain disposition for social action that is conditioned by their position on the field (dominant/dominated and orthodox/heterodox are only two possible ways of positioning the agents on the field; these basic binary distinctions are always further analyzed considering the specificities of each field). This disposition, combined with every other disposition the individual develops through his engagement on a multidimensional (in the sense of multi-field) social world, will eventually tend to become a sense of the game, a

partial understanding of the field and of social order in general, a practical sense, a practical reason, a way of division of the world, an opinion, a taste, a tone of voice, a group of typical body movements and mannerisms and so on. Through this, the social field may become more complex and autonomous, while the individual develops a certain habitus that is typical of his position in the social space. By doing so, social agents will often acknowledge, legitimate and reproduce the social forms of domination (including prejudices) and the common opinions of each field as self-evident, clouding from conscience and practice even the acknowledgment of other possible means of production (including, of course, symbolic production) and power relations.

Though not deterministic, the inculcation of the subjective structures of the habitus can be observed through statistical data, for example, while its selective affinity with the objective structures of the social world explains the continuity of the social order through time. As the individual habitus is always a mix of multiple engagements in the social world through the person's life, while the social fields are put into practice through the agency of the individuals, no social field or order can be completely stable. In other words, if the relation between individual predisposition and social structure is far stronger than common sense tends to believe, it is not a perfect match. Pierre Bourdieu's work emphasized how social classes, especially the ruling and intellectual classes, preserve their social privileges across generations despite the myth that contemporary post-industrial society boasts equality of opportunity and high social mobility, achieved through formal education.

According to Bourdieu, the education systems of developed societies function in such a way as to legitimate class inequalities. Success in the education system is facilitated by the possession of cultural capital and of higher class habitus. Lower-class pupils do not in general possess these traits, so the failure of the majority of these pupils is inevitable. This explains class inequalities in educational attainment. However, success and failure in the education system is seen as being due to individual gifts or the lack of them. Therefore, for Bourdieu, educational credentials help to reproduce and legitimate social inequalities, as higher-class individuals are seen to deserve their place in the social structure. Bourdieu claims that social inequalities are legitimated by the educational credentials held by those in dominant positions. This means that the education system has a key role in maintaining the status quo. In totality, Bourdieu's view is that cultural capital is inculcated in the higher-class home, and enables higher-class students to gain higher educational credentials than lower-class students. This enables higher-class individuals to maintain their class position, and legitimates the dominant position which higher-class individuals typically go on to hold. Of course, some lower-class individuals will succeed in the education system, but, rather than challenging the system, this will strengthen it by contributing to the appearance of meritocracy.

Paulo Freire (1921 – 1997), was the Brazilian educationist, who left a significant mark on thinking about progressive practice. His work titled as *Pedagogy of the Oppressed* is currently one of the most quoted educational texts. Freire developed his arguments upon,

and weave together, a number of strands of thinking about educational practice and liberation. Freire certainly made a number of important theoretical innovations that have had a considerable impact on the development of educational practice and popular modes of education. Four aspects of Paulo Freire's work have a particular significance. <u>First</u>, his emphasis on dialogue struck a very strong chord with those concerned with non-formal education. The non formal education is usually planned for those who cannot access the formal system due to one reason or the other. <u>Second</u>, Freire was concerned with praxis action that is informed and linked to certain values. For Freire the "dialogue" in education wasn't just about deepening understanding but was part of making a difference in the world. <u>Third</u>, Freire's attention to naming the world has been of great significance to those educators who have traditionally worked with those who do not have a voice, and who are oppressed. The idea of building *'pedagogy of the oppressed'* or a *'pedagogy of hope'* and how this may be carried forward has formed a significant momentum to rethink education. An important element of this was his concern with developing consciousness, but consciousness that is understood to have the power to transform reality'. <u>Fourth</u>, Freire's insistence on situating educational activity in the lived experience of participants has opened up a series of possibilities for the way educators can approach practice.

The Paulo Freire's suggested methods of literacy training are most clearly presented in "Education for Critical Consciousness". At the first level is the study of the context. Educational planning is done when an investigating team examines the lives of people in a given area. The common vocabulary and common problems confronting them are recorded and lengthy interviews are conducted to discover their hopes and fears. Such contextualized planning strives to involve the community as much as possible, even at the planning stage. Freire insists that the words used in literacy training should come, not from the educator, but from the local vocabulary so that the language may not be foreign to people. The second phase of developing dialogue is the selection of the generative words, if they have the capacity of leading learners to new ones. Freire's coordinators developed different lists of words for each area in which they worked. The third stage is the actual literacy training. The training sessions themselves consisted of discussions around the generative words and the pictures which illustrated them. Fourth stage was called "post literacy". This is concerned with the raising of critical consciousness among those who are already literate. Rather than generative words, generative themes now form the basis of education. Pedagogy of the oppressed showed how this form of education could become preparatory stage of revolutionary action. Such themes as "oppression," "domination," "imperialism," "welfarism" can serve as the basis for discussion and action. Freire's literacy method is rightly elaborated by himself as "conscientization." Conscientization, is defined as the process in which learners, not as recipients, but as knowing subjects, achieve a deeper awareness both of the socio-cultural reality which contour their lives, and of their capability to change that reality through action.

2.5 ROOTS OF CRITICAL PEDAGOGY

Freire (1970) distinguished between banking education and problem posing education. In the traditional view of education, teachers are pillars of knowledge; they know everything and students know nothing. This model mirrors the structure of an oppressive society in which the oppressed and the oppressors are divided. It advocates fixation of reality. So it is a vehicle for continuing the political oppression and working against liberation or emancipation. In critical pedagogy this model is rejected because teachers should concern about society and to give human beings the opportunity to critically reflect and act on the position within society. In this model, students believed that power, authority and activity are held by the teacher and students are viewed as objects rather than human. So in Joldersma's (1999) term, this model is dehumanizing because it creates oppressive passivity in students. Gadotti (1994) also noted that pedagogy is of major interest for Freire by which he seeks to change the structure of an oppressive society. Critical pedagogy in Kanpol's (1998) terms rests on the belief that every citizen deserves an education which involves understanding the schooling structure by the teacher that would not permit education to ensue. Vandrick (1994) claims that the major goal of critical pedagogy, is to emancipate and educate all people regardless of their gender, class, race, etc. Critical pedagogy is a transformation-based approach to education. Critical pedagogy is a philosophy of education and social movement that combines education with critical theory.First described by Paulo Freire, it has since been developed by Henry Giroux and others as a praxis-oriented educational movement, guided by passion and principle, to help students develop consciousness of freedom, recognize authoritarian tendencies, and connect knowledge to power and the ability to take constructive action. Ira Shor (1992) defines critical pedagogy as:

> "Habits of thought, reading, writing, and speaking which go beneath surface meaning, first impressions, dominant myths, official pronouncements, traditional clichés, received wisdom, and mere opinions, to understand the deep meaning, root causes, social context, ideology, and personal consequences of any action, event, object, process, organization, experience, text, subject matter, policy, mass media, or discourse." (p.129)

Critical pedagogy developed in the 1960s and 70s as a reaction amongst academics of an activist, radical left-wing inclination to the repeated failure of socialist governments around the world to deliver on their promises of economic equality Critical pedagogy

45

includes relationships between teaching and learning. Its proponents claim that it is a continuous process of what they call unlearning, learning, and relearning, reflection, evaluation and the effect that these actions have on the students, in particular students whom they believe have been historically and continue to be disenfranchised by what they call 'traditional schooling'. Critical <u>pedagogy</u> is a teaching approach inspired by Marxist critical theory and other radical philosophies, which attempts to help students question and challenge posited <u>domination</u> and to undermine the beliefs and practices that are alleged to dominate. In other words, it is a theory and practice of helping students achieve <u>critical consciousness</u>. In practical terms, the goal of critical pedagogy is to challenge conservative, right-wing and traditionalist philosophies and politics. Here the teacher works to lead students to question ideologies and practices considered oppressive (including those at school), and encourage freedom of collective and individual responses to the actual conditions of their own lives.

The student often begins as a member of the group or process he or she is critically studying (e.g., religion, national identity, cultural norms, or expected roles). After the student begins to view present society as deeply problematic, the next behavior encouraged is sharing this knowledge, paired with an attempt to change the perceived oppression of the society. A good picture of this development from social member to dissident to radical teacher/learner is offered in both Paulo Freire's book *Pedagogy of the Oppressed*, and bell hooks' book *Teaching to Transgress*. An earlier proponent of a more active classroom, where students direct the epistemological method as well as the actual object of inquiry is the late Neil Postman. In his <u>Teaching as a Subversive Activity</u>, Postman suggests creating a class where students themselves are entirely in control of the syllabus, class activities, and grading.

The primary concern of Critical Pedagogy is with social injustice and how to transform inequitable, undemocratic, or oppressive institutions and social relations. At some point, assessments of truth or conceptual ambiguousness might come into the discussion. Other important questions, from this standpoint, include: Who is making the assertions? Why are they being made? Who funds such research? Who propagate these "findings"? Such questions, from the Critical Pedagogy perspective, are not external to, or separable from, the import of also weighing the evidentiary base for such claims.

2.5.1 Critical Pedagogy and the Role of Teacher and Student

Teachers in this approach are viewed as problem posers. As a pioneer to this approach Dewey (1963) believes that, learning through problem solving and practical application leads students to take a more active role in determining their experiences and positions within society. Kincheloe and McLaren (1994) maintain that teacher must empower his or her students by raising their awareness of reproducing process of an inequitable status quo in schooling and offer societal institutions. So teachers, in Giroux's terms, are Transformative Intellectuals who have the knowledge and skill to critique and transform existing inequalities in society. The role of this transformative intellectual, she maintains, is to learn from students, appreciate their viewpoints and to take part in the dialogical process. According to Giroux (1997), by creating appropriate conditions, teachers enable

students to become cultural producers who can rewrite their experiences and perceptions. They also help students learn from each other and to theorize and understand how to question the authoritarian power of the classroom. According to Paulo Freire (1998), classroom experiences, with the help of the teachers, should become situations in which students are encouraged to act as active agents in their own education and to develop a critical consciousness that helps them evaluate the validity, fairness, and authority within their educational and living situations.

Teachers have also a critically reflective role, that is to say, for producing an open and equal environment, they must engage in deep self-reflection about their position and the effects of their authority in the classroom. According to Crabtree and Sapp (2004), self-reflection is the form of questioning one's motives, purpose, ideology, and pedagogy as informed by theory and habit. Self-reflection enables teachers to make their classes student-centered by accepting unsuccessful educational ideas and oppressive forms in their own educational practices.

Degener (2001) states that a critical educator helps students to understand the reasons behind the facts. This way, students through reflection can determine the necessary types of action that they should take in order to improve the life conditions of the oppressed groups. Students and teachers should engage in questioning knowledge but it is the teacher who helps the students to identify how to move forward critically in their practice. Teachers should challenge the current structure by rejecting long standing cultural expectations and mores of their own and the system, additionally, they must give up much of the power which is given to them through their titles. Students, as Giroux (1997) puts it, are active participants in that together with the teacher they correct the curricula and that they share their ideas and learn to challenge assumptions. According to Degener (2001), students contribute to curricular decisions and determine areas of study and the associated reading materials. Critical learners, as Moore and Parker (1986) maintain, are those who can accept, reject or suspend judgment about a claim. They can also offer good reasons for their ideas and can correct their own and others' procedures. They should engage in social criticism in order to create a public sphere in which citizens can exercise power over their own lives and learning.

To help students engage in critical consciousness, educators should empower students to reflect on their own worlds, and to self-assess in fact. Guthrie (2003) views both teachers and students as co-agents, that is, teacher's authority directs the class but this authority differs from that in the traditional pedagogy. This is in line with what Freire (1970) proposed in that there is a fluid relationship between teachers and students, that is, teachers are learners and learners are teachers. Therefore, learners are not recipients of knowledge rather they become creators. Friere also confirms that no one teaches another, nor is anyone self-taught, men teach each other, mediated by the teacher. When students gain their lost voices and resist unjust reproduction, they become active agents for social change. Freire also points out that marginalized students should be able to reflect on their concrete situations to find out why things are the way they are. They should be aware of the factors that contributed to their position in society.

2.5.2 Commonly used Pedagogies

a)   Praxis

"The purpose of the educator and the educated, the leader and the followers in a dialogue between equal partners is called praxis" (Gur-Ze'ev, 1998). It is defined as "the self-creative activity through which we make the world. The requirements of praxis are theory both relevant to the world and nurtured by actions in it, and an action component in its own theorizing process that grows out of practical and political grounding"(Buker, 1990, cited in Lather, 1991, pp.11-12). In education praxis intends at filling the gap between theory and transformational act.That is, praxis connects education which is libratory with social transformation (Boyce, 1996).

b)   Dialogism

Richard Paul says similarly that "dialogical thinking" is inherent to Critical Thinking (Paul 1990). Critical Pedagogy includes reading the world along with reading the words (Freire & Macedo, 1987). Hence language is the first barrier that is to be removed in a critical pedagogy. Giroux (1997) maintains that with the help of a critical, oppositional, and theoretical language, teachers can move toward a discourse by which is needed in educational criticism. Degener (2001) confirms that even when the same language is spoken in the class, teachers should be sensitive not to favor one kind of interaction over another. Because it is the educator who decides whose voices will beheard and whose will be submerged in the classroom (Giroux, 1997; Lankshear& McLaren, 1993). To Degener (2001), language is important in two ways; first, language needs and curriculum should be grounded in students' language in order to actively involve students in learning and second, to be able to read the world and transform it, students need a form of discourse. That is why for marginalized groups language is an important refuge (Baynham, 2006). Thus is the power of language that enables students to enlarge their scope of understanding (Dheram, 2007).

c)   Questioning

The work of William Glasser, M.D. (1990), provides insight into nurturing the critical thinking process through the use of specific types of questions. In Glasser's view quality schools approach uses the questioning process to encourage students to process information analytically. By preparing a questioning strategy, teachers can present information in a manner that is conducive to promoting intellectually engaged thinking. This is not merely content based questioning rather beyond content and contextual questioning. There are two phases to content learning. The first phase occurs when learners, initially, construct in their minds the basic ideas, principles and theories that are inherent in content. This is a process of internalization. The second phase occurs when learners effectively use those ideas, principles and theories as they become relevant in their lives. This is a process of application. Good teachers cultivate critical thinking at every stage of learning, by developing the questioning skill.

ACTIVITY

Read the three points given below:

- Teachers deposit knowledge in students and never ask them to question that knowledge. The teacher thinks, the students don't know.
- The teacher chooses the content, students comply with it. Teacher is authority and students are obedient to authority. Students in this model are receivers of knowledge. They receive, memorize and repeat.
- They are not asked to relate this knowledge to the current problems and injustices in society with the aim of improving the society.

Do you agree to these after learning about Critical Pedagogy?

If you don't agree then rephrase the above three statements in your perspective.

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Unit 3

TEACHING STRATEGIES TO PROMOTE CRITICAL THINKING

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CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

Traditionally students are taught to accept the instruction and not to question. The student becomes a habitual receiver of that information and is not taught to question and find the fault in what is offered as knowledge. This poorly prepares students for the real life situation of competing advocacies, offering their own perspectives and asking the people to wisely choose between them. Thus, in life they may find it hard to do what they are rarely trained to do in school. According to Vygotsky (1978) , students are capable of performing at higher intellectual levels when asked to work in collaborative situations than when asked to work individually. Group diversity in terms of knowledge and experience contributes positively to the learning process. Bruner (1985) contends that cooperative learning methods improve problem- solving strategies because the students are confronted with different interpretations of the given situation. The peer support system makes it possible for the learner to internalize both external knowledge and critical thinking skills and to convert them into tools for intellectual functioning. Thus this unit prepares prospective teachers to make students more critical than mere receivers of the information.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

After the completion of this unit it is expected that your will be able to:
1.   identify the difference occurring in classroom teaching during 21st century especially cooperative teaching and learning strategies.
2.   plan and organize some critical thinking pedagogies and activities
3.   practice classroom assessment for continuous feedback and reflection

3.1   TEACHING AND LEARNING IN 21ST CENTURY

Our older techniques of education and social organization may have been satisfactory in the past, but the demands of education at present are quite different. Many important changes in the intellectual landscape of our planet took place in the 20th century, and they are all making their mark in the 21st Century. These developments are already known to us; these include and are not limited to the following:

1.   There is more information available for learners now than ever before. The increase in information will continue to increase, this means that we need to know how to search and then how to analyze information as much and we do not really need to memorize the information itself.

2.   The pace of social change continues to increase. Our lives are so much different than our grandparents; our parents and our children will live in a very different world. We need to learn more than useful patterns; we need to know how to adapt and how to refuse to adapt.

3.   The universe is becoming a connected whole more than ever before. What happens in USA influences China, what happens in Brazil influences India. Economies and technological resources are increasingly connected. As with any large and complex system, it is now challenging to understand how it operates.

4.   Our mass media showers down on us with its so called "expert" discourse. We have been in a habit of more and more rely on selected talking heads to do our thinking for us. Of course, such "experts" have their own points of view and their own master minds, yet the time is requiring us to judge them more closely than ever.

5.   We are surrounded by weak arguments promoted with considerably wider range of resources. We become vulnerable to the weak arguments around us through utter repetition and no solid evidence being provided, hence a deeper critical analysis of such discourse becomes inevitable.

6.   The old "banking" model is insufficient. According to this model we used to view students as a bank account into which the instructor deposits knowledge. The data is a thing or an artifact, and once the student has it, they were then labeled as educated. Given the magnitude of current knowledge that seems impossible as well as ineffective. Paolo Freire in his work The Pedagogy of the Oppressed has focused on this. Students need to learn how to manipulate and process data more than just check to see how full their knowledge bank is. Let's explore some of the methodologies found most useful in this era.

3.2   COOPERATIVE TEACHING AND LEARNING STRATEGIES

Cooperative teaching and learning has been a popular area in educational circles for more than a decade. This area gained its strength with the emergence of two major schools of thought one is "Constructivism" and the other is "Connectivism". Researchers and practitioners have found that students working in small cooperative groups can develop the type of intellectual exchange that fosters critical and creative thinking, and productive problem solving. Cooperative teaching is a successful strategy in which small teams, each with students of different ability levels are made. They use a variety of learning activities to improve their understanding of a subject. By using this method, the teachers and students feel that they are an important member of the class. Cooperative teaching and learning is an approach to group work that minimizes the occurrence of unpleasant experiences and maximizes the learning with a sense of achievement and satisfaction that result from working with a high-performance team.

Students have always congregated together to perform and learn. But there is a growing recognition that combined with whole group instruction and individual learning, cooperative learning should be a customary part of the classroom instruction. Student communication makes cooperative learning meaningful. To accomplish their group's task, students must exchange ideas, make plans, and propose solutions. Thinking through an idea and presenting it collectively can be very helpful and understood by others in a better way. Such interaction promotes intellectual growth. The exchange of different ideas and viewpoints can enhance the growth and inspire broader thinking. It is the teacher's job to persuade such exchanges and organize the students' work so their communication is on-task and creative. In addition to academic growth, cooperative learning helps in students' social development.

Students' lives are full of interactions with friends and family members and their futures will find them in jobs that require cooperation. The skills that are essential for productive group work in the classroom are relevant for today and the future. Cooperative learning is a successful teaching strategy in which small groups, with students of different ability levels, use a variety of learning activities to improve their understanding. Each member of a team feels responsible for learning what is being taught and also for helping group fellows thus creating an atmosphere of achievement.

Cooperative classroom activities result in students striving for mutual uplift so that all group members:
•   benefit from each other's efforts.
•   recognize that all group members share a common goal.
•   realize that one's performance is mutually caused by oneself and one's team members.
•   jointly celebrate when a group member is recognized for achievement.

Relative to students taught individually; cooperatively taught students tend to show higher academic achievement, greater determination, better high-level reasoning lower anxiety and stress, greater intrinsic motivation, greater ability to view situations from others' perspectives, more positive attitudes toward subject areas, and higher critical thinking skills,.

3.2.1 Concept of Cooperative Learning

Several definitions of cooperative learning have been given by various theorists. The one most widely used in higher education is probably that of David and Roger Johnson of the University of Minnesota. According to the which, cooperative learning is a process that involves students working in teams to accomplish a common goal, under conditions that include the following elements:

- **Positive interdependence.** Team members are obliged to rely on one another to achieve the goal. If any team members fail to do their part, everyone suffers consequences.
- **Individual accountability.** All students in a group are held accountable for doing their share of the work and for mastery of all of the material to be learned.
- **Face-to-face promotive interaction.** Although some of the group work may be parceled out and done individually, some must be done interactively, with group members providing one another with feedback, challenging reasoning and conclusions, and perhaps most importantly, teaching and encouraging one another.
- **Appropriate use of collaborative skills.** Students are encouraged and helped to develop and practice trust-building, communication, and conflict management skills.
- **Group processing.** Team members set group tasks, periodically assess what they are doing well as a team, and identify changes they will make to function more effectively in the future.

Cooperative learning is dependent on the sort of conversation, which takes place in the group between students. Talking about a question helps create meaning and understanding; humans make meaning about things through talk. Studies have shown that by having to explain answers to problems to fellow student that the act of having to clarify and communicate actually enhances the students' own understanding. In these conversations it is the process of discussion that is important not whether the answers are right or wrong. Applications of social learning to the classroom first began in the early 1970s. Since that time, what we now know as 'Cooperative Learning' has been one of the most researched kinds of instructional methodology used in the classroom. Much of this research has concluded that cooperative learning strategies in the classroom have been highly successful, both in terms of **learning achievement** as well as the development **morals and values.** The prospect of cooperative learning is obvious to many researchers. Its academic and social advantages are globally recognized. George (2000) defines cooperative learning as the process of obtaining knowledge in a socially rich environment by one or two small groups of students. Cooperative learning environment refers to a situation which learners with one common goal in their mind strive to achieve common learning outcomes. A small dedicated group of students learn together and take advantages of each other's proficiency to achieve a common goal. In a cooperative learning environment, learners are encouraged to be in the center of learning and learn together. Research has shown that cooperative learning techniques:

- promote student learning and academic achievement
- increase student retention
- enhance student satisfaction with their learning experience
- help students develop communication skills
- develop students' social skills

- promote student self-esteem
- help to promote critical thinking

Social benefits of cooperative learning are more clearly demonstrated in the research literature. Cooperative learning has shown to positively affect students' self esteem and attitudes towards school and classmates. It has been suggested that an improvement in students' positive behavior will in turn increase motivation for academic achievement. Classrooms are very social places but often when teachers think about learning the focus is on individual learning and the social aspects are often viewed as a distraction. If the teachers are able to make positive use of this social aspect and the social arrangement of the classroom then more learning would take place. Cooperative Learning improves students' communication skills and enhances their ability to be successful in the world of work and to live in diverse society.

3.2.2 The purpose of cooperative learning

There are basically four main reasons why Cooperative Learning is to be recommended.

1. **Active learning**
   Co-operative Learning helps to actively engage more children in learning than do teacher centered or lecture-oriented methodologies. By using more cooperative methodologies in which students work together in groups, all students are actively engaged on a learning task. Students become more active participants in their own learning as well in fellows' learning, as opposed to passive recipients of knowledge.

2. **Children learn to help and support**
   Co-operative Learning encourages students to support their classmates in a group rather than to compete against each other. In this way, students can combine their skills and talents and help others. Co-operative Learning provides the opportunity for higher-achieving students to help students who are slower learners. The help of these students also increases the amount of explanation that occurs in the classroom overall.

3. **Interaction brings multiple dimensions**
   Working in groups students can bring multidimensional thoughts and discussions over a single subject. Such rich discussion and generation of knowledge is rarely possible when each learner works in isolation. Cooperative learning enables them to ask questions from each other and bring out what a teacher might not be able to even by asking random questions from a few members of class.

4. **Improved critical thinking**
   In a cooperative classroom where multiple and even opposite view points are received openly, the learners learn to discuss and raise questions. They do not simply learn or memorize the concepts rather they work together to understand, explore and reach a consensus or at least bring all thoughts on one page. This asks for deeper and critical analysis of the subject.

Major Outcomes of Cooperative Learning

Learning
- increased academic learning
- increased critical thinking ability
- more time spent on learning tasks (less day dreaming)
- increased student retention
- increased student motivation to learn
- enhanced student satisfaction with their learning experience

Social Development
- reduces disruptive behaviour
- develops peer relationships
- promote student self-esteem
- students use appropriate social skills
- improved attitude towards school

Communication
- students learn to share information
- helps students to consider other people's point of view
- helps students develop skills in oral communication

3.2.3 Models of Cooperative Learning

Many teachers perceive that efforts to set up cooperative learning groups have a variety of problems that range from student resistance to inappropriate assignments. It is useful to learn how different classroom researchers helped to try a model that could provide organization and guidance. The models listed below are only a few of many. These can be adapted in many ways or a new model can be developed depending on the requirements of the classroom.

a. **The Jigsaw Model**: In this model the student becomes a member of both a learning group and a research team. After determining the learning group's goal, the members join research teams to learn about a particular piece of the learning puzzle. Each puzzle piece must be solved to form a complete picture. Research can take many forms. The teacher may want to prepare "expert sheets" that outline readings and questions to obtain the information needed. Or the students can use their own strategies to glean information through library research, interviewing experts, or experimentation. Upon completion of the expert teams' work, the members return to their original learning groups and share the results. Class discussion, a question-and-answer session, or a graphic or dramatic production will allow the groups to share their findings with the class at large.

b. **Group Investigation** is more student directed in its approach. After the teacher presents an introduction to the unit, the students discuss what they have learned and outline possible topics for further examination. From this list of student-generated topics, each learning group chooses one and determines subtopics for each group

member or team. Each student or group of students is responsible for researching his or her individual piece and preparing a brief report to bring back to the group. The group then designs a presentation and shares its findings with the entire class. Allow time for discussion at the end of the presentation. A class evaluation for each presentation can be an effective way of providing feedback to the groups.

c. **Numbered Heads Together** is a way of reviewing information that has been previously presented through direct instruction or text. Numerous simple models enhance questioning, discussion, and class presentations by structuring the activity in a cooperative format. This model works well with unambiguous questions that allow students to come to consensus. Divide the students into groups of 4 and have them number off from 1 to 4. After the teacher asks the question, the groups huddle to determine the answer. The teacher calls a number and the students with that number respond. The teacher then has the others agree or disagree with a thumbs up or thumbs down.

d. **Think-Pair-Share** To encourage responses from all students. Students pair with a partner to share their responses to a question. Students are then invited to share their responses with the whole class. There are a variety of ways to share, including Stand Up and Share-everyone stands up and as each student responds he or she sits down. Anyone with a similar response also sits down. Continue until everyone is seated. Or do a "quick whip" through the class in which students respond quickly one right after another.

3.2.4 Role of the teacher in cooperative learning

A cooperative learning classroom brings additional responsibilities to the teachers and the role of teacher is enriched even more. The role of teacher includes but is not limited to

- Specify academic objectives
- Specify collaborative skills
- Decide on group size
- Assign students to groups
- Arrange the room
- Plan materials
- Assign roles to students (reader, recorder, calculator, checker, reporter, materials handler etc.)
- Explain the task (explain procedures, give examples, asks questions to check task is understood by all)
- Test and question individual children (to promote individual accountability)
- Promote inter group co-operation (have groups check with each other and help each other)
- Monitor students' behaviour (while students are working, circulate to see whether they understand the assignment and the material, give immediate feedback)
- Praise good use of group skills
- Provide assistance on understanding a task
- Provide assistance on how the group can work together more effectively
- Reflect regularly to improve cooperative learning and teaching strategies

ACTIVITY I

Develop a set of instructions for group activity in class 8 for one topic selected from the syllabus of Social Studies

Elaborate which model are you using for cooperative learning and how do you think it will help students to develop critical thinking?

3.3   DISCUSSION AND DEBATE

Students learn more successfully by actively analyzing, discussing, and applying content in meaningful ways rather than by passively gripping information therefore, students benefit when instructors utilize instructional strategies that promote active engagement. Bonwell and Eison define active learning as "anything that involves students doing things and thinking about the things they are doing". Meyers and Jones (1993) define active learning as anything that "provides opportunities for students to talk and listen, read, write". To enhance the critical thinking of the students the teachers may adopt the techniques of debate and discussion.

