



Fundamental Pedagogy

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INVESTICE DO ROZVOJE VZDĚLÁVÁNÍ

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Rules for Communicating with the Instructor: By email and based on pre-agreed consultations. Individual papers will be continuously revised via the Internet. To participate in an assessment test and to access assessment dates, students will register via the Faculty Information System (FIS) where these dates will be specified.

Summary

Fundamental Pedagogy is a discipline which is set to provide an introduction to and prepare the student for the academic study of education. Its aim is to explain the basic terms and contribute to an understanding of processes in education and to guide the student toward thinking about these processes.

Objectives

- To learn the basic terms and relations between different phenomena in education and to understand them
- To understand the complexity and multi-dimensionality of upbringing and its theory – education.

Objectives of Individual Parts

- The aim of the first part, **Introduction to Education**, is to become familiar with and learn the basic terms, determinants and forms of education.
- The second part, **Methodology of Research in Education**, aims to define the basic terms related to methodology in education and to provide information on the methods used in educational research.
- **Pedagogy in Historical Context**
This chapter outlines the historical and philosophical context in order to understand the current situation in education. It compares the ideological basis in the pre-modern, modern and post-modern era in order to observe their implications in education.
- **Major Figures and Trends of the (Recent) History of Pedagogical Thought**
This chapter provides the basic outlines and historical context of pedagogical thinking of selected personalities from Comenius up to the present days.

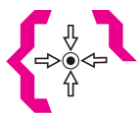
Literature

Individual chapters are accompanied only with a list of the basic and recommended sources relevant to the chapter's topic.

Glossary of Terms

Each chapter contains a glossary of basic terms relevant to the chapter's topic. An index follows at the end of the study text.

Meaning of the Icons in the Text



Objectives

A list of objectives to be accomplished after studying the text and fulfilling the relevant questions and assignments is provided at the beginning of each chapter.



Terms to Remember (Key Words)

A list of important terms and main points that the student should not omit when studying the topic.



Subject Application in Practice

The practical applicability of the topic will be verified in questions and assignments. A note contains less important or specifying information.



Introductory Questions and Assignments

These help the student to recollect his/her knowledge of and experience with the topic to be discussed in the particular chapter.



Review Questions

Verifying to what extent the student has understood the text and the issue and remembers fundamental and important information.



Summary

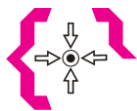
A summary of the topic.



Literature

Used in the text and to complement and further one's knowledge.

Introduction



Objectives

After studying this chapter:

- You will have an insight into the objectives, content and structure of this study text.
- You will realise your own knowledge about pedagogy, teaching and education and what you need to know about it.



Terms to Remember (Key Words)

- pre-concepts
- education
- pedagogy



Introductory Questions and Assignments

Before you begin reading this text, think about your answers to the questions below. Write them down so that you can get back to them, compare them with the text and further work with them.

- What has education given to you? What do you want to know about it?
- Look at the content of this study text and go through it. What has drawn your attention?

This study text is about education, i.e. an important phenomenon in human life, and provides information on its theoretical foundations created by the science of pedagogy.

Fundamental pedagogy (or fundamentals of pedagogy) is a discipline aiming at explaining the basic terms and relations in education and guiding the students to an understanding of and thinking about these relations in order to be ready for the next study of pedagogy.

Fundamental pedagogy is based on the knowledge of general pedagogy and theory of education, methodology and history of pedagogy. The students will encounter a wide scope of education-related topics. They will understand the



complicated nature of education conditioned by a complex of influential factors and its multidimensionality as well as of the theory of education – pedagogy.

The questions and assignments at the end of each chapter are inspired by a few basic prerequisites:

- According to the theory of pre-concepts and constructivism, the learner/student should be guided to a variety of activities with one's knowledge and experience so that his/her knowledge is further specified, enriched and solid. Therefore, the readers will always initially be asked to realize their knowledge, ideas and experience with education and instruction and will compare them with the scientific interpretation of these phenomena when reading this text.
- The activity-based instruction involving active and creative adaptation of topics by the students results in a deeper understanding and more solid acquisition of their knowledge. All of this simultaneously creates the skills and attitudes of students related to the issue under study.



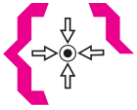
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KALHOUS, Z., OBST, O. a kol. *Školní didaktika*. Prague: Portál, 2009.



1 Education as a Specific Human Activity



Objectives

After studying this chapter:

- You will be able to provide reasons why people need education.
- You will be able to analyse education with respect to its specifics.



Terms to Remember (Key Words)

- education
- essence of education



Introductory Questions and Assignments

1. Think back to the time of your childhood and try to recollect who and when brought you up. Does education still continue in your life? Is it different from what you know from the past? If it is, in what respect?
2. What does education mean? How would you briefly explain this phenomenon? Why do people need education? Write down your answers.
3. Read Appendix 2: The Essence of Education. What is the author's answer to question No. 2? Compare your answers. In what respect are they different or the same?
4. Which idea in this text (The Essence of Education) has drawn your attention? What do you think of it?

Education has accompanied humanity throughout its historical evolution since the ancient times and is part of everyone's entire life. Education is a versatile phenomenon, depending on the changes of people's conditions of life. When human intellectual abilities reached a certain degree during the initial stage of human development, the behaviour of people ceased to be governed just by instincts, and deliberate conduct and actions became more important. It was at this moment when people broke free from the animal kingdom. This is proven e.g. by education, meaning the care for offspring, as a targeted and anticipative activity. **Education is a specifically human**



activity provided by parents to their children. It is based on the stimulation of intentional positive changes to one's personality (see Skalková, 2004, Holoušová, Grecmanová and Urbanovská, 1998 and others).

As human living conditions and requirements developed and modified, knowledge expanded and relationships in human society became more complex (in European conditions), it was necessary to involve other institutions into education besides family in order to provide more extensive and deeper education to young members of the society.

Today it is especially apparent that people cannot do for their whole lives with what they learned in childhood and youth. The general social conditions of life are changing; science and technology are developing rapidly and are applied in practice. People thus have to adapt to the new conditions and educate themselves for their entire life.

Despite the amount and variability of knowledge and skills that we have to adapt, parents, teachers and the whole society still aim to educate children to permanent values protecting mankind from extinction (Kyrášek In Pařízek, 1996). People use various names for the intention. For instance, they want to bring their child up to be a 'decent person' or a 'well-behaved person'. These words refer to values and valued qualities, such as morals, considerateness, selflessness, pro-social attitudes and strong emotional links to the family. The task is not simple now, amid globalisation of the world and crisis of values. Many people feel that they need these values in their lives. Without the desire and willingness to seek and strive for the human ideal, without the belief in universal values, their lives would not be happy or satisfied.

Even though societies differ in terms of geography, history, society, culture, religion and economy, and the overtly technological era and economy have a negative impact on human relationships and many values are doubted, universal values such as love, truth, family and goodness continue to lead mankind's value rankings.

By educating their children, parents should give them something to rely on and a feeling of safety in their lives as well as emotional experience related to love that would assure them that they do matter. Parents also instil rules of behaviour in their children and build their value system (what is valuable, what to respect). Teachers develop the young generation's knowledge, but address the children and youth also with requirements related to behaviour.

Not only individuals and small groups (parents, teachers and other educators, institutions) stipulate their requirements on the education and upbringing of the new generation. The whole society contributes to the process' goals and quality significantly. The society has an indirect



(mediated) effect through economic, social and political conditions. These conditions influence (or determine) the human ideal. The approach to school systems, i.e. the objectives, content and resources for education and the structure of educational facilities, are adapted to suit the current conditions.

For many years since the beginning of history, the principles of how children should be brought up were passed from parents onto their children. Scholars were contemplating about education, its targets and ideals, but the ideas were not tested in practice. In the Middle Ages, education was strongly influenced by religious philosophy, by Christianity. Enlightenment brought new ideas about humans and the creation of the first theoretical systems focusing on educational systems. The thinking, however, still predominantly dealt with specific procedures. By the 19th century, sufficient know-how about education was collected, allowing scholars to draw generalisations, use scientific terminology and form an independent discipline. The scientific discipline focusing on education and humans in educational situations was called pedagogy.

Each individual has his/her idea about education, upbringing and instruction, based primarily on the experience with education within family and at school. Pedagogy as a science is different, as it describes the phenomenon on the basis of scientific findings. It is based on the results of the verification of theories, hypotheses and empirical findings. (A separate chapter will later deal with pedagogy in detail).

The presented text offers the readers a general and complex view of education. It will also indicate answers to the following questions: What ideals should be pursued within education? Why is educating not an easy task? How does pedagogy, the science that deals with education, explain these and other questions? The text will also offer links to other sources of information for the readers to get a more detailed and deeper insight into the basic topics of education, upbringing and instruction.



Application Tasks

1. Read a book of your choice (be it a book by a contemporary or past author) which describes the methods of education, upbringing and instruction in the given environment and the given era. Write down interesting sections and characterise the selected type of education.
2. The story of the so-called 'wolf-like children' as described by J. Langmeier and Z. Matějček in their book *Výpravy za člověkem* [*Exploring a Man*] (1981) clearly show that children who lost their parents at an early age and grew up outside the human society have



never become full-fledged people or had big problems when living with other people. Try to explain why it is so.

3. Likewise, watch the French film *L'Enfant sauvage* [*The Wild Child*] (1970) directed by F. Truffaut or the US drama *Mockingbird Don't Sing* (2001) directed by H. B. Davenport which depict real cases of feral children and explain why these children were 'wild'.



Review Questions

1. Why is education a specifically human activity?
2. What is the essence of education?
3. Why do people need education?
4. What science studies education?



Summary

People cannot do without education, which is why they apply it in their lives. Education has been part of the entire human history and one's entire life. Its targeted and well-considered nature which focuses on the development of individuals differentiates education from other activities and impacts. Education is primarily vital and indispensable in childhood. It focuses on shaping the relationships toward all important conditions in life – toward oneself, other people and the nature around. Objectives, content and means of education change throughout the development of mankind.

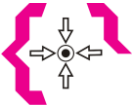


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2 Pedagogy – the Science of Education



Objectives

After studying this chapter:

- You will be able to explain why pedagogy is a science and will be able to define its subject matter and characteristics.
- You will be able to classify pedagogical disciplines and give examples.
- You will be able to explain why pedagogy is being described as a transdisciplinary science.



Terms to Remember (Key Words)

- pedagogy
- subject matter of pedagogy
- characteristics of pedagogy as a science
- transdisciplinary science
- pedagogical disciplines



Introductory Questions and Assignments

1. Have you already encountered the study of pedagogy? If you have, what topics did you address?
2. Have you already read a pedagogy-related publication or magazine? For what purpose? What has drawn your attention while reading? Was it a scientific book/magazine or a popular text?
3. Have you participated in a pedagogical (educational) survey or research? What was its purpose and outcome? What role did you play in the survey?

2.1 Definition of Pedagogy

Many experts believe that the definition of pedagogy is not clear, as there is no systematic approach to this issue, and opinions on its structure and interdisciplinary cooperation vary a lot (Duchovičová, 2012, p. 10). The terminology is often not explained in a uniform way and pedagogy is often influenced by various theories. Still, many significant characteristics shared by experts exist.



Pedagogy is an independent social anthroposophic science (science about humans). It represents an organised system of findings about educational processes and its results, conditions and factors that determine the education, as well as the main agents of the process. Pedagogy studies education in its versatility and diversity.

Pedagogy describes, explains, compares, evaluates and generalises the findings about pedagogical phenomena. It reveals and formulates the pedagogical principles and rules which reflect the relationships and connections in educational practice. Based on these findings, pedagogy proposes constructs and concepts (theories, models, plans) which are subsequently verified in practice. The findings are thus specified and a pedagogical theory is developed, together with other fields within interdisciplinary character.

In other words, pedagogy is a **normative science** (formulating norms, rules, principles and guidelines for education and upbringing) and a **descriptive science**. It is also an **explorative science** (exploring and studying new educational phenomena), as well as an **explanatory science** (identifying and explaining processes, results and factors of education), which is an essential activity for pedagogy. And last but not least, it is a **projecting science** (proposing new and more effective processes, resources or entire programmes). Sometimes, the aforementioned attributes are also described as functions of pedagogy.

Pedagogy is concerned with all forms and means of education (in family, at school, extracurricular and media effects) and pays major attention to anthropogenic factors of education.

Even though people have long been thinking about education, pedagogy as an independent science was established only approximately in the mid-19th century.

Pedagogy is a science as it meets the following requirements:

1. Pedagogy has an **object** of study, i.e. education.
2. According to J. Duchovičová (2012), pedagogy has its **scientific theory**: a verified, comprehensive and coherent set of findings from the field classified in the scientific discipline structure. It operates with specific **terms** and uses a **scientific language (terminology)**.
3. Pedagogy has its own **methodology**, dealing with principles, strategies and procedures, tools and norms for the functioning and development of objective findings and practical transformation of objective reality phenomena. Pedagogy is concerned with all aspects of research, theoretical studies and innovation cycle within theory, including research methods. It determines objective facts and



formulates objective findings about individual phenomena and processes in educational reality.

4. Pedagogy has formed its own **infrastructure**, i.e. a system in support of science which forms information sources, associations, books and databases, research and educational workplaces where the relevant science is taught. The system's components are mutually linked and support the development of the science at home and abroad in a complex manner (Duchovičová, 2012, p. 10, 16 and 41). Pedagogical (teaching) professionals contribute to the development of pedagogy by publishing the results of their research in various publications.