Dialogue in a classroom is of two major kinds i.e. discussion and debate. Critical dialogue and discourse is a formal discussion of subjects and method of formally presenting an argument in a structured manner. Logical consistency, factual accuracy and some degree of emotional appeal to the audience are elements in debating, where one side often prevails over the other party by presenting a superior "context" and/or framework of the issue. The outcome of a critical debate may depend upon consensus or some formal way of reaching a resolution, rather than the objective facts. In formal debating contest, there are rules for participants to discuss and share differences, within a framework defining how they will interact. Informal dialogue discourse is relatively common. The quality and depth of a debate improves with the knowledge and skills of its participants as debaters.

Schools should teach students how to learn and how to think critically through debate. Instead, our government indoctrination facilities teach students what to think, the students' minds should be given the liberty to think and discuss. Most of what was learned in one way communication of classrooms is immediately forgotten after the exam. If we only make them listen and watch passively the students are being made just another brick in the wall instead of teaching them how to construct their own of knowledge. When they receive conflicting information they are unable to sort through it, but instead make emotional decisions on what to believe based on their group identity or trusted influential figures.

The foundation for education must be dialogue, debate and discussion. True learning takes place only through critical discourse. If you cannot articulate an idea, and defend it rationally, then your mind will always be a slave to someone else or a slave to your own shifting impulses.

3.3.1 An Important Educational Experiences

Discussion and debate provides the potential for independent, dynamic and free thought and dialogue. Debate cannot easily be controlled, and its process asks for active thinking. Classrooms are highly important places to teach students intellectual survival skills. By using debate as an educational and/or classroom technique is valuable in addressing these issues and how citizens deal with them. Debate teaches content as well as process and requires information acquisition and management. Different aspects of an issue must be investigated and understood by the debater. Debaters learn how to gather information and marshal that knowledge for their purposes. The process of debating is dynamic, fluid, and changing. Every day brings new ideas and new arguments. Every opponent uses some arguments that are expected and some that are not. Debaters also learn to compete against others in the realm of ideas while cooperating with team and class members in their efforts. Debaters learn to cooperate in order to compete. Debaters must critically analyze and deconstruct ideas presented by their opponents in preparation for doing the same thing for the rest of their lives in all of their information transactions.

Debating inherently involves a number of essential processes:
1. State your case. Any essay will do this, of course.
2. Clash with a critique the arguments of the other. This is rarely done in modern media, and even more rarely in schools.
3. Defend your own arguments from the critique of opponents. Media time allocation does not allow this, nor are there many teachers who are willing to defend their arguments against critical analysis.
4. Develop a perspective on all issues that enables a decision about the question at hand. The discussion needs to be packaged for a decision by an audience, which rarely happens today in politics or in education.

How do you think debate helps in promoting:
- critical thinking, effective communication
- independent research

The process of debate offers thoughtful and long-lasting learning for individuals, for societies and for the global community as a whole. Once students have learned how to debate, they are better able to critically examine the pronouncements of their political representatives and to make informed judgments about crucial issues. By encouraging participants of a debate to look carefully at the root causes and implications of controversies, and by teaching students that experts often have their own interests in mind when they produce facts and norms, debate can create a powerful resistance to many problems that seem to engulf us today. Most importantly debate teaches a method of critical questioning and learning that can help anyone who seeks out new interpretations. Debates encourage students not only to debate about content but also about the frameworks of problems and how to solve them. Debate heightens mental alertness by teaching students to quickly process and articulate ideas. Thinking on their feet, debaters are required to hear an idea and then provide a response. This pressure-laden scenario enhances the educational outcomes and spontaneity of debates.

3.3.2 The Benefits of Debate

The individual skills learned through debate have a broader impact on society as well. Debate can help fledgling democracies heal from the wounds inflicted by oppressive dictatorships and ethnic violence by providing a forum where these volatile issues can be openly discussed. Newly enfranchised citizens engaged in such debates learn first-hand how democracy works. Additionally, because it teaches the principles of tolerance, nonviolence and respect for different points of view, debate can close the gap between minority and majority cultures, and other groups divided by long-standing animosities. Debate is as a way to foster international understanding, cooperation, and a free and lively exchange of ideas. The core of competitive debate is to examine every side of important and controversial issues in an atmosphere of reasoned argument and respectful discourse. The enormous effort that students put forth to succeed in this intellectually exciting activity is truly inspiring. They devote a huge number of hours to research, discussion, case writing, and practicing for competitions. They spend countless evenings and weekends at tournaments competing for their schools and teammates.

The benefits they accrue as a result of all their hard work are numerous. Here are just a few:

1. Debate participation promotes problem solving and innovative thinking, and helps students to build links between words and ideas that make concepts more meaningful.
2. Debate students are taught to synthesize wide bodies of complex information, and to exercise creativity and implement different ways of knowing.
3. Learning to think well has far reaching effects into every aspect of a student's life. Academic Skills Many studies show marked improvement in a wide variety of academic skills as a result of participation in competitive debate. Debate students excel in written and oral communication, and greatly improve their reading comprehension.
4. Students become comfortable with new concepts and unfamiliar language, and gain access to a wide array of new information such as college-level philosophy, history, public policy and current events.
5. Debaters become self-directed learners, allowing them to take control of their education experience and continue to learn throughout their lives.
6. Competitive debate is a particularly affective vehicle for gifted and talented education.
7. Mental and emotional maturity is a unique outcome. Debate requires students to engage serious subject matter in a mature and professional environment. Debate students show more maturity in the face of adversity and tend to develop stronger relationships with peers and mentors than the average student.
8. Debate teaches students to recognize how others think, which improves their ability to understand others views and resolve conflicts.
9. This makes debate one of the most successful vehicles for providing affective education to at-risk students.
10. Ultimately, debate increases students' self-confidence by helping to teach them the skills necessary to become competent adults.

Finally, this can be inferred from various researches that debate students tend to have high levels of civic engagement. Students themselves feel that participation in competitive debate is a rewarding aspect of their school career. If one asks most instructors what their primary goal during a classroom discussion is, the answer shall be that students talking and keep them talking until they get to cover all dimensions of the topic under discussion. For any instructor such classroom strategies can be a useful way to break through the stubborn silence of tired, nervous, or unprepared students. However, it can happen so that students can talk for hours without learning anything of substance. Truly successful classroom discussions are guided by specific teaching goals. Each teaching goal will suggest different strategies for guiding a classroom discussion and this is to be determined by the teacher.

The benefits of using in-class debates as an instructional strategy also include mastery of the content and the development of critical thinking skills, empathy, and oral communication skills. Debate as an instructional strategy, however, has its opponents. Some believe debates reinforce a bias toward dualism, foster a confrontational environment that does not suit certain students, or merely reinforce a student's existing beliefs. A variety of debate formats are described which address these criticisms including meeting-house, four-corner, fishbowl, think-pair-share, and role-play debates. Finally, issues related to the assessment of in-class debates are addressed such as whether the students are assessed individually or as a team, what aspects of the debate are assessed, and whether the instructor and/or students will do the assessment

3.3.3 Planning The Dialogue
Establish goals for the discussion:
- Determine goals based on an assessment of what material students already understand and the areas that they need to explore.
- Decide what is to be learned by the students to learn from the discussion.
- Do they need to apply newly learned concepts, over novel subject matter, learn to analyze arguments critically, or hear each other's points of view?

These goals do not look mutually exclusive but they require different types of planning and instruction on teachers' part and different responses on the part of the students.

Communicate clear expectations to students:
- Hand out study questions before discussion, so students can think about concepts or respond in writing.
- Tell students what is expected from the discussions to be accomplish.
- Talk to them individually or in groups, as per need of the class.

Clarify and summarize key points during the discussion:
- Many instructors write notes and provide these to students to assist them in keeping the discussion on track and they sometimes require to moderate and intervene during the discussion too.

- Some instructors prefer to leave enough time for their supplementary comments at the end of the discussion.
- A brief summary that highlights the main points of the discussion should always be prepared at the end.

Developing a questioning strategy

Deciding on the key questions that are to be addressed, can help ensure that discussion stays on track and the learning goals set for the students are met. One three-step approach to developing questions is:

- Ask recall and comprehension questions to make sure that the students have basic knowledge.
- Ask questions requiring students to explain relationships among the units of information and to form general concepts.
- Ask questions that require students to apply concepts and principles they have developed to new and different situations.

Choreographing group dynamics

- Since discussions and debates depend upon students' willingness to talk to each other, it is very important to create a communicative classroom atmosphere in which students feel secure in offering their opinions for public scrutiny.
- From the very beginning encourage students to learn each other's names and to respond to each other's comments.
- A question-answer session is a dialogue; a discussion is a community activity. Asking for three reasons makes students feel that the teacher is fishing for pre-conceived answers, and they will respond accordingly.
- Asking one question and getting an answer, then asking a second question of a second student and getting an answer is like playing in a ground. Turn this into "volleyball" that will involve as many students as possible and have a discussion.

Involving the whole class

- Direct the questions to the entire class rather than to one individual and be willing to wait for an answer. Wait at least 30 seconds before repeating or changing the question. This gives students time to think and shows them that the teacher cares more about their learning than about the speed of their responses.
- Some instructors ask students to take a few minutes to write down their individual responses to a question before discussing as a whole class. This gives each student an opportunity to think about and respond to the topic. Then, as discussion begins, each student has at least one idea to offer and feels better prepared to respond.
- Standing at the front of the room to lead an instructional discussion often results in a dialogue. It can be helpful to sit so that you represent only one more link in a circle. This diminishes your role as instructor and encourages students to look at each other rather than at you. If a circle is not possible, sit in the middle or in the back.
- If it is necessary for someone to be at the front of the room in order to record important points of the discussion, ask a student to take this recording role.

Alternately, you can sit in the group and take notes, which you might want to use to summarize the group's thoughts at the end of discussion.

- If the class is large, divide it into smaller groups, each dealing with the same or separate questions or problems. Move from group to group, giving guidance and answering questions when needed or, if you like, remaining neutral. At the end of the class period, reassemble the class and have the small groups report and respond to each other.

3.3.4 Types of In-classroom Debating Techniques

Debating in the classroom can take many forms. Though not an all-inclusive list, the following debate methods offer a range of opportunities to increase student understanding and involvement with course material. This section will discuss the following types of debate: four corner, role-play, fishbowl, think-pair-share, and meeting house.

The four corner debate starts with a question or statement. Students are then afforded time to personally consider the statement and their view based on the law. The four corners of the classroom are labeled "strongly agree," "agree," "disagree," and "strongly disagree." After personal consideration, the students move to the corner that most represents their position on the issue. The groups in each corner of the classroom then work together to come up with the best arguments for their position. After a specified time for group discussion, each group presents their strongest arguments to the other groups. This can be made in presentation form or through a more directed debate where the professor or assigned students can moderate and direct time for each group to present and rebut. After the debate, students are permitted to switch sides if their personal views changed. This form of debate directly counters the argument of dualism, showing there are more than two-sides to an issue, and often, variations of the sides.

Role-play debates also help to avoid dualistic debate models by assigning students to argue on behalf of different characters in a situation. For instance, in the issue of national health care, students could be assigned to various roles, such as doctor, patient, a wealthy person, a poor person, a lawyer, a judge, an insurance company, the president, and so on. Through the debate of the issue from various points of view, the students can broaden their understanding of the issue and its complexity.

Fishbowl debates can take several different forms, but usually involve grouping chairs in a circle pattern. Several chairs are then placed inside the circle for teams representing the different positions of the debate. Chairs can also be added for several students representing the audience. To bolster attention among those outside the fishbowl, an empty chair can be added, which is free game, allowing someone from the outside to enter the fishbowl to ask a question or make an argument.

Think-pair-share debates require students to think and make notes alone about the issue. After personal reflection is completed, pairs are formed. The pairs then work together, comparing their notes and creating lists to support both sides of the issue. Once complete, the pairs of two are combined with another pair. The newly formed groups of

four discuss the issue, choose a position, and edit their list down to their best arguments. Finally, the groups of four present their position and reasons to the class.

Meeting-house debates and problem-solving debates are variations of the Lincoln-Douglas debate model. In a meeting house debate each team makes an opening argument. The class is then given the opportunity to question each side. The professor serves as moderator, ensuring each side gets an equal amount of time to argue. In order to encourage more class participation and limit certain students from dominating the questioning, the professor could assign cards to each student. After each question, the questioner gives up one card. Once a student is out of cards, he or she cannot ask another question until all other students run out of cards. Alternatively, if three cards are assigned, a questioner that has two cards remaining may be limited from asking another question until everyone else in the class has only two cards.

Problem-solving debate typically involves eight students. Four students are assigned to each team. One student from each side presents a position based on historical and philosophical arguments. The next two students take the position on why changes are or are not justified. The third set of students proposes a plan that would carry-out their position. The final two students summarize the position of their team and provide a closing argument.

There are other pedagogical strategies that may be related to the debate, such as: forum, meeting in open space, collaborative work, interaction, or deliberate. Each of these strategies, using different levels of criticism, shall be related with each course and its specific requirements. Most importantly, discussion and debate offers an opportunity for students to move beyond the acquisition of basic knowledge in a subject matter and progress into the types of higher order critical thinking skills. What is important is that students must analyze, synthesize and evaluate the knowledge they have acquired in order to propose, oppose and make competing choices. Students learn to apply course material through the use of well-reasoned arguments that are capable of being understood by not only their teacher but also their peers. This process develops and improves oral communication skills, as a necessity to make effective contribution to a dialogue.

ACTIVITY
Choose a topic of Discussion/Debate
Develop a set of instructions for conducting it
Try out a 20 minutes discussion/debate
Write your reflection on how it went:

3.4 CRITICAL QUESTION-ANSWER FORUMS

Articles on the subject of classroom questioning often begin by invoking Socrates. Researchers and other writers concerned with questioning techniques seem to want to remind us that questioning has a long and venerable history as an educational strategy. And indeed, the Socratic method of using questions and answers to challenge assumptions, expose contradictions, and lead to new knowledge and wisdom is an undeniably powerful teaching approach.

In addition to its long history and demonstrated effectiveness, questioning is also of interest to researchers and practitioners because of its widespread use as a contemporary teaching technique. Research indicates that questioning is second only to lecturing in popularity as a teaching method and that classroom teachers spend anywhere from thirty-five to fifty percent of their instructional time conducting questioning sessions.

A question is any sentence which has an interrogative form or function. In classroom settings, teacher questions are defined as instructional cues or stimuli that convey to students the content elements to be learned and directions for what they are to do and how they are to do it.

The present review focuses on the relationship between teachers' classroom questioning behaviors and a variety of student outcomes, including achievement, retention, and level of student participation.

This means that certain other subtopics within the general area of questioning are excluded from the present analysis. It does not deal, for example, with the effects of textual questions or test questions, and it is only incidentally concerned with methods used to impart study skills, including questioning strategies, to students. Questioning plays a critical role in the way instructors structure the class environment, organize the content of the course and has deep implications in the way that students assimilate the information that is presented and discussed in class. Given that questioning can be a tremendously effective way to teach, and recognizing that teachers are willing to engage in the process of asking questions while instructing.

Numerous researches indicate that teachers largely have been asking the wrong questions. The focus has been primarily on questions regarding the specific information students possessed rather than questions to promote learning. The use of questioning skills is essential to systematic investigation in any subject area. In such an investigation
1)   one asks questions to identify the reason or reasons for the investigation
2)   questions are asked to direct the search for information and to synthesize what has been discovered
3)   The conclusions resulting from investigations are evaluated via questions.

However, using questions to assist students' investigations is not a very new technique in the schools. In the past, teachers primarily questioned students to ascertain whether or not they were learning the book content and to see if students were paying attention in class. Now the questions are two way and not just to strengthen the conceptual learning but also to critique the content.

This shift in emphasis from learning solely content to learning processes enables individuals to deal intelligently with their world and their lives. If students can analyze their lives and the lives of people around them while in the school setting, they will know effectively their reality when they are in everyday life situation, out of school as well. Education today aims at the creation of a rational being. A rational being does not merely possess an effective memory; he/she must be able to react to data. S/he must be able to think and s/he must be active in seeking an understanding to problems.

Questions should play a central role in the learning process. Because of this, teachers need to plan questions carefully. This doesn't mean script writing; that would negate creative teaching. However, it does mean we need to carefully plan the arising questions by thinking through all possible questions ahead of time; which would guide the learners toward further investigation and a deeper understanding of the concepts being stressed. If teachers and students utilize questions effectively, students will discover that the question is a very valuable learning tool. It is a device through which they can organize their thinking to achieve certain objectives. This type of knowledge creation is possible if students are given major roles in their learning process.

3.4.1 General Guidelines
First of all you need to have a clear understanding of the purpose of questions. These purposes are generally pursued in the context of classroom recitation, defined as a series of teacher and students' questions, each eliciting a response and sometimes multiple responses.

Purpose
There can be a whole range of purposes for asking and receiving questions in a class. The following are some that emerge from analysis of the literature, including:
* To develop interest and motivate students to become actively involved in lessons
* To evaluate students' preparation and check on homework or seatwork completion
* To develop critical thinking skills and inquiring attitudes
* To review and relate previous knowledge
* To raise insights by exposing new relationships of facts, concepts and constructs
* To assess achievement of instructional goals and objectives
* To stimulate students to pursue knowledge on their own

Principles

Although it is essential that teachers ask questions that bring out the educational goals they are seeking, there is more to good questioning technique than simply asking and leading the useful questions. The principles of questioning developed by Richard L. Loughlin provide an excellent set of guidelines for the teachers who wish to use questioning techniques:

1. Distribute contents to class so that all, including non-volunteers, are involved.
2. Balance factual and thought-provoking questions.
3. Ask and receive both simple and exacting questions, so that the poorer students may participate and the brighter students may be extended.
4. Encourage detailed responses and answers.
5. Stimulate critical thinking by asking tag questions: To what extent? How? Under what circumstances? Why?
6. Avoid: "Does anyone know...?" and "Who can tell us...?"
7. Allow time for thought. Wait until five or six want to speak.

A teacher needs to be a moderator of time, exact phrasing and coherent thinking. A question posed by a student, might need to be rephrased for clarity. Once you rephrase then ask the student again if this is what s/he was asking or not.

Techniques

1. Phrasing and re-phrasing; teacher communicates the question so that all students understand the response expectation.
2. Adaptation; teacher adapts the question being asked to fit the language and ability level of the students.
3. Sequencing; teacher arranges the questions in a patterned order indicating a purposeful questioning strategy without losing any question.
4. Balance; teacher asks both convergent and divergent questions and balances the time between the two types. The teacher uses questions at an appropriate level or levels to achieve the objectives of the lesson.
5. Participation; teacher asks and receives questions to stimulate a wide range of student participation, encouraging responses from volunteering and non-volunteering students, redirects initially asked questions to other students.
6. Probing; teacher probes initial student answers, and encourages students to complete, clarify, expand or support their answers.
7. Wait Time (Think Time); teacher pauses three to five seconds after asking a question to allow students time to think. The teacher also pauses after students' initial responses to questions in class.

The most important aspect of the last technique as given by Mary Bud Rowe in 1972 is the positive outcomes associated with "wait time". Rowe's research indicated that when

teacher phrased or rephrased a student question if it was followed by at least three seconds of undisturbed silent time for students to formulate responses, the students answered the question more meaningfully. Other researchers found that regular use of "wait time" has positive impacts on both students and teacher attitude and behaviors as well.

3.4.2 Taxonomy of Question Types

Multiple approaches to classifying questions exist in the education literature. The taxonomy presented below is based on the research of William W. Wilen, and informed by the work of Angelo V. Ciardiello, both of whom have published extensively on best practices in questioning skills. Wilen's simplified classification system is based on the taxonomy presented by Gallagher and Aschner's research and takes into account the Bloom's taxonomy. The taxonomy below presents separates questions into four quadrants with paired criteria: Questions can be either high or low order, and can be either convergent or divergent in their design.

Low order questions	High order questions
What color is the lion in that picture?	Why do you suppose the lion is that color?
These questions check a student's ability to recognize color and identify the color. There is a very narrow range of possible answers (tan, light yellow, fawn)	This question allows the student to recognize and identify color, but then asks the student to consider the relationship of the lion's color to other things (its environment, other lions, other species of animal, its place on the food chain)
Convergent	**Divergent**
What other animals can you think of that use color as camouflage?	Suppose the lion had been born with a much darker colored coat, what do you predict would happen to that lion in the wild?
This question checks a student's ability to identify what role camouflage and animal coloration play in nature and suggest other examples. (The responses are fairly easily anticipated and require that students recall other examples of animals they have seen or studied).	This question allows the student to consider a scenario, use knowledge regarding camouflage, coat coloration and the environment the animal lives in to create an original answer that is logical and correct.

A low order question is one that requires the student to simply recall a single fact, while a high order question asks the students to recall facts but to show that they comprehend the

topic, situation or solution to a stated problem. A high order question will require that a student understand the relationship between a fact and piece of knowledge within the greater context of the situation. The descriptor convergent refers to the limits placed on the response to a given question. A convergent question by its nature has a more narrowly defined correct answer – the answer is generally short, requires little reflection and requires that the responded recall from memory a bit of factual information. Convergent questions may also be referred to as "closed-ended" questions, meaning that the instructor is looking for an anticipated response that requires little original thought on the student's part. Convergent questions will not require students to put original thought to the development of an answer. In other words, the answer will have been provided within the context of the lecture or readings assigned by the instructor. A divergent question on the other hand, is open-ended by nature. To respond to a divergent question, a student must be able to recall some information from memory, but must apply that knowledge and other knowledge to explain, extrapolate or further analyze a topic, situation or problem. Divergent questions are broader in nature, can have multiple answers, and require then a higher level of thinking on behalf of the student.

Activity

Discuss the Bloom's Taxonomy with fellow teachers and then write down at least three convergent and three divergent questions in each category; specify the level in the space given:
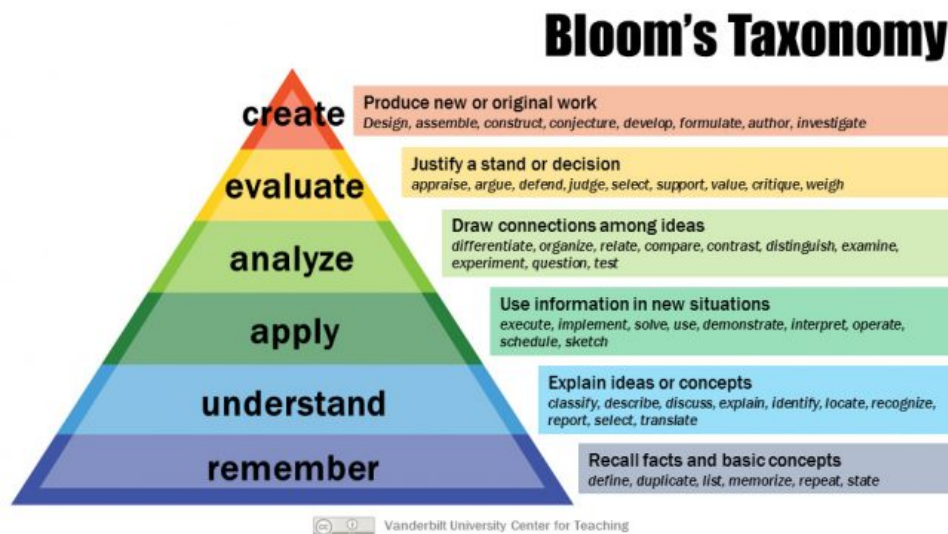
Convergent	High or Low	Level in Blooms Taxonomy
Divergent		

3.5   CLASSROOM ASSESSMENT TECHNIQUES

In critical thinking paradigm Classroom Assessment Techniques are generally simple, non-graded, anonymous, in-class activities designed to give you and your students useful feedback on the teaching-learning process as it is happening. Generally, assessment of student learning refers to a process that is intended to provide the educator with information about a student's progress toward meeting course objectives. **Formative assessment** of student learning occurs during the learning process. **Summative assessment** occurs at the end of the learning process. **Classroom assessment** is a formative strategy that one can use to determine if students are mastering the content and/or if modifications should be made to teaching strategies. It is completed in class (or online), is usually not graded, and is often anonymous and confidential. Only the learner and instructor share this information. It is to be reported formally to school administration and parent just when required or felt necessary by the teacher. This is more used for reflective purposes.

According to Angelo & Cross (1993), the key is to select assessment methods that are learner-centered, teacher directed, mutually beneficial to teachers and students, context-specific, and ongoing. Classroom assessment should be a regular activity in both face-to-face and online courses, as it offers students the opportunity to reflect on and engage in course content. It also allows instructors to determine quickly if instruction has been effective. Classroom Assessment Techniques are promising tools to assess students' learning throughout a course. Frequent opportunities for providing feedback give students insight into their own learning and current level of understanding.

Classroom Assessment Techniques respond directly to concerns about deeper and critical thinking, better learning and more effective teaching. Classroom Assessment Techniques, involves student and teachers in the continuous monitoring of students' learning. It provides teachers with feedback about their effectiveness as teachers, and it gives

students a measure of their progress as learners. Most important, because Classroom Assessments are created, administered, and analyzed by teachers themselves on questions of teaching and learning that are important to them, the likelihood that instructors will apply the results of the assessment to their own teaching is greatly enhances. Classroom Assessment is an approach designed to help teachers find out what students are learning in the classroom and how well they are learning it. This approach has the following characteristics:

- **Learner-Centered**

  Classroom Assessment Techniques focuses the primary attention of teachers and students on observing and improving learning, rather than on observing and improving teaching. Classroom Assessment can provide information to guide teachers and students in making adjustments to improve learning.

- **Teacher-Directed**

  Classroom Assessment Techniques respects the autonomy, academic freedom, and professional judgement of teachers. The individual teacher decides what to assess, how to assess, and how to respond to the information gained through the assessment. Also, the teacher is not obliged to share the result of Classroom Assessment with anyone outside the classroom.

- **Mutually Beneficial**

  Because it is focused on learning, Classroom Assessment Techniques requires the active participation of students. By cooperating in assessment, students reinforce their grasp of the course content and strengthen their own skills at self-assessment. Their motivation is increased when they realize that faculty are interested and invested in their success as learners.

- **Formative**

  Classroom Assessment Techniques are used to improve the quality of student learning, not to provide evidence for evaluating or grading students.

- **Context-Specific**

  CAT's have to respond to the particular needs and characteristics of the teachers, students, and disciplines to which they are applied. What works well in one class will not necessary work in another class.

- **Ongoing**

  Classroom Assessment is an ongoing process, best thought of as the creating and maintenance of a classroom "feedback loop." By using a number of simple Classroom Assessment Techniques that are quick and easy to use, teachers get feedback from students on their learning. Teachers then complete the loop by

providing students with feedback on the results of the assessment and suggestions for improving learning.

- **Rooted in Good Teaching Practice**

  CAT is an attempt to build on existing good practice by making feedback on students' learning more systematic, more flexible, and more effective. Teachers already ask questions, react to students' questions, monitor body language and facial expressions, read homework and tests, and so on. Classroom Assessment provides a way to integrate assessment systematically and seamlessly into the traditional classroom teaching and learning process

Classroom Assessment Techniques are based on seven assumptions:

1. The quality of student learning is directly, although not exclusively, related to the quality of teaching. Therefore, one of the most promising ways to improve learning is to improve teaching.
2. To improve their effectiveness, teachers need first to make their goals and objectives explicit and then to get specific, comprehensible feedback on the extent to which they are achieving those goals and objectives.
3. To improve their learning, students need to receive appropriate and focused feedback early and often; they also need to learn how to assess their own learning.
4. The type of assessment most likely to improve teaching and learning is that conducted by faculty to answer questions they themselves have formulated in response to issues or problems in their own teaching.
5. Systematic inquiry and intellectual challenge are powerful sources of motivation, growth, and renewal for teachers, and CAT can provide such challenge.
6. CAT does not require specialized training; it can be carried out by dedicated teachers from all disciplines.
7. By collaborating with colleagues and actively involving students in CAT teachers (and students) enhance learning and personal satisfaction.

Examples of CATs include the following.

- The Background Knowledge Probe is a short, simple questionnaire given to students at the start of a course, or before the introduction of a new unit, lesson or topic. It is designed to uncover students' pre-conceptions.
- The Minute Paper tests how students are gaining knowledge, or not. The instructor ends class by asking students to write a brief response to the following questions: "What was the most important thing you learned during this class?" and "What important question remains unanswered?"
- The Muddiest Point is one of the simplest CATs to help assess where students are having difficulties. The technique consists of asking students to jot down a quick response to one question

- CAT is useful in courses requiring problem-solving. After students figure out what type of problem they are dealing with, they often must decide what principle(s) to apply in order to solve the problem. This CAT provides students with a few problems and asks them to state the principle that best applies to each problem.
- Defining Features Matrix: Prepare a handout with a matrix of three columns and several rows. At the top of the first two columns, list two distinct concepts that have potentially confusing similarities (e.g. hurricanes vs. tornados, Picasso vs. Matisse). In the third column, list the important characteristics of both concepts in no particular order. Give your students the handout and have them use the matrix to identify which characteristics belong to each of the two concepts. Collect their responses, and you'll quickly find out which characteristics are giving your students the most trouble.

Why to use CAT
- CATs can be used to improve the teaching and learning that occurs in a class. More frequent use of CATs can…
- Provide just-in-time feedback about the teaching-learning process
- Provide information about student learning with less work than traditional assignments (tests, papers, etc.)
- Encourage the view that teaching is an ongoing process of inquiry, experimentation, and reflection
- Help students become better monitors of their own learning
- Help students feel less anonymous, even in large courses
- Provide concrete evidence that the instructor cares about learning

Results from CATs can guide teachers in fine-tuning their teaching strategies to better meet student needs. A good strategy for using CATs is the following.
1. Decide what you want to assess about your students' learning from a CAT.
2. Choose a CAT that provides this feedback, is consistent with your teaching style, and can be implemented easily in your class.
3. Explain the purpose of the activity to students, and then conduct it.
4. After class, review the results, determine what they tell you about your students' learning, and decide what changes to make, if any.
5. Let your students know what you learned from the CAT and how you will use this information.

3.5.1 Advantages of Using Classroom Assessment Techniques

CAT are formative in nature. Unlike final exams or major term papers, CATs provide faculty with feedback on student learning while the teaching/learning relationship is still intact, so that faculty can intervene during the semester (as opposed to the next semester) to help students learn more completely.

They are speedy. They often consume just a few minutes of classroom time to administer, and can be read easily and quickly by faculty. They are flexible. They can be tailored to the unique and specific concerns of the instructor. They can be anonymous for students (although they need not be). The aim of classroom assessment is not necessarily to grade individual student work or to provide individual students with feedback on their performance; rather, the aim is to provide the instructor with feedback on student learning. Anonymity may prove useful in freeing students to express not only what they do understand but also what they do not understand.

Classroom Assessment helps teachers to focus on student learning. By determining what students have learned and what is unclear, instructors can focus the class more effectively to meet the learning needs of that group. This may mean reviewing some areas, or spending less time in other areas. Unlike student evaluation surveys [summative evaluation] which are typically given at the end of the semester, Classroom Assessment provides an on-going formative evaluation. The instructor can find out what can be changed immediately to help students to learn.

Students may be hesitant to ask questions during class. Classroom Assessments give students opportunities to provide anonymous feedback to their instructor about their learning. Students often discover, as the instructor reviews the feedback, that others in the class had similar questions. Classroom assessment activities can themselves be positive learning activities for students; they can be developed both to promote (and not just measure) writing skills or critical thinking skills, and to increase student motivation to take themselves and their learning more seriously. In addition, students may become more involved in their learning when they find that others in the class learned some interesting things that they had not picked up from the class session. Through greater involvement, students are likely to become more self-directed learners, and may be more motivated to successfully complete the class.

3.5.2 Principles of using CAT
1.   Classroom Assessment Techniques may be used in any type of class. Some techniques are for use in small groups; some are designed to check students' immediate understanding; others are for application and critical thinking.
2.   Some faculty ask students to respond to a question at the end of every class meeting; some faculty integrate the assessments throughout each class meeting.

Others use Classroom Assessments at the most critical points in the course, e.g., before a major exam or project. Some use assessments to evaluate the effectiveness of class activities or tests. Still others have used Classroom Assessment to help students to evaluate their own learning progress.

3. The frequency and types of assessments used depend on the class, the teacher, and the reasons for assessing students' learning progress.

4. It is best to ask learner-centered questions. The learner centered questions will show clearly whether or not the teaching is effective. Questions should be asked only if you really want to know the answer and are willing to respond to the feedback to meet student needs.

Self Assessment Exercise		
Write down detailed description of classroom debate	Write down instructions for students	Write down your classroom assessment technique for this exercise
Ask your fellow teachers to comment on above: 1. 2. 3.		
Reflect upon your activity and others' comments		

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REFLECTIVE PRACTICE

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Reviewer: Dr. Afshan Huma

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

Critical thinking and reflective practice complement each other. Critical thinking on the one hand is used to describe the application of "... cognitive skills or strategies that increase the probability of a desirable outcome" and as a "purposeful, reasoned and goal directed - the kind of thinking involved in solving problems, formulating inferences, calculating likelihoods, and making decisions when the thinker is using these skills " (Halpern, 1996). Looking more closely at reflective practices, on the other hand, is a part of the process referring specifically to the processes of analyzing and making judgments about what has happened. It is an active, constant, and cautious consideration of knowledge, of the basis that support that knowledge, and the further practices to which it leads. Hence this unit will help the prospective teachers to relate *critical thinking* skills leading toward desirable outcomes and *reflective practices* that focuses on the process of making judgments about what has happened.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

After going through the unit you will be able to:
1.   understand the meanings of reflection.
2.   apply the meaning in the context of education.
3.   differentiate among the philosophies different philosophers.
4.   do the activity sheets and the self assessment work all by themselves.

4.1 REFLECTION

Reflection is a complex word with multiple meanings and shades in it. It has its purity in the subject of science when we define it as the act of reflecting of an image and casting back a light or heat. It is a word that we use in social science as well when we define it as the act of reflecting or the state of being reflected. It can also be used in fixing of the thoughts on something; careful consideration. (Miffin, 2005)

Reflection has rainbow of meanings. The context in which we will be considering it in our unit and the coming units is the impact and the personality qualities of the mentor, a teacher, a boss or a leader on its followers and under command people. The reflection of the leader is extremely important. It creates the culture in an organization or in an institution. If the leader is unable to reflect him/herself, then there is an ample chance of departmental culture instead of one unit culture. So reflection has an important role to play in an organization for the purpose of effective coordination, as the departmental culture is against the unity and integration of an organization. Such culture only brings nothing, but chaos.

Reflective practices are variously defined in versatile ways by different authors and researchers. **Reflective practice** is the ability to reflect on action in order to keep the learning process in cycle. (Schon, 1983). After analysing and evaluating, we develop the theoretical aspects in practice. This practice is being done for the better future. Such process is known as Reflection. (Reid.B, 1993) Reflection is more than merely thinking or musing. Reflection is a not simple, but complex in nature. It is planned and brainy activity that flourishes learning from experience. (Dewey, 1933)

4.1.1 Importance of Reflection in Different Fields: Starting from the home. A happy mother, brought up happy children, a less confident mother brought up fearful and cowardly children, a sad poet writes sad compositions, a sad artist uses gloomy colours, dark scenes, negative paintings, a depressive textile designer design cloths that are dull in colours and a happy, satisfied and positive textile designer uses bright and catchy colours. A satisfied, contended, and cheerful head of the organization in high spirit keep the subordinating staff motivated and in high spirit. No matter where you are; knowingly or unknowingly, intentionally or unintentionally you create and develop a culture and leave your shade and reflection on the employee, students and subordinating staff. Your feeling affect the action and actions show the reflection.
In short, whatever you will feel you will express in your practice.

4.1.2 Importance of Reflection in Education:
Although development of reflection in the students is a difficult and complicated process but it's so important that it is said that actual "learning" cannot occur without reflection (Clements, 2009).

> *Thinking Time*
> *How a sad, unsatisfied and depressive teacher reflect on his students?*
> *Discuss in groups and present*

It is our experience in daily life that students forget the curriculum contents very soon. It is not that they forget it, but the fact is that they memorized it for a very short period of time. The teacher covered the contents and students memorized it, most probably to appear in the examination. We must not accuse children for this forgetfulness. They in fact did not learn it. It went into the short term memory and ones the need of it was over; it vanished. Reflection is the transfer of learning from short term to long term memory. (Clements, 2009)

4.2 THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES AND MODELS OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT

4.2.1 John Dewey:

"We don't learn from experience. We learn from reflecting on experience." (John Dewey)

Introduction: John Dewey, (October 20, 1859 – June 1, 1952) was an American philosopher, psychologist, Georgist, and educational reformer whose ideas have been influential in education and social reform. Dewey is one of the key figures related with the philosophy of pragmatism and is considered one of the founders of functional psychology. He is also considered one of the pioneers in the reflective teaching and reflective practices.

Before you move forward:

Be clear about the terms like; Psychologist, Philosopher, pragmatism, Georgist and Reformer.

There is an established fact that experience, reflection and learning are correlated or at least have deep inter-related roots. We can find the work of John Dewey particularly helpful in defining and describing the relationships among them. As a teacher we expect our students to learn. We especially expect them to learn the knowledge within their respective disciplines. For permanent learning, reflection on course readings and field experiences is essential. John Dewey has defined what experiences are educative, how learning proceeds, and what role reflection plays in learning.

Learning is cumulative and continuous process according to Dewey (1933) because an individual gets experience when he/she interacts with the environment. Experience has variety in it. It can be reading a book, interacting with the environment, taking lecture, travelling from one place to another. It may also include physical participation or silent observation of the activities. Secondly, an experience is continuity, a continuous flow of knowledge from previous experiences. Prior learning becomes the fodder for further understanding and insight.

Stop here for refreshment
- Learning is cumulative and continuous process.
- Experience can be any physical movement, travelling, reading book, any mental activity; observation, recalling and remembering.
- Prior learning becomes the fodder for further understanding and insight.

John Dewey on Reflection: What contribute to learning is not confined to imagination, belief, and stream of consciousness. They are certainly part of our thinking activities, but play too less a part in lifelong learning. In the context of learning; reflection plays a different role. Dewey defines reflection as the

> " …active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed
> form of knowledge in the light of the grounds that support it and the further
> conclusions to which   it tends (Dewey, How We Think, 1933)."

According to John Dewey "The increased, enhanced and accelerated power of control is reflection. Although reflection starts with uneasiness, distress and anxiety but ultimately leads a person to balanced state. The reflective thought and process basically transforms the doubt into clarity, inconsistency into consistency and unpleasant experiences into the pleasant experiences. No doubt that it takes time to enable the thoughts to reach at the required balanced level.   (Dewey, How We Think, 1933).

The reflective thought process takes time because it emerges in phases.
1.   The first stage is known as "Perplexity", it starts when an individual responds to suggestion and ideas that he/she confronts with a problem.
2.   "Elaboration" is the second stage. Soon after confronting problem the individual recalls the previous experiences, its pros and corns, negative and positive effects.
3.   In the light of the elaboration, the person sets the "Hypotheses". What happened why and how and what best choice was at that time.
4.   When a person come across with the same experience or same to some extent he then, compares the existing problem and its hypotheses with the previously learnt experience and its hypotheses. This stage of "Comparing Hypotheses" enables him to come to some better conclusion.
5.   After carefully examining all the hypotheses, he is now ready for the final   stage "Taking Action". This action is now a well thought of and based on reflective thinking process.

It is not enough just to have an experience. Reflection directs that experience to learning and deeper insights … Dewey affirms that these are not the rigid steps, but are the aspects of reflective activity. A person may go back and forth for more experience.

In fact, to Dewey, reflective thinking fosters the development of three attitudes that further the "habit of thinking in a reflective way." These three attitudes are:
•   Open mindedness (freedom from prejudice)
•   Wholeheartedness or absorbed interest
•   Responsibility in facing consequences

These dispositions are the foundation for education that give people "a personal interest in social relationships and control and the habits of mind that secures social changes without introducing disorder." (Dewey, Democracy and Education, 1944)

If we go through the above mentioned paragraph again and take its deep and comprehensive aspect, we would come to know that perhaps the whole paragraph is the aim of education in life. So we can now easily say that reflective thinking and reflective process is closely linked with the aims and goals of education. A teacher with freedom from prejudice, will treat the children equally and with wholeheartedness. Only by doing so the profession of teaching will certainly raise the required human resource for the country and responsibilities in facing the consequences will let him improve his methods and dealing with the students.

> ### Thinking Time
> What are the other benefits of open mindedness, wholeheartedness and responsibility in facing consequences for the teachers?

If we consider the benefits of the stages of reflective thinking, which are perplexity, elaboration, hypotheses, comparing hypotheses and action we can say with any doubt that they will provide a guideline to the teachers and provide them with an opportunity to improve themselves professionally with going back and forth for any action. Each action of the teacher is linked with the future of an individual and ultimately with the future of the country. So it is strongly advisable to the teachers to go back and forth. Each action must be taken after well thought off process - **Reflective Thinking Process.**

4.2.1.1 Some Methods of Reflection for the Teachers

Reflective teaching is therefore a means of professional development which begins in our classroom. It starts when we start asking ourselves the questions like, why it is important, how it can be taught better, what the children are perceiving through the applied method, how can I do it in a better way etc.

> ### Reflection Time
> What question do teachers ask themselves while planning a lesson and at the time of the evaluation of the lesson.

Some of the methods of reflection that can be used by our teachers are:
a. **Teachers' Diary:** If they are writing the diary in advance they might ask questions like:
    1. How am I going to teach the lesson?
    2. What objectives am I going to attain at the end of the lesson?
    3. What is more important aspect that should be given more and quality time?
    4. What concepts am I going to clear during the lesson?

b. **Invite a Colleague:** Teacher may invite a colleague for the feedback on the teaching. A colleague may be asked to observe the impact of the teaching method and technique on the students, the responses of the student, how the shift time was utilized? etc.

> ***Stop here!***
> What is shift time?
> It is moving from one activity to another. Share some examples.

c. **Recording Lessons:** If you are shy or you do not feel comfortable with the presence of the teacher/ colleague, you can record the lesson and can see it over and over again for your own improvement and better teaching - better reflection on your students.

> ***Light Discussion***
> Do you think music had helped him in the development of the learning theory and practices?

4.2.2 D. A. Schön (1930-1997)

A philosopher who was concerned with the development of reflective practices from all aspect of an individual's personal , professional and social life was a pianist and clarinetist – playing in both jazz and chamber groups. (M.K.Smith, 2005).

According to Schon "Professional knowledge and expertise is developed through reflective practices". Schon was basically interested in knowing as to when and how the professionals use reflection for professional development. Schon's work was based on the proximal development of theory and practice of reflection.

Schon was a trainer of the trainers. So his most of the work was for the educators who educate/ train the educators. The basis of his work is "Espoused Theory". This is basically the mind behaviour model of an individual. What an individual thinks. What he does is known as "Theory in Use". If we ask a teacher as to how she deals with the failure students?. She will say that we do the counseling and give special attention to that particular child. In practice she calls the parents and suggest them for the extra coaching of the child. The first one is the "Espoused Theory" and the later on is "Theory in Use". Similarly some theories do make sense in the textbooks but when applied they are not effective and as useful as claimed by the theorist. Schon work is based for the newly professionals to let them know as to how the experts use "Theory in Use" in real life practices. In this regard his work is on reflection in-action and reflection on-action. Professionals reflect while they are engaged in an experience (reflection-in-action) and after an experience (reflection-on-action). In this practice of reflection, the young

professionals who are inexperienced, develop the "Theory in Use" that underlie competence, knowledge, decision making skills and above all initiative practices.

Dewey described "aspects" of reflection. Kolb described "phases." Schön divided reflection into two parts: reflection "in" and "on" action. All include experience followed by reflection and the generation of hypotheses or experimental conclusions that are applied to further experience. For each, learning from experience requires shuttling back and forth from observations, to examination and reflection on those observations, and then acting on those conclusions. The more people reflect on action, the better they get at reflecting and the more they can learn about themselves…

4.2.3 David A. Kolb:
David A. Kolb (1939) was an American professor and educationalist who has the specialization in experiential learning, individual and social change, career development and executive and professional education. **David Kolb** was also the founder and chairman of 'Experience Based Learning Systems.

David Kolb bases his four stages of learning on two major opposite dimensions, namely 'Concrete versus Abstract' and 'Active versus Reflective'. In practice, it appears that adults (as opposed to children) depending on experience and stage of life, first need to unlearn things before they can learn something new. Sometimes people need to come to terms with (undesired) experiences before they are open to new views.

Within the dimensions, Kolb's experiential learning theory is based on a stage theoretical model. Following is the graphical presentation of his model of learning.
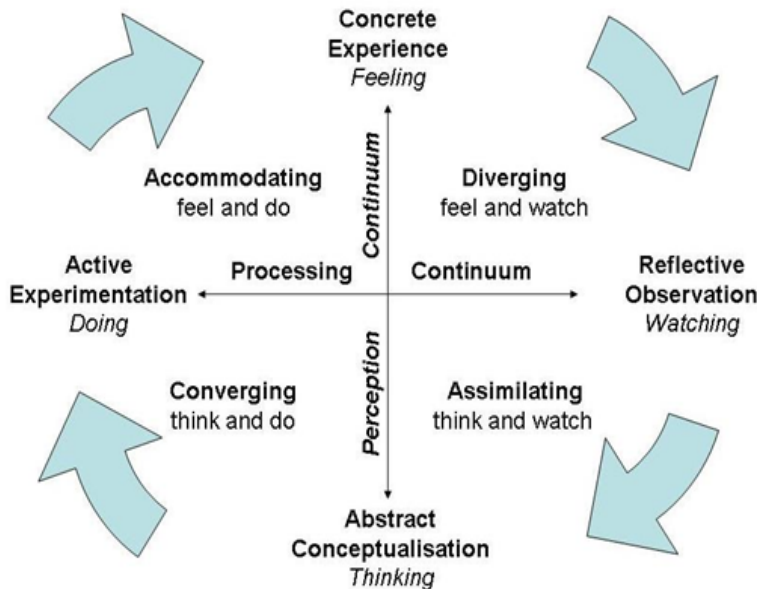
David Kolb distinguishes four learning behaviours with four **learning styles**:

Doers

Doers displays a combination of active experimentation and concrete experience. Doers prefer situations in which they can set to work as quickly as possible and they learn best when there is room for gaining immediate experience by doing things. Doers are open to new learning opportunities, good at solving problems and they are challenged by taking on unfamiliar tasks.

Reflectors

Reflectors have a preference for concrete experience and reflective observation. Reflectors like to think about something first and they are great at lateral problem-solving. They want to consider all possible angles and implications of a problem and they never fail to see new approaches and solutions. They are dreamers that do not wish to be hurried and they want to take time before making a decision.

Thinkers

Thinkers combine reflexive observation with abstract conceptualization. They like turning their observations into coherent hypotheses and theories. They do well at verbal reasoning and they prefer to work independently. They learn best in structured learning situations with clear goals, theories and models. They would like to be able to ask questions and discuss topics.

Deciders

Deciders have a preference for abstract conceptualization and active experimentation. Deciders like trying out theories in practice. They often take the initiative, are problem-solvers and they make decisions. They learn best by clear and briefly formulated rules and principles they can immediately implement in practice. They are practical people that do not like wasting time.

Four stages of the learning cycle

Kolb's four stages of learning is a cyclical process in which people must work through each of the four stages. This does not necessarily have to be from the same starting point, but preferably in the same order. According to David Kolb the learning process becomes easier by going through the four stages of learning despite people's preference for a certain stage.

Relationship

Until recently, many training courses focused on the assimilation learning style; reflection and theory building. People were taught how certain things interrelate and how they can be considered in a theoretical framework. Often, little attention was paid to the accommodating learning style (experimentation and experiencing). By doing something, people gain experience (doer). Then people look back on what happened (reflector). Subsequently, people establish links between these reflections and observations and they create a theory (thinker). Finally, people think how things can (still) be improved and they will try and implement this in practice (decider). All round learners are often proficient in all of the four learning styles. (Van Vliet, 2013).

Educational Implications

Both Kolb's (1984) learning stages and cycle could be used by teachers to critically evaluate the learning provision typically available to students, and to develop more appropriate learning opportunities.

Educators should ensure that activities are designed and carried out in ways that offer each learner the chance to engage in the manner that suits them best. Also, individuals can be helped to learn more effectively by the identification of their lesser preferred learning styles and the strengthening of these through the application of the experiential learning cycle.

Ideally, activities and material should be developed in ways that draw on abilities from each stage of the experiential learning cycle and take the students through the whole process in sequence. (McLeod, 2013)

```
ACTIVITY
Contrast and Compare the Three Theorists Above With Respect To Your Understanding
of Reflection and Reflective Perspective
1.

2.

3.
```
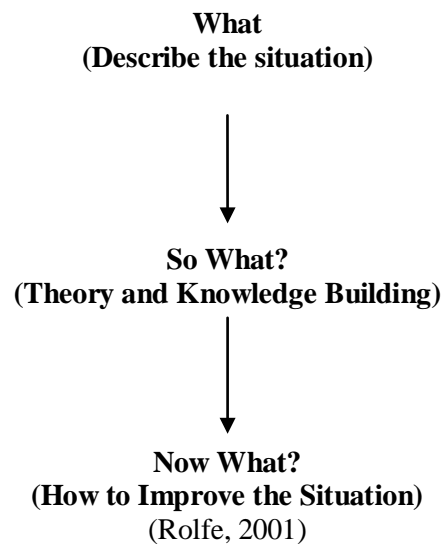
4.3 REFLECTIVE MODELS OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT
4.3.1 Rolfe's Model of Professional Development

What
(Describe the situation)

↓

So What?
(Theory and Knowledge Building)

↓

Now What?
(How to Improve the Situation)
(Rolfe, 2001)

Explanation of the Model: The first step in the model is the action that has been taken in a particular situation. After the taking the action, comes the second stage - So what? Now the situation and the action will be reviewed in the light of the theory and literature available. The last stage is the most important stage not only for the action taken, but also for the actions to be taken. This stage will bring improvement in the process of decision taking and in the action as well. This model is loosely based on SWOT Analysis.

It basically tells us the following in simple words.
- What worked well?
- Why?
- What did not work well?
- Why not?
- What will I do the same next time?
- What will I do differently next time?

4.3.2 Peter's Four Step Data Model
Peters (1991, pp. 91-95) describes a process called DATA that consists of four steps:
- Describe
- Analyze
- Theorize
- Act

First, the problem, task, or incident that the tutor desires to change is described. The tutor identifies the context in which current practice takes place and the reasons for changing it.
Next, through analysis, factors that contribute to current practice are identified. An important part of this stage is to identify the assumptions, underlying beliefs, rules, and motives governing teaching and learning.

The third step of the DATA process involves theorising about alternative ways of approaching teaching by taking the theory derived from the previous step and developing it into a new one.
Finally, the tutor will try out the new theory. (Peter, 1991)

4.3.3 Brookfield 4 Critical Lenses Model
Brookfield (1995) suggests that we employ four "critical lenses" through which to view and reflect upon our practice. These are:
- our own view (which he refers to as *autobiography*);
- that of our students;
- that of our fellow professionals;
- and the various theoretical perspectives propounded in educational literature.

Despite the fact that teachers' personal experience runs the risk of being dismissed as "merely anecdotal", Brookfield, whilst conceding that "all experience is inherently idiosyncratic", asserts that our autobiographies are "one of the most important sources of insight into teaching to which we have access." (Brookfield 1995)

Examining our own experiences as learners as well as teachers helps us "to uncover our most deeply embedded allegiances and motivations as teachers." (Brookfield 1995)

However, in considering any particular learning experience, tutors should not merely be asking what "worked well" for themselves (often constrained to considerations of classroom and lesson management) but should also be asking whether or not the learning experience was a profitable one for their students (with regard to achievement of learning outcomes). Additionally, tutors should consider whether the learning experience was inclusive and motivational.

"This is why, in my opinion, the most fundamental meta criterion for judging whether or not good teaching is happening is the extent to which teachers deliberately and systematically try to get inside students' heads and see classrooms and learning from their point of view." (Brookfield, 1995)

Talking to colleagues about what happens in our classroom (all too rare an occurrence) may help to throw new light on our experiences; not necessarily because it provides a solution but because it may help us to realise that what we thought were our own idiosyncratic failings are in fact shared by others who work in similar settings.

Similarly, "Studying theory can help us realise that what we thought were signs of our personal failings as teachers can actually be interpreted as the inevitable consequences of certain economic, social and political processes." (Brookfield, 1995)

4.4   ACTION AND REFLECTION
The link between action, reflection and change within this style of learning can be well understood through the figure below. There are four stages of the cycle of reflection:
- The initial or new experience
- Reflection and observation
- Development of a new concept
- Experimentation.

In the given figure, the initial   experience is the first action, then the action is observed for the purpose of development and improvement in the initial experience. The new learnt experience is then experimented - means applied in the same type of situation. (Language and Learning Online, 2007)

"Reflection on action is the retrospective contemplation of practice in order to uncover the knowledge used in a particular situation, by analysing and interpreting the information recalled. The reflective practitioner may speculate how the situation might have been handled differently and what other knowledge would have been helpful." (Bulman, 2000)

Dewey (1933) asserts that reflection is the foundation which helps in developing the capacity for open-mindedness, wholeheartedness, and responsibility. Schön's model (1987) leads the professional to becoming an expert. Kolb's (1984) theory shows how important it is to assess our basic beliefs that may blind us to new knowledge.

The Action-Reflection-Action Cycle Reflection occurs in a cycle of action, reflection, and action. Dewey, Kolb, and Schön included reflection in at least one step in their theories on learning from experience. For all three, reflection is not isolated from experience; it is part of a cycle of learning and experiencing. Dewey described "aspects" of reflection. Kolb described "phases." Schön divided reflection into two parts: reflection "in" and "on" action. All included experience which is followed by reflection and the generation of hypotheses or experimental conclusions that are applied to further experience. For each, learning from experience requires shuttling back and forth from observations, to examination and reflection on those observations, and then acting on those conclusions. The more people reflect on action, the better they get at reflecting and the more they can learn about themselves.

To be reflective in the instruction, reflective practitioners ask questions routinely and deliberately to themselves and then use their answers to guide and change their instructional practices. So reflective practices are the basics of advancement in personal and professional life.

Models of Reflective Practices further elaborate the process and practices that are desired in an educational institution for the professional development of an individual as well as of the institutions.

Activity Sheet

How a sad mother reflects on her children?

_____

_____

_____

What type of poetry do the poet with disturbed life write? Give example from the poetry.

_____

_____

_____

_____

How a teacher leaves his/her effect on teacher?

Happy teacher: _____

_____

A Strict Teacher:_____

_____

An Angry Teacher:_____

_____

Which teacher leaves the most favourable effect and why do you think so?

_____

Activity Sheet

Explain the following. What is their relationship with education?.

Psychologist:_____

_____

_____

Philosopher: _____

_____

_____

Pragmatism: _____

_____

_____

Georgist:_____

_____

_____

Reformer:_____

_____

_____

Thinking Time Activity

Some benefits of open mindedness, wholeheartedness and responsibility are written in the text. What are the other benefits in facing consequences for the teachers?

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Discuss in Group and Write

Do you think music had helped D. A. Schon in the development of the learning theory and practices?

_____

_____

_____

_____

SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. Explain the meaning of reflection and its importance in education.
2. "We don't learn from experience. We learn from reflecting on experience."Explain John Dewey's concept of reflection in the light of his quote.
3. What are the differences in the concept of reflection of Donald A. Schon, John Dewey and David A. Kolb? Which one is more applicable in Pakistan and why?
4. Explain the models of Professional Development and develop your own model of professional development.
5. Who presented the concept of reflection by using the words like open mindedness, whole heartedness and responsibility in facing the consequences? How the learning of them can they be helpful for the perspective teachers?
6. David Kolb distinguishes four learning behaviours with four learning styles. Explain them in detail.