Pedagogy is a dynamic science as it uncovers new findings, thus deepening and expanding the field of its research and responding to changes in the society and educational processes. J. Průcha (2000, p. 18) notes the changes in the concept of pedagogy during the historical development in the context of the development of the methodology of pedagogy:

Traditional pedagogy described the opinions and concepts of pedagogical theoreticians who were merely presenting their ideals on education without any support from research findings and/or practice.

Modern pedagogy is useful for the contemporary development of the science. It explains real phenomena of upbringing and education through specific research procedures.

In the past, pedagogy used to deal primarily with the education of children whereas now its scope covers education of the entire population in terms of age as well as various groups, e.g. professionals, persons with specific requirements, etc. Pedagogues even contribute to the solving of social problems related to education.

2.2 Structure of the System of Pedagogical Disciplines

The findings about selected specialised topics in pedagogy (i.e. upbringing and education) have deepened with the expanding knowledge in this field in the course of the historical development (primarily during recent centuries). They assumed a relatively independent scientific structure and later evolved into independent scientific disciplines. New disciplines have emerged and continue to be added to the basic pedagogical disciplines (general pedagogy, general didactics, history of pedagogy, special pedagogy, methodology of pedagogy, theory on school norms and directives, comparative pedagogy). Pedagogical theory began to be applied to various other segments and viewed from various angles and viewpoints. Pedagogical disciplines are thus gradually being classified in new ways.



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Horizontal and vertical classification of pedagogical sciences

Horizontal classification takes into account the content and specific focus of each pedagogical discipline, e.g.:

1. General fundamentals of pedagogy
2. Methodology of pedagogy
3. General didactics
4. Theory of teaching individual subjects (field and subject didactics)
5. Education theory
6. Theory of extracurricular education
7. School administration and management theory
8. Special pedagogy
9. History of pedagogy
10. Comparative pedagogy

Vertical classification is governed by the age of the object of education covered by pedagogy, e.g.:

1. Preschool age pedagogy
2. School age pedagogy (basic school, secondary school and tertiary school pedagogy)
3. Pedagogy of adults (andragogy, gerontopedagogy)

Various other criteria are used in the latest attempts to systemise pedagogical sciences:

- a) **Ontological criterion** (e.g. pedagogy of preschool age, puberty, adolescence and adulthood)
- b) **Educational activity field criterion** (e.g. leisure-time pedagogy, pedagogy of youth and children organisations, etc.)
- c) **Historical criterion** (e.g. pedagogy of the slave society, feudal society, bourgeois society)



- d) **Educational facility type criterion** (e.g. preschool, school, after-school and extracurricular pedagogy)

J. Průcha suggests another possible classification in *Přehled pedagogiky* [Overview of Pedagogy]. He divides it into **constituted and non-constituted sciences**. Constituted sciences have a branched theoretical system which has been built for a very long time. Non-constituted sciences are only building such a system (Průcha, 2000). New sciences are usually formed through increased findings about a particular topic or problem and their subsequent separation from traditional pedagogical sciences. At other times, they arise from issues that have never been dealt with and need to be resolved (pedagogy of tourism, experience, etc.). New sciences also emerge from interconnection of findings from various disciplines.

Contemporary experts stress that an **interdisciplinary approach** is required to review and analyse the subject matter of pedagogy, i.e. education. Pedagogy applies theoretical conclusions to various sectors in practice, e. g. education, economy, social issues, health and healthcare. At the same time, pedagogy needs to collaborate with natural sciences, technical, medical and economic fields (J. Duchovičová, 2012, pp. 24–25). These fields provide information (theoretical and empirical findings), procedures and science and research methods for the analysis of education. Pedagogy offers the same to other sciences, especially if they are analysing the relevant phenomena in a complex way.

Pedagogues have therefore recently agreed on the classification of pedagogical disciplines which takes into account the current interdisciplinary nature of pedagogy. Pedagogical fields are structured according to the **integrating criterion** as follows:

1. **Basic disciplines:** general pedagogy, general didactics, theory of education, special didactics (field), theory on school norms and directives, history of pedagogy, special pedagogy.
2. **Applied disciplines:** e.g. preschool pedagogy, school pedagogy, secondary school pedagogy, pedagogy of adults, military pedagogy, etc.
3. **Boundary disciplines:** e.g. pedagogical psychology, social pedagogy, economy of education, philosophy of education, school management.

This structure and list of pedagogical disciplines is not final. The education segment is a living organism and new disciplines continue to emerge. Discussions about the differentiation of pedagogical sciences continue.



2.3 Pedagogical Theory and Education in Practice

Pedagogy as a science and theory helps to maintain a grasp of the issues related to education and depicts important phenomena and facts. Pedagogy is the **theoretical foundation for the teaching practice** and contributes to its development and perfection as it provides effective resources for education (not only for family and school education, but in all spheres of human life). Pedagogical theory and practice support each other. **Pedagogical theory is verified in practice.** Practice provides **experience and observations** about educational reality. **Practice provides new topics and problems** that the theory attempts to deal with. Practice is more versatile and changes more than the theory as it responds to the specifics of the environment and the objects of education. Everyone realises that knowledge of theory is not sufficient for a pedagogue to be successful in practice. It is necessary for the pedagogue to have a positive attitude to people and to the pedagogical (teaching) activity. He/she cannot do without a complex structure of knowledge, but practical skills and habits supported by pedagogical theory are equally important.



Application Tasks

Find magazines on teaching (pedagogical) topics in the university library. Make a list of these magazines and categorise them into professional (scientific) and popular magazines. What pedagogical fields are their recipients?



Review Questions

1. What does pedagogy deal with?
2. Characterise pedagogy as a scientific discipline.
3. What functions of pedagogy can be deduced from the said characteristics? What is its importance for the teaching practice? What is its importance for other scientific fields?
4. What is the difference between the past and current approach to pedagogy?
5. How are pedagogical disciplines classified? Why does pedagogy cooperate with other scientific fields?





Summary

Pedagogy is a social science concerned with education. It is a scientific discipline as it has its own subject matter (object) of study, scientific terminology, research methodology and infrastructure. It is a normative, descriptive, explorative-explanatory and projecting science. As a science, pedagogy is closely related to the teaching practice. It is concerned with education which is a complex and complicated phenomenon, which is why it also uses knowledge from other scientific areas. But pedagogy also provides underlying information to other fields. Therefore, there are also boundary and application sciences next to the basic pedagogical disciplines.

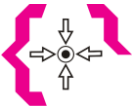


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- VORLÍČEK, Ch. *Úvod do pedagogiky*. Prague: Karolinum, 1994.



3 Basic Pedagogical Terminology



Objectives

After studying this chapter:

- You will explain the essence of the basic terms in pedagogy



Terms to Remember (Key Words)

- education
- education and instruction
- narrower and wider meaning of education
- education reality
- education process
- school education
- educational constructs
- personality
- self-education



Introductory Questions and Assignments

1. Do you see any difference in the meaning of education as upbringing vs. training? Say why.
2. If you have read any scientific text, did you understand it? Which text is better for you to read? A text related to pedagogy or a text related to (natural) science? Say why.
3. What technical terms have you encountered in this text so far? Which ones have you understood and which not?

Each science has a system of categories used to describe the focus of its interest and research. However, when it comes to technical terms in pedagogy, we can see major content-related variability. First, there are differences in the content of the same terms if they are used in the scientific context or normal speech. Second, there are even differences in the interpretation of these terms by local experts. The entire situation is complicated by the fact that the theoretical system also absorbs terms from abroad which can have a different meaning.

That is why we have to define these terms at the very beginning and explain them in order to prevent any misunderstandings or wrong interpretations during the study.



3.1 Education

3.1.1 Strict and Broader Meaning of Education

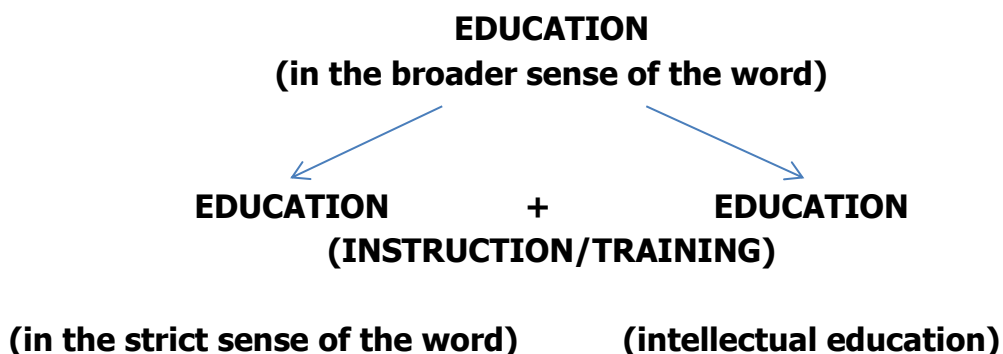
Education or upbringing (In Czech: *výchova*) is the basic term in pedagogy. There are different explanations of this term.

Most often (especially among laymen), it is understood as moral education, emotional and volitional education or as a component of education (details will be described later on). This approach to education is denoted as **education in the strict sense of the word**.

In this case, education (In Czech: *vzdělávání*) is related to the intellectual aspects of personality. However, the term education in this respect contains both aspects (upbringing and training) because the intellectual component can be hardly separated in moral or another education. And if education is understood as the development of the intellectual component, it can hardly do without the emotional component. Both processes contribute to personality development and are complementary.

If education involves the development of personality with respect to the basic personality components (intellectual, skills-based and emotional) or to all five basic components of education (intellectual, moral, physical, esthetical and working), it is **education in a broader sense**. In other languages (especially in English), no difference is made in respect of these terms. This can also be seen in the scheme below where education in the broader sense is denoted as **education** (In Czech: *edukace*).

Scheme 1: Education in the Strict and Broader Sense of the Word



3.1.2 Definition of Education

Education is an intentional, more or less systematic development of emotional and intellectual properties of humans, creation of their attitudes, types of behaviour in conformity with the objectives of the given group, culture, etc. (Hartl, Hartlová, 2000, p. 680)

Education is a process of intentional and goal-directed creation and influencing of conditions enabling the optimal development of each individual in line with individual predispositions and stimulating one's own efforts to become an authentic, internally integrated and socialised personality (Průcha, Walterová, Mareš, 2003).

Education is optimisation of the man and his world; it is intentional perfection of the man's coherent, conscious, active and creative relationship toward the world, meaning the nature, society and one's self (Blížkovský, 1997, p. 23).

Education is an intentional and goal-directed activity manifested through the universal shaping of personality and having an adapting, anticipating and permanent character. It is a specific human activity (Holoušová, Grecmanová, Urbanovská, 1998, p. 50).



Application Tasks:

1. Read the above definitions once again and use them to formulate attributes and functions of education. Write them down.
2. When done, compare your notes to the information provided in the text below.

According to Š. Švec (2002), the word **to educate** involves educating, upbringing and training activities. In his opinion, the domains involved include the intellectual, emotional, conative and volitional development as well as sensorimotor and motor development.

Table 1: Education Domains; Activities and Results of their Development

Education domains	Learning	Activities	Result (outcome)
Intellectual development	Through cognitive learning	education and instruction	Education, level of education
Emotional, conative and volitional development (also including cognitive development)	Through social learning	Raising and upbringing	manners

Sensorimotor and motor development	Through sensorimotor learning	training	training
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3. Compare this explanation to the definition in *Pedagogický slovník* [*Dictionary of Education*]. Find the term *education* in *Pedagogická encyklopedie* [*Encyclopaedia of Education*] and expand your knowledge (Průcha, ed., 2009).

3.1.3 Attributes and Functions of Education

The **attributes of education** are the basic characteristics in which education differs from other pedagogical phenomena. We will again present different classifications. Observe which attributes are repeated.

Attributes of education according to J. Duchovičová (2012)

- intentionality and purposefulness
- positive change (perfection of personality)
- lifelong process
- process helping socialisation
- development of authentic, internally integrated and socialised personality

Attributes of education according to V. Jůva (2001)

- permanent – taking place continually throughout entire life
- universal – taking place in various environments and spheres of life
- all-round orientation – developing basic physical and psychological features of an individual, developing the individual's role in individual fields of science and culture, preparing the individual for his/her social roles, through effects of education (two-sidedness of the pedagogical process)

Attributes of education according to J. Svobodová and B. Šmahelová (2007)

- permanent nature
- versatility of education
- universal and complex nature
- dynamic and cyclic nature
- links between hetero-education (education by other persons) and auto-education (self-education)
- international and global nature – education has international and global nature, educational institutions should collaborate

- plurality and integration – the option of choosing one’s own path to education should be available, but particular educational processes should be merged, integrated and interconnected
- value orientation – the goal of education is always to adapt the values recognised by the society in the given historical era.

Attributes of education according to K. Janiš, B. Kraus and P. Vacek (2010)

- intentionality
- support of development
- long-term nature
- process-based nature
- bipolarity
- cyclic nature
- dynamicity
- universality

The aforementioned attributes mutually condition and complement each other and partly overlap.

The nature of education is supplemented with **functions of education**. The functions of education indicate the goal or mission that education is fulfilling. D. Holoušová, H. Grecmanová, E. Urbanovská (1998, 2000) define the following functions:

- 1. personalisation** – to develop one’s skills and abilities and conative and character features;
- 2. socialisation** – to form knowledge, skills, habits and attitudes that help the individual succeed in society and assume social roles;
- 3. cultural** – to pass the nation’s norms and culture.

Other important functions include adaptation and anticipation:

Adaptive function – education mediates content that enables one to adapt to various situations and participate in the society in the changing current and future conditions;

Anticipative function – education anticipates the knowledge, skills and habits that one will need in the future.