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4.6 ADDITIONAL READINGS

- http://docs.lib.purdue.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=1390&context=eandc
- http://sci-hub.bz/

  go to the above mentioned second link.

  copy and paste the complete link given below and then click open. The research paper will be available for reading.

  You can open any research paper through this process.

  http://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/doi/10.1111/j.1467-6486.2009.00859.x/abstract?systsciemMessage=Wiley+Online+Library+will+be+unavailable+on+Saturday+26th+November+2016+from+07:00-11:00+GMT+/+02:00-06:00+EST+/+15:00-19:00+SGT+for+essential+maintenance.++Apologies+for+the+inconvenience.

Unit 5

REFLECTIVE CYCLE

Written by: Saima Afzal
Reviewed by: Dr. Afshan Huma

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

Three purposes of reflection as found in literature are-first to re-think our own understanding of professional knowledge; second to develop personal knowledge and third to evaluate the appropriateness of our actions. Hence reflection becomes a process that invites the practitioner to become a thinker first and use reflection as a bridge from tacit knowledge to conscious efforts of enhance the quality of action . Reflection also becomes the source of increased accountability and to enable us to question established professional knowledge by our predecessors in the field. As teachers unless we learn to engage in critical reflection and ongoing discovery, we shall remain trapped in the status quo, predetermined interpretations, assumptions and expectations. Gibbs' reflective cycle is a theoretical model that is extensively used by teachers and students as a framework wherever they require reflective writing.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

At the end of this unit the prospective you will be able to:
1.   work and practice according to the Gibb's Reflective Cycle
2.   use the six stages of this cycle effectively to manage their own reflective practices for the purpose of teaching and learning

5.1   GIBB'S REFLECTIVE CYCLE

Gibbs' reflective cycle is found very useful in making people think through all the phases of an experience or activity. Professor Graham Gibbs published his Reflective Cycle in his book titled "Learning by Doing"(1988). It is a guide book for the teachers for teaching methods and techniques. The reflective learning cycle presented in the book models how learners can link theory and practice through engaging in a cyclical sequence of activities named as: describing, feeling, evaluating, analysing, concluding and action planning. This model known as the Gibbs' Cycle has been particularly influential in teacher education programs. Generally speaking the Gibb's Cycle has its basic utility and benefit is for the people who learn from different situations from which they go through, most probably when they are unable to go about with their plans. Hence the reflective practitioners tend to follow similar patterns of reflection and reflective writing (Reflective Cycle, 2015).

Thinking Time
How will you explain first paragraph with the help of your knowledge through previous unit?
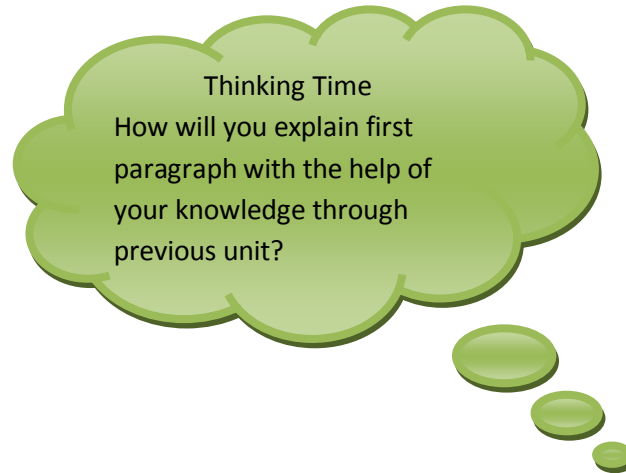
WRITE HERE:

Gibbs' (1988) reflective cycle includes six phases of reflection and is presented below.
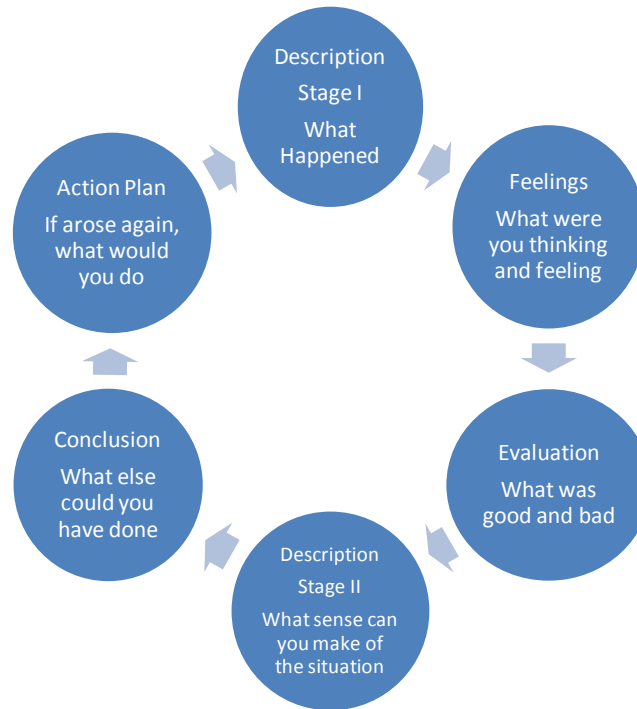
Gibb's Cycle of Reflective Cycle (Reflective Cycle, 2015)

To Understand the cycle it is important to ensure that you learn about each section; for example each section should limit you to write and think only about one aspect at a time and nothing more.

Description: briefly describe the event; this should be one of the smallest sections of your reflection. Include important details to indicate what happened; such as the reason for your involvement, what you did and who was there and what they did (if appropriate). Whilst it is important that you include information that is necessary to make sense of the event, the key point here is on keeping it brief.

Feelings: give you the opportunity to explore any thoughts or feelings that you were having at the time of the event in isolation from the other components. In order to achieve this, it is important that you do not include any further description and do not try to evaluate them. An important component in this section is that you expand to tell how the thoughts and feelings that you were having have impacted on the event.

Evaluation: The evaluation section gives you the opportunity to explore what was good about the event and what did not go well. It is important that you try to consider both the good and the bad, even if the incident seemed totally negative or positive.

Please note, that the previous components of this cycle all concern what happened, the components that follow relate to making sense of the incident and how you could improve on the situation if it happened again.

Description Stage II: is where you make sense of the event and should be the largest section of your reflection. It is useful to take all the issues that you have highlighted previously in the reflection and consider them separately. It is important in this section that you consult relevant academic literature to help you make sense of the incident

Conclusion: includes being honest about your contribution and feelings; you bring them all together so that you can sensibly conclude from examining the incident and consulting the relevant literature, how what you did led up to the incident. From this, you should be able to make a logical alternative about how you can overcome such situations.

Action plan: is where taking into account the previous elements of the cycle, you suggest a plan for if this event (or similar) were to happen again. What would you do differently or keep the same? This is the final section of the cycle and the end of this particular reflection.

Gibbs' (1998) reflective cycle guides us through six stages of reflection which can be better understood with this chart given below: 1. **Description: what happened**	What, where and when? Who did/said what, what did you do/read/see hear? In what order did things happen? What were the circumstances? What were you responsible for?
2. **Feelings: what were you thinking about?**	What was your initial gut reaction, and what does this tell you? Did your feelings change? What were you thinking?
3. **Evaluation: what was good or bad about the experience?**	What pleased, interested or was important to you? What made you unhappy? What difficulties were there? Who/what was unhelpful? Why? What needs improvement?
4. **Stage II Description: what sense can you make of the situation?**	Compare theory and practice. What similarities or differences are there between this experience and other experiences? Think about what actually happened. What choices did you make and what effect did they have?
5. **Conclusion: what else could you have done?**	What have you learnt for the future? What else could you have done?
6. **Action Plan: what will you do next time?**	If a similar situation arose again, what would you do?

Source: (Learning for Skills, 2015)

Now let's practice

5.1.1 Description (Stage I): This is the first step of reflection. Remember that everyone reflects in different ways, styles and means. According to Gibbs first of all you need to explain what you are reflecting on to. You may include background information, such as

what it is you're reflecting on and tell explicitly who, what, where, questions. It's important to remember to keep the information provided relevant and to-the-point. Do not drivel on about details that aren't required in the description such as guessing the causes, and consequences. Keep the description as simple as possible.

Now let's practice this. Think of what made you happy, excited, or disturbed during a school day. This can be an event that happened in the school last week, or even today. If you think you don't have anything to write about then wait for a couple of days until you find something really interesting to write about during the day. Make use of the following questions while writing your first stage description:

1.   When did this happen?

2.   Where did it happen?

3.   Why were you there?

4.   Who else was there?

5.   What happened?

6.   What did you do?

7.   What did others do?

8.   What was the result?

5.1.2 Feelings:

You are bound to have feelings about what happened. You may have felt anxious, especially if what happened was new to you. The important thing is to show how you managed to do what was expected of you despite your anxiety. Try to describe/explain your feelings. Whenever we are involved in particular situation, after narrating it the next step is to ask ourselves about the feeling. This particular stage is the analytical stage in the Bloom's Taxonomy. This will help in the development of cognitive abilities, communication skills and expression of thoughts. This also brings the inside out.

Recalling Time
Recall the Previous event and discuss with a close friend before writing.
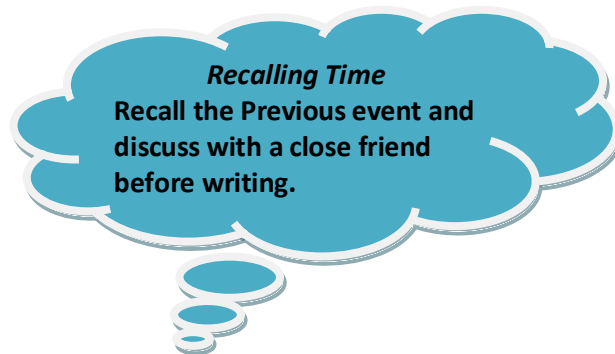
Let's practice how to write our feelings

1.   What were your initial feelings when the incident happened?

2.   Did your feelings change during the event?

3.   Did your feelings affect the situation?

4.   What are your feelings now as you are thinking back?

5.1.3 Evaluation:

The third and the higher level job for the you now is to evaluate. What was good? and what was bad? –these are two umbrella questions. It all depends what you count as good and what as bad. Your values, ideological background, context and the environment as well as situation influences your evaluative judgments. For a conscious effort to evaluate an incident practice to answer the following questions:

Recalling Time
Recap your feelings and discuss with a close friend before writing.
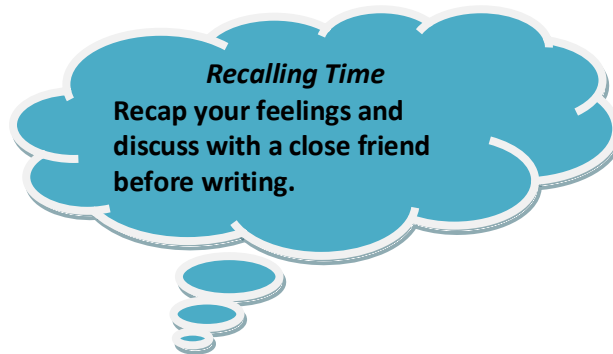
1.   What do you think went well in the situation?

2.   Did you learn anything useful as a result of what went on?

3.   Did anything give you cause for concern – either in what others did or what you did?

4.   Was there something which you would not wish to experience again?

5.1.4 Description (Stage II): This stage is more of synthesis of the above three stages and in the light of knowledge. Here it is suggested that you may re-write the description of the event but this time you may make use of your knowledge regarding this. You have

the knowledge of child psychology, you have the knowledge of teachers professional development, you have the knowledge of school management and supervision; etc. Using the specific knowledge you now need to re-write the whole description.

Recalling Time
Collect your tacit as well as explicit knowledge. You may consult books or talk to an expert before writing.
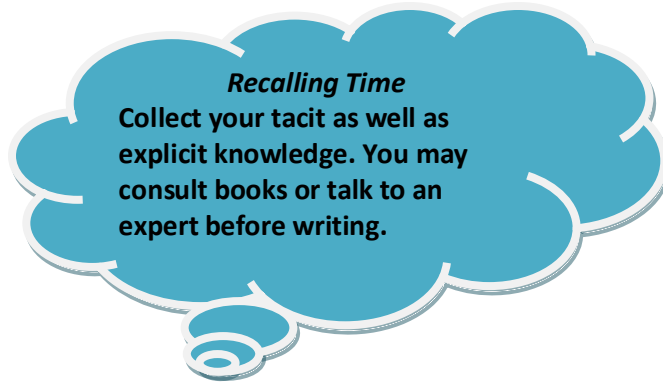
WRTIE HERE AND GIVE REFERNCE OF WHICH KNOWLEDGE SOURCE ARE YOU USING TO EXPLAIN THE EVENT, YOUR FEELINGS AND YOUR EVALUATION.

5.1.5 Conclusion: Human being are the best of all creations on the basis of their thinking abilities and choosing the best options out of the available options. The quality of the option that they choose, tell us the quality of thinking of that particular person. Now the big question to answer at this stage is What else could be done? Let's exercise to write alternative options. You might not be able to fill in all the boxes but try to fill as many as possible:

Questions	Answers of Description 1	Alternate 1	Alternate 2
1. When did this happen?			
2. Where did it happen? 3.			
4. Why were you there?			
5. Who else was there?			
6. What happened?			
7. What did you do?			
8. What did others do?			
9. What was the result?			

5.1.6 Action Plan: After going through the above reflective exercise; it is expected that you will use the best option along with the reason of choosing it and also its pros and cons. So draft an action plan what will you do if this situation arises again:

Write here

Do not forget!!!
Gibb's cycle is not only limited to the curriculum, it is not confined in teaching only; It is actually the preparation for life. You should go through extensive thinking process. Think and re-think. Then take decision, discuss the matter, rehash the decision, feel the situation and then come up to some conclusion. Be open to talk to someone and doubt your own

judgments. During this process you should learn to argue peacefully; justify your own selected option at the first place and then through a process of reflective thinking come up with alternatives. So this all hectic mental process prepare you for life, which brings an individual to different situations, jobs and environment. Feeling, thinking and rethinking practice will surely help you in making decisions later in personal and professional life.

5.2 SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS
Q.1 How practical is the Gibb's Cycle for the perspective teachers?
Q.2 How will you relate the Gibb's cycle with Bloom's Taxonomy? How are they same and what are the differences in them.
Q.3 How the Gibb's Reflective Cycle can develop the blocked mental faculties?
Q.4 Today was the parents teachers' meeting in the school. Parents of very naughty children came to attend the meeting. The child was an excellent footballer and singer but was not good at studies, he used to disturbed his class fellows and often used to come school with things missing and home work incomplete. Parents were from quite high class. Financially sound and well educated. As they came to the teacher, she told them in very polite way that their child needs to put in extra effort in all the subjects and they need to give him value time at home. Before she could say something else, the father came in rage. He stood up and went to the principal for the complaint. Teacher was unable to understand his furious behaviour.
a. Where did the teacher go wrong?
b. How she should have started off the meeting?
c. What she should have avoided?
d. Having same child in your class, how would you be handling the parents?

Q.5 Write a case study of your own or of your friend in which you/he faced reflection of a teacher.

5.3 BIBLIOGRAPHY
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Reflective Cycle. (2015, October 21). Retrieved from Mind Tools: http://www.mindtools.com

5.4 WEB REFERENCES
1. https://hhs.hud.ac.uk/lqsu/Sessionsforall/supp/Gibbs%201988%20reflective%20cycle.pdf
2. https://www.kcl.ac.uk/campuslife/services/disability/service/Using-Gibbs-Reflective-Cycle-in-Coursework.pdf
3. http://www.cumbria.ac.uk/Public/LISS/Documents/skillsatcumbria/ReflectiveCycleGibbs.pdf

FURTHER READING
3 MODELS OF REFLECTION

From http://staffcentral.brighton.ac.uk/CLT/events/documents/Ramage%20Example%202.doc

Reflection can be viewed on several levels

Simple Problem Solving	Using literature and theories to illuminate the analysis of the scenario under review	Consideration of broader forces, of issues such as justice, and emancipation and of political factors
Level 1 --		
Level 2 --		
Level 3 --		
Level 4 --		

The following examples of models of reflection and techniques for reflection are presented to give you a feeling of choice about the most appropriate strategies to use to encourage reflection on practice.

Models of Reflection

The work of Platzer et al 1997 identified that learning through reflection is more potent if there is an understanding of frameworks that encourage a structural process to guide the act of reflection. Several models to help you engage in the process of reflection are now discussed. There is no right one. It is important you choose the framework that feels most comfortable for you and best assists you in learning from your experiences. The most important aspect of engaging in reflective writing for work-based learning is that your writing is able to demonstrate a changed conceptual perspective. The process of reflective writing leads to more than just a gain in your knowledge it should also challenge the concepts and theories by which you make sense of knowledge. When you reflect on a situation you do not simply see more, you see differently. This different way of viewing a situation is reflected in statements about a commitment to action. Action is the final stage of reflection (Atkins and Murphy 1994). Sharing your reflective writing with your mentor/ academic advisor will assist you in the process of revealing new perspectives.

Gibbs Reflective Cycle

Gibbs (1988) reflective cycle is fairly straightforward and encourages a clear description of the situation, analysis of feelings, evaluation of the experience, analysis to make sense of the experience, conclusion where other options are considered and reflection upon experience to examine what you would do if the situation arose again. This cycle can be used for your reflective writing, but if you are using it at level 3 or 4 you need to adjust the cycle so that analysis permeates through each stage.

Gibbs Reflective Cycle:

Description
What happened?

Feelings
What were you thinking and feeling?

Action plan
If it arose again what would you do?

Evaluation
What was good and bad about the experience?

Conclusion
What else could you have done?

Analysis
What sense can you make of the situation?
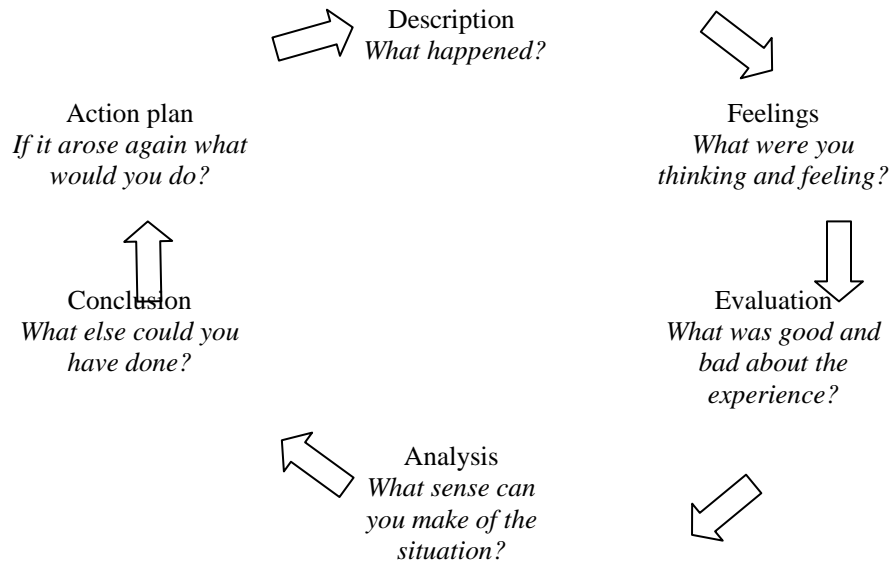
(Gibbs is a popular reflective cycle, but at the time of the development of this handbook it had been withdrawn from print. Libraries will be advised to gain second hand copies of the text).

Exercise 1

Gibbs (1988) may be a familiar model to you or it may be the first time you have used a reflective framework. Whatever your experience it is a good place to start when writing reflectively in your journal as the stages of the model are quite clear.

Choose a few incidents over the next four weeks (September 8th to October 6th) to use this framework on. Alternate between the Boud framework in 'Reflective Journals' and Gibbs. They are quite similar and should help you to begin to feel more structured about your journal writing.

Johns(2000) Model for Structured Reflection

Johns model for structured reflection can be used as a guide for analysis of a critical incident or general reflection on experience. This would be useful for more complex decision making and analysis at level 3 & 4. Johns supports the need for the learner to work with a supervisor throughout their learning experience. He refers to this as guided reflection, and recommends that students use a structured diary (see pages 21-22). Johns considered that through sharing reflections on learning experiences greater understanding of those experiences could be achieved than by reflection as a lone exercise. Johns also uses Carper's (1978) four patterns of knowing, aesthetics, personal, ethics and empirics adding a fifth pattern 'reflexivity'. Platzer et al (1997) identify this as a strength of the model as it is one of the few models of reflection that refers to the development of an epistemological base to reflections. Rolfe et al (2001) criticise the reflexive pattern of knowing, though, as it only responds to a situation, which has been resolved. The question, then, of 'How would I do it next time?' is appropriate for that instance. If the situation remained ongoing, though, the practitioner would want to know 'How can I take this forward?' Rolfe et al (2001) do not consider that Johns has made provision for this question. If you use this model for a situation that is ongoing you could adapt the reflexive section using cues from another model or develop your own set of cues.

This is how it works:

Looking in
- Find a space to focus on self
- Pay attention to your thoughts and emotions
- Write down those thoughts and emotions that seem significant in realising desirable work.

Looking out
- Write a description of the situation surrounding your thoughts and feelings.
- What issues seem significant?
- Aesthetics

What was I trying to achieve?
Why did I respond as I did?
What were the consequences of that for the patient/others/myself?
How were others feeling?
How did I know this?
- Personal

Why did I feel the way I did within this situation?
- Ethics

Did I act for the best? (ethical mapping)
- What factors (either embodied within me or embedded within the environment) were influencing me?
- Empirics

What knowledge did or could have informed me?
- Reflexivity

Does this situation connect with previous experiences?
How could I handle this situation better?
What would be the consequences of alternative actions for the patient/others/myself?
How do I now feel about this experience?
Can I support myself and others better as a consequence?
How available am I to work with patients/families and staff to help them meet their needs?
Grid for considering the cue: What internal factors were influencing me?

Expectations from self: • obligation/duty • conscience • beliefs/values Normal practice - felt I had to conform to a certain action	Negative attitude towards the patient/family?	Expectations from others: • in what way?
	What factors influenced my actions?	Loyalty to staff versus loyalty to patient/family?
Fear of sanction?	Time/priorities?	Anxious about ensuing conflict?

Exercise 2

If you are studying at level 3 you should demonstrate the use of this model within your journal and or within a reflective account. It broadens the scope of questioning and as a result requires that you go deeper into your understanding of an incident / event.

Practice with this framework in your journal a few times and then choose an event from your journal that you could revisit and analyse in more detail. You don't have to stick at each phase in strict sequence, you can adapt Gibbs 1988 by using some of the questions from Johns to challenge you to analyse the stages of Gibbs framework in more detail.
Think about how the use of this model differs from Gibbs or the Boud framework in the reflective journal template. Post your comments on the Discussion Board in between November 24th and 28th.

Rolfe et al (2001) Framework for reflexive practice

Rolfe et al (2001) propose a framework that uses Borton's (1970) developmental model. The questions 'What?, So what? And Now what? can stimulate reflection from novice to advanced levels. It is possible to use the model simply at the descriptive level for level 1 reflection. The arrows at the top of the diagram indicate a sequential and cyclical order to the framework. Firstly the practitioner reflects on the situation in order to describe it. The second phase encourages the practitioner to construct personal theory and knowledge about the situation in order to learn from it. At the third level the practitioner reflects on action and considers ways of improving the situation and reflects on the consequences of his/her actions. Rolfe et al consider this final stage as one, which can make the greatest contribution to practice.

A framework for reflexive practice:

Descriptive level of reflection	Theory - and knowledge - building level of reflection	Action-orientated (reflexive) level of reflection
What … → ↖ ←	**So what …** → ←	**Now what …**
… is the problem/difficulty/ reason for being stuck/reason for feeling bad/reason we don't get on/etc., etc.?	… does this tell me/teach me/imply/mean about me/my patient/others/our relationship/ my patient's care/the model of care I am using/my attitudes/ my patient's attitudes/etc., etc.?	↵ … do I need to do in order to make things better/stop being stuck/improve my patient's care/resolve the situation/feel better/get on better/etc., etc.?
… was my role in the situation? … was I trying to achieve? … actions did I take? … was the response of others? … were the consequences · for the patient? · for myself? · for others? … feelings did it evoke · in the patient? · in myself? · in others? … was good/bad about the experience?	… was going through my mind as I acted? … did I base my actions on? … other knowledge can I bring to the situation? · experiential · personal · scientific … could/should I have done to make it better? … is my new understanding of the situation? … broader issues arise from the situation?	… broader issues need to be considered if this action is to be successful? … might be the consequences of this action?

Exercise 3

If you are studying at level 2 try using this framework in October and November. Use the questions to help guide your deeper critical reflections on an incident/event. You should find that the questions encourage you to go to the literature to underpin your reflections with theoretical / supportive literature. You can start with just responding to the 'What and 'So what' questions and later begin to use the 'now what'.

If you are studying at level 3 and very familiar with Gibbs you might want to start using this model to assist in your journal writing.

If you are studying at level 2 can you post your comments on the difference in your journal writing between Gibbs and Rolfe et al between November 17th and 21st[th] on to the Discussion Board. You might want to discuss issues like:

how the framework has helped you to uncover useful meanings for you to assist your understanding of an event

How you like one framework over another for the following reasons…..

ACTION RESEARCH

Written by: Saima Afzal
Reviewed by: Dr. Afshan Huma

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

There are many ways to conduct research. Each of these ways is used in various professional fields, including psychology, sociology, social work, medicine, nursing, education and so on. However, the field of education often uses **action research**, an interactive method of collecting information that's used to explore topics of teaching, curriculum development and student behavior in the classroom.

Action research is very popular in the field of education because there is always room for improvement when it comes to teaching and educating others. Sure, there are all types of methods of teaching in the classroom, but action research works very well because the cycle offers opportunity for continued reflection. In all professional fields, the goal of action research is to improve processes. Action research is also beneficial in areas of teaching practice that need to be explored or settings in which continued improvement is the focus.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

At the end of this unit the students will be able to
1.   Distinguish Action Research as a specific type of study.
2.   Carryout action research at classroom level on their own.
3.   Solve the assessment questions and worksheets given in the unit.

INTRODUCTION TO ACTION RESEARCH

Kurt Lewin- German-American social psychologist, who is considered to be the founder of "Action Research", first used this term in 1940's. Since then, the basic principles of action research are unchanged. (Hidden Curriculum, 2014). Action Research is the process of finding the solution through problem solving technique. The expected outcome of the action research, which addresses the issues, improves the practices. It is done in groups, during the activity is in progress. The action research is free from the theoretical responses. It is an investigation of an ongoing process. (Action Research, 2015). Action Research is a process of inquiry or investigation carried out *by* and *for* those taking the action and are in practical work. (Books and Publications, 2015). Action research is a process of systematic inquiry that seeks to improve social issues affecting the lives of everyday people. (Barone, 1996). Action research tends to help the classroom teachers to improve the educational practices and resolve the educational problems. (Mills, 2011)

It's Your Time Now

What have you understood through these definitions? Now develop your own definition of Action Research.

As clear by the diversified definitions, action research can engage an individual teacher, a collaborative group of colleagues sharing a common concern, or an entire school faculty positively in the developmental process. These three different approaches to organize for research serve three compatible, yet distinct, purposes:

- Building the reflective practitioner
- Making progress on school wide priorities
- Building professional cultures

Action research is purposeful, solution-oriented exploration that is done in group or personally by an individual. It is characterized by spiraling cycles of problem identification, systematic data collection, reflection, analysis, data-driven action taken, and, finally, problem redefinition. The relation and joining of the terms "action" and "research" highlights the essential features of this method. It helps in improving curriculum, teaching, and learning. (Kemmis, 1982).

6.1   TEACHER AS RESEARCHER

"It is teachers who, in the end, will change the world of the school by understanding it" (Lawrence Stenhouse 1988)

As teachers engage in action research they are increasing their understanding of the schooling process. What they are learning will have great impact on what happens in classrooms, schools, and in the country in broader perspective in the future. The future directions of staff development programs, teacher preparation curricula, as well as school improvement initiatives, will be impacted by the things teachers learn through the critical inquiry and rigorous examination of their own practice and their school programs that action research requires.