3.2 Other Basic Terms in Pedagogy

- **education** – substitutes for and encompasses the terms upbringing, training and education. It contains the component of intentionality – we observe the concept and notion, the degree of education and upbringing that we want to achieve through the educational process.
- **schooling** – the process of intentional and organised mastering of knowledge, skills, attitudes etc., carried out predominantly through school education, professional pedagogues with a legislatively defined goal, content, place and time
- **education** – the outcome of the educational process
- **educational process** – the process of activity, during which one person is learning and another is mediating the learning
- **school education** – upbringing and education taking place in school environment
- **educational reality** – reality in which educational processes are taking place
- **educational environment** – the environment in which the educational process is taking place, determined by the space with its physical and material condition and the psychosocial climate
- **educational constructs** – theories, models, plans..., theoretical creations
- **outcomes of schooling and upbringing** – the outputs of schooling and upbringing, e.g. knowledge, skills, capacity, habit, competence
- **personality** – in psychological approach, every human being with the unique structure of his/her psychical qualities and dispositions (Průcha, Walterová, Mareš, 2003). H. Piéron regards personality as a unity of intelligence, character, temperament and constitution (In Hartl, Hartlová, 2009). It is characterised by uniqueness, exceptionality, distinction. Personality structure is established through motivation, abilities and creativity, character and temperament. (For details, see Čáp, 2001)



Application Tasks

1. Give examples of individual pedagogical terms.
2. Describe the relation between education of people and criminality.



Review Questions

1. What does education mean (in terms of upbringing and training)? Which features are the same and which are different?
2. Explain the basic pedagogical terms.



Summary

Although different authors give different formulations and definitions of the basic terms in pedagogy, we need to become familiar with the different designations of educational reality and theory.

Education is the basic and starting term. The educational process is divided into stages comprising activities with specific missions.

It is important to pay attention to self-education as one of the top levels of education.



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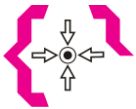


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4 Education as a Pedagogical Process and its Stages



Objectives

After studying this chapter:

- You will be able to explain the educational process and characterise its stages from various perspectives.



Terms to Remember (Key Words)

- educational process
- stages of educational process
- stages of educational process from the ontogenetic perspective and from the perspective of the educator
- stages of educational process from the methodological and management perspective
- stages of educational process from the complex perspective



Introductory Questions and Assignments

1. What is characteristic for each process?

4.1 Educational Process

We perceive the **educational process** as the process or course of sophisticated and intentional activities with an educational objective. The process consists of the activity of the pedagogue (educator, parent, teacher, trainer) that induces a response from the person that is being educated (student, child, pupil, member of a club). Both agents interact with each other with the aim to achieve positive changes in the personality of the person that is being educated.

Educational processes may be classified according to whether they are being induced intentionally (intentional processes) or unintentionally (unintentional or functional processes). The difference is depicted in Scheme 2.



Scheme 2: Educational Processes According to the Degree of Intentionality (R. Pospíšil, K. Vlčková, 2006)

Educational processes	
<p>Unintentional EP</p> <p>the individual is not aware that he or she is learning and mastering knowledge and experience, unintentional</p>	<p>Intentional EP</p> <p>the person intentionally endeavours to learn</p>
<p>Unmanaged EP</p> <p>learning that is in some way regulated and organised from outside</p>	<p>Managed EP</p> <p>intentional, the person learns intentionally</p>

We see the educational process as a type of social interaction (mutual interaction); it may also be described as an **interaction model**. It describes the essence of the basic functions of the educational process. First, already during the projecting, the educators are interested in determinants from the part of the persons that are being educated, but the input is determined also by the characteristics of the educator and other factors. Then the real educational process takes place, within which the contents of education are mediated to the person that is being educated, in order to achieve the educational goal, while respecting the individual and age specifics of the individuals in the interaction between the educators and the persons receiving the education. After the educational process is completed, the specific outputs of the finished process are reviewed against the long-term intentions, or effects of education.

The educational process may be analysed from multiple viewpoints, e.g. from the point of view process management, the content of educational activities, the educator, the person that is being educated etc.; the phases of the educational process are defined on this basis. The educational process is, as a rule, a long-term matter. Given the changing conditions and factors of education, changes to one's personality, activities and their results are registered in the course of the process, in certain time phases. Recognising these phases helps us understand education and plan, organise and manage the educational processes more effectively.

4.2 Stages of the Educational Process

The examples of the stages of the educational process will be characterised below:

1. from the methodological perspective (the viewpoint of the educator),
2. from the ontogenetic perspective (and the viewpoint of educational process management).

4.2.1 Educational Process Stages from the Methodological Perspective

This viewpoint is frequently used by pedagogues, as it offers information on activities that secure effective educational function in individual phases of education.

Initial (input) diagnosis stage

Before commencing the educational activity and function, the educator has to become familiar with the condition of the person that will receive the education and the conditions for education, in order to be able to set adequate objectives, contents and means of education. Therefore

- the educator finds out the level of the child's knowledge, skills and habits, abilities, interests and needs,
 - studies the psychological and physical condition and health of the person receiving education (internal conditions of education),
- becomes acquainted with the external conditions of education (e.g. effects of the social environment, relationships etc.).

Stage of pedagogical analysis of education content

Based on the previously obtained knowledge about the person that will be educated and his/her conditions, the educator analyses the content of education that should be mediated to the person. The aim is to select the content that is adequate to the possibilities, limits and needs of the person, as well as educational objectives.

Stage of pedagogical planning

Based on the previous findings, i.e. the current condition of the person receiving the education, the educator plans and proposes the future shape of the educational process:

- sets the educational objective and content of education that specifies the relevant goal,
- chooses adequate tools and means of education (i.e. procedures, forms of education, aids etc.).
 - ideally, the educator should think about the forms and criteria for evaluation as early as during the planning stage.

Stage of student's learning regulation

The educational process is implemented during the student's learning regulation phase. Interaction and cooperation occurs between the educator and the person receiving education. The educator educates, i.e. induces and regulates the student's activities towards the planned goal, but also with regard to the current situation (success rate and interest from the person receiving education, time etc.). The person that is being educated carries the activities out according to the educator's instructions. To ensure an effective course and results of the process, it is good for the person receiving the education to know the goals and purpose of the activities, and possibly participate in proposing the activities, as well as to know the criteria for the evaluation of the required results and conditions for learning (time, resource).

Stage of output pedagogical diagnose

The output pedagogical diagnose stage should determine whether and to what extent the goals and objectives have been met and provide feedback for the educator, as well as the person receiving education. Besides diagnosing, an evaluation is also performed, including the evaluation by the student.

The subsequent cycle of education is planned based on the results of this stage.

(Svobodová, Šmahelová, 2007, Duchovičová, 2012)

This criterion may also be called the **educator criterion**, as it focuses primarily on the educator's activities.

4.2.2 Stages of the Educational Process from the Ontogenetic and Management Perspective

Human development from birth to the end of life is called ontogenesis. A person's physique and psyche are changing massively during the initial phases of life. Education is thus naturally adapted to these changes. Phases of education will be briefly outlined below from the ontogenetic perspective. The **educational process management** criterion will also be applied.

a) Heteronomous period – the period until 6 years of age, when one acquires the first information and experience. As the child's intellectual abilities are not highly developed in this period, the focus is on fixing the information about behaviour and moral habits through requirements and training.



From the viewpoint of the management of the educational process, this stage may be divided into two parts. Until 2-3 years of age, the process involves impulsive activities of the person that is being educated, as he or she is controlled primarily by internal forces, instincts and curiosity.

After communication skills are adapted, during the period of so-called heteronomous regulation, external management by the educator takes place. This often involves facilitation, i.e. effort to help the person that is being educated achieve the educational goals.

b) Autonomous period – after the children start going to school, the period of relative calmness and ease and the approach used in the previous phase remain in effect for some time. With the coming of puberty, the situation changes essentially and the educational procedures must be changed as well. The pubescent is capable of analysing his/her behaviour, its causes, means and consequences and evaluation of himself/herself and others. Increased criticality towards others and girls' and boys' sensitivity in puberty place increased requirements on the educators. In any case, they have to be educated to the conviction about the appropriateness of moral behaviour, given opportunity for acting and behaving morally, so that they form a positive attitude to moral behaviour and strengthen their moral qualities and character. Tact and consistence are required from the educator.

From the point of view of the educational process, the last years of this period are characterised as auto-regulation – the individual manages himself/herself. This phase is reached over time thanks to previous facilitation linked with discussions and self-evaluation and gradual gaining of independence.

c) Social conformity period

In adulthood, one should accept the requirements of the society and act accordingly.

If this does not happen (possibly already even in the autonomous phase), **re-education** must take place. Rectification of mistakes from the previous period is not easy. It requires the forming of new behaviour patterns, which is a very difficult and long-term task in adulthood.

For details, see P. Vacek, 2006.



Application Tasks



- Learn the stages of the educational process from the complex perspective: see J. Pelikán (1995) or *Pedagogická encyklopedie* [*Encyclopaedia of Education*] (Průcha, ed., 2009) or Janiš, Kraus, Vacek (2010).



Review Questions

1. Explain the educational process.
2. Characterise the stages of education from various perspectives.
3. What does the interaction model of education mean?



Summary

The educational process continues over time through intentional activities of the educator and the person receiving education and it is directed toward a certain educational goal. It is characterised as an interaction model. Stages of the educational process can be characterised both from the methodological and ontogenetic perspective.



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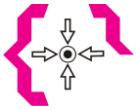
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5 Self-education



Objectives

After studying this chapter:

- You will be able to explain the essence and importance of self-education and its relation to education.
- You will understand the basic abilities necessary for self-education.
- You will be able to characterise self-education stages and conditions for shaping self-education.
- You will be able to explain the difference between direct and indirect educational impacts on the development of self-education.



Terms to Remember (Key Words)

- self-awareness
- self-conception
- self-knowledge
- self-reflection
- self-criticism
- self-evaluation
- self-education
- heteronomous education
- autonomous education
- facilitation



Introductory Questions and Assignments

1. Do you self-educate yourself regularly or just in certain situations?
2. What is the focus of your self-education?
3. When have you started with self-education? What has brought you to it?

Self-education is a part and a goal of humanistic education. With self-education becoming increasingly important, we will devote a separate chapter to it. We will explain the complicated phenomenon, essential for the success of educational actions, and we will define the basic prerequisites for the realisation of self-education.

5.1 Definition of Self-education

During childhood, one is being educated by other persons, mostly adults (heteronomous education) while in adulthood, one educates himself/herself (autonomous education). Self-education is thus the autonomous continuation of education.

Self-education is a **conscious and long-term effort at forming oneself to meet the stipulated goals** (Čáp, J., 1993) and improving one's own personality in the widest possible sense (Pelikán, J., 1995). Self-education is a planned, systematic and intentional process of developing the rational skills and abilities, conative and character qualities, interests and the sensual life of the individual. It stems from the individual's own will and motivation, which are different for individual people.

According to R. Kohoutek, the content of self-education should be the development of one's own personality and the desirable lifestyle. The ideal outcome is a harmonic personality that displays adequate modesty, healthy self-awareness and positive visions for the future (Kohoutek, 2012).

Self-education is sometimes seen as education to moral values, at other times it is identified with self-schooling/training. As a rule, one always plans and determines the goals and chooses the instruments for their achievement himself/herself. Through own behaviour and actions, one heads toward the fulfilment of the goals. One also becomes the organiser and evaluator of the self-educational process and its results.

One learns all these activities during childhood and while growing up. The best results are achieved if the educational process is facilitated by an educator, who makes the self-educational activities easier for the self-educating person and helps and supervises its successful course.

Self-education concepts differ according to the positions in various segments. We may observe specific focus of self-education in professional segments, e.g. pedagogy (Svatoš, 2008, Kyriacou, 2008), psychotherapy (Ulrichová, 2013), law (Holeček, et al., 1997) or mental hygiene (Míček, 1986) and psychology (Čáp, 1993, Kohoutek, 1998).

Why and when self-education is formed

People are active and thus affect both themselves and their environment. Self-education occurs when an individual decides to change or improve his/her psychological and character qualities/features, feels the need to know and find more, deal with life's goals and/or display better performance. Self-education takes place after self-evaluation, in response to examples set by others or after evaluation by others. Self-education is carried out with various depth and focus, depending on age. In early education and during the course of schooling, children should be motivated



to educate themselves and the relevant skills should be formed in children. In adolescence, we can make use of young people's need to get to know themselves. In adulthood, self-education occurs on the basis of the basic human needs and circumstances.

5.2 Prerequisites for Self-education

The basic processes of **self-awareness, self-knowledge and self-evaluation** are applied within self-education.

Self-awareness – awareness about oneself and one's own existence.

Self-knowledge – getting to know oneself, special features in actions, behaviour and experience,

- key moment for self-education,
- getting to know one's weaknesses and strengths is important,
- self-knowledge occurs through self-reflection,
- the need for objective self-knowledge, beware of biased information about oneself within the self-examination and formation of self-knowledge (may be influenced by the evaluation by others),
- self-distance is an important instrument of self-reflection (Ulrichová, 2013),
- self-knowledge methods: simple registration of own behaviour and conduct, regular reflexion, possibly in writing, dailies and free association methods (professional supervision required). Individual methods have their pros and cons – for more details see Míček, 1986).

Self-approach, self-concept – opinion about oneself and/or relationship to oneself formed on the basis of self-knowledge and self-evaluation; influences self-evaluation.

Self-evaluation – evaluation of oneself

- should focus on own thinking, behaviour and action, needs, interest, conative qualities and skills,
- influences one's behaviour, activities and performance, formation of personality,
- self-evaluation is influenced by communication, relationships among people and atmosphere; children may be influenced by their surroundings especially easily,
- we register positive or negative, high, low or unstable self-evaluation,
- errors in self-evaluation; overrating oneself (increased self-evaluation) or underrating oneself (reduced self-evaluation),
- self-criticism is related to self-evaluation – critical evaluation focusing mostly on one's negative utterances and features.

The result of correct and objective self-evaluation – one neither overvalues nor undervalues himself/herself, knows his/her pros and cons,

- objective self-evaluation is influenced primarily by the upbringing from early childhood
- the quality of self-education depends on objective self-evaluation.

Self-regulation – regulation of one's own behaviour, actions, experience and adaptation of qualities and features based on self-knowledge, self-criticism and self-evaluation.

Self-education's prerequisites include not only the aforementioned abilities and skills, but also the experience, personal qualities and maturity/immaturity of the person in question. According to Opatřilová, successful self-education can be carried out only after the individual has reached the required level of self-knowledge, self-evaluation and is capable of setting the targets and tasks for own self-education (Opatřilová, 1984).

Pospíšil stipulates the following prerequisites for self-education:

- **self-motivation, needs, interests – the individual is motivated by stimuli from the schools, the need for a wider educational horizon is formed,**
- **self-diagnosis ability** – the individual is capable of evaluating the degree of his/her development,
- **the ability to draft one's own further development** – the ability is realised only when resources are available for the individual that will enable such realisation (Pospíšil, 2006).

5.3 Stages of Self-education

Self-education is a process toward the fulfilment of one's own set intentions. It takes place gradually in several phases.

Phases of self-education according to Opatřilová:

1. self-knowledge – the goal is to achieve true findings about oneself – the prerequisite for setting realistic targets for self-education,
2. setting the target – should be clear and realistic,
3. intentional formation of self-educational situations – planned and systematic formation of self-educational situation helps the implementation of self-education,
4. self-control – self-critical determination of the rate to which one changed in relation to the set targets (Opatřilová, 1984).

Phases of self-education according to Pospíšil

1. self-diagnostic,



2. self-motivation,
3. self-teaching and self-education (Pospíšil, Vlčková, 2006).

Phase of self-education according to G. Pintes

1. imitation of a certain model and identification with the model,
2. motivation to achieve certain goals in life, personal qualities and way of life (Pintes, In Duchovičová et al., 2012).

If we compare the classification of the phases, we find out that the last two do not state the important final phase of diagnosis and evaluation. From the methodology point of view, they are an important part of the educational process (compare to phases of upbringing).

5.4 Conditions and Instruments for Self-education

Self-education and education are mutually connected and determine and supplement each other, so that the target of all-round development of the personality is achieved. 'Education creates the prerequisites for self-education and self-education guarantees the success of education' (Opatřilová, 1984).

Self-education is part of education, and its goals and content should thus be based on the goals and content of education, but with regard to individual differences of every individual. If the education is directed properly, it participates on the formation of optimal internal and external conditions for self-education. To achieve the self-education phase, the **conditions for self-education** have to be fulfilled from the point of view of the individual undertaking the education:

1. internal conditions: intellect level (abstraction capability), development of higher emotions, self-knowledge, realistic self-evaluation, strong will, ability to organise one's time;
2. external conditions: availability of self-education examples and models, the option to make free and independent decisions in serious situations in life (Pintes, In Duchovičová et al., 2012).

Instruments for influencing the development of self-education

Self-education may be developed via direct and indirect educational effect, but the indirect methodology is more effective in the long run. The indirect method uses so-called facilitation principle and aims from the beginning at the development of abilities and skills for self-education (see above). In facilitation, used primarily in the humanistic, personality-focused approach, the educators are not fulfilling the goals on behalf of the educated person, but provide help to him/her to achieve the set goals. Independence in the



education process is adequate to the age and personality of the person that it being educated. The change of the educational work in this spirit influences the process of the planning, implementation and evaluation of the educational process.

High confidence from the educator in the person that is being educated is required. The educated person needs to have a high level of internal motivation for self-improvement and self-development. (For more details see Pintes In Duchovičová et al., 2012; Rogers, 2014)

Self-education methods are methods that may be used by individuals to purposefully and systematically influence themselves so that they achieve the goals set at the beginning of the self-education process.

An overview of **methods for self-examination and self-knowledge** is described in subchapter 6.2.

The following are the **basic self-education methods**:

self-conviction – the ability to prove the correctness or incorrectness of certain behaviour and actions; the most important method;

self-training – repetition of activities by an individual to create proper habits in behaviour, strengthening of will etc.; requires high level of self-control;

self-encouragement – encouraging oneself to overcome obstacles and persist; help from environment and people around helps immensely (Opatřilová, 1984).

Methods for the development of self-education according to other authors:

- individual's activation,
- support for and development of self-confidence,
- influence on the development of conative qualities,
- monitoring and achievement of phases, goals of self-educational effect.

(Holoušová, Grecmanová, Urbanovská, 1997, 2000)



Application Tasks

1. Try to evaluate your own self-education. What would you improve for it to have a greater impact? Take different stances to review it: your needs, goals, content, methods, prerequisites, and skills necessary for self-education, and motivation from the perspective of your individual characteristics.

2. What direction can (should) the self-education of a university student take? And of a teacher?
3. Learn the personality-developing model of the educational process and characterise the importance of self-education within this concept.



Review Questions

1. Describe the focus of self-education and its importance.
2. Characterise the abilities important for self-education.
3. What methods can be used to nurture self-education?
4. Describe the self-education stages from various perspectives.
5. Where does education end and is replaced by self-education? What is the relation between education and self-education?
6. Characterise the personality-developing model of the educational process and stress the importance of self-education within this concept.



Summary

Self-education means self-forming effects of an individual to which such an individual is motivated. He/she determines his/her own goals as well as the means and instruments to reach them. He/she plans and organises such activities. During self-education, the following processes are applied: self-awareness, self-knowledge and self-evaluation. These processes must be gradually nurtured from one's childhood.



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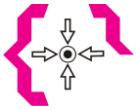
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6 System of Elements of Education



Objectives

After studying this chapter:

- You will name the elements of the system of education and plot them on the scheme and characterise their mutual relations.



Terms to Remember (Key Words)

- system of elements of education
- elements of education



Introductory Questions and Assignments

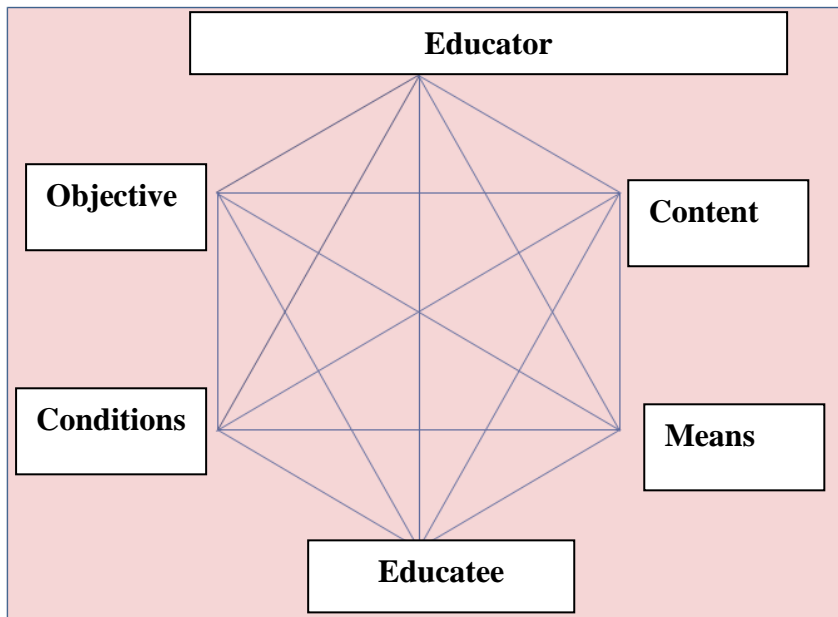
What is the determining element in education, in your opinion?

6.1 Education as a System of Elements

Education is a complex and structured phenomenon which is determined by many determinants and factors. Therefore, we can differentiate several basic elements in education: objective or goal, content, means and conditions of education, as well as two anthropogenic factors, i.e. the educator and the educated person (the 'educatee'). We call it a system because the elements of this system (we mean education) are involved in mutual interrelations and interactions. At the same time, each of these elements constitutes an autonomous system (subsystem). These relations can be seen in Scheme 3.



Scheme 3: *System of Elements in Education*



Although all elements of the system of education are important, the objective (or goal) of education is considered to be determining. This is why we need to pay particularly special attention to the selection and articulation of objectives.

The coming chapters will further characterise all elements of the system of education.



Application Tasks

1. Draw a scheme of the system of elements of education.



Review Questions

1. What does the word 'system' mean?
2. What elements constitute the system of education?
3. What advantages can we see in the system-based approach to education?



Summary

The system of elements of education comprises objectives (or goals), content, means and conditions of education and the educator and the educated person (the 'educatee'). They interact with each other and have an impact on each other.



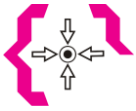
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7 Objectives and Content of Education; Components of Education



Objectives

After studying this chapter:

- You will explain what an objective is; its functions and components. You will provide various classifications of objectives of education.
- You will explain the need to specify the main educational intentions (objectives).
- You will describe the development of objectives from the historical perspective and explain why objectives of education change over time.
- You will analyse the content of education from the perspective of its elements and components.
- You will characterise the objectives and content of individual components of education and evidence their mutual links and relations.



Terms to Remember (Key Words)

- objective of education
- teleology
- content of education
- components of education
- intellectual education
- moral education
- occupational education
- aesthetic education
- physical education



Introductory Questions and Assignments

1. What impact does your knowledge of objectives have on your planning and performance of activities?

7.1 Objective of Education

The **objective of education** (educational goal) is the intent that we want to achieve through an educational activity. It is the foreseen, anticipated or desirable outcome.

Determining factors:



- society and social factors;
- tradition;
- opportunities and inspiration offered by the environment in which the educational process is carried out;
- worldview, life philosophy of those contributing to the development of the personality.

It is difficult to determine who and what should influence the definition of long-term objectives and the hierarchy. Another problem is that the pedagogical science based on the pluralism of opinions brings diverse ideals and a large amount of objectives and changes that the education should observe and achieve. It is therefore uneasy to define concrete and content-specific objectives.

Recently, neutrality and independence has been the typical requirements in a very wide range of things, including education. The prevailing tendency of low requirements in this segment is dangerous, as it is transferred directly to other spheres of human life (Pintes In Duchovičová et al., 2012).

Some researchers do not make any difference between the objective of education and the ideal of education. However, defining the ideal for education as the perfect (ideal) vision and the best possibly quality of education has its reason, even though it cannot be achieved, only approximated.

The **ideal of education** is the general notion of human beings as the bearers of the most important values. Ideals differ in the worldview and value determination. They are thus forming various notions of humans and thus various goals for education.

The ideal of current education is human relation to the world, to the nature and to oneself (see Kyrášek In Pařízek, 1996).

The ideal, the notion of a perfect human, has two functions:

- the basis for the formulation of an educational objective;
- indicating the direction for self-improvement for the object of education.

For practical reasons, the **objectives of education** have to be specified on the basis of ideals. The objectives stand for the content expression of the ideal of education. They determine the levels of education, content, instruments and form of education.

Teleology is the teaching that deals with the objectives of education.

Educational objectives have the following **functions**:

- motivational,
- regulatory
- self-evaluating.

The form of the expression of the objectives of education must be adopted accordingly.

Requirements on the formulation of the objectives of education:

- should be easy to understand and unambiguous;
- verifiable and evaluable;
- expressed in the educated person's activities (verbs).

Should the objectives focus on the development of personality, we have to take into account the structure of the goals within their selection and formulation which would reflect the basic components of the personality: cognitive, connective and emotional.

A wide range of classifications of educational objectives exists. Most frequently, they are divided into general (long-term) and specific (short-term). Other classifications are based on the age periods, educational system stage, educational institutions or scientific sectors. Objectives may also be classified according to individual components of education. We speak about vertical and horizontal classification of objectives.

Current educational outcomes should comprise the so-called key competencies, i.e. a complex set of knowledge, skills and attitudes that one needs in various spheres of life (profession, education, leisure time, health, social area) and in private, public and professional life. The skills include e.g. learning, communication, critical thinking, problem solving, handling ICT, etc. These life skills are thus part of educational documents which constitute one of the levels of objectives of education.

The objectives stipulated in educational documents, i.e. so-called general educational programmes for various school stages, have two levels – general objectives of education and objectives for educational fields. The two-level aspect is also present in the objectives of educational subjects (educational fields) on one level and key competences on the second level.

7.2 Content of Education

Objectives of education are achieved through the content of education. The content of education is the summary of everything that people should specifically master, learn to control or develop in themselves in order to achieve the objective of education. In a wider sense, objectives involve pedagogical transformation of social and cultural values, i.e. valuable phenomena from the area of science, arts and morals.

The process of adaptation of these values is a long-term and complicated one.

The content of education has its own internal **structure**, represented by:

1. knowledge
2. skills

3. habits
4. attitudes and values
5. character and conative qualities
6. experience.

These features may be differentiated in all components of education, see Subchapter 8.3.

The objectives and content of education are determined socially and historically. Their transformation in individual historical periods is interesting to observe. The historical epochs are briefly outlined in Table 1.