In schools, **action research** refers to a wide variety of evaluative, investigative, and analytical research methods designed to diagnose problems or weaknesses—whether organizational, academic, or instructional—and help educators develop practical solutions to address them quickly and efficiently. Action research may also be applied to programs or educational

techniques that are not necessarily experiencing any problems, but that educators simply want to learn more about and improve. The general goal is to create a simple, practical, repeatable process of iterative learning, evaluation, and improvement that leads to increasingly better results for schools, teachers, or programs. (Ed, 2014)

Teacher-researchers can be characterized as those practitioners who attempt to better understand their practice, and its impact on their students, by researching the relationship between teaching and learning in their world of work.

6.1.1 Importance of Teachers' Research

Schools are the nurseries for the production of the trained manpower. So it is not enough for teachers merely to make decisions; they will be called upon to make informed decisions, decisions which are data driven. Therefore, it is necessary for teachers to be much more deliberate in documenting and evaluating their efforts. Action research is one means to that end. Action research assists practitioners and other stakeholders in identifying the needs, assessing the development processes, and evaluating the outcomes of the changes they define, design, and implement. The self-evaluation aspect of action research (by educators and/or students) is congruent with the philosophies contained in the Total Quality Education and Outcomes Based Education in the world is moving towards. (Johnson, 1993)

It is important for the teachers as they assists practitioners and other stakeholders in identifying the needs, assessing the development processes, and evaluating the outcomes of the changes they define, design, and implement. When the teacher starts working on action research, s/he is actually considered to be reflective practitioner assessing and evaluating her own work with different methods and modifying and changing the teaching related decisions accordingly.

Teacher researchers give an in-depth thought to the question that what they will be going to learn from their students. To get the answer to this question, they listen to and watch their students engage in authentic work; collect work samples, photographs, and transcripts to document what their students say and do; and use that information to evolve their practice as they celebrate and support the voices and experiences of the children they teach. In this sense, teacher researchers are innovators, curriculum drivers, agents of school change, and directors of their own professional development. (Suskind, 2016)

6.2 DESIGNING ACTION RESEARCH

6.2.1 Identification of Problem (Identify a problem to be studied)

The first step in the action research to identification of the problem. What element(s) of our practice or what aspect of student learning do we wish to investigate? What in real sense I want to improve? What is the matter of concern that is not up to my expectations? Researcher has to decide about the above mentioned questions first. Are the students slow in grasping the concept? Why the students are not active? How can I develop interest in my teaching? What method would be effective? Researcher has to hit the exact concern first to carry on with the next step. Confusion or non clarity at this stage would result in ruining of the other coming steps like collection of data. One must collect the required data in order to analyze and then interpret it to develop a plan for the implementation and

further reflection and improvement in the required field of problem. Although all the steps are interlinked, but the first step is of foremost importance in order to lay down the strong foundations for the whole process.

Activity 1
Identify a problem:

Discuss with the instructor if it is to be narrowed down to become a research problem of action research.
Now re write:

6.2.2 Collect data on the Problem

Once the problem is identified, the next important step is the collection of data. This job can be done in many ways. It can be done through observation with check list, through parents feedback on the questionnaire, by recoding the lesson, by observing the child's behaviour, by seeing the evaluation results, by counseling the students etc . Right tool; valid and reliable must be used for the implementable findings.

Activity 2
What is the available data for the problem you identified?

How can you generate or collect further data in your classroom?

6.2.3 Execution and Recording (Organize, analyze and interpret the data)

Triangulation in research makes it reliable and valid. So ones the data from the sources has been gathered, it is organized and then analyzed with the help of required statistics. The results of the statistics and qualitative analysis will show the intensity of the problem. Now in the light of the data researcher will further proceed to the next step.

Activity 3
Develop a data sheet to share with your class fellows

6.2.4 Reflection on the collected data

Now develop a plan to address the problem in the light of the data and make a plan to overcome the problem. Taking the example of school, in the light of the data we may need to re plan the school time table, improve the teaching methodology, change the evaluation method, bring some changes in the environment etc. The data may reveal some other problem. That will also be dealt accordingly.

Activity 4
Write reflection; you may take help of the reflective writing exercises from previous unit.
Describe

Elaborate

Analyze

6.2.5 Action Plan

Now is the time to have the action plan. Not just to have a plan but to implement revise and repeat. By repetition in Action Research we mean that now we will implement the plan which was made in the light of the collected data. While implementing we will again start observing the process of implementation and record the applied technique or whatsoever to bring further improvement in the process of learning. We may fail with the new learner with new technique so we will re plan, recollect the data, do the analysis, implement the change and again observe the applied technique.

Activity 5

What are you going to do to solve the issues/problems in classroom?

Take notes and revise your plan

Repeat and record for further improvement

Hence this cyclic method is proposed by many theorists and researchers in one form or another to go on and on for the improvement in the education system. Action research is also be called a *cycle of action* or *cycle of inquiry*, since it typically follows a predefined process that is repeated over time. A simple illustrative example is following:

- Collect data on the problem
- Organize, analyze, and interpret the data
- Develop a plan to address the problem
- Implement the plan
- Evaluate the results of the actions taken
- Identify a new problem
- Repeat the process
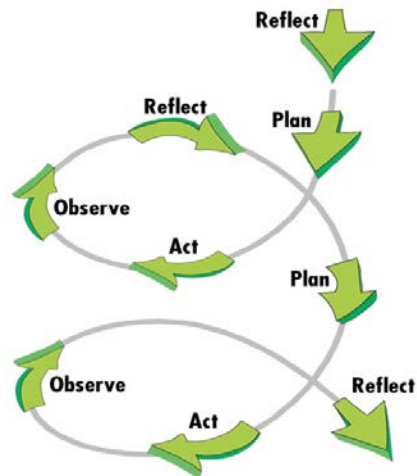
Activity 6

Collect three action research report and talk to your instructor about it

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6.3   TYPES OF ACTION RESEARCH

Many research authors have mentioned the types of action research in different manners. Grundy (1982) discusses three modes of action research:

1.   Technical
2.   Practical and
3.   Emancipatory

On the basis og Grundy's modes of investigation McKernan (1991) also list three types of action research (Masters, 1999):

Type 1: the scientific-technical view of problem solving;

Type 2: practical-deliberative action research; and

Type 3: critical-emancipatory action research.

We will discuss the McKernan Model in detail.

Type 1: The Scientific - Technical View of Problem Solving:

The goal of the researcher in this approach is to test a particular intervention based on a pre-specified theoretical framework, the nature of the collaboration between the researcher and the practitioner is technical and facilitatory. The researcher identifies the problem and a specific intervention, then the practitioner is involved and they agree to facilitate with the implementation of the intervention. The communication flow within this type of research is primarily between the facilitator and the group, so that the ideas may be communicated to the group.

Grundy has developed a model describing technical action research.
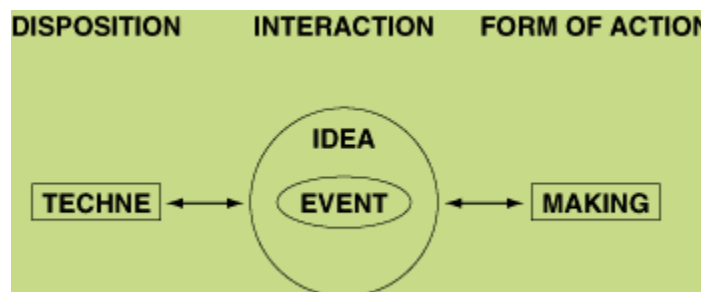
(Grundy, 1982)

Grundy discusses three types of knowing.

- The first is techne or knowing-how, the source of skilful action.
- The second is episteme, the source of scientific action or knowing that.
- The third type of knowing is phronesis, the knowing-why, the source of moral action which is often called practical judgment.

Techne, as occurs in Type 1 action research results in a making action, it is product related. While phronesis results in a doing-action or praxis, and is therefore product centered as described in Type 2 below.

Type 2: Practical - Deliberative Action Research
This design of action research allows for a more flexible approach.

According to McKernan the practical model of action research trades off some measurement and control for human interpretation, interactive communication, deliberation, negotiation and detailed description. "The goal of practical action researchers is understanding practice and solving immediate problems".

"Practical action research fosters the development of professionalism by emphasising the part played by personal judgement in decisions to act for the good of the client". This mode of action research "promotes autonomous, deliberative action which was given the name of "Praxis".

Model for this type of action research is detailed below.
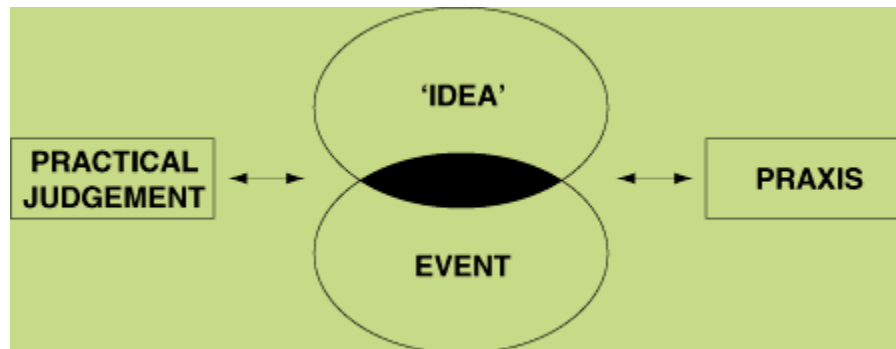
(Grundy, 1982)

TYPE 3: Enhancement approach/Critical-Emancipatory Action research/Critical Science perspective

In this type of action research there are two goals for the researcher using this approach, one is to increase the closeness between the actual problems encountered by practitioners in a specific setting and the theory used to explain and resolve the problem. The second goal, which goes beyond the previous two approaches, is to assist practitioners in identifying and making explicit fundamental problems by raising their collective consciousness.

THEORY
REFLECTION
PRACTICAL JUDGEMENT
CRITICAL INTENT
CRITICAL THEOREMS
SOCIAL MILIEU
EVENT
IDEA   IDEA
IDEA
ENLIGHTENED IDEA
REFLECTION
EVENT
PRAXIS
ENLIGHTENMENT
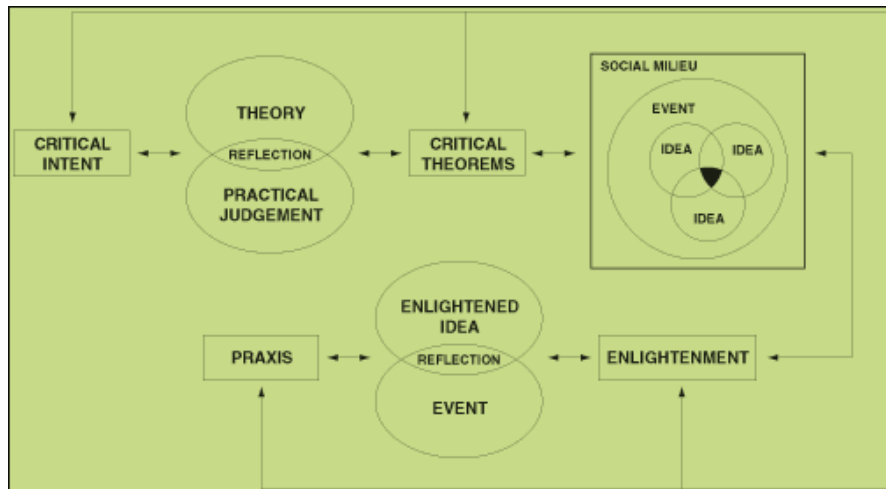
This type of action research requires much more effort than mere classroom teaching, learning, observing and reflecting. It requires more scientific approach to be applied in classroom and institutionalized researches. It is not in the methodologies that the three modes of action research differ, but rather in the underlying assumptions and world views of the participants that cause the variations in the application of the methodology (Grundy 1982). Emancipatory action research "promotes emancipatory praxis" that is it promotes a critical consciousness which exhibits itself in political as well as practical action to promote change. This is exactly where action research pushes the researchers to become critical thinkers and reflective practioners and bring the real change not just in schools but in society (Grundy 1987).

DO NOT FORGET!

Continuous improvement in teaching and learning like any other profession is the need of all times. Action research is very important for the teachers as they are dealing with the future of the country. It asks such question like -What do I want to improve?, Why am I concerned about it?, What can I do to improve it?, Who can help me and how? How will I know it has improved?

6.4   SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTIONS

1. As a teacher you are teacher the movement of earth to the students from the text book. When the evaluation of the chapter was done, none of the students came up with 100% marks in the objective type 20 items. What action will you take as a teacher? How will you implement the action research on this case.
2. How can action research bring change in the teaching learning process in an institution?
3. What are the steps of action research? Write each step in detail.
4. There is a problematic child in the class. You are a subject teacher for the teaching of Mathematics. What qualitative and quantitative data will you collect from whom and how? How will you go about it for the improvement of his behaviour using the action research process.

Listen to these short videos:
1. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=8jENIAs-V4Q (Process of Action Research)
2. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=cYno85t1YmI (Action Research Defined)
3. https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=gpVvZbv69Kc (Action Research in Classroom)

WORKSHEET # 1

Develop your own definition of Action Research and explain its components.

_____

_____

_____

_____

Make a figure of your definition:

WORKSHEET # 2

Carrying out Action Research
Select a topic for action research related to students' problems and answer these questions:
Topic:

_____

_____

Delimit the topic: _____

_____

1. What are the questions you would like to explore? Write at least three questions.

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

2. What do you already know about the topic?

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

3. What difficulties are the students experiencing? Write at least three difficulties.

    _____

    _____

    _____

    _____

4.   How do you come to know about the problem?

_____

_____

_____

_____

5.   Why is this problem occurring? Intelligent guess.

_____

_____

_____

_____

6.   How your research will help in the solution of the problem that you have selected?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Action Research Worksheet

According to the steps outlined by Brighton and Moon (2007).

Step 1: Identify an area of focus

What issue needs to be explored?

_____

_____

_____

List the documents or other references pertinent to the issue

_____

_____

_____

Name all persons/organizations with contact information consulted regarding the issue.

_____

_____

_____

_____

Step 2: Developing the action research plan

When is the project proposal due?

_____

_____

When does the data collection start and when will it end?

_____

_____

When are preliminary results due?

_____

_____

When are the final results/paper due?

_____

_____

_____

_____

List here any other important dates or information regarding the plan.

_____

_____

_____

_____

Step 3: Collect Data

What are the operational variables?

_____

_____

How will the data be collected?

_____

_____

_____

_____

Step 4: Organize the Data
Just Tick

☐   Enter the data in a spreadsheet

☐   Compute the mean, mode, median, variance and standard deviations for variables of interest

☐   Determine the regression coefficient for variables that might show a relationship

☐   Carry out the hypothesis testing for variables of interest

☐   Carry out the ANOVA for three or more similar variables if applicable

☐   Compute p-values if required

List any other statistical analyses that you might find useful

_____

_____

_____

Step 5: Interpret the Data
Is there a pattern in the data?
How does the standard deviation relate to the data?
Do the correlation matrices show a (significant) relationship?
Do the hypotheses support the claims?
Step 6: Share Information with Identified Stakeholders
Step 6: Share Information with Identified Stakeholders. Prepare a report and check the sections when completed)

☐   Introduction/purpose of the research

☐   Mini literature review (including but not limited to literature and people consulted)

☐   Method and instruments

☐   Pertinent results

☐   Findings

☐   Action plan resulting from the research

☐   Any other information pertinent to the project

Step 7: Develop Action Plan

What are the next steps resulting from the findings?

_____

_____

_____

What are points of further research?

_____

_____

_____

_____

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REFLECTIVE AND CRITICAL WRITING

Written by: Uzma Akhtar
Reviewed by: Dr. Afshan Huma

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

The critical review is a writing task that requires you to summarize and assess a text using critical lense or question. The critical review can be of a book, a chapter, or a journal article. Writing the critical review further requires you to read the selected text in detail and to also read other related texts so that you can present a reasonable evaluation of the selected text. It requires you to question the information and opinions in a text and present your evaluation or judgment of the text. To do this well, you should attempt to understand the topic from different perspectives and in relation to the theories, approaches and frameworks in your course. Evaluation itself is a complex process that requires an understanding of not just the content of the text, but also an understanding of a text's purpose, the intended audience and why it is structured the way it is. Analyzing requires separating the content and concepts of a text into their main components and then understanding how these interrelate, connect and possibly influence each other. This unit is specifically placed in this course to enable teachers analyze and review the content they teach and also what they interpret from their own teaching.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

At the end of this unit you will be able to:
1.   conduct review and analysis of spoken words and written text and literature
2.   practice reflective and critical writing
3.   adopt journal writing as a reflective practice

7.1   CRITICAL REVIEW AND ANALYSIS

A great deal of one's time is spent in thinking; thinking about what people have said, thinking about what one has read, one has thought and how one's thinking has been changed. It is generally believed that the thinking process involves two aspects: reflective thinking and critical thinking. They are not separate processes; rather, they are closely connected (Brookfield 1987).
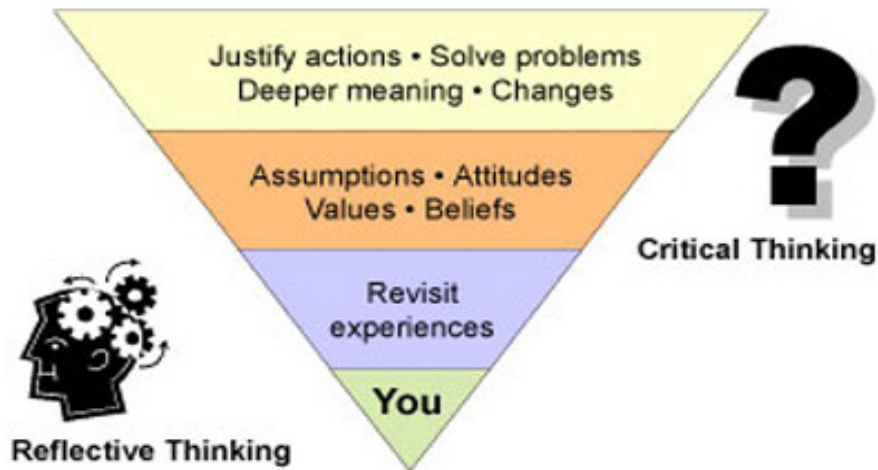
Figure 1 shows that the reflective thinking process starts with you. Before you can begin to assess the words and ideas of others, you need to pause and identify and examine your own thoughts. (Mezirow 1990, Schon 1987, Brookfield 1987)

A critical review is much more than a simple summary; it is an analysis and evaluation of a book, article, or other medium. It is a formal discussion of the contents, implications, and quality of an academic or professional text: a nonfiction book, essay, or article. It may be defined as, "A critical review evaluates the clarity, quality and originality of research, as well as its relevance and presentation". Sometimes non-text materials, such as educational videos, also are discussed using this formal model of reviewing. A critical review is not a book report, nor is it a literary analysis, literary review, movie review, or other arts review that works with the elements of literature or art. Rather, a critical review is a thorough, usually formal discussion that uses a variety of critical-thinking tools, especially
(a)   Logical, accurate summary;
(b)   Discussion or analysis of arguments, implications, and responses; and
(c)   Evaluative weighing of the quality of the writing, organization, and contents.

7.1.1 Goals of Critical Review & Analysis:
The goal of writing a critical review and analysis is to help readers decide whether to read or view a text. Summarizing gives readers a thoughtful, unbiased account of what the work says. Opinions from the public or experts help readers understand how the work

might be perceived from several differing viewpoints. And evaluation of quality helps readers decide whether the work is presented well. Most reviews follow this pattern of three functions by starting with summary and ending with evaluation, but there are not always clear-cut sections: the types of thinking may even be thoroughly intermixed. However, if you wish to write a simple critical review with all of its major structural elements in it, you can simply develop your review in three body sections: summary of the work; arguments, responses, and/or implications; and evaluative judgments.

7.1.2 Steps to writing an effective critical review:

Writing a good critical review requires that you understand the material, and that you know how to analyze and evaluate that material using appropriate criteria. Following steps are involved in a critical review process:

a) Reading:

Skim the whole text to determine the overall thesis, structure and methodology. This will help you better understand how the different elements fit together once you begin reading carefully. Read critically: It is not enough to simply understand what the author is saying; it is essential to challenge it. Examine how the article is structured, the types of reasons or evidence used to support the conclusions, and whether the author is reliant on underlying assumptions or theoretical frameworks. Take copious notes that reflect what the text means AND what you think about it.

b) Analyzing

Analyzing requires separating the content and concepts of a text into their main components and then understanding how these interrelate, connect and possibly influence each other. It is to Examine all elements: All aspects of the text—the structure, the methods, the reasons and evidence, the conclusions, and, especially, the logical connections between all of these—should be considered. The types of questions asked will vary depending on the discipline in which you are writing, but the following samples will provide a good starting point:

Structure	What type of text is it? (For example: Is it a primary source or secondary source? Is it original research or a comment on original research?) What are the different sections and how do they fit together? Are any of the sections particularly effective (or ineffective)?
Methodology	Is the research quantitative or qualitative? Does the methodology have any weaknesses? How does the design of the study address the hypothesis?
Reason/Evidence	What sources does the author use (interviews, peer-reviewed journals, government reports, journal entries, newspaper accounts, etc.)? What types of reasoning are employed (inductive, deductive, and abdicative)? What type of evidence is provided (empirical, statistical, logical, etc.)? Are there any gaps in the evidence (or reasoning)?

137

Conclusion	Does the data adequately support the conclusion drawn by the researcher(s)?
	Are other interpretations plausible?
	Are the conclusions dependent on a particular theoretical formulation?
	What does the work contribute to the field?
Logic	What assumptions does the author make?
	Does the author account for all of the data, or are portions left out?
	What alternative perspectives remain unconsidered?
	Are there any logical flaws in the construction of the argument?

c)   Writing

Once you have carefully read your reading, start writing. You can start by free writing, by organizing/outlining, by collecting and/or expanding upon your critical-reading notes you've already made, or simply by writing, point-by-point. As you start,

- You might want to begin with the facts--the main points of the reading itself.
- You also may start with arguments for and/or against the author's main position(s), or with implications--hidden meanings of the reading or what the reading may cause to happen.
- A third way to start is to begin by evaluating how well or poorly the text is written, organized, styled, or researched.

The tone with which you begin should be whatever tone works for you in the beginning in order to get your thoughts on the page. In other words, if you must have or develop a strong feeling--such as pleasure, dislike, indignation, surprise, etc.--to begin discussion in your first draft, then do so. However, sooner or later--in the first or a later draft--the tone you need to achieve is one of calm, reasoned, fair, balanced reason. Mild indignation or disagreement is to some extent acceptable in some courses or publications, especially if you use an ironic tone or one of regret; however, in some disciplines and publications--especially, for example, in the sciences--your tone should be of rigorous, absolutely balanced and logical analysis. You must, in other words, in tone and word choice, imply that you are being very logical.

When you start focusing on organizing--at whatever stage of writing you choose--you'll need to be sure in the very first sentence of each major type of thinking you are performing--summary, response/implications, or evaluation--that your readers understand exactly what you are doing. This means having clear section topic sentences if you are dividing these three functions into three topic sections; if you are dividing these three main functions into multiple paragraphs, be sure that each major paragraph's topic sentence clearly indicates what kind of function you are about to perform.

Also be sure--as you build your paper--that you have plenty of quotations from the author so that the reader can see exactly how the author develops his/her thinking. If you are assigned to do so, you may need quotations from other sources, as well, primarily to help support the points you are making. Because you, yourself, are not a professional expert, you are depending--in a research paper--on quotations and paraphrases from the professional experts.

7.1.3 The Visual Plan/map of Critical Review

> **Your Own Unique Title**
>
> OR, for one reviewed work only,
> Critical Review of "Essay"/Book

Introduction
Type of paper. Source info: Author's Name, "Essay"/Title, & author's main argument. Brief statement(s) of the work's contents, the arguments/implications you will discuss, and your overall opinion of the work's value. Introductory quotation/details

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Summary
 Summary of the work(s) you are reviewing: (a) topic sentence, (b) summary using paraphrases (and possibly a few summarizing quotations) from your reading's text, and (c) a brief, concluding sentence or paragraph.

Arguments AND/OR Implications

Discussion of public and/or professional responses, arguments, and/or implications (meanings/results): topic sentence, discussion with quotes, supporting details, & conclusion.

Evaluations
Evaluation using a set of criteria: topic sentence, discussion with quotes, supporting details, & conclusion.

Conclusion

 Source (author and/or title). Your overall evaluative conclusion. Final quotation/details.

Works Cited/Bibliography

Jones, A.J. *Book One*, et al.

Smith, B.K. *Book Two*, et al.

Create an alphabetized bibliography on a separate page, according to the requirements of your discipline/instructor.

7.1.4- Final Revision and Editing:

In revision of a critical review following four focuses may help you in better finish:

1- **SUBJECT**: If possible, choose a reading about a subject you know well. As you read it, brainstorm a list of summarizing points, arguments, responses, implications, and/or evaluations. Choose several such points. Will they appeal to you throughout your writing time? Do you have enough details or examples to support what you are saying, or can you find supporting details easily? Can you write about your subject fully and logically? What are some problems and solutions your paper could present? Will your audience find your paper and its solutions appropriate and interesting?

2- **FIRST & SECOND DRAFT**: Start with one or two methods that work best for you, but develop the others in later drafts.
   a. **Read critically**: take your text apart so that you understand its contents and structure thoroughly.
   b. **Free-write**: write as much as you can quickly on what you know about your text or your own viewpoint(s).
   c. **Gather details**: mark or type the quotations in your text that best summarize the points you hope to make. Write descriptions or a list of the details you have to support your points--facts, quotations, and/or experiences.
   d. **Write for your audience**: visualize it. What details does it need to take seriously your critical points of view?
   e. **Organize**: make an outline using the structure above or whatever structure your instructor suggests.
   f. **Research**: if required, mix research of your summaries, arguments, and evaluations with the above methods to develop a first draft during your research.

3- **STYLE, TONE,** and **WRITER'S ROLE**: Develop (in early or late drafts) an academic style and tone of calm, reasoned, fair, balanced logic. In your role as a writer, you should remain a neutral observer, simply applying the analyses in a balanced, logical, consistent manner.

4- **AUTHENTICITY**: Be as real and meaningful as you can to your audience, your content, and yourself. First, respect your audience: try as fully as you can to consider its own beliefs about your text. Second, find the heart of the meaning in both your reading and your examination of it, and write about them clearly using high-quality supporting details. Third, make your analyses your own: develop them in a way as meaningful to you as possible.

The key to the overall organization of a critical review often is to provide a broad number of issues that vary widely in their perspectives. A critical review is, after all, a type of paper highly focused on its audience: it is a review made specifically for an audience to read. Unlike the typical academic paper that may only be read by one person, an instructor, or a typical business report that may be briefly digested and then filed, reviews are read by large numbers of people. For this reason, you need to fairly and broadly represent the reviewed text for a wide variety of people, perspectives, and opinions. Good critical reviews recognize the breadth and variety of differing audience

members interest and then develop arguments/implications and evaluative criteria that are useful to that audience.

ACTIVITY 1
Select an article related to your own field of teaching/learning and review it critically with the help of knowledge you gained so far.
(Discuss with one of your course fellow what critical points you found in the article)

7.2- REFLECTIVE WRITING

Reflection is a form of personal response to experiences, situations, events or new information. It is a 'processing' phase where thinking and learning take place. There is neither a right nor a wrong way of reflective thinking; there are just questions to explore. Reflection offers you the opportunity to consider how your personal experiences and observations shape your thinking and your acceptance of new ideas. One tentative definition of reflection is offered by Moon (1999):

> '... a form of mental processing with a purpose and/or anticipated outcome
> that is applied to relatively complex or unstructured ideas for which there is
> not an obvious solution'.

If one is unaware of one's own thought and action it is quite difficult for that person to alter his or her thought or behavior. It is through reflection that new information is processed and connections to prior learning are made. Reflection clarifies the concepts. By taking the time to consider our own thoughts we gain increased understanding and control of our self and the environment in which we live.

Reflective writing can help you to improve your analytical skills because it requires you to express what you think, and more significantly, how and why you think that way. In addition, reflective analysis asks you to acknowledge that your thoughts are shaped by your assumptions and preconceived ideas; in doing so, you can appreciate the ideas of others, notice how their assumptions and preconceived ideas may have shaped their thoughts, and perhaps recognize how your ideas support or oppose what you read.

7.2.1-Purpose of Reflection:
We reflect in order to:
* Consider the process of our own learning – a process of metacognition
* Critically review something - our own behavior, that of others or the product of behavior (e.g. an essay, book, painting etc.)
* Build theory from observations: we draw theory from generalizations - sometimes in practical situations, sometimes in thoughts or a mixture of the two.
* Engage in personal or self development
* Make decisions or resolve uncertainty...

- Empower or emancipate ourselves as individuals (and then it is close to self-development) or to empower/emancipate ourselves within the context of our social groups.'

So reflective writing is writing which involves '… consideration of the larger context, the meaning, and the implications of an experience or action' (Branch & Paranjape, 2002, p. 1185). It is:
- One's response to experiences, opinions, events or new information
- One's response to thoughts and feelings
- a way of thinking to explore One's learning
- an opportunity to gain self-knowledge
- a way to achieve clarity and better understanding of what is learning
- a chance to develop and reinforce writing skills
- a way of making meaning out of what One has studied

Reflective writing is not just conveying information, instruction or argument. It is not pure description, though there may be descriptive elements. It does not include straight forward decision or judgment (e.g. whether something is right or wrong, good or bad). It is neither a summary of course notes nor a standard essay.

7.2.2- Types of Reflective Writing:
There is no one set for reflective writing. It may take the form of several types. Some examples might include:

a-   Learning Logs/Journals

Learning logs/journals can be used in different ways. Sometimes they may be a formal part of reflective writing, or sometimes they may form the basis of a later reflective assignment. The aim of a learning log/journal is partly to reflect on events and your actions as they happen, but also to chart your development as you learn.

b-   Presentations

If you have taken part in a practical exercise or a work placement, either as part of a group or as an individual, you may be asked to give a presentation on what you have learnt in practice.

As a presentation is much more conversational, and sometimes interactive, than an essay or a learning log, it might be tempting to make this more about illustrating what you have done to your audience, rather than reflecting upon it. This is especially true if you have been on a long work placement, in a lot of things will have happened! Nevertheless, your audience still want to see how you have critically reflected on your performance and actions to really learn from your experiences.

c-   Reflective Essays

Theoretically, this is probably the type of reflective writing that you are most used to. Much of what is expected of you in a normal academic essay is still expected of you in a reflective essay. You will still be expected to analyze what you are saying,

reference any sources that you have used (and you should use sources) and have a clear structure to the essay. Thinking about what you want to include in the essay, and how you will structure it, is often key to getting the reflection right. Think about all of the incidents or events that have most contributed to your learning.

7.2.3-The Reflective Writing Process
"A big reason for reflective writing is that it's a means of thinking for me. Writing freely, whether it's jotting down ideas on the spur of the moment or sitting down deliberately to think and work through ideas, helps the ideas to come. And beyond that, once the ideas get down on to paper writing about them helps me to clarify them in my mind." (Burton, 2007)

The reflective writing process begins with a description of, for example, an incident, a phenomenon observed, or an unresolved puzzle. Choose a simple incident or concern. Write a description of the incident, topic or problem. If the table given below is observed:

Type	Answering Questions…	Comments
1	What happens/happened?	Recording, expressing, "getting the story down"
2	How does/did it happen?	Commenting on, attempting to explain: e.g., by adding more detail or approaching the Type 1 story from another perspective or question
3	Why does/did it happen? What does this mean outside the immediate context of action?	Theorizing on the story and reflection in Types 1 & 2, linking them to personal theories, e.g., of language, learning, and teaching
4	Are the earlier reflections credible/reasonable? Why? Why not? What do they mean now?	A subsequent written reflection in a developing sequence of reflective writing, in which writers continue to question and maybe involve others
5	Are the earlier reflections still credible/reasonable? Why? Why not? What do they mean now in the light of subsequent experience?	After longer intervals, writers use the developing spiral of reflection (which again may include other writers: e.g. as part of an interactive journal) to re-examine initial theorizing in the light of intervening events that may have changed their perspectives.

Adapted from (Burton, 2007)

This process generates Type 1 reflective writing (see Table 1.1). Just get the basic facts down, as you know them. Write as simply and clearly as you can. Your description can be a narrative, a journal entry, an account of a conversation you overheard, for example. With this piece of writing, whatever its form, you have started the process of reflection. Although what you wrote may seem to be just a simple description of a problem or something that happened, its narrative structure and presentation and content are actually the result of decisions and preferences, whether you were conscious of them at the time or not. Another student would write a different account. You now have a text to examine and have positioned yourself to probe your topic more deeply. Lu(1998), reflects eloquently on experiencing this process that every time he read or wrote, the stance he negotiated out of these voices [in his mind or writing] would always be at some distance from the stances he worked out in his previous and later readings or writings.

Q 1. How does/did it happen?

Write a commentary on your first piece of writing. With this step, reflection begins to deepen. Writing in response to a "how" question generates Type 2 reflective writing (see Table 1.1) because it enables you to comment on what you wrote before, to revise or elaborate it. But your reflection shouldn't finish here.

Q2. Why does/did it happen?

Writing again, tries to explain your earlier pieces of writing. Now write a response to a "why"-type question and generate Type 3 reflective writing (see Table 1.1). As you write on the cause, effect, and meaning of your incident, topic or problem, you will find that you are beginning to theorize and relate your writing to other events or reading resources.

Q3. What does my previous reflective writing mean to me now (and later in the light of subsequent experience)?

Over time, continue to write reflectively on your earlier reflective writing in the light of subsequent experience and understanding.

You can continue to write reflectively in response to questions such as "What does this mean to me now?" (See Table 1.1, reflective writing Types 4 & 5) On each occasion, you give yourself further opportunities to deepen and broaden your reflections and link them, for example, to reflections on other experiences.

When following the process outlined above, write systematically and flesh out (i.e., conceptualize) your writing. Being systematic and contextualizing what you write enable you to explain your reflections later on so that they have lasting credibility and continuing potential for further learning. Even though reflective writing is a relatively straightforward process, it is a skill, and as with any skill or art, it can be learned and practiced.

7.2.4-Practicing Reflective Writing:

Reflective writing involves a process of self-assessment that can be meaningful and memorable whether it is associated with classroom projects, portfolio reflections, and assessment activities, in journals about field or lab experiences, and much more. While practicing reflective writing:

- Be aware of the purpose of your reflective writing and state if it is appropriate
- Reflective writing requires practice and constant standing back from oneself.
- Practice reflecting writing on the same event /incident through different people's viewpoints and disciplines.
- Deepen your reflection / reflective writing with the help of others through discussing issues with individuals and groups, getting the points of others.
- Always reflect on what you have learnt from an incident, and how you would do something differently another time.
- Try to develop your reflective writing to include the ethical, moral, historical and socio-political contexts where these are relevant.

In short, the reflective writing process begins with writing what you already know, or believe, about an incident, topic or problem and then increasingly questioning the substance and meaning of what you wrote in relation to other events, resources, practices and environments. In operation, reflective writing draws specifically on the sorts of cognitive skills involved in composing. It thus mines a general skill that teachers have the potential to exploit. The recursive nature of writing reflectively also means that it can support cyclical processes of inquiry-based teaching and learning.

Activity 2

Choose a major educational practice with which you are familiar. Describe this practice and critically reflect upon how this practice influences your work.

7.3   CRITICAL WRITING

The key to mature writing is learning to write critically. Without criticism, texts that you read have no life beyond that of the author. Without criticism, you also have no distance from the text by which you give life to yourself as a thinker. You have often heard someone assert views with which you strongly agree or which you strongly oppose. If she/he does not attend to the shades of her/his views and proposes ideas without attending to possible exceptions to them or problematic aspects of them, we soon turn away from her/him and dismiss her/his views. If we are sympathetic toward the position being declared, we find that merely having our own views confirmed is of little interest.

By analogy, most of us do not spend hours looking in a mirror: we look in a mirror to get our bearings for the day; then we go on about our dealing. Hearing or reading words that only mirror our own thoughts leads to the same result: we turn away to go on to more interesting activities. In sum, even if we are sympathetic toward the views expressed, only if an author exercises a capacity to call into question her own ideas do we find

ourselves engaged by her words. We want to think further than we have previously about ideas with which we have sympathy. On the other hand, if we read an article with which we very much disagree but which does not even hint of our views, we are similarly disinterested. Such writing has the aura of propaganda: we quickly say, "that author hasn't even thought about this point or observed this problem; why should I listen to her?" By contrast, an article that approaches a topic critically, acknowledging our position even while disagreeing with it, captures our attention. We find ourselves thinking about the author's words long after we finish reading the article. We continue the conversation in our own heads, giving life to the author's ideas and life to ourselves. But what is critical thinking? What does it look like? To be critical is not to be "negative" or even to "disagree." Rather, critical thinking refers to a process of reflecting deeply: in thinking critically we try to shed greater light on an idea, unpack its implicit assumptions, and build through distancing and recapitulation a larger, constructive view.
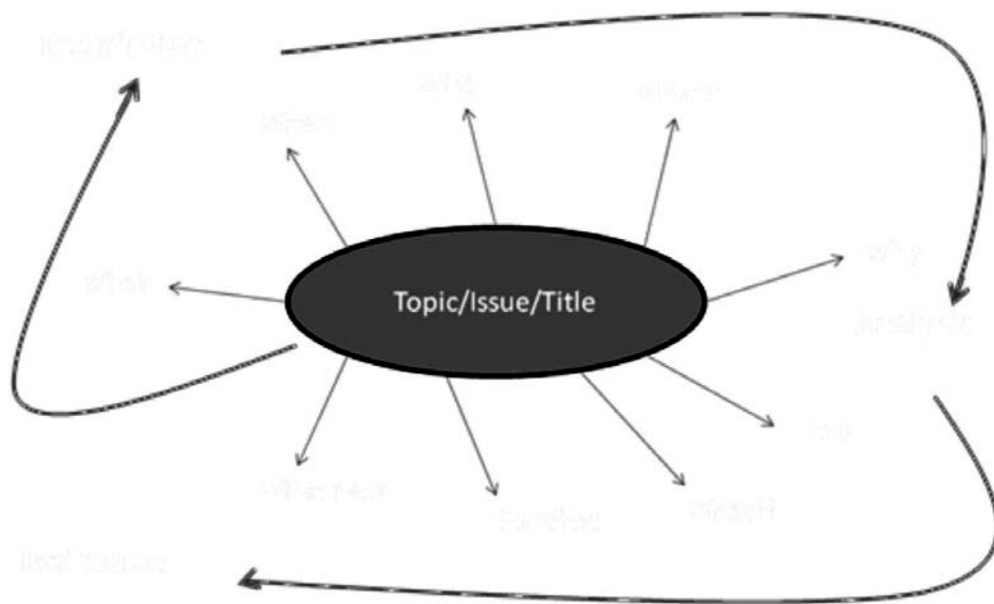
The essence of criticism consists not of disagreement with the text, but of distance from the text. Achieving distance from the text does not require you to position yourself as an equal to the author. Rather, you may ask of yourself only that you stay one step ahead of your reader.

Critical writing just like critical thinking involves considering evidence to make reasoned conclusions. This involves writing which evaluates and analyses more than one source in order to develop an argument. To expand on this, we need to consider what 'evaluates' and 'analyses' mean. Your writing will contain evidence from other writers. Evaluating

this evidence means identifying the strengths and weaknesses of this evidence (and maybe 'grey areas' in between, which are neither strengths nor weaknesses).

7.3.1- Characteristics of Critical Writing
The most characteristic features of critical writing are:
- a clear and confident refusal to accept the conclusions of other writers without evaluating the arguments and evidence that they provide;
- a balanced presentation of reasons why the conclusions of other writers may be accepted or may need to be treated with caution;
- a clear presentation of your own evidence and argument, leading to your conclusion; and
- a recognition of the limitations in your own evidence, argument, and conclusion.

So, one will be needed to:
- consider the quality of the evidence and argument you have read;
- identify key positive and negative aspects you can comment upon;
- assess their relevance and usefulness to the debate that you are engaging in for your assignment; and
- Identify how best they can be woven into the argument that you are developing.

A much higher level of skill is clearly needed for critical writing than for descriptive writing, and this is reflected in the higher marks it is given.

7.3.2- Strategies for Critical Writing
There are many time-honored strategies for critical writing. You may want to think of how each of your précis or essay assignments may function as a kind of outline for a larger project. Keep in the back of your mind a vision of these projects that reminds you that, if you were able to write a 15-page paper on the text, your précis or essay would function as a skeleton of that paper. Another way to push yourself to develop your critical skills into a sustained argument is to try to carry over ideas discussed in one précis or essay assignment into the next one. If you can maintain a critical train of thought from one week to the next, by summoning in your mind an agenda of your own making through which you will read the texts, you may be able to get a greater depth in your criticism. Generating a series of questions that may be asked of each author we read in this course can help you to formulate such a critical agenda.

Strategies that you may find particularly helpful are as follows:
a-   Using the "Compare and contrast" approach
   One way to find your critical voice is to compare and contrast two or more of the authors. Often, the greatest concern in a critical writing is the absence of your voice. Summary of the text should be your own reflections. While you are entertaining a few of your own ideas, you will want to strengthen your own voice. For each reading, you will want to ponder several questions. What are the strengths of the argument? What are the weaknesses? Do you agree with the author or

disagree? Why or why not? Construct a conversation in which critical writer and the author talk to each other. As you manipulate these voices, you will find your own voice as referee emerging. Because the authors are experts at sustaining a critical voice, when you handle on to one of them as a partner in conversation with another author, you will find yourself able to sustain your own voice longer than if you speak alone to an author. Writing a page or more of your own reflections may be awkward for you at first; however, by pushing yourself to do this, you will make the necessary preparations for writing subsequent essays that will prove satisfying to you.

b-   Trying a give and take of argumentation
One way to push yourself to develop critical skills is to offer a narrower range of critical comments and expand on them. After you make a comment criticizing an author, imagine how she might respond. Summarize her response for your reader ("the author might respond to my point by saying ..."). Then, follow up with a further negation of your own ("But, notwithstanding the author's response, I continue to assert that ..... because ....). Also, when you make an observation or claim, always check for the follow-up sentence. "I claim 'x'" should always be followed with a "because of 'y'" sentence. Moreover, if you consider your critical reflections to be a conversation with an author, you will find yourself asking the author some questions. If you pose some of your criticisms in the form of questions (and imagine a series of responses from the author and follow-up questions by you), you will find yourself moving to a deeper and more nuanced level of engagement with the texts. By staging such a conversation, you will find yourself moving toward greater depths and breadth of engagement with the text that you are exploring.

c-   Talking to an author in your Critical Writing
In adopting a critical voice, you will explicitly share observations with your reader. What aspects of an author's position do you find compelling? Why? What are some weaknesses in her writing? If you don't find any weaknesses, imagine an imaginary critic who would find weaknesses. What would they say? How would you and the author defend yourselves against these criticisms? Why does it matter whether an author is persuasive in her analysis? If you are chatting with a skeptical friend about a chapter in a book that you have read, what do you want to hold up as valuable to your reader? Why? To find your own view, you will want to focus on the "why" word. After summarizing an author's views, determine whether you are in sympathy with them or not. What is persuasive and compelling? What is not? Either way, ask yourself "why?" Why does what she says matter? Why should we care about it? Why should we agree or disagree? Why is there more to be said on the subject? Why, if she has said it all, do you believe that she has said it all?

d-   Have authors talk to each other in your Critical Writing
Consider one classic approach to finding your own voice. Moderate an imaginary conversation between two authors. Because you are the creator of that

conversation, in choosing what the authors say to each other (what you find of particular value) for them to express, you are likely to find your own voice joining in on the conversation. Finding that voice, you can elaborate on it and magnify it.

e-   Writing for a fellow student:
Recall that a paper is always written for a reader. You have to imagine someone who is less familiar (though not wholly unfamiliar) with the text you are discussing. You may wish to imagine a fellow student who is looking to you for advice. What will you say to her or him? If one of our texts is like a pair of shoes, you can imagine telling your reader that "these are shoes I've never seen before; I think that we (the reader and I) should look at them more closely." Now, imagine if your reader says, "These are the strangest shoes I've ever seen. I don't like them and I don't know why you would want us to keep looking at them." If your reader said such a thing, what points would you want to underline for your reader? What do you want your reader to look at again? Why would you want a reader to take an author seriously? Because you are one step ahead of that student, you can provide guidance.

f-   Agreeing with an author against a fellow student:
As an alternative strategy for enhancing your critical voice, you may want to write for an unconvinced reader. Rather than go one-on-one with a text (explaining why you disagree with an author) or opposing one author to another (the compare and contrast approach), on occasion you may want to argue with your reader. If your reader (imagine a fellow student in class) is wholly unsympathetic toward a text and doesn't see any worth in it, you may find a critical position in defending that text against your reader.

Activity 3
1-   Which of the following activities involves critical thinking? If an activity does not involve critical thinking,
    a.   Riding a bike
    b.   Watching the news on TV
    c.   Doing laundry
    d.   Ordering coffee at a local coffee shop
    e.   Planning a vacation
2-   Identify five activities you do on a daily basis that do not involve critical thinking. Identify two or three activities that you do on a daily basis that would be improved by thinking critically about them.

7.4   JOURNAL WRITING
A journal is a written record of your thoughts, experiences, and observations. It is some form of notebook in which daily writing (or at least regular writing) is recorded. Journals help people clarify their thoughts. Jotting down feelings, responses, and insights into daily events gives writers an opportunity to discover what they think and how they feel about different topics.

Journal writing is the process of recording personal insights, reflections and questions on assigned or personal topics. Journal projects assigned in class may include your thoughts about daily experiences, reading assignments, current events or science experiments. Journal entries are a form of reflective writing, in that you can use them to consider and respond to something you have read or learned. However, journal entries should not merely summarize what you have read, nor should they focus only on your feelings. Instead, they should demonstrate your ability to conduct a critical inquiry. The term, critical inquiry, refers to the steps involved in collecting and analyzing ideas or information.

Because journal writing allows you to examine different ideas and writing strategies, it's also a form of exploratory writing. Keep in mind that a class journal is not the same thing as a private diary, in that the writing may be a little bit more formal, although not as formal as an essay. And while a personal diary is private, your teacher may have access to your class journal or require you to share portions with other students.

7.4.1- Common Goals of Journal Writing
- To encourage regular writing
- To make connections between class material, lectures, and personal observations
- To raise questions and issues that can fuel classroom discussions
- To generate ideas for future paper topics
- To provide a forum for inquiry, analysis, and evaluation of ideas

7.4.2- Benefits of Journal Writing
By writing about different topics, you not only improve your writing skills, but also you have an opportunity to explore your thoughts without being chastised for grammar, usage, or other errors. Journals are idea books; they are places where writers are free to "think" in writing. Journal writing can also provide you with the opportunity to:
- Preserves memories
- Sharpen your senses
- Become more confident about writing
- Broaden your perspective about topics
- Gather material for later essays
- Identify progress in writing
- Overcome writing blocks
- Spend more time on self-reflection and
- Write without fear of criticism

Additionally, journal entries can help to alleviate the stress associated with writing, a task some people find frightening. When you're journaling, there's no need to worry about grammar and spelling or polishing your work. Instead, you can use your journal as a place to brainstorm and form your points. Writing regularly also makes writing easier,

which can help you feel more comfortable approaching formal documents, presentations and polished essays.

In relationship to reading, you can also use your journal to summarize what you've read, remember important points and organize arguments. Sharing journal entries about the same readings with other students can also serve to broaden your own perspective and understand opposing positions: a key benefit when it comes time to write a finished essay.

7.4.3- How to Start Journal Writing:

You can use your journal as a general record of your daily life. Or you might prefer to focus on a certain topic such as your garden or your reading or current events. You can write about your experiences, your thoughts, your memories. You can use it to collect material to use in fiction writing and poems. Some people keep notebooks next to their beds and write down their dreams.

If you don't know what to write about, take a walk and make notes on what you observe around you: the buildings and people or the plants and birds, the weather, the look of the sky, the look of the ground (grass? wildflowers? pavement? dirt/pebbles? what color?), the sounds (cars? birds? wind? your own breath?), the smells (cut grass? car exhaust? sweat? wood smoke?), the shards and scraps that collect in the gutters. In every scene, there are an infinite number of details to notice if you pay close enough attention. Keeping with your topic or sub topic following techniques may help you in journal writing:

- **Sentence Stem.** A sentence-completion process. Fill in the blank with a word or phrase. May be very universal (Right now I feel————-) or highly customized to an individual's immediate question, problem or interest.

- **Five-Minute Sprint**. A timed writing process designed to bring focus and intensity in short bursts. Excellent for those who are resistant to journal writing, or who are uncertain about how to start, or who state they do not have time to write journals.

- **Inventory.** An assessment of life balance in major areas of living (health, family, home, work, spiritual/religious, emotional well-being, etc.) Gives a quick picture of which life areas might need attention.

- **Structured Write.** A series of Sentence Stems grouped and sequenced to reveal consistently deepening layers of information and awareness.

- **Clustering.** Visual free-association from a central word or phrase. Lines and circles connect key thoughts and associations to the central core. Work quickly to maximize results. A brief writing to synthesize findings may follow.

- **Lists of 100.** A list of 100 items, many of which will probably be repetitions, on a predetermined theme or topic. Repetition is an important part of the process. Topics can be about any current issue (for example: 100 Things I'm Sad About;

100 Things I Need or Want to Do; 100 Places I Would Like to See). At the end of the list, group the responses into themes and synthesize the information.

- **Alpha poem.** Write the alphabet, A-Z, or any collection of letters, vertically down the side of a page. Then write a poem in which each successive line begins with the next letter. Excellent for groups as it promotes a high level of participation and sharing. Adolescents and reluctant writers respond well.

- **Captured Moments.** Keep capturing the sensations of a particularly meaningful or emotional experience. Written from the senses with strong descriptors. Captured Moments of beauty, joy, blessing, and calm can add balance, hope and perspective to a challenging time.

- **Unsent Letters**. A metaphoric communication to another that is written with the specific intention that it will not be shared.

- **Character Sketch**. A written portrait of another person or of an aspect of the self. Can also be written about emotions by personifying an emotion and giving it a characterization – an appearance, a style of dress, a personality and temperament.

- **Dialogue.** A metaphoric conversation written in two voices. Anyone or anything is an appropriate dialogue partner. There is no constriction by time, space, physical reality or literal voice.

- **Perspectives**. An alteration in point of view that provides a different perspective on an event or situation.

- **Springboard.** A free-write with a prompt. Starting a free-write with the smallest structure of a question, thought or topic can focus and frame the writing session.

- **Free Writing.** Unstructured, narrative writing. Useful for creative flow or spontaneous writing sessions. Can be structured by adding a time limit or page limit.

Depending on the method of use (daily, weekly writing) and the journal's purpose (to enhance critical thinking, promote reflection, etc), the way in which journal writing is used can take many different forms. If you write about any assigned class room topic, fiction, drama, or poetry, a journal can build your writing muscles and generate ideas. It can be a laboratory, where you experiment with different approaches. It can be a source of details to add texture and crispness to your writing. And whenever you get stuck or feel uninspired, you will be able to go to your creative writing journal for fresh material.

Although every one may experience cognitive difference when engaging in a written dialogue about a challenging experience one had, the discussion can facilitate different ways of thinking and empower a students to handle differently after reflection in the

future. Reflection is used and enhanced through one-on-one dialogue via the journal writing process.

7.4.4- Some Ways to start journal writing:

People-watch

The people around you can become fictional characters or the subjects of poems. You can give them roles in your writing, or just borrow details: your neighbor's nervous laugh, the shiny makeup that makes your mother's friend look like she's made out of plastic... Make notes about people you know; take your creative writing journal to a coffeehouse or a hotel lobby and describe them: their appearance, their body language, their voices, the way they relate to each other. You can go beyond mere reporting and write what you imagine as well. What do you think that woman's name might be? Where do you think she lives? Is she having an affair with that man, or are they just business partners? What is she thinking right now? What is she hiding in that big purse? Any of this can be the beginning of a story or poem.

Listen

Listen in restaurants, in stores. Listen to your own family and friends - really listen. Not just to what they're saying, but to the words they use, the pauses, and the unique rhythms of their speech. And write down pieces of speech when they are still fresh in your ears. If you wait too long, you'll find the sentences coming out in your own voice. Learning to capture different voices on paper will help you with dialogue for stories or scripts. It can also be a source for poetry.

Take a walk

Describe your neighborhood. Describe the weather, the colors and textures, the light and shadow. Go beyond what you see -- describe the sounds, the smells, the feeling of the air on your skin. Look for the surprising details, the ones that aren't quite as you'd imagine the ones you could never have made up. These details will give authenticity to your creative writing; make it feel real to the reader.

Take a field trip

Are you writing a scene in a police station? A city dump? Visit one. Write down the details that will make the setting come alive on the page. On the other hand, if you're not in the middle of a writing project, taking a field trip can give you ideas for one. Go somewhere you would normally never go. By explaining you're a writer, you can get permission to visit places not normally open to the public. Take notes on your observations and see what story ideas

Use real-life stories

The news, gossip, the experiences of your friends, and even stories from history books can be sources for creative writing. Make notes on the story, and imagine the parts you don't know. Imagine it as if you were there. What, exactly, did people see? What were they thinking? What did it all feel like? What led up to the event; what happened next? Let your imagination fill in the gaps. Or imagine that some part of it had been different. How does that change the story.

"Free-write"

This technique is especially useful as a warm-up for creative writing or as a cure for writer's block. The way free-writing works is that you keep your pen moving on the page, normally during a set amount of time (try setting a timer for five minutes, for example). If you don't have anything to say, you can write, "I don't have anything to say," over and over until something else occurs to you. Don't judge or correct yourself as you are writing; don't worry about sounding smart or even making sense. It is a way of tricking your mind into relaxing. Then interesting things often start to happen on the page.

7.5   SELF ASSESSMENT QUESTION

Have you had experiences of suddenly knowing an important "next step" in your life? What is the difference between mentally figuring something out and having emotional insight? Are there any transitions in your life now that await decisions or actions?