Table 1: *Historical Development of Educational Objectives and Content of Education*

PERIOD	OBJECTIVES AND CONTENT OF EDUCATION
Primitive communal society	The physical component is developed most extensively – gradually the work, intellectual and aesthetic component.
Antiquity: Ancient Greece	<i>Calocagathia</i> (Greek term for beauty and good, virtue) – harmony of body and intellect, beautiful spirit in a beautiful body (in a wealthy society); development of intellectual, moral, physical (sports) and aesthetic education
Sparta	Accent on physical fitness, work and ethical (moral) component of personality, as well as the development of aesthetic aspects
Ancient Rome	Intellectual, moral and aesthetic component of personality is developed, physical aspects stressed by warriors
Christianity	Christian virtues, meekness, love thy neighbour, self-denial of earthly delights and material values, elevation to the God
Middle Ages	Education of church dignitaries: moral education, religious values, as well as rational aspects; Monastery schools developed so-called seven free arts; Middle Age and earthly nobility: development of bodily component; Noble women: aesthetic and moral component of personality; Poor labour layer: moral and work component;
Renaissance and humanism	Return to antic culture – physical, aesthetic, intellectual, moral and work components of personality, with respect for Christian virtues.
Enlightenment	Accent on intellectual aspect.

	<p>John Lock – the aim is to raise a gentleman (accent on intellectual, moral and physical components);</p> <p>J. J. Rousseau – the aim (objective) of education is to raise a free human;</p> <p>J. B. Bassedow – the aim is to educate satisfied and practically-minded people (all five components of education must be developed).</p>
19th century	<p>J. H. Pestalozzi – the aim (objective) of education is to develop strengths and talents harmonically (development of natural prerequisites; development of head, heart and hand);</p> <p>J. F. Herbart – virtue is the objective of education – accent on moral aspects;</p> <p>A. Diesterweg – independence and own activity of people is the objective of education (motivate people to learn and educate themselves);</p> <p>G. A. Lindner - the objective of education is virtue and moral character;</p>
19th-20th century	<p>L. N. Tolstoy – the objective of education is a free man;</p> <p>J. Dewey – the objective of education is growth and development of humans (in intellectual and moral areas), forming a free and strong character;</p>
20th century	<p>A. S. Makarenko – one's character is the objective of education;</p>
Contemporary era	<p>The objective is to achieve harmony of the physical and intellectual aspects of personality, to fulfil the objectives of all components of education.</p>

7.3 Components of Education

Education is classified into partial domains. They focus on the development of the basic components of the personality, as well as culture, which helps cultivate personality. The domains thus meet the requirement for universal development of personality – biological, psychological and social. Experts mostly classify intellectual, ethical (moral), work and physical components of education. The components supplement and influence each other with regard to complex reality.

The general objective of upbringing a universally developed personality is fulfilled through goals and content of individual components of education.



1. Intellectual education

The aim of intellectual education is to develop speech and cognitive processes, i.e. intellect. The educated persons should master the knowledge and understanding (information, terms, rules, definitions and theories) from various scientific fields and develop cognitive processes (perception, notions and primarily thinking) predominantly in school institutions, but also with the help of various media, in order to get to know and adapt to the surrounding world. Intellectual skills have to be developed, e.g. the ability to think about various phenomena, the ability to use knowledge creatively and evaluate it and to handle problem-solving. The important task for intellectual education is to learn to be learning not only during the school attendance period, but to pursue lifelong education. For this reason, it is important to form a positive relationship to cognition and education.

2. Moral education

The aim of moral education is to raise an individual that behaves and acts morally, in compliance with the ethical norms of the given society and his/her own conscience.

The content of moral education consists of the formation of moral awareness, habits, feeling, moral conviction and actions, attitudes and values by the individual. It also includes the development of conative, character and pro-social qualities of an individual. All basic components of the personality in the area of ethics are thus being influenced (for more details see Chapter 10).

3. Occupational (polytechnical) education

The aim of occupational education is to master working skills and habits, both for manual and intellectual work. The content is supplemented by the requirement of individual's endowment with theoretical knowledge of the relevant field, linked purposefully to the practice. Cultivating positive attitudes to work is very important.

The issues of professional orientation, labour qualification, working culture and others are related to the given component.

Polytechnical education focuses the attention of the educated persons to reasonable utilisation of various technologies that accompany our private and (primarily) professional lives.

The work component of education utilises the contents from all other components of education.

4. Aesthetic education

Aesthetic education is expected to cultivate one's aesthetic feelings, the ability to perceive, understand and experience beauty and cultivate the relationship to

arts as the artistic depiction of reality, as well as the relationship to the beauty of reality – nature, other people and things. Active aesthetic creation is the content and tool of aesthetic education.

In schooling, aesthetic education is applied in separate school subjects, as part of other school subjects and through aestheticism of the environment.

5. Physical education

The aim of physical education is to cultivate the physical and psychological aspects of personality and boost one's health and healthy lifestyle. Its specific content includes the development of movement abilities, fitness and the habit of moving regularly and doing sports, as well as stirring up the interest in accustoming one's body to the cold and hardening systematically. Physical education also aims to support and form courage, persistence, willpower, fair play behaviour etc. Physical education is taught at schools as a separate subject, but there are also other opportunities for exercising and sports offered by other institutions where young people and adults may spend their free time. Other components of education are determined by individual requirements. They aim either at refining educational segments or are based on the society's current needs. We may encounter e.g. worldview education, environmental, legal or medical education, as well as education to human rights, health, business, etc.

Individual components cannot be perceived in isolation. Their importance grows if they are perceived and developed in mutual relations and links.



Application Tasks

1. Analyse the components of education from the perspective of the elements of its content.
2. Learn about other classifications of educational components. In what aspects are they different from the overview we have provided?
3. Explain this sentence: Aesthetic education contributes to experiencing one's own life.



Review Questions

1. What is the relation between objectives and contents of education?
2. What are the elements of education and in what areas do they further develop man?



3. Which components of personality correspond to the requirement of the general and universal development of man and which are rather required by the society? Is it correct to apply both criteria? Why?
4. Explain the mutual relations between components of education and give specific examples.



Summary

Objectives of education represent an educational intention to be achieved. They present an ideal of what kind of a person should be educated. The content of education represents specification of these objectives.

Components of education mean the objectives and content of particular educational areas through which the general and universal development of an individual should be achieved.



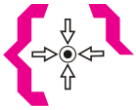
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8 Conditions and Factors of Education



Objectives

After studying this chapter:

- You will name all of the factors which influence personality formation.
- You will differentiate external and internal conditions of education, functional and intentional factors of personality development.
- You will draw a scheme of the overall overview of personality formation factors.



Terms to Remember (Key Words)

- factors of education
- external and internal factors of education
- functional factors
- intentional factors
- educational environment



Introductory Questions and Assignments

1. Activity: The tree of self-esteem
 - a) Draw a tree according to your imagination. It should have roots, a trunk and a treetop.
 - b) Write the following into individual parts of the tree:
 - roots: your prerequisites, abilities, talents and experience;
 - trunk: factors and agents forming your personality (i.e. who and what has influenced you throughout your life);
 - treetop: your results and achievements. (Course of Ethical Education, Hradec Králové, 2008)
 - c) Get back to your picture after reading this chapter and say which personality formation factors you have put down.
2. Why is it important to nurture self-esteem?



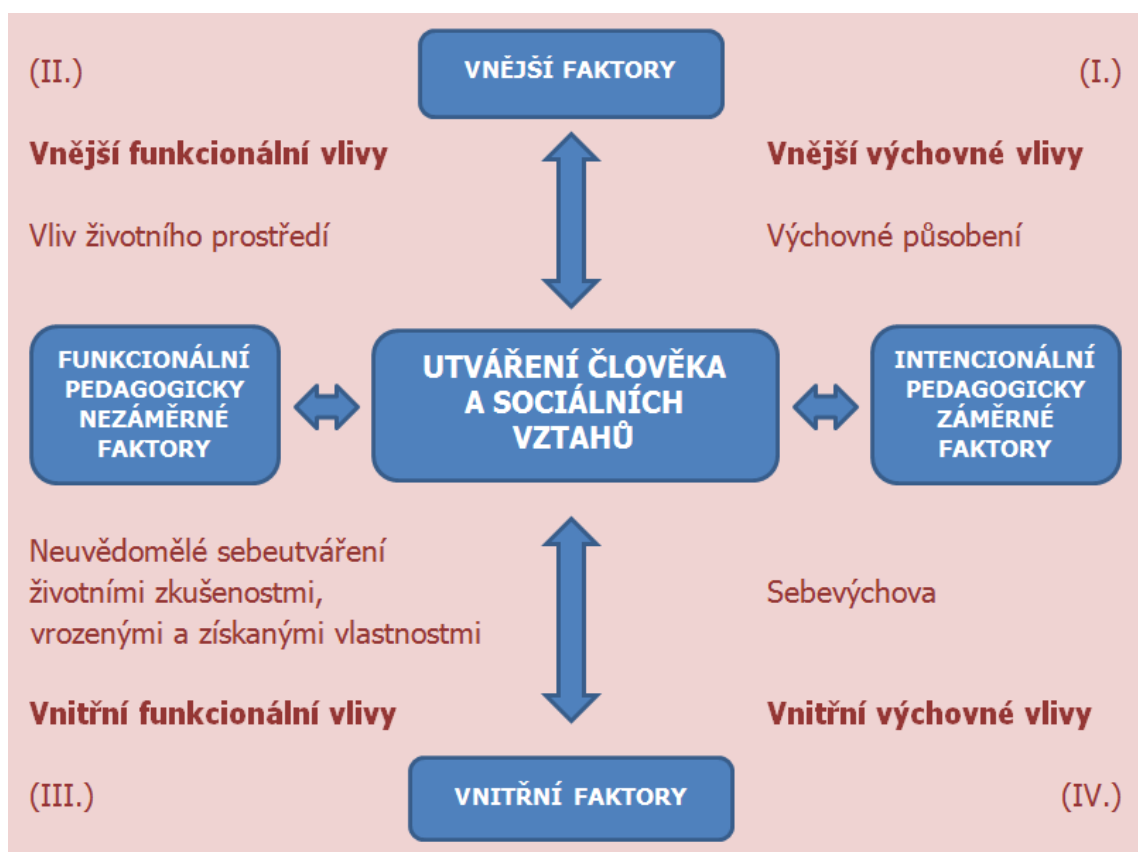
8.1 Formation of an Individual and Social Relations

There are many different factors shaping and forming every individual's personality from his/her birth. B. Blížkovský (1994) provides a well-arranged and comprehensive description of such factors. They include:

- INTERNAL FACTORS: prerequisites for performing various activities conditioned genetically.
- EXTERNAL FACTORS: they include all external factors affecting an individual.
- FUNCTIONAL, PEDAGOGICALLY UNINTENTIONAL FACTORS: factors not affecting personality purposefully.
- PEDAGOGICALLY INTENTIONAL FACTORS: factors having purposeful and intentional effects on an individual in the sense of education.

The scheme below shows the relations between individual groups of these factors.

Scheme 4: Overall Summary of Factors of Personality Formation (Blížkovský, 1994)



The scheme shows that the personality is formed both by innate (hereditary) or acquired factors which are designated as internal factors and by external factors, i.e. the surrounding environment.

8.2 External and Internal Factors of Educational Conditions (Personality Formation)

The environment in which an individual develops comes in with numerous factors. They will be characterised within internal and external conditions.

8.2.1 Internal Conditions and Factors of Education (Personality Formation)

Internal conditions of personality development are mostly influenced by individual physical and psychological prerequisites. These are internal factors. They are both **innate** (passed over from parents in genes) and **acquired** represented by individual qualities, characteristics and experience.

With genetic endowment, one inherits talents, unconditioned reflexes and instincts. A set of genes is called a **genotype**. The genotype expression in a certain environment or components is designated as a **phenotype**.

Classification of internal conditions of education (Horák, Kolář, 2004):

The conditions of a biological nature are related to the internal structure and condition of personality of the educated individual. They include:

- prerequisites for an individual's development determined by heredity;
- an individual's biological structure, biological micro- and macro-environment;
- health condition, biorhythm;
- the manner of satisfying the basic necessities of life.

The conditions of a psychological nature represent the level of psychological processes and characteristics of the educated person. They are determined by:

- the condition and level of cognitive processes and the quality of the current knowledge;
- endowments, talents, faculties, temperament;
- emotionality, emotional intelligence;
- volitional and personality traits;
- needs, motivations, aspirations, interests.

Heredity has an undisputable impact on the mental development even though the degree of this impact cannot be exactly established (Manniová, 2005). During an organism's development, internal factors adapt to the environment

and activities of the individual. Age-sensitive periods and the impact of the social environment are important for the development of certain skills and characteristics. When the development slows significantly down, we speak about retardation, whereas accelerated development is branded as acceleration. This can have various causes, which is why we need to know more about external conditions and factors.

8.2.2 External Conditions and Factors of Education (Personality Formation)

Human beings live in an environment full of diverse stimuli (factors) which influence them from the outside, and they also provide their feedback accordingly. The environment people live in is both of a social and natural character. Altogether, they form the environment.

Factors of the environment:

- a) **In the natural environment**, one is influenced by natural phenomena and products, phenomena and material objects created by people as well as demographic, geographic and economic conditions.
- b) **The social conditions** are created by people and their mutual relations. People are surrounded by a wider and narrower social environment. It materially stimulates and influences the development of human personality.

J. Horák and Z. Kolář (2004) include the following factors as social conditions:

- political, economic, cultural and legal arrangement of the society;
- prevailing values steering the human behaviour;
- social structure of the society;
- prevailing lifestyle and traditions;
- social groups.

The said factors apply both to small and large groups. Hence, some of them have a direct and immediate effect (e.g. in family) or they have a mediated impact (social conditions in the society).

The term '**educational environment**' is a wide complex of intentionally organised and accidental effects and stimuli from the school, family and various organisations which stimulate sound and universal development of man endowed with skills and relationships.

The broader approach to the **educational environment** includes a set of external conditions (social, economic, democratic, ethnic, etc.) which determine the outcome of education and instruction through the place-related characteristic (urban, rural, industrial, agricultural environment), through the



type of the subjects involved and through the objectives, content, forms, arrangement and intensity of educational processes.

Aspects of the environment

The environment considerably affects personality development, an individual's abilities, skills and the value system and hence, his/her performance and behaviour. It is therefore appropriate to state various aspects of the effects the environment has to get a more specific idea about these links and connections.

1. If we take the perspective of the **size of the relevant space**, we can differentiate a micro-environment (family, class), a local environment (school, place of residence), and a macro-environment (entire society). The frequency and intensity of interpersonal contacts and therefore the degree of their impact on personality formation depends on the size of the respective space.
2. If we take the perspective of **the intensity of the impact** on personality development, V. Smékal (2004, In Manniová, 2005) categorises the environment into a micro-environment (family), a semi-environment (class, school), a mezzo-environment (town or city, district), a macro-environment (country, continent) and the global environment (whole world and space). The micro-environment and semi-environment have the largest impact on personality development; the mezzo-environment has a fairly large impact, as well, and the global environment has the least impact.

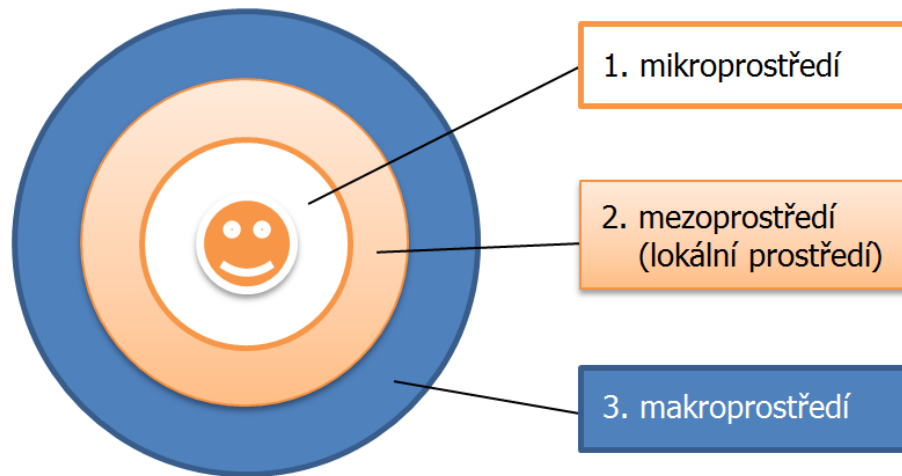
The intensity of the impact of the relevant factors depends on whether the impact is direct, immediate or mediated.

Successful and problem-free education is the result of the impact of all environments together and in one direction. The activity of educators in their positive influencing of the conditions for education is equally important.

If we combine perspectives 1 and 2, the social environment diversification can be depicted in a short scheme (see below).



Schéma č. 5 : Členění sociálního prostředí z hlediska velikosti prostoru a intenzity vlivu



3. According to the **character of the environment**, we can differentiate the rural, municipal, urban and suburban environment where the quality of factors is different and which provide various stimuli for personality education and formation.
4. As for the **frequency** of stimuli, we can specify the environment with **poor stimuli** (few stimuli of poor or no quality); with optimal stimuli (using individual and age peculiarities, possibilities and abilities of the child, giving adequate stimuli in a reasonable amount and quality), and the **oversaturated** environment (too many stimuli and the individual is oversaturated, tired).
5. **The focus and structure of the stimuli** provided by the social environment can be one-sided (developing just one aspect of human personality) or versatile as to the stimuli and development of all personality components (intellect, skills, feelings and volition).
6. The environment enables (or requires) activities of a **different nature and for varied purposes**. Therefore, we differentiate a home environment (relaxation, activities related to the functioning of the household, spare-time activities), a work environment (school, workplace – work activities), and a recreational environment (spare-time activities in an environment selected according to one's interest).
7. **Depending on the quality of the stimuli**, we can differentiate an environment with sound stimuli and an environment with defective stimuli (cruelty, abuse, negligence, gambling, etc.) – (Manniová, 2005).

External conditions determined by the level of the environment and internal conditions characterised by the level of development achieved by the educated persons influence and condition one another in a complex and complicated manner. If we get to know them, we will better understand their impacts on an individual's behaviour and conduct. We can react with adaptation of external conditions and influencing of internal conditions with the aim to reach high-quality education and upbringing.

8.3 Intentional and Unintentional Factors

With respect to their impact on an individual, we must also differentiate **intentional** factors, i.e. those having the purpose of achieving a change in an individual's personality and influencing his/her development related to various components of personality or comprehensively. All of this must always be done using intentional means of education selected with deliberation or adjusted.

Reality always has a complex impact on an individual, not only through the factors with which the educator wants to impact on the educatee. But the surrounding environment mostly has a functional impact. Hence, an individual is exposed to **unintentional factors** which are not consciously planned in advance and need not always be realised as factors influencing an individual's formation. Therefore, we need to create such an educational environment which brings as many positive moments, stimuli and examples worth following as possible and which has as few risk factors as possible. It is because unintentional factors are sometimes more effective than educational factors, especially if they have a long-term effect. For this reason, the conditions of education and the relating factors must be followed so that it is possible to eliminate any negative impacts and support the natural and social factors having the potential of a positive impact on forming and shaping one's personality.

It is far-sighted and even effective for education to think over and use the factors of all conditions for personality formation in educational work (see Scheme 4) while eliminating the negative factors and impacts on children and young people. But we should also stimulate active participation of the educated persons in their self-formation (e.g. to learn them how to choose the right stimuli not resulting in any negative consequences for their development but having rather positive impacts, etc.).



Application Tasks

1. Give examples from your surroundings about the way the municipality/region/state cares for education of children and young people in school and extracurricular education.
2. Find out in what respect was education of your grandparents and parents different from yours. State the conditions which caused it.
3. In what respect do the following quotations and sayings relate to the conditions of education?

• *O, tempora, o mores! (Oh the times! Oh the customs!)*

- Different countries have different customs.
4. Discuss which of the following environments is the 'morally purest' in your opinion, i.e. it generally provides the most positive stimuli in education: rural, municipal, urban and suburban.
 5. Read about research carried out in America (see V. Pařízek, 1996). When interpreting the findings, focus on the description of factors and conditions monitored which influenced the research outcomes.



Review Questions

1. What factors form an individual's personality?
2. What is a stimulating environment?
3. Why are the results of an educational environment not the same?
4. Read a publication of your choice about developmental psychology to prove how a child changes owing to maturing and learning, external and internal conditions.



Summary

An individual is affected by many factors. They include external and internal factors, intentional and unintentional factors.



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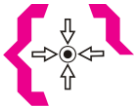
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9 Means of Education



Objectives

After studying this chapter:

- You will know and distinguish various groups of means of education.
- You will understand the principles of education.



Terms to Remember (Key Words)

- means of education
- principles of education
- methods of education
- forms of education



Introductory Questions and Assignments

1. What educational activities which you have gone through so far have attracted your attention most? Do you think that you have been influenced by them in any way? In what way? In what?
2. Please recall effective or interesting educational means of your parents, teachers at school, educators in out-of-school-hours (extracurricular) activities; describe them and comment on their effectiveness.

9.1 Means of Education

Under means of education, we understand everything which helps implement education and attain its objectives. They are divided as follows:

- means of education in a broader and in the strict sense of the word;
- or material and immaterial means of education.

Means of education **in the strict sense of the word** are of a **material nature**.

For instance:

- aids such textbooks and other types of texts, models, pictures and real objects, devices, instruments and tools as well as school and class equipment, premises designed for education;



- didactic equipment – overhead projector, data projector, computer, players, television and video recorders, visualiser, multifunctional equipment, etc.

In the broader sense of the word, means of education also include those of an **immaterial nature**.

Material means have already been characterised and now we will focus on immaterial means used in a variety of educational environments and areas.

The **immaterial means of education** include methods of education and organisational forms of education.

1. **Methods of education and instruction (commonly 'education')** are the procedures or activities of the educator and the educatee leading to the attainment of an educational objective.

- From the perspective of the **source of cognition**, teaching methods include:
 - verbal methods (narration, explanation, presentation, lecture, dialogue, discussion, work with texts);
 - teaching through demonstration (student observation, demonstration of phenomena and objects, training);
 - methods of practical student activities (assembly and disassembly, laboratory activities, skilled and art activities);
 - activating methods (e.g. play, staging and dramatization, problem-solving and situational methods).
- **According to the stages of the teaching process**, we can differentiate motivational, exposure and fixation (repeating and training) methods, application methods, assessment (diagnostic) methods and evaluation methods.

Some of these teaching methods are also applied in education and upbringing.

- **Methods of (moral) education** include:
 - requirements, exercises, explanation;
 - persuasion, model, community and civic activities, student or volunteer activities, staging methods, solution of moral dilemmas, evaluation methods (appreciation, encouraging, reward, punishment);
 - methods of self-education.

2. **Organisational forms of education** represent the method of arrangement of educational activities with respect to the place, time and relations among participants in the educational process. The same organisational forms apply to education within the meaning of upbringing and instruction.

- **As for the relations among participants** in the educational process, we differentiate an individual form (where one educator influences one educatee), a mass form (where one educator works with a group of educatees who learn individually), a group and cooperative form (where the educator stimulates activities of a group of educatees who cooperate with one another and develop and solve problems while communicating with one another). The variety of individual needs must be addressed with adequate activities. One can stimulate individualised activities where each individual or several individuals separately work on appropriate assignments different from others or are involved in activities which they need to master.
- **As for the place** of educational activities, we differentiate excursions, walks, work in workshops or on the land, long-term stays in the open air, etc.
- Should we take the **temporal approach**, teaching is organised in lessons, two- or multiple-lesson units or blocks. We also differentiate the school year, terms and quarters of the year.

(For details, see sources from general didactics, theory of education).

In addition to the basic means of education, there are also **other means of education**:

- **content of education**: content of theoretical and practical instruction, content of out-of-school-hours education and self-education and contents encountered by the child in his/her family;
- **environment** of educational institutions: natural and social environment adapted to the educational impact (architectonic solution of the school, equipment and arrangement of classrooms as well as the psychosocial climate);
- **people**: persons acting as educational agents in education;
- **educational institutions**: family and school, various school facilities (after-school clubs, out-of-school care centres, school libraries, school canteens), various organisations for children and young people, cultural institutions, interest, church and sporting organisations, school groups and collectives;
- V. Jůva (1999) specifies the following **activities**:
 - **play**: an activity for pleasure and entertainment which is an important means of education in pre-school age, but its role at a later age with respect to the development of various personality aspects should not be overlooked;
 - **sports and movement activities**: these means help to develop health, physical fitness and skilfulness, sense for collective and moral



- and volitional qualities in general; they also help to refine one's personality, create the value-orientation and scale of values; children learn fair play and a healthy lifestyle;
- **teaching and instruction:** systematic educational activities within a teaching unit which develop the student's knowledge, skills and habits, deepen emotional and aesthetic experience, and shape moral and volitional qualities;
 - **work:** both physical and mental work has an educational impact during the work process alone as it requires a planned and organised nature, thoroughness and responsibility, concentration, volition and endurance; it also impacts through the outcome of the work process and through the work environment; socially significant, publicly beneficial and demanding work also has educational effects;
 - **artistic activities:** active production as well as influence through pieces of art is a major means of education refining one's personality, developing it from the aesthetical and cultural, cognitive, moral and value-oriented perspective.

There are also

- **mass media:** They do not always have a positive effect from the educational perspective as not all programmes are intended for this purpose; programmes on further training whose objectives, content (themes and problems), means and forms are subordinated to educational purposes correspond to educational intentions (note: a programme's attractiveness does not guarantee its educational efficiency);
- **collective:** an organised group of individuals having a common interest, goal or activity; internal distribution of assignments and functions can be used in education via a collective's public opinion.

9.2 Principles of Education

The means of education also include **principles of education**. These are recommendations verified in practice on how to effectively achieve educational outcomes. J. Duchovičová (2012) specifies that they represent the requirements regarding the objectives, content, methods and organisation of the educational process.

Examples of educational principles:

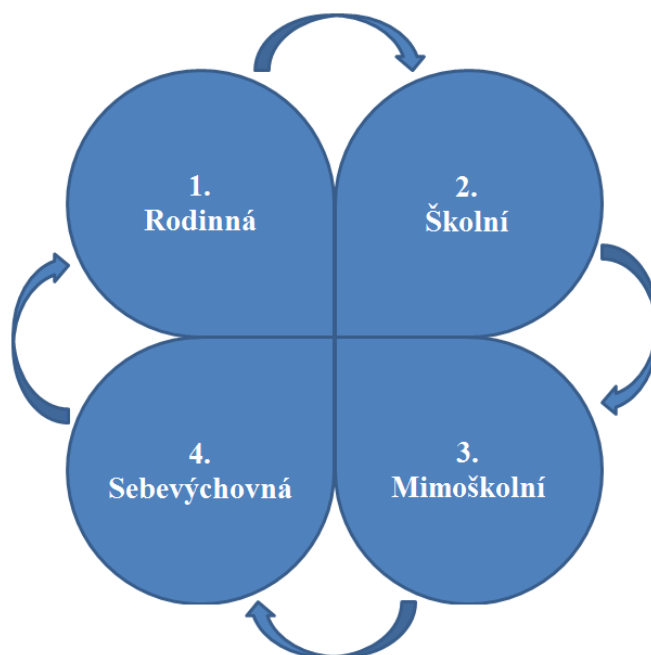
principle of activity, of individualised and differentiated approach to educatees, of immediate feedback, of the safe environment, of adequacy, of individual work and collaboration (Kozlík et al., 1998).