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TOOLS AND TECHNIQUES OF CRITICAL THINKING AND REFLECTIVE PRACTICES

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CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

Critical thinking is thinking that is aimed at deciding what to believe or what to do. Deciding what to believe is a matter of deciding what the facts are, figuring out what the world is like, or at least what some little corner of it is like. We make these kinds of decisions when we decide whether it is raining out or sunny, whether the movie was as good as its billing, whether the restaurant has gotten better over the years, or whether we should trust what our teachers tell us. In deciding what to believe on some matter we take a stand on it. If it is a decision on a factual matter, like the decision about the weather then we take a stand on what the facts are. If it is a decision on an evaluative matter, like the one about the movie or the restaurant, then in deciding what to believe we are taking a stand on what is good or better. In either kind of case, critical thinking is aimed at helping us to make those kinds of decisions about what to believe.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

After completing this unit you will be able to:
1.   use the tools and techniques of critical thinking
2.   practice reflective writing effectively
3.   utilize the techniques learned in their own and fellow teachers' professional development

8.1   MIND MAPPING

Mind Map is a powerful graphic technique which provides a universal key to unlock the potential of the brain. It harnesses the full range of cortical skills – word, image, number, logic, rhythm, colour and spatial awareness – in a single, uniquely powerful manner. Mind mapping is one of the very best methods to optimize ones learning capacities and understanding of how the elements of complex structures are connected. In so doing, it gives you the freedom to roam the infinite expanses of your brain. Originated in the late 1960s by Tony Buzan, "Mind Mapping is a graphical technique for visualizing connections between several ideas or pieces of information." Each idea or fact is written down and then linked by lines or curves to its major or minor (or following or previous) idea or fact, thus creating a web of relationships.
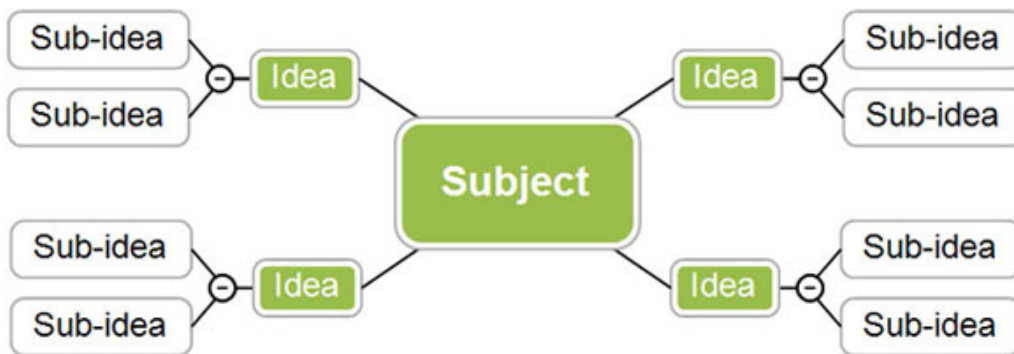
Mind Maps are now used by millions of people around the world – from the very young to the very old and are applied to every aspect of life where improved learning and clearer thinking will enhance human performance. You are born with special "brain-programs" to be able to learn and memorize everything you experience during your lifetime. You have one "brain-program" to remember special occasions, one program that remembers pictures, one that remembers structures, etc, etc. The fantastic thing about mind mapping is that it uses these existing "brain-programs" and refines them! So Mind mapping simply optimizes the power that you already have in your mind.
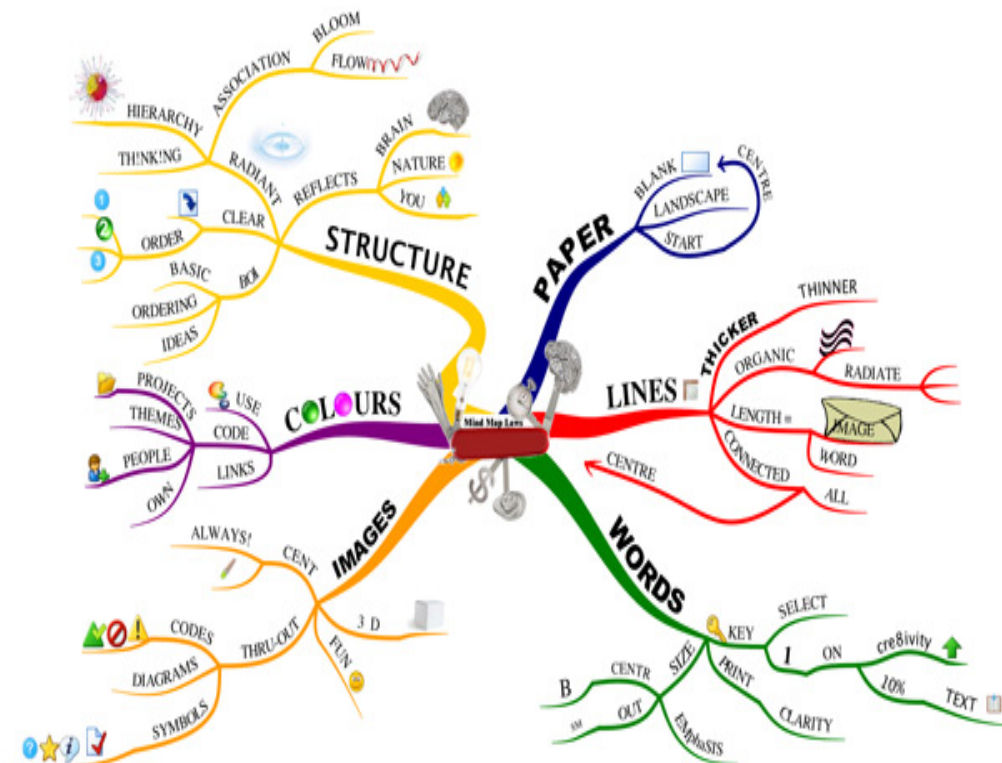
Adapted from Buzan, 1976

Mind Mapping is the easiest way to put information into your brain and to take information out of your brain - it's a creative and effective means of note-taking that literally 'maps out' your thoughts. And it is so simple.

According to Michael Michalko, in "Cracking Creativity", a Mind Map:
- activates your whole brain
- clears your mind of mental clutter
- allows you to focus on the subject
- helps demonstrate connections between isolated pieces of information
- gives a clear picture of both the details and the big picture
- allows you to group and regroup concepts, encouraging comparisons between them
- requires you to concentrate on your subject, which helps get the information about it transferred from your short-term memory to your long-term memory

8.1.1 Importance of Mind Mapping:
Mind Mapping help you to learn, organize, and store as much information as you want, and to classify it in natural ways that give you easy and instant access (perfect memory) to whatever you want. Mind mapping is one of the very best methods to optimize ones learning capacities and understanding of how the elements of complex structures are connected. Mind Maps

have an additional strength: you would think that the more information you put into your head, the more stuffed your head would become and the more difficult it would be to get any information out. Mind Maps turn this thought on its head!

8.1.2 Principles of Mind Mapping:
The brain works in different ways. Different people think in different ways. However, while your thinking and reasoning follow a structure that is personal to you, you still use a number of techniques that apply to most people. There are certain "programs" loaded in your consciousness. These programs are your "natural thinking software". You get them included with your mind when you enter this world. The brain works according to certain basic principles, and you can use mind maps to take advantage of them to improve your creativity and memory. There are several fundamental principles for mind-mapping:

Pictures: What you see, you will remember! You have an enormous capacity to remember pictures and images. The brain constantly takes "photos" of your life and stores these in a gigantic photo album inside your head, and you can actually retrieve them at any given moment. This is very critical for mind mapping, since it is much easier to remember a picture than it is to remember long lines of pure text.

Headlines: It is far easier to remember single words, short phrases and striking headlines, than to remember pure text. This is quite self explanatory - you could try to quote this entire chapter through hundreds of hours of studying – and surely fail anyway. Or you could simply write down a headline for each important point, and still remember 95% of the important information… it's up to you.

Connection: Your consciousness always analyzes how things are connected to each other. And when that is done, the mind creates an image to symbolize the structure. A lot of the brain's work is based on association and it automatically links different subjects together to create a system. It is important to let your brain work the way it wants and help it, instead of forcing it to take a certain direction. Your brain will be much happier, and when it appreciates your help it rewards you with knowledge and the power to remember.

8.1.3 Techniques of Mind Mapping:
Brain Storming: The map itself is quite similar to what is going on in your head. It's all one big mish-mash of information and nothing seems to be structured. But it really doesn't matter, because the only purpose of this technique is to get all those ideas into print - to create a picture of everything you want to include. And I do mean everything you can think of! After that, it will be easy to select the best ideas to include in your project. More or less, the flow of creating this kind of mind map is as follows:
1. begin with the main topic
2. write some of the major, important sub-headlines
3. link these two additional sub-sub-headlines
4. repeat step 2 and 3 until your outline is completed

If you compare use of mind mapping with other forms of idea development, the conclusion is clear - brainstorming is a superior technique to get your project started.

The Flow: This is a somewhat different type of mind map, extremely useful when you need to see the continuity in a system, the step-by-step plan. It's easy to get an overview of the chain of events that you have to follow, the so called step by-step plan, when you use a mind map The critical thing to remember is to write the chain of actions vertically, and let every little sub-topic flow to the desired action horizontally. Just like in the mind map above. Everything becomes so easy when using mind maps. You can get a full and detailed overview of the entire structure, and free up your time to focus on performance instead of planning. Just let your mind generate the ideas, write them down in a chronological order, and remember to make plenty of space for new ideas and suggestions.

The Big Picture: This is a very interesting and effective mind mapping technique, which also happens to be my personal favorite. Actually, this technique is very personal. The Big Picture is all about – to be able to combine all the techniques for best effect.

8.1.4 Steps in Mind Mapping:
1. start in the CENTRE of a blank page turned sideways. Because starting in the centre gives your Brain freedom to spread out in all directions and to express itself more freely and naturally.
2. use an IMAGE or PICTURE for your central idea. Because an image is worth a thousand words and helps you use your Imagination. A central image is more interesting, keeps you focused, helps you concentrate, and gives your Brain more of a buzz!
3. use COLOURS throughout. Because colors are as exciting to your Brain as are images. Colour adds extra vibrancy and life to your Mind Map, adds tremendous energy to your Creative Thinking, and is fun!
4. connect your MAIN BRANCHES to the central image and connect your second- and third-level branches to the first and second levels, etc Because your Brain works by association. It likes to link two (or three, or four) things together. If you connect the branches, you will understand and remember a lot more easily.
5. make your branches CURVED rather than straight-lined. Because having nothing but straight lines is boring to your Brain.
6. use ONE KEY WORD PER LINE. Because single key words give your Mind Map more power and flexibility.
7. use IMAGES throughout because each image, like the central image, is also worth a thousand words. So if you have only 10 images in your Mind Map, it's already the equal of 10,000 words of notes!

Creativity is the key to your mental success, both in terms of coming up with startling and original ideas, and in terms of memorizing whatever you want. Your brain is naturally creative and you need only to provide it with the right environment to unlock its full creative potential. Nurture every opportunity you have to be creative, always try to be flexible and to get away from the norm - believe that your ideas, like our brain, are truly exceptional - and remember that Mind Maps are your greatest ally when it comes to releasing your genius within. Mind Maps are an excellent tool for helping you write well-

structured and focused writings. They are particularly helpful as they enable you to see the whole picture of your argument and objectively assess if your argument and the structure of your writing are logical. Not only can Mind Maps help you to plan what you intend to write, but they are also a useful tool when it comes to writing
out in detail: you can keep referring back to it to check you are on track.

Activity 1
Prepare a mind map for preparation of your exam.
Prepare a mind map of activities that bring happiness to your life.

8.2   PORTFOLIO DEVELOPMENT

Changing practice in the field of assessment has focused attention throughout the world on alternative forms of assessment of students and simultaneously of professionals. Portfolio-based assessment is one of the approaches that have shown considerable promise in the teacher education programs. A professional portfolio is a representative group of documents that provides evidence of one's knowledge, attitudes, beliefs and skills. It is a work in progress that reflects the evolution and refinement of professional and personal development. In the portfolio development based assessment, each student creates a portfolio that is individualized based upon talents of the student. The student receives faculty and peer input at each stage of the process resulting in a collaborative journey of collegial sharing between the student, the faculty and other students. Broadly defined, a portfolio is a systematic collection of artifacts and reflections that demonstrates evidence of student achievement of specified competencies or standards, according to a defined set of principles (AERA, 1999; NPBEA, 2002). Portfolios are gaining attention because proponents believe that portfolios are better predictors of student 2 performance in "real life" situations as well as capable of improving students' higher order thinking skills and learning experiences.

8.2.1-   Purpose of Portfolio Development

- The portfolio is intended to encourage the student to become actively involved in monitoring and reflecting on his/her development as professional.
- The contents of the portfolio reflect both academic and field experiences that demonstrate the student's application of knowledge and skills.
- The portfolio allows students to demonstrate mastery of the competencies of the program.
- It provides a more complete picture of the student's interests, abilities and accomplishments in tangible evidences.
- The portfolio is intended to be used as an ongoing tool to encourage and guide future professional development.
- It encourages the student's organizational skills, self-assessment of growth, and awareness of continuing educational needs.
- It is expected that students will continue to develop their portfolios and as they reflect on their profession and their learning.

8.2.2 Types of Portfolios

There are several types of portfolios.

For classroom purposes, the main types include the working portfolio, the developmental portfolio (sometimes referred to in textbooks as the assessment portfolio), and the showcase portfolio (sometimes referred to as the display portfolio).

The Working Portfolio

The working portfolio is a purposeful collection of student work in progress. The collection is assembled based on clear objectives and guidelines given by the teacher. All portfolios begin as working collections, since it is from these collections that final selections are made for presentation. The advantage of the working collection is that it allows students to take a second look at what they do, and to think about how they could improve future work. It is a departure from the traditional practice where a first draft of an assignment was considered as a final product.

The Development Portfolio

The developmental portfolio represents a completed selection of student work. It contains work that shows the student's progress towards mastery of set objectives for a topic, theme, or course of work, and provides evidence of his/her achievement over a period of time. This type of portfolio enhances learning through the process of reviewing, revising, and evaluating the final product. Diagnosis may be one use for these portfolios since the feedback obtained at intervals can shape further instruction and learning for the student. This type of portfolio clearly demonstrates the integration among instruction, learning, and assessment.

The Showcase Portfolio

The showcase portfolio shows the student's best work and is used to support and document accomplishment in a course/subject area or any learning activity. This requires the student to be able to make a selection from a range of work (working portfolio) using specific criteria. These criteria may be determined by an external examining body, by the teacher, or may be developed by the student in collaboration with the teacher.

8.2.3- Stages of Portfolio Development

Portfolio development begins at the beginning of the student's program and is integrated in coursework throughout the program. Through the process, students evaluate and reflect on what they need and want to learn. Their perceptions may change as they progress through the program. In the initial phase, the student begins collecting and selecting information that will represent him/her as a developing professional. The student will develop his/her professional philosophy statement and identify the purpose of the portfolio. Students will receive input from their faculty mentor and their peers.

The final phase of portfolio development occurs when students develop a professional resume and select evidence or artifacts that reflect and document their growth during the program.

Students work with their faculty mentor individually and in collaborative groups as they integrate their graduate coursework, field experiences and related employment into a

professional document. Many students subsequently use their portfolio when interviewing for a job. There are a number of stages to the development of a portfolio. These stages may include but are not limited to:

Goal Identification	Identifying a vision that will guide the portfolio development.
Collecting	Gathering artifacts that demonstrate the student's professional development. Some of these artifacts will ultimately become the portfolio entries.
Selecting	Reflecting and identifying artifacts that are most relevant and meaningful to the student's purpose, beliefs and philosophy. These become the portfolio entries. The student also determines the final design of the portfolio, such as a notebook or specifically designed box.
Categorizing	Identifying the developing themes of the portfolio.
Connecting	Making a linkage between the items selected and the goal of the portfolio. This is the thinking -through stage that formulates the reflections.
Reflecting	Making each entry relevant and meaningful by writing about why the entry is included in the portfolio. This reflection ties the individual entry to the overall portfolio document
Sharing	Presenting and discussing the portfolio to program faculty

8.2.4- Components of Portfolio
There are three components of the portfolio. These are: The physical format, the philosophical basis and the supportive evidence.

a)   Physical format
1.   Method of presentation
        The physical format is the structural representation of the portfolio. The portfolio is individualized by students based upon the materials or artifacts presented. Examples of physical format include the use of notebooks, folders plastic presentation pages, and three ring binders.
2.   Table of contents
        The Table of Contents provides organization of the materials presented and structures the physical format of the portfolio. As information is gathered and categorized into meaningful sections or themes the Table of Contents emerges.

b)   Philosophical basis
1.   Statement of purpose
        The Statement of Purpose introduces the reader to the portfolio. It includes a statement that highlights the student's efforts, progress and achievements.

The Statement of Purpose delineates the sections of the portfolio with a brief explanation of each section.

2.   Professional philosophy
The Professional Philosophy presents the core values that guide the student's work with infants and young children and their families. The Professional Philosophy should be evident throughout the portfolio. The student's reflections throughout the portfolio should relate to the professional philosophy and should indicate areas for continued professional growth. The following question may help to shape the philosophy: Drawing upon theoretical knowledge, research and personal experiences, what are my professional beliefs and attitudes in working with children and families?

c)   Supportive evidence/documentation
1.   Entries
The specific information that documents the student's experiences is referred to as an entry. There are three types of entries used for documentation:
a)   Artifacts: Materials that provide evidence of the beliefs, knowledge, skills and attitudes the student wishes to present. Examples of artifacts include observations, videotapes, journal entries, photographs, computer disks, annotated bibliographies, lesson plans, assessment reports, case studies and research papers.
b)   Reproductions: Summaries of discussions with mentors or supervisors and/or audiotapes of relevant meetings (with the permission of all involved parties).
c)   Attestations: Documentation of the student's work prepared by someone else. Examples include letters of recommendation, parent letters, and evaluations.

When selecting material for documentation, the following guidelines should be used:
- Select entries that provide the most compelling evidence for the purpose of the portfolio.
- Select entries that reflect the Professional Philosophy statement, which introduces the portfolio.
- Select entries that address each competency strand (minimum of 3-
- 4 pieces per strand)
- Select entries that reflect the full range of acquired knowledge, attitudes, beliefs and skills.

2.   Reflection
Reflections are interpretation, commentary, analysis and explanation that make the individual entries and the composite portfolio meaningful and relevant to the individual student's purpose and philosophy. Reflections may be attached to entries or precede them.

3.   Captions
Captions give explanations about an entry and are used to focus the reader on selected content of the entry.

4. **Annotations**
   Annotations are materials such as annotated bibliographies, brief descriptions of courses and/or abstracts of the student's own research papers.
5. **Boxed Entries**
   "Boxed" entries highlight or bring attention to sections of journals, papers or other entries. Boxed entries may be delineated by highlighting, boxing or bolding a portion of an entry.
   d) **Required items for portfolio:**
   The student must include a:
   - resume
   - table of Contents
   - statement of Purpose
   - professional Philosophy of early intervention

8.2.4- Evaluation of Portfolio

The development of this professional portfolio is mandatory and is part of the university requirement for graduation. Portfolios will be evaluated using the following criteria:
- Overall quality of the student's work
- Organization of the portfolio defense
- Quality of the integrating activities represented throughout the program

Portfolios are gaining attention because proponents believe that portfolios are better predictors of student 2 performance in "real life" situations as well as capable of improving students' higher order thinking skills and learning experiences. Largely, goals of such reforms have included student-centered learning, teaching with technology, teacher empowerment establishing systems for quality assurance and accountability.

> **Activity**
> Develop your own portfolio reflecting your personal reflection, educational back grounds, motivations key competencies and aims of life.

8.3   ASSESSMENT SCHEDULES

Assessment remains a major concern in developing programs to enhance students' critical thinking skills. Until a concept can be defined and assessed, adequate models for teaching are difficult to develop. Despite the lack of a comprehensive theory of critical thinking, varied efforts have been made to develop assessment tools.

Approaches to Assessment
Three main approaches to assessing critical thinking have commonly been used:
a) <u>Commercially available general knowledge standardized tests:</u>
   Commercially available standardized general critical thinking tests (eg.California Critical Thinking Skills Test, the Cornell Critical Thinking Tests, and the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal [Murphy, Conoley, & Impara, 1994]) have typically relied on multiple choice responses that test major aspects of critical

thinking, including interpretation, analysis, inference, recognition of assumptions, assessing credibility, and detecting fallacies in reasoning. None have claimed to test for all aspects of critical thinking. These instruments have been carefully developed and tested for reliability and validity, and all have been widely used as measures for testing people's ability to think critically. Their use as assessment instruments is facilitated by their ease of grading (machine scoring) and has allowed comparisons among research projects using various models of teaching for critical thinking. On the other hand, while they test how well a student reasons from written material, they cannot assess whether students are able to generate clear, well-supported written or oral arguments, whether they can solve open-ended problems, or whether they have developed dispositions to use critical thinking skills when appropriate. Some researchers have suggested that multiple-choice tests are not valid indicators of critical thinking ability because test-takers are not free to determine their own questions or apply their own evaluative criteria (Keeley & Browne, 1986). Some researchers have advocated using student-generated responses, including essays, to test adequately for critical thinking. Several general knowledge standardized essay tests for critical thinking have been developed as alternatives to multiple-choice formats in attempts to assess students' abilities to generate arguments and to capture the open-ended problem solving nature of critical thinking. The Ennis-Weir Critical Thinking Essay Test, the best-known and most widely used example, requires students to read an essay on an everyday issue (overnight parking on a city street) containing numerous reasoning errors and to construct their own response. This standardized, commercially available essay test of general critical thinking ability provides several advantages over multiple choice tests or instructor-developed essay tests, including student-generated responses, carefully established validity and reliability, and national recognition. On the other hand, while standardized essay tests have included suggested standards and criteria for grading essays, the time and cost involved in grading open-ended assessments and the expertise required to grade them reliably has limited their use. Other approaches to having students provide reasons for their responses and/or generate their own responses on commercial standardized general tests of critical thinking are being studied as well.

Each of the commercially available critical thinking tests is limited in its ability to adequately assess changes in students' critical thinking abilities, but their careful development, standardized scoring, and general use make them good candidates for use in educational research projects.

b) <u>Researcher or instructor designed assessments that attempt to capture aspects of critical thinking more directly related to the purposes of the research project or subject of instruction.</u>
    A second approach to assessing critical thinking is researcher or instructor developed tests. Researchers have provided examples and criteria for instructors interested in developing assessment techniques for such purposes as testing domain-specific critical thinking, testing for transfer, evaluating a critical thinking

program, formative evaluations, or determining grades. While teacher made tests can and should be used within the classroom to assess critical thinking, their use in educational research projects examining the effectiveness of various methods or models to teach for critical thinking has important limitations. Instruments designed for a specific experimental method or model for critical thinking may best capture its strengths, but the resulting variety of instruments and assessment techniques has led to difficulties comparing the results of educational studies.

c)   <u>Teaching students to assess their own thinking.</u>
Perhaps the most appropriate way to assess students' critical thinking abilities is to teach them to assess their own thinking. Paul has written extensively on teaching students to assess their own work, and he has argued that to the extent that students need feedback from instructors, they have not achieved a high level of critical thinking (Foundation for Critical Thinking, 1996). Angelo and Cross (1993) have also emphasized the importance of student self-assessment techniques. This approach seems to comprise an integral part of teaching for critical thinking and needs to be addressed more broadly by researchers. While highly appropriate for classroom use, however, it requires a deep understanding of critical thinking and a tremendous commitment from both the instructor and the students. Further, this method of assessment, for many obvious reasons, does not meet the requirements of rigorous educational research.

Recent attention to critical thinking demands that current assessment practices be revised, discarded, or replaced. Scholars have continued to work to develop reliable, valid assessments that test the total construct while providing efficiency in grading. At this time, no one approach is best, and each has its limitations and merits.

Activity 2
Which types of assessments are most useful in schools?

Discuss and give reasons for the ones you choose?

8.4   MENTORING AND PEER SUPPORT
Mentoring is not new. On the contrary, the term "mentor" originates from Greek Mythology. The practice of mentoring even dates back to earlier times. In recent years there has been a remarkable rise of interest in mentoring. Mentoring relationships are valued as a very powerful means to longer-term personal development in a business environment. Mentoring is a relationship between two individuals based on a mutual desire for development towards career goals and objectives. The relationship is a non reporting one and replaces none of the organizational structures in place. It is additional

to other forms of assistance, such as developmental assignments, classroom instruction, on-the-job training, and coaching.

In a mentoring relationship, the two individuals are referred to as the "mentor" and the "mentee" (the individual being mentored). Mentoring provides development opportunities for both partners. In mentoring, there is no reporting relationship between the mentor and the mentee (i.e., a manager would not mentor a direct report). Mentoring is not intended to replace the relationship between employees and their managers. Mentors do not conduct or provide input to performance reviews.

Benefits of Mentoring
- A mentoring relationship can provide a mentee with:
- greater clarity on life and career choices and their own career goals
- new insight on the company's culture and organization different perspectives and cultural values
- the opportunity to develop new networks of contacts
- access to new resources
- greater career satisfaction and increased likelihood of career
- success development in areas not typically address through training or on the job

Through the mentoring process mentors have the opportunity to enhance their leadership skills and expand their perspectives by:
- seeing the business world through different eyes being challenged on perceived wisdom
- increasing their awareness of issues at other levels of the organization
- meeting new members of the organization

In addition to the benefits gained by mentees and their mentors, organizations also gain a great deal from having a mentoring program. Mentoring contributes to the development of a pipeline of talent and provides a process to transfer formal leadership skills from today's leaders to the leaders of the future. It can result in:
- Employees with greater knowledge of the business and organization
- Retention of staff
- Improved productivity through networking
- Improved communication throughout the organization

Finally, organizations that support mentoring and peer support demonstrate their commitment to the development and advancement of their employees. What are the phases of a mentoring relationship?

Types of Mentoring:
Understanding the value of different types of mentoring will help you identify quality mentoring opportunities.

Formal
- Structured programs frequently match mentors and trainee
- Formats vary by program
- Generally focused on specific goals
- Provides accountability based on formal contracts between mentor and trainee

Natural
- Initiated by mentor – one person (usually senior) reaching out to another
- Implicit – usually people with much in common

Peer
- Individuals at the same level providing skill training
- Individuals in similar positions (e. g., have small children) providing support, empathy, and advice
- Individuals in similar stage of career mentoring on options and career goals

Situational
- Mentoring for a specific purpose/skill
- Generally short-term
- Common at all stages of the career

Supervisory
- Advisor as mentor and direct supervisor – "many hats"
- Not all supervisors are comfortable also being a mentor
- Possibility of conflict of interest

Trainee initiated
- Begins with an interaction with a chosen mentor – it may develop into a mentoring relationship: build bridges

<u>Mentor Roles & Responsibilities</u>
- Support the Mentee to make an Action Plan outlining their motivation and goals.
- Meet on a one to one or group basis to review the Mentee's progress towards their desired goals
- Use questioning techniques to facilitate the Mentee's own thought process in order to identify solutions and actions
- Utilize active listening and communication skills to ensure the needs of Mentee are being met within the mentoring relationship
- Share relevant academic experiences/problems you have overcome (if appropriate)
- Facilitate and encourage autonomous and enquiry-based learning, providing the Mentee with the tools to find their own answers
- Sign-post the Mentee onto other support services should this be necessary.
- Attend continuous training to ensure the you have the appropriate skills to support the Mentee in their journey

- An interest in developing themselves and others
- Capable of building trust and maintaining confidentiality
- Record meetings for review and evaluation

Mentees Role:
- A desire and ability to engage in the mentoring process
- The time and commitment to pursue their goals
- An understanding of the role and boundaries of the Mentor
- Being punctual and prepared for meetings
- Must respect the confidentiality of the relationship

Phases of Mentoring Relationship:
There are following phases to a mentoring relationship. Click on a phase to read more about it.

Phase 1: Focus on Growth
The mentoring process begins with the mentee examining their long-term development objectives:
- What are my personal capabilities?
- What are my career aspirations?
- How do they align with the company objectives?
- What are the possibilities within my company?

Mentees may consult with their manager on setting mentoring objectives. Mentoring may even be formally added to the annual development plan. With their goal in mind, the mentee selects a mentor. The starting point for selecting a mentor is your specific development goals for the mentoring relationship.

Mentoring relationships are based on trust. For a compatible peer relationship the mentor should be:
- honest
- demonstrates moral values
- can be trusted to maintain the confidentiality of the mentoring relationship
- who is committed to the development of others,
- understands the value of mentoring,
- is willing to share their personal experiences and has sufficient time to devote to the relationship.
- with sufficient experience and respect within the organization;
- someone who demonstrates maturity in work and life.
- consider individuals who are regarded as successful
- communication skills are also key to a mentoring relationship. Select someone who will listen, ask questions, give feedback, clearly articulate thoughts and be open to new ideas.
- also consider characteristics such as common sense, a positive mindset and a sense of humor.

Phase 2: Building Rapport

After selecting a mentor, the mentee formally asks the potential mentor face to face. Although this step might cause some uncertainty, most people are flattered and respond positively. The worst that can happen is that they say "no". Should they decline, they may offer suggestions of others that may be more suitable or available to take on a mentoring relationship with the mentee. During the first mentoring meeting(s), the mentor and mentee begin to get to know each other by sharing:

- history
- Interests
- Information about your family
- What you like / dislike about working in this company
- Where you want to be in five years
- Your greatest achievements / failures
- Your picture of success
- Areas in which you want to develop for
- your current role and future roles
- Values
- Life goals

Through these initial discussions, mentors and mentees begin to recognize and appreciate their style differences.

Phase 3: Setting Direction

Also on the agenda for the first meeting is a discussion on mentoring goals and expectations for the mentoring relationship. This phase is often called the contracting phase.

Goals - What are my goals for the relationship? How does my vision of mentoring correspond to my mentor's?