9.3 Forms of Education

Education is undertaken under varied conditions which differ in their objectives and means, organisation of educational activities and intensity of relations. These are defined as forms of education. They impact on each other and intensify the educational effect. There are four basic forms of education: family education, school education, out-of-school-hours education and self-education.

Obrázek č. 1: Základní formy výchovy



The respective forms of education affect an individual since childhood. Family education is gradually complemented with other forms of education which also work simultaneously, but also in a kind of a spiral, i.e. with new qualities regarding objectives, contents, means and forms of education. In each form, means of education are used specifically for the given area.

Family education takes place within a family in and outside the home environment.

Educational impacts in individual families differ according to the qualities, character and value orientation of parents, their interests, education and financial position. The family atmosphere shaped by relations and communication between and among parents and children is of utmost importance.

School education takes place in a defined time and space of educational institutions (the school environment). It is carried out by professional pedagogues (teachers). Objectives and contents of school education are defined in pedagogical documents.

Out-of-school-hours education takes place within out-of-school-hours activities. Educatees are involved in this type of education based on their interests and voluntary decisions. It is carried out in organisations and professional associations, interest groups and institutions for interest-based learning. The means of out-of-school-hours education are similar to the means of education but they have a higher focus on experience-based methods. The media (public means of communication) play a significant role in this type of education.

Self-education is a form of education where an individual chooses educational objectives, contents and means of their attainment on his/her own. This also involves self-assessment and self-evaluation.

Self-education has been described in Chapter 6, which is why we will now focus on family, school and extracurricular education.



Application Tasks

1. What methods of education will you use in a situation where you want to develop the so-called pro-social behaviour?
2. Which principles of education were most frequently applied at the school you attended? Was the situation different at the basic and the secondary school?
3. Explain the following sentences and give examples.
 - Forms of education impact on each other and intensify the educational effect.
 - The highest degree of a pedagogically adapted environment is provided by pedagogical institutions.
 - Forms of education impact on an individual during the entire development, since childhood, with new forms of education coming in over time and simultaneously, but always in the form of a spiral and in new qualities and functions.
4. What means of education will you use in your teaching practice most often?
5. What do you think about art and sport as the means of education?



Review Questions

1. What are the means of education? What types of means of education are there?
2. Why are pedagogical principles included among means of education?



3. What forms of education are there? Which are the most important ones and why?



Summary

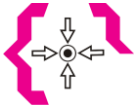
There are various means of education used to implement and carry out objectives and contents of education. They most frequently include methods and forms of education, aids, and educational principles.



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10 Family – the Most Important Factor in Education



Objectives

After studying this chapter:

- You will describe the importance of family and provide its basic characteristics and functions.
- You will explain the essence of the basic family education styles, their differences and consequences for a child's education.
- You will compare traditional and modern family.



Terms to Remember (Key Words)

- Family
- family education styles
- family
- characteristics of modern and traditional family
- family functions
- family development trends



Introductory Questions and Assignments

1. What is the most valuable thing about family?
2. In what aspects is education in individual families different?
3. In what way has modern family changed compared to family 100 years ago?

10.1 Family and its Functions

Family is the most important social environment for man. Its effects are especially crucial in childhood because they impact on one's entire life. It is the initial social environment for every individual after birth. Owing to the influence of family members, the child starts applying and developing cognitive activities, skills and emotions. Considering the child's perceptiveness to the surrounding stimuli during the yearly years, family has the largest significance for the child's development. All other institutions follow the effects from family.

The impact of family is even more significant as it is a small informal group with intensive interaction and communication processes shaping emotional ties between and among family members.

Early childhood is an important period building the foundations for the organism's development in the coming periods as a result of maturation and learning. Although all children undergo the same developmental stages, we can still finally see differences between them. They are conditioned both by individual peculiarities relating to the children's inborn dispositions and by learning generously stimulated by the surrounding environment. The child interiorises everything provided by the immediate reality and identifies internally with the closest beings to whom he/she has a deep emotional relationship. Externally, the child interprets everything garnered in the immediate contact with them. The causes of differences in educational outcomes can be seen not only in the genetic foundations and the child's temperament but also in the different stimuli coming from the environment (especially from family), both in terms of quality and their frequency. Experts say there is a correlation between the genotype and the environment the child lives in (In Duchovičová, 2012).

Family characteristics

According to V. Tamášová (2006), family is characterised as follows:

- It is a socially approved form of cohabitation;
- It consists of persons (parents and children) who have a blood relation, marital relation and/or adoptive relation;
- Family members live under the same roof in the same household; they mutually collaborate within the recognised distribution of tasks with the education of and provision for children being the most important tasks.

V. Tamášová also emphasises that family constitutes a social system of persons who pass their identity over to this system. This group is characterised by its interconnection, mutual relations established through partnerships/matrimony and kinship/parenthood and children (Tamášová, 2006).

According to Z. Matějček (1986), family is unique for its common past, common future and strong emotional ties established through mutual interactions and satisfaction of the basic human needs.

Z. Matějček (1986) points to the importance of satisfying spiritual needs such as the need to be loved and accepted, the need for safety, the adult model, free expression without restraint and fear, the need for encouragement, praise and reward for self-confidence, a kind word, life optimism, belief in people and happy future, the need for general development.

Family has irreplaceable significance for the child's emotional development; it cannot be replaced by any other institution in this respect. Family is also the primary source of the quality of life of children.

Family functions

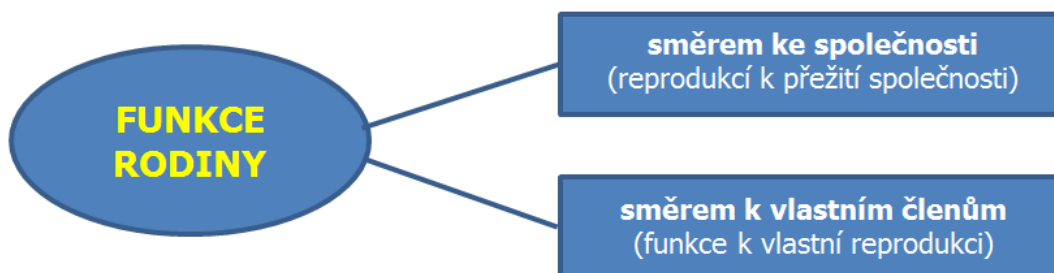
Family is responsible for child care but it also has other missions or tasks to fulfil. These are described as family functions.

Pedagogical sources commonly define the following **family functions**:

- *biological and reproductive function*: to secure family continuation and enlargement; renewal of strengths;
- *emotional function*: to secure emotional needs and ties between and among family members for the child's healthy development (in particular mental development);
- *educational function (socialising, developing and cultivating)*
 - *socialising function*: to prepare the child for life in the human society, for the child's integration in social relations and for finding one's own place within society;
 - *developing function*: to develop all components of the child's personality;
 - *cultivating function*: to refine and improve the child's personality and nurture the child's relations to other people, to nature and one's self;
- *caring and protective function*: to care for the child with respect to the child's mental development, health and hygiene; to protect the child from negative phenomena and people; to protect the child's physical, mental and social health; to satisfy the child's needs; to provide unconditional support against all troubles;
 - *domestication function*: It is based on the caring and protecting function in childhood. It means to create the feeling of home, personality anchoring in life and the place one belongs to where one feels good and safe;
- *economic function*: to provide for the material conditions for life from the economic perspective;
- *regenerative function*: to provide for regeneration of strengths and relaxation of family members.

Family functions can also be categorised by the persons performing these functions, and for whom they are beneficial and important. See Scheme 6.

Schéma č. 6: *Funkce rodiny* (M. Ziemská In Duchovičová, 2012)



V. Tamášová states the following **prerequisites for successful education**: love toward the child; peaceful and balanced environment; both parents; homogenous leadership in family and at school; consistency; regular regimen and requirements adequate to the child's abilities. However, not each family is successful in adhering to these prerequisites.

Each family has its habits, traditions, value orientation and the family climate. The family climate is an important factor since it has a decisive influence on the psyche, mental development and moral qualities of each family member (Fulková, Oberuč, 2004 In Tamášová, 2006).

We can see differences between families also with respect to other aspects from which family typology is derived, depending on:

- the number of generations;
- the share and involvement of parents in education;
- the adequacy of influence or complexity of influence;
- functionality.

(Freely according to J. Malach, 2007)

The basic types of family education will be characterised in detail in the following subchapter.

10.2 Typology of Family Education

In education, parents take different approaches to children. Families also differ in the atmosphere prevailing in them. This atmosphere is created by the relations between parents and children and the way they communicate as well as by the means of education they use. Here we can differentiate **three basic types of family education**:

Democratic education is the most appropriate type of family education. It combines love to the child and reasonable strictness. Parents and children openly communicate with each other, which is why they have good relations

and trust each other. Parents respect the child's possibilities, his/her age and individual peculiarities. They support but also rightly reward the child. They regularly check and evaluate the requirements for the child and the tasks or rules agreed. This type of education is fairly demanding for parents. It requires consistency, maintenance of partner and democratic relations between parents and children and also grace and a detached view and worldly wisdom. It heads towards healthy self-confidence of the child, self-criticism and self-education; it builds self-reliance and supports the child's initiative.

Authoritarian education is regarded as a negative extreme not bringing any favourable environment for optimal education of children. Adults (parents) assert and enforce solely their own opinions and requirements.

According to V. Tamášová (2006), special types of this education include uncompromising family education (where parents determine unconditional requirements), brutal education (where school outcomes are evaluated one-sidedly and negatively and where ruthless educational methods are used) and ambitious education (where ambitious parents set unrealistic goals for the child, thus causing feelings of anxiety in the child).

Liberal education is an opposite of authoritarian education. In liberal education, the child is the centrepiece of interest; everything is done according to his/her wishes or even commands in some cases. As a result of this education, the child becomes selfish, haughty, unadaptable and asocial. V. Tamášová (2006) specifies several types of liberal education. It is mercantile education (where the child keeps to be rewarded without any merits so he/she does not hold values dear); grumbling education (where parents are convinced that their child keeps being treated unjustly and that everyone has 'picked on' their child, which results in the child's negative attitudes to teachers or other persons, and the child also blames others for his/her own failure), and demobilising education (where parents insufficiently stimulate the child to further development and education, claiming that lower education would do to earn a lot of money).

The parents' approach to education influences the child's qualities, experience and condition. No extreme cases are recommended. Democratic education seems to be the most appropriate educational style with regard to the child's healthy development.

In some cases, a difference is made between functional family (performing all basic family functions at least at the minimum level which enables development of family members) and non-functional family. Family with pathological demonstrations of the parents' conduct, e.g. alcoholics, gamblers, delinquents, etc., is designated as a pathological family type. Such parents do not react to



the manifestations of their children; they care only for themselves and do not perform the basic family functions. They do not influence the child's development and do not provide the child with the right social model of behaviour. Children also suffer emotionally because their basic needs have not been satisfied. Psychological problems and problems in relations to other people manifested in adulthood originate in childhood, mostly for the reasons described above. Therefore, it is of utmost importance that parents seek to create a safe, stimulating and loving environment for their children.

10.3 Cooperation between Family and School

Cooperation between family and school has proven to be necessary for positive education of children. Both sides need to be informed on the behaviour of children, on their specific needs, causes of peculiarities in the child's behaviour, on the child's school results. Moreover, school should raise the parents' awareness about education.

If children have problems at school, there can also be a cause in family relations, in the parents' behaviour towards the child (see family typology), which is why the teacher should know about the family situation and seek a solution together with parents. On the other hand, parents need to be informed on the current school events, on the school's requirements, on how the child acts and behaves and in which situations so that they together (parents and teachers) form the conditions for the optimal behaviour and learning of children.

Cooperation between family and school is especially important when integrating learners with specific needs. Where the children have not been diagnosed yet, the teacher and other colleagues help provide professional assistance. Hence, the teacher becomes a coordinator and cooperating partner of the stakeholders (Turzík In kol., 2011).

School, as the secondary educational environment, should use the socialising achievements of family and adjust them. It should also compensate the shortcomings of family education for learners to enable educational development as much as possible. This is why the family background should be known (Helus, 2007).

Currently, there are many possibilities of how to ensure communication between both sides: in writing, by telephone, in person, by email or in other ways.

Teachers and other experts can motivate and instruct parents on how to create a favourable family environment to improve its quality regardless of the family

structure and economic situation through discussions and lectures by experts (In Duchovičová et al., 2013).

Varied forms of cooperation (both raising awareness and entertaining and recreational) have a positive effect on the pupil and parents (for details on specific forms and risks of the family-school relation, see In Pol, Rabušicová, 1997).

The teacher should not forget about ethical responsibility towards families. He/she should, among other things, maintain discretion.

10.4 Contemporary Family and its Impact on Education of Children and Young People

Changing conditions in the social life have resulted in changes in relations between society members, which is reflected within family in the relations between partners and towards children.

If the family trends at the turn of the second millennium included

- falling birth- and marriage-rates, fewer children per family;
- higher age of entering into the first marriage, of giving birth to the first child (women prefer career; problems with conception);
- a higher number of families where there is only one parent taking care of the child (children);
- a higher number of families with one household member;
- a higher number of unmarried parents and unmarried persons living together without children;
- a higher number of divorces;
- a lower number of those re-marrying after divorce,

these trends have now deepened even more. (The negative trends are also apparent from divorce rate figures published by the Czech Statistical Office: In 2012, 28,000 marriages were divorced, which affected 24,000 minor children.) However, also new critical moments have emerged such as single parents ending up with their children in the street as homeless.