Scope - What areas do not require attention? Are there any limits to the scope of our discussions?

Trust - How will we deal with confidentiality? Do we both agree that openness and trust are essential?

Fit - When and how will we check that the mentoring relationship is "right" for both of us? If not, what type of "no harm done" clause should we establish to end the relationship? In the event that the relationship does end, the mentoring pair needs to agree to take responsibility to discuss the decision as part of mutual learning.

Meeting Logistics - When, where and how long will we meet? How often will we get together (usually a minimum of 1 time per month)? Will we communicate in person, by phone or via e-mail? How will we set our meeting dates? Will we have an agenda for the meeting? Will there be written notes?

Phase 4: Moving On

All good mentoring relationships come to an end! By this time the mentee has probably advanced sufficiently and achieved their mentoring goals. It is also quite possible that through the mentoring relationship, goals may have changed. Mentees may be comfortable moving on independently and may no longer need this support.

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Self Assessment

List five possible obstacles to thinking critically. Describe one strategy for overcoming each obstacle.

</div>

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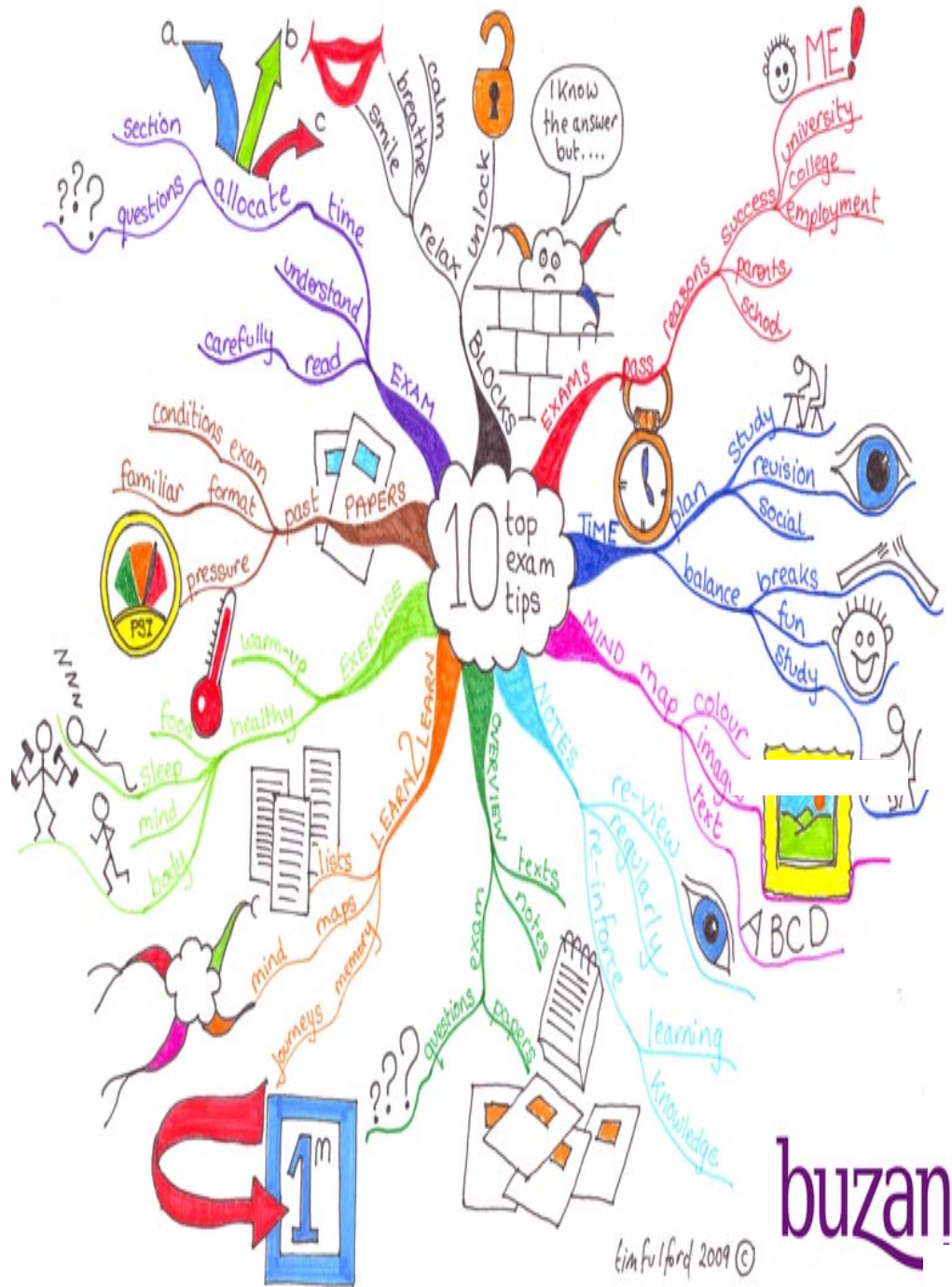
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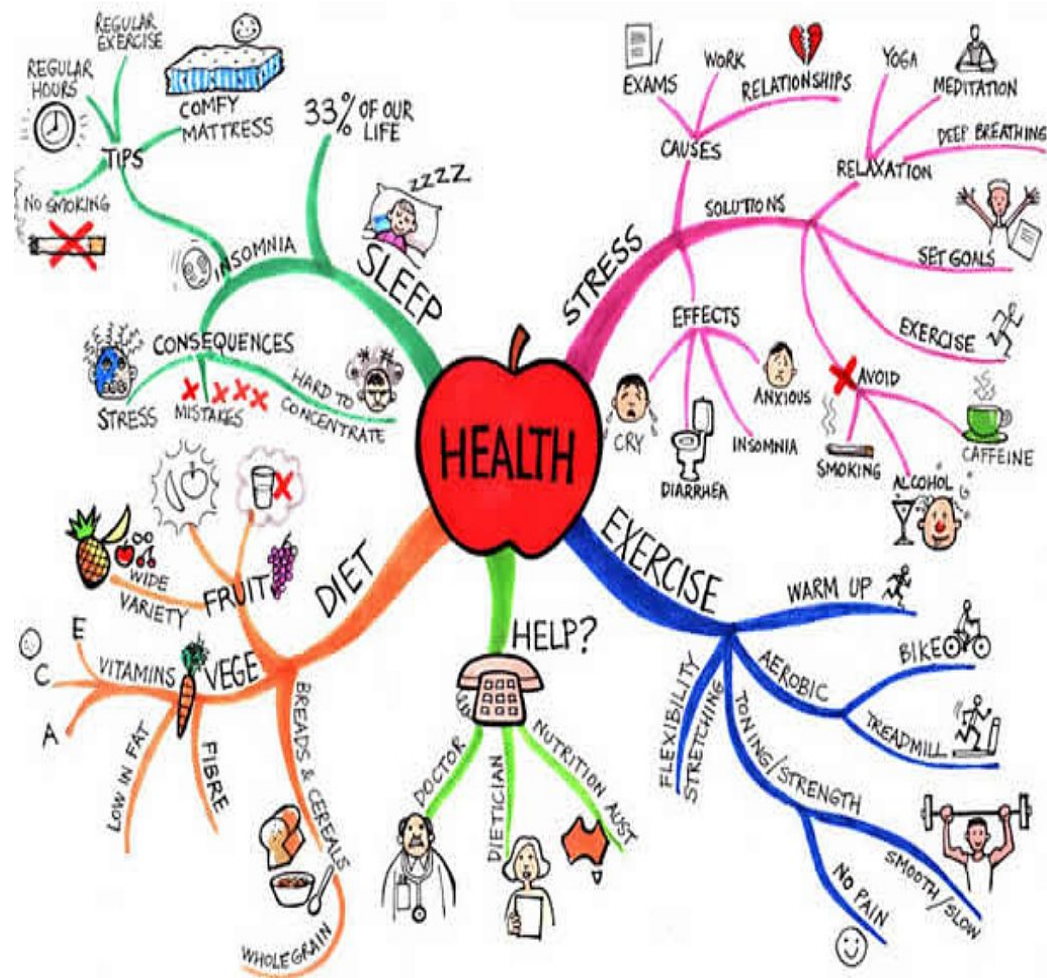
Adapted from Buzan, 1976

COMMUNITIES OF PRACTICE AND KNOWLEDGE

Written By: Uzma Akhtar
Reviewed by: Dr. Afshan Huma

179

CONTENT

INTRODUCTION

Learning is seen as originated from the social course of becoming more interactive within society, as it gives the individual a social context of being an integrated part of a community. The social construction of identity shapes each person's view and interpretation of the world. Learning and the creation of new knowledge can then take place within the context dependent forum of the community, and can be shared through social practice. Communities vary greatly from each other by membership composition (e.g. very homogeneous or very diverse), dispersion (small and community-focused or international virtual networks), some are quite small; some are very large, often with a core group and many peripheral members. Some are local and some cover the globe. Some meet mainly face--to--face, some mostly online and purpose (very closely-defined or broad and far-reaching). In fact, communities of practice are everywhere. Yet when it is given a name and brought into focus, it becomes a perspective that can help us understand our world better. In particular, it allows us to see past more obvious formal structures such as organizations, classrooms, or nations, and perceive the structures defined by engagement in practice and the informal learning that comes with it.

LEARNING OUTCOMES

After completing this unit you will be able to:
1. grasp and share the perceived and reflective knowledge beyond their institutions
2. connect to the relevant community of practice
3. interact effectively within the networked communities of practice
4. interact effectively within the networked communities of practice

9.1   CONCEPT OF COMMUNITY OF PRACTICE

The three core components of a community are a community (a set of people) with a defined domain (what they care about or do) who work on the body of knowledge about their practice (their work). By creating the conditions for communities, individuals can be strengthened in knowledge of their interest. These components can be elaborated as:

The domain*:* A community of practice is not simply a club of friends or an association of connections between people. It has an identity defined by a shared domain of interest. Membership therefore implies a commitment to the domain, and therefore a shared competence that distinguishes members from other people. The domain is not necessarily something recognized as "expertise" outside the community.

The community*:* In pursuing their interest in their domain, members engage in joint activities and discussions, help each other, and share information. They build relationships that enable them to learn from each other; they care about their standing with each other. A website in itself is not a community of practice. Having the same job or the same title does not make for a community of practice unless members interact and learn together.

The practice*:* A community of practice is not merely a community of interest–people who like certain kinds of movies, for instance. Members of a community of practice are practitioners. They develop a shared repertoire of resources: experiences, stories, tools, ways of addressing recurring problems—in short a shared practice. This takes time and sustained interaction.

Lave and Wenger (1991) introduced the concept of community of practice which describes a learning theory with a strong relationship to the social construction of knowledge. The community of practice consists of members who interact with each other for their pursuit of a common practice. It can be defined as "A group of individuals informally bound to one another through exposure to a common class of problems, common pursuit of solutions, and thereby themselves embodying a store of knowledge" (Stewart 2001 in Botha et al 2008).

Cultivating communities of practice
a quick start-up guide
by Etienne Wenger

What are communities of practice?

Communities of practice are groups of people who share a passion for something that they know how to do and who interact regularly to learn how to do it better.

What elements to develop?

Domain: the definition of the area of shared inquiry and of the key issues

Community: the relationships among members and the sense of belonging

Practice: the body of knowledge, methods, stories, cases, tools, documents

Where to start?

set strategic context

A strategic context lets communities find a legitimate place in the organization

- Articulate a strategic value proposition
- Identify critical business problems
- Articulate need to leverage knowledge

educate

Communities of practice are a familiar experience, but people need to understand how they fit in their work.

- Conduct workshops to educate management and potential members about the approach
- Help people appreciate how communities of practice are inherently self-defined and self-managed
- Establish a language to legitimize communities and establish their place in the organization

support

Communities of practice can use some light-handed guidance and technology infrastructure.

- Provide some process support, coaching, and logistic assistance
- Identify needs and define adequate infrastructure without undue emphasis on fancy technology

get going

Starting to cultivate communities of practice as early as possible creates early examples that allow people to learn by doing.

- Have a few pilot communities going as soon as possible
- Find communities to start with by identifying areas where there is potential and readiness
- Interview some prospective members to understand issues, start discussing a community, and identify potential leaders
- Gather a core group to prepare and initiate a launch process
- Help members organize an initial series of value-adding activities
- Encourage them to take increasing responsibility for stewarding their knowledge

encourage

Practitioners usually see the value of working as a community but may feel the organization is not aligned with their understanding.

- Find sponsors to encourage participation
- Value the work of communities
- Publicize successes

integrate

The formal organization must have processes and structure to include these communities while honoring their root in personal passion and engagement.

- Integrate communities in the way the organization works
- Identify and remove obvious barriers
- Align key structural and cultural elements

Why focus on communities of practice?

members	short-term value	long-term value
	• help with challenges	• personal development
	• access to expertise	• reputation
	• confidence	• professional identity
	• fun with colleagues	• network
	• meaningful work	• marketability
organization	• problem solving	• strategic capabilities
	• time saving	• keeping abreast
	• knowledge sharing	• innovation
	• synergies across units	• retention of talents
	• reuse of resources	• new strategies

What are some critical success factors?

community	organization
• Domain that energizes a core group	• Strategic relevance of domain
• Skillful and reputable coordinator	• Visible management sponsorship, but without micro-management
• Involvement of experts	• Dance of formal and informal structures
• Address details of practice	• Adequate resources
• Right rhythm and mix of activities	• Consistent attitude

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The term community of practice was coined to refer to the community that acts as a living curriculum for the learner. Once the concept was articulated, these communities can be seen everywhere, even when no formal learning system existed. And of course, learning in a community of practice is not limited to learner.

9.2 CONCEPT OF PERCEIVED KNOWLEDGE

Perception is the course of action by which we acquire information about the world around us using our five senses. It is a central issue in the theory of knowledge. We acquire raw information about the world around us through perception. We can then take that information and integrate and try to understand it. All knowledge, though, is derived from this common root. What we perceive. It is our link to the outside world. There is

never a question that what we perceive is accurate. The only question is whether we accurately interpret what we perceive. It may be said that at root, all our practical knowledge is grounded in how we see, hear, touch, smell and taste the world around us.

The term perceived knowledge is used to refer to one's self-assessment or sensitivity of knowing the information needed to evaluate. It is a fact that the only way we know the real world is through our perceptual system. Information about the real world comes to us first through our sensory system: our eyes, ears, nose, mouth and skin. Next, these sensations pass through our perceptual system.
When information passes through our knowledge filter, one of three things happens:
1.   We decide that the information is not meaningful to us and the perception stops there,
2.   We do not immediately recognize the information, but believe it may be meaningful to us so we have some incentive to gain more information
3.   The information is meaningful to us and therefore passes through the next filter, the valuing filter.

When information passes through the valuing filter, we place one of three values on it. If it is something we have learned and is needs-satisfying, we place a positive value on it. If it is something we have learned and hinders our ability to meet our needs, we place a negative value on it. If it neither helps us nor hinders us in meeting our needs, we may place little or no value on it; it remains neutral.

Because we all come to every situation with different knowledge and experience, and therefore different values, our perceptions of the real world are different. Thus, we don't all live in the same "real world." We live our lives in our Perceived Worlds.

Our Perceived Worlds are, for each of us, our reality. Because they are made up of perceptions, our Perceived Worlds are:
•   Highly subjective: based on one's culture, education, experience, gender, age, etc.
•   Unique
•   Subject to constant change (new information, new experiences = new perceptions)
•   Frequently inaccurate

Often our perceptions are chosen. We can frequently choose to perceive people, places, and situations in a number of ways. For example, in driving to work, I might choose to think of the person who just pulled out in front of me as an inconsiderate jerk who is intentionally ruining my morning and feel all the stress that that perception carries with it. Or I could think of the person as someone like myself who just made a mistake in judgment because he/she is in such a hurry. Then I could try to relax so as not to do the same. In choosing our perceptions, it might be a good idea to ask ourselves which perception is better for to us hold.

If a person feels informed, he or she may engage in early closure, not seek out additional information, and perhaps reach a faulty conclusion. Persons may fill up on empty calories

of junk news or entertainment-based news and think themselves informed when perhaps they're not truly informed. Perceived knowledge can lead to greater feelings of efficacy. That's the good. But if those feelings of efficacy are based on weak, insubstantial actual knowledge, you have to worry about any final judgments -- be it in the classroom with teachers, or in any number of possible scenarios.

9.3 CONCEPT OF REFLECTIVE KNOWLEDGE

Reflective knowledge has an important role in high-level knowledge which requires justifiably taking one's sources to be reliable. Reflective knowledge turns out to be a meta-competence. That is, a faculty or disposition to aptly evaluate the circumstances. If one is to have reflective knowledge, one must have "an understanding of its place in a wider whole that include one's beliefs and knowledge of it and how these come about" (Sosa, 2007). The question is that, depending on how we conceive this competence, the evaluation could or could not discriminate among evaluative results as our possible interpretation of the canvass exemplifies. But the subject is involved in very different ways in each case. The question we address is then just about the degrees in which subject must be involved in reflective knowledge.

A first step is to note the particular contribution to the epistemic value that reflective knowledge confers to the overall process of knowing. For one thing, reflective knowledge adds justification to the first-order aptness as it strengthens the cognitive success in the particular circumstances by contributing to reduce luck in this achievement. The device that affords such justification is formed by two components as described by Sosa. According to him:

1) Principle of epistemic ascent: "If one knows full well that p and considers whether one knows that p, then one must be justified in thinking that one does.

2) Principle of closure of epistemic justification: If one is fully justified in believing that p necessarily, unless it is so that q, it cannot be so that p, then one must also be justified in believing that q

Stepping up the two principles, the subject reaches to form the judgment that she justifiably knows that p. This judgment is enabled by the Principle of criterion:

It is interesting to note that Sosa allows that the rational endorsement of reliability can be produced in unconscious or implicit ways. The reason is that reflective knowledge comes from a disposition to correctly evaluate the reliability of the faculties, and this disposition could work in some different ways. Reflective as well as unreflective knowledge both produce apt true beliefs, and this production, It is argued, that at some point independent of the degree in which subjects are voluntarily engaged. The sole condition is that subject can be confident about her reflectively obtained belief, and can be a result of an overwhelming disposition to confidently believe.

Let's imagine Bill Tell doubting in the very moment of shooting about his skills to safely hit the apple above his son's head. Let's consider now the content of the following propositions.

(1)   I am skillfully prepared to shot

(2)   Bill Tell is skillfully prepared to shot
(3)   I believe that I am skillfully prepared to shot
(4)   Bill Tell believes that Bill Tell is skillfully pre pared to shot
(5)   Bill Tell   believes of himself that he is skillfully prepared to shot

The belief that one is prepared to shot is the same, but obviously, the five possibilities are very different attending their consequences. (1) and (2) are propositions that can express transparently the knowledge state of Bill Tell.

The other ones, (3), (4) and (5) can be involved in assertive judgments as well as in testimonial cases, but, according to Sosa, the trustworthy beliefs (1) or (2) are the only required for reflective knowledge.
Bill Tell is confronted with exactly three options open up to him:

9.3.1 Advantages of Reflective Knowledge
Reflective acquisition of knowledge is, like attaining a prized objective guided by one's own intelligence, information, and deliberation; unreflective acquisition of knowledge is like lucking into some benefit in the dark. The first member of each pair is the more admirable, something that might be ascribed admiringly to the protagonist, as his doing. And we can after all shape our cognitive practices, individually and collectively, enhancing their epistemic virtue, their enabling us to grasp how matters stand. We can do so at least to some extent, which does not require that our every belief be freely chosen and deliberate. A tennis champion's ''instinctive'' reactions at the net derive from highly deliberate and autonomously chosen training carried out voluntarily over a period of years. Even when already in place, moreover, such ''instinctive'' reactions are still subject to fine-tuning through further practice and training. The same is true of a bird watcher and his binocular-aided ''instinctive'' beliefs. And the same is true of us all and our most ordinary visual beliefs, aided by the tutelage of daily practice and, eventually, the hard lessons of diminishing acuity. A further advantage of reflective knowledge is its entailed increment of comprehensive coherence.

Activity 1
Give an example of perceived knowledge vs Reflective knowledge

Share it with your fellow learners

Write down the comments of others on your perception

9.4 SHARING AND PUBLISHING

Sharing is the voluntary process of transferring or disseminating knowledge from one person to another person or group in an organization. Sharing is awareness and experiences among learners with the goal of not only enriching their own individual learning, but also of creating or maintaining a common repository of reusable knowledge objects. Sharing knowledge with other people is exchange of knowledge. The processes of transforming and transferring knowledge through an organization are designated by knowledge sharing. Knowledge sharing can happen through face-to-face interaction (tacit knowledge) or through codified knowledge exchange (explicit knowledge).

Cooperation among people, institutions, enterprises and groups can potentially generate a social network for knowledge sharing. These connections are constituted by social interactions, which happen repeatedly, building social relationships with several purposes, such as finding new opportunities, learning best practices and general helpful information to people. In this sense, communities of practice formalize those social networks, allowing specialists to be grouped with the capabilities to share their knowledge. So, group work becomes an attractive practice.

Communities of practice and knowledge are a concept introduced by Ettienne Wenger, which consists of people who are informally connected but have responsibilities in the process. They are united because they have common interests as learning and knowledge sharing. A community creates a knowledge domain from the practice of dealing repeatedly with those physical and social aspects of a non-productive world. This practice of doing together, creates more than products – creates knowledge, creativity, learning – creates communities of practice and knowledge.

Knowledge sharing/transfer is a combination of socialized transfer that occurs through direct personal interaction and intermediated transfer where codified, explicit knowledge is available and the knowledge transfer is intermediated e.g. through an IT system. Knowledge management systems help connects individuals to knowledge and other people regardless of physical distance. They are wide-ranging and can vary from custom-designed knowledge repositories to web-based systems which comprise discussion forums, file sharing and organization charts, to name but a few.

9.4.1 Publishing

Publishing is the spread of literature, music or information. It is the activity of making information available to the general public. In some cases, authors may be their own publishers, meaning originators and developers of contents also provide media to deliver and display the content for the same. Also, the word publisher can refer to the individual who leads a publishing company or an imprint or to a person who owns/heads a magazine.

Traditionally, the term refers to the distribution of printed works such as books and newspapers. With the beginning of digital information systems and the internet, the scope

of publishing has expanded to include electronic resources such as the electronic versions of books and periodicals, as well as micropublishing, website, blogs, and the like.

<u>Stages of Publishing</u>:
Publishing includes the following stages of development:
1) acquisition,
2) copy editing,
3) production,
4) printing and marketing and
5) distribution.

<u>Tools of Sharing and Publishing Information:</u>
Sharing of knowledge may have face to face and virtual interfaces. For a face to face method generally used ways are enlisted below:
- meetings;
- exit Interviews;
- storytelling ;
- peer Assists;
- most Significant Change;
- communities of practice;
- blogs,
- mind mapping,
- slide Shows,
- community Interactive Theater,
- chat or Talk Shows

Online sharing of knowledge may involve:
- intranets,
- blogs,
- wikis,
- google documents
- micro blogging,
- personal home pages,
- photo sharing,
- social media
- widgets,
- websites,
- video

Knowledge is often seen as a rich form of information. This differentiation however is not terribly helpful. A more useful definition of knowledge is that it is about know-how and know-why. Knowledge sharing and publishing is important because of increasing need of innovation, acceleration of agents of change, increased globalization and to keep pace with upcoming new concepts.

9.5   BUILDING COMMUNITIES OF KNOWLEDGE

Communities of knowledge need to encourage the interaction to make them active and strong. For example, a park is more appealing to use if its location provides a short cut between destinations. It invites people to sit for lunch or chat if it has benches set slightly off the main path, visible, but just out of earshot, next to something appealing like a flower bed or a patch of sunlight. The example is intended to show that building communities differs from contemporary organizational design which may traditionally focus on creating structures, systems and roles toward achieving specific goals.

Communities of knowledge and practice can be defined as "A group of individuals informally bound to one another through exposure to a common class of problems, common pursuit of solutions, and thereby themselves embodying a store of knowledge" (Stewart 2001 in Botha et al 2008). Wenger, McDermott & Snyder (2002) define it as: "Group of people who share a concern, a set of problems, or a passion about a topic, and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an ongoing basis".

9.5.1 Dimensions of Communities of Knowledge
These communities have three important dimensions:
• Purpose - the community's aims as understood by its members.
• Function - members are engaged in related activities or projects.
• Output - published and unpublished resources, events and discussions developed or sourced by community members.

The perspective of communities of knowledge and practice affects educational practices along three dimensions:
Internally: How to organize educational experiences that ground learning in practice through participation in communities around subject matters?
Externally: How to connect the experience of students to actual practice through peripheral forms of participation in broader communities beyond the walls of the educational institution?

Over the lifetime of students: How to serve the lifelong learning needs of students by organizing communities of practice focused on topics of continuing interest to students throughout their life?

9.5.2 Principles for Building Communities of Knowledge and Practice
There are seven principles identified by Wenger, McDermott & Snyder (2002) for building a community of knowledge and practice
These principles, with paraphrased descriptions, follow:
1) **Design for evolution:**
   As community of knowledge and practice are dynamic in nature; design should reflect adaptability.
2) **Open a dialogue between inside and outside perspectives:**
   Good community design requires the perspective of an insider, one that is familiar with the types of activities within. However, the perspective of an outsider may help members see the possibilities within their own mechanisms, or in adopting other tools or procedures.
3) **Invite different levels of participation:**
   In any community, there exist different levels of participation. While those on the peripheral may not participate in the same ways as those in the core, the peripheral members will still gain insights and knowledge through this type of participation. All members, regardless of participation levels, should be valued.
4) **Develop both public and private community spaces:**
   Members of communities interact with each other in both public and private functions. Thus, the public and private dimension of a community is interrelated. "The key to designing community spaces is to orchestrate activities in both public and private spaces that use the strength of the individual relationships to enrich events and use events to strengthen individual relationships.
5) **Focus on value:**
   As communities are voluntary, value is a key. For members and prospective members, communities must offer value or there will may not be the incentive for participation. While value may not always be explicitly apparent, value should grow over time as the community evolves.
6) **Combine familiarity and excitement:**
   Familiarity, like the comforts of a hometown, is important for communities of knowledge and practice. However, excitement is also as important, but in other ways. As communities mature, they settle into familiar ways of meeting and conduct. Yet, communities also need challenge and spontaneity to provide a break from everyday occurrences.
7) **Creating a rhythm for the community:**
   Like individuals' lives having a rhythm, "vibrant" communities also have a rhythm. "At the heart of a community is a web of enduring relationships among members, but the tempo of their interactions is greatly influenced by the rhythm of community events". While all alive communities have a particular rhythm or tempo, it's important to find the right rhythm at each stage of a community's development.

9.5.3 Stages of Community Development

The stages of building communities of knowledge and practice are identified by Wenger, McDermott & Snyder (2002) as follows:

1) **Formation (potential and unity):**
    Here, initial networks are discovered, common ground is formed and relationships are formed. The initial call (informally) is usually centered round the generation of value.

2) **Integration (maturing and stewardship):**
    At this stage, there is a focus upon particular topics and the admission of new members. Tools and methods are developed that are unique to the community. New ideas are continually welcomed as the community evolves.

3) **Transformation**
    At this stage, the community may fade away or officially close. This may also mean that the community has become redundant, or that this stage brings about the beginning of a new community. Other possibilities include merging with other communities or becoming institutionalized as a formal unit.

The concept of a community of knowledge and practice comprise of a group of people who are engaged in collective learning in a common area of interest. In general they consist of a group of people with a common sense of purpose who agree to work together to share information, build knowledge, develop expertise and solve problems. Acting as learning partners, community members have the principal purpose of sharing knowledge.

By building communities of knowledge individuals encourage knowledge sharing, give members a networking platform to share personal knowledge, information and experience, provide a platform for turning knowledge and research into practice, combination of practitioner knowledge and experience with published information supports evidence based practice, open to both explicit (published) knowledge - articles, reports, websites, and guidelines - and tacit (personal) knowledge gained through experience and reflection and promote learning environment.

Activity 3

Either on Linkedin OR any other community building network space, become a part of a community of practice and knowledge.

After one month share in your blog what have you learned so far and what did others learn from you

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