Other trends are related to family diversification as stressed by V. Kurincová (In Duchovičová et al., 2013). There is also an increasing number of different family forms, e.g. families of immigrants, families where one of the parents lives and works abroad on a long-term basis; the number of homosexual parents is increasing in some countries in Western Europe, or there are families

with different religions, etc. According to Kurincová, both pedagogues (with their specific skills) and schools should be prepared for such situations (schools through a welcoming and open approach to this diversity).

Many experts have been also pointing to the changing role of father and mother (e.g. Střelec, 2005, Novotná In Kasíková, Vališová, 1994 and many others). L. Tóthová (In kol., 2013, p. 164) specifically describes the mother role where mother no longer is the person who is exclusively in charge of child care during the maternity leave. There are families where it is the father who is on maternity leave. The changing role of mother also impacts on the changing role of father. With the father's involvement in education and care for the child, the time the child spends with his/her father is extended and there are more activities performed by father which have so far been the domain of mother.



Application Tasks

1. Describe your knowledge and experience with family education of children abroad, if you have any.
2. Go through researches on family: Czech (e.g. Lašek – Loudová, 2013), Slovak, or Polish, and provide the respective information.



Review Questions

1. Why do experts describe family as a bio-psycho-social unit?
2. What are the basic functions of family?
3. What types of family education are the most optimal for the child?
4. Does conscientious and loving education of children guarantee that parents will not have problems with them? Justify your opinion.
5. What consequences for the child's development can the contemporary family trends have? What tasks do they impose on school?



Summary

Family is an irreplaceable social group having significant influence on the child's life now and in the future. It performs many functions. Emotional ties between and among family members are irreplaceable. We can differentiate various types of family education (democratic, liberal, authoritarian). Cooperation between family and school is important for education to be successful.



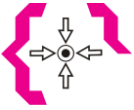
The contemporary family trends indicate a great diversification. The negative trends caused by divorces, lower numbers of children born and also poverty are becoming deeper. The role of fathers and mothers in family is changing.



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11 School – an Educational Institution



Objectives

After studying this chapter:

- You will differentiate the unique aspects of education at school institutions from other institutions.
- You will explain the function of school and the need for cooperation between family and school.
- You will specify school stages according to ISCED and describe the school system in the Czech Republic on the basis thereof.
- You will characterise alternative schooling.



Terms to Remember (Key Words)

- school
- function of school
- school system
- cooperation between family and school
- alternative schooling



Introductory Questions and Assignments

1. Describe what you can remember from your basic school.
2. In what way is the influence of school different from that of family education?

We can trace the efforts to institutionalise education back in antiquity because of the advantages of its systematic educational influence and the society's possibility to impact on these processes (Vašutová, J., Váňová, R., 1998). This is why educational facilities identified as schools (school institutions) were formed.

11.1 School Characteristics

School is a social institution designed for mass learning of children and young people. It is one of the pillars of life in a society and a part of the foundations of the institutional structure of education.



Specific school characteristics can be seen in the following areas:

- It shapes major configurations of the child's position when they grow up.
- It mediates the dialogue among social groups and generations.
- It is a specific culture where young people should be formed.
- It is a tool of social policy: it prepares young people for civil and working life. That is why wise societies care for schools, respect them and seek to support them for their good condition (Walterová, 2004, p. 11).
- It prepares individuals for their independent functioning within society.

Terminological definition of the concept 'school' and its characteristics

School is an educational facility localised in a building designated for this purpose and its internal organisation is subject to the determined rules, order and discipline (Walterová, 2004).

Educational effects at school:

- Education is carried out within defined time and space;
- Educational objectives are articulated in educational documents;
- Education is independent of teacher and student fluctuation.

During school education, students are provided with knowledge, skills, attitudes, values and experience during systematic instruction.

School is part of the child's environment.

Complex school characteristics:

- School provides **controlled and systematic education**. (It is established for this purpose.)
- It performs the following **functions**:
 - It contributes to general development of an individual (educational function, acculturation function);
 - It forms human beings (personalisation and socialising function);
 - It is a protective facility (protective function – it protects from inappropriate influences from society);
 - Qualification function;
 - Integration function;
 - It is a social policy tool.

(Průcha, 1997, Havlík, Halászová, Prokop, 1996, Walterová, 2004)

E. Walterová sums it up by saying that school should prepare educated citizens as a human source in a prosperous society. It should provide such education which enables life-long education and full-fledged life in a changing sociocultural environment. At school, one should learn to understand the accelerating increase of knowledge produced by science and technology; school should further develop skills important for life in an over-mechanised world and



highly organised society. It should also support coherence and solidarity in the multicultural and individualised global world and also ensure maintenance of cultural and national heritage by new generations.

School should also be a protecting institution, a place of safety, security and humanity in the social conditions. Its educational impact should be directed towards an ideal of norms and values which, however, cannot be realistically fulfilled and respected by the contemporary society. It should be a nice environment (Walterová, 2004, p. 82).

School is a very sophisticated, relatively isolated social form (Prokop, 1996) affecting others and being affected by a range of **factors**. These factors influence its focus, course and outcomes of activities. There are external and internal factors.

External factors include civilisation and cultural, social, demographic, economic and political factors. All of them impact on the organisation and arrangement of the school system; political factors determine educational policy.

Internal factors have a more conspicuous impact on an individual than external factors. They include the system of school organisation and management seeking system rationalisation and streamlining, as well as new and efficient management models.

Effectiveness of schools may be assessed by the school's outcomes and characteristics of educational processes. They are influenced by the following factors:

- goal-directed school management by its head;
- engaged headmaster deputy;
- great involvement of teachers in the preparation and organisation of lessons;
- agreement among teachers as to the performance of their professional obligations;
- exact time structuring of each day of instruction; intellectually-demanding instruction;
- strong working atmosphere at school;
- instructional focus on given themes;
- maximum communication among teachers and students;
- frequent assessment of student performance;
- intensive cooperation between school and family;
- congenial school atmosphere for students and parents.

Cooperation between family and school

S. Střelec sees school as a system of services provided to the child (Střelec, 2005) which is also why school should establish cooperation and partnership with family.

This cooperation should be developed and encouraged for the purpose of mutual knowledge. Parents need to know about life at school, its intentions and outcomes of their children's schoolwork. Teachers are, in turn, interested in the living conditions of children, their specific needs so that they could work with them at school on the basis of an individual approach. And since school also performs the protective function, it reacts to the signs of any family 'malfunctioning' in the interest of the child. Teacher, as a professional, is expected not only to give advice but also raise the parents' awareness with respect to education.

To achieve the targeted partner cooperation between family and school, we also need to seek effective forms of cooperation, shape formal and informal cohesion of parents, families, democratise the relations between family, school and the public (which is also why school councils are established).

School opens towards its surroundings. Parents are allowed to enter school, lessons; they are involved in school and out-of-school-hours activities (lectures, discussions; assistance in organisation of various events, etc.). Other possible forms of cooperation were specified by V. Tamášová (2006). Experience and specific cases can also be seen on the websites of many schools.

Cooperation between family and school is influenced by associations of parents, unions of parents, parent clubs, sponsors, etc.

Collaboration and cooperation between family and school has a primary impact on the child, which is why it should take place in the child's interest.

11.2 Structure of the School System

11.2.1 Concept of the 'School System – Education System'

The **school system** designates a summary of all stages and types of school institutions active in a certain administrative area at the given time. The school system is represented by all facilities having a character of school and being defined by legislation as such.

The **education system** has a wider meaning than the school system. It covers all educational facilities. It also includes institutions falling outside the formal school system, i.e. institutions offering activities whose character is related to education and awareness.

The term '**education system**' is now used more often and replaces the term 'school system' as it covers the institutional structure of schools as well as school management and administration, curriculum, student structure, involvement of family, and external economic, political and social conditions and the context of educational policy (Vašutová, Váňová, 1998).

School stages correspond to the structure of the school system and relate to certain age periods.

School types are differentiated either by the incorporator (state, private, church schools) or the curriculum (schools of general or vocational education).

School categories mean a more specific designation of the institution's educational focus (kindergarten, basic school, etc.). (Vašutová, Váňová, 1998)

School facilities according to J. Manniová (2005):

- educational (kindergarten, basic school, secondary school, leisure time centre, out-of-school-care centre, open-air school);
- facilities for special education;
- interest-based educational institutions;
- school, purpose-based facilities.

The school system is characterised by

- the length of mandatory school attendance;
- the hierarchy of school system objectives;
- the curriculum (a summary of requirements regarding the outcome and course of education: objectives, content, teaching and education methods);
- the functions of the education system (identical with the school's functions to a certain extent).

The school system is **managed** either by a central body, primarily by the government via the Ministry of Education (centralised school system) or by lower management elements having the decision-making powers even though there are also competent ministries (decentralised school system).

The school system must be flexible with regard to the needs of the society and the labour market and it must be efficient, which is influenced by the given country's economy.

11.2.2 Levels of the School System Structure

The school system structure encompasses the arrangement of school stages, their continuity and sequence, scope/length of study, outcomes and the placing of individual school types and categories in the entire structure (Vašutová, J., Váňová, R., 1998).

According to the UNESCO International Standard Classification of Education (ISCED), the school system has **seven levels**, see Table 3.

Tabulka č. 3 Úrovně vzdělání dle mezinárodní klasifikace ISCED

Označení	Úrovně vzdělání	Zastoupení institucemi v ČR:
ISCED 0	Předškolní výchova (preprimární)	mateřská škola
ISCED 1	Primární vzdělání	1. stupeň ZŠ (1.-5. roč. ZŠ)
ISCED 2	Nižší sekundární vzdělání	2. stupeň ZŠ (6.-9. roč. ZŠ)
ISCED 3	Vyšší sekundární vzdělání	střední škola
ISCED 4	Postsekundární vzdělání	specializační vzdělávání dospělých
ISCED 5	První stupeň terciárního vzdělání	vysoká škola (Bc, Mgr.) - pregraduální vzdělání
ISCED 6	Druhý stupeň terciárního vzdělání	vysoká škola (tzv. doktorské studium – Ph.D.) - postgraduální vzdělání

Special schools and facilities are incorporated within pre-primary, primary and secondary education.

This issue is explored by comparative pedagogy from the perspective of comparisons between and among individual countries.

11.3 Alternative Schooling

Schools different from normal schools were formed at the turn of the 19th and 20th century. They were different because of their

- learner-centred (pedocentric) approach;
- activity and creativity of students (and teachers);
- real complex education of the child (learner);

- community, i.e. educational forms and procedures are developed jointly by learners, teachers and parents;
- student involvement in the world of work and expansion of the educational environment beyond the school class framework. (for details, see Průcha, 2001)

Alternative schools can be categorised by the time of their origin. The first alternative schools are **reform** schools. The most famous schools include those working on the basis of Walfdorf education, the theory of M. Montessori, Jena plan, Dalton plan or pedagogical foundations of C. Freinet. Most of them are also represented in the contemporary society.

New theories are also emerging with the growing experience of pedagogues, with the development of sciences about man and changes in the society. They are used as the basis for new, alternative modern or contemporary schooling. The current projects which are implemented in the local school system include 'Začít spolu' (*Starting Together*), 'Zdravá škola' (*Healthy School*), or there are also elements of the so-called open lessons, integrated thematic instruction or global education. The concept of the so-called engaged learning is also well known.

For details on these schools, see monographs on individual schools or overall summaries on alternative schooling (see the sources of literature).

11.4 Characteristics of Contemporary Conditions of Education

The following trends and tendencies are typical of the area of schooling:

- school diversification;
- opening of schools to real life and to new, activating procedures;
- democratisation of school life;
- lifelong education.

Together with the European Union, the country addresses a variety of tasks which are specified in the respective documents. The European dimension in education, expanded instruction of foreign languages, use of new information technologies, mutual recognition of diplomas and qualifications, etc. have already been applied and reflected in the curriculum of the Czech Republic and in the teaching practice.

Current educational policy in the Czech Republic must deal with a range of tasks such as the form of school-leaving examinations and admission examinations for secondary schools and a further increase in the number of foreign language lessons. There are much more problems which can be

currently monitored in the educational press such as *Učitelské noviny*, *Školství*, as well as on the Internet.

Table 4 Problems and Priorities in Education

Problems in education	Priorities in education
1. problem of opportunities in education	1. equality of opportunities in education
2. problem of graduates with finding employment	2. equalling social, cultural and racial differences
3. problem of success and failure of some students	3. extended mandatory school attendance
4. relations between school, parents and local community	4. emphasis on lifelong education
5. problem of educating children from families of immigrants, ethnic minorities	5. support courses as prevention against unemployment



Application Tasks

1. Explain the difference: Ch. Vorlíček (1994) describes school as an educational institution next to family, facilities of alternative care, organisations of children and youth, cultural and educational institutions. For Vorlíček, school is primarily an educational institution because its social function is mostly to educate (while family and leisure-time organisations also perform other functions, which is why he brands them as secondary educational institutions). Taking another perspective, Z. Helus presents school as a secondary educational environment (Helus, 2007).
2. Observation
 - Write down the course of a lesson from the perspective of its temporal and content structure.

- Interview the teacher about educational achievements and problems with contemporary children. (In what aspects of education are they successful and which educational problems they deal with most?)
3. Text of the Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports
 - What priorities in education does
 - the minister of education define in his speech?
 - the president define in his New Year's speech?
 4. Find:
 - the international documents on which local education documents are based.
 5. Read the Education Act, see the website of msmtcr.cz.
 6. Follow the current issues and problems dealt with by contemporary schools and state authorities and give a presentation on them during the seminar.
 7. Read about the development of education of teachers in the Czech Republic in the history of pedagogy. Make an extract from the texts by R. Váňová, In Vališová, Kasíková, 2011.
 8. Read about one alternative school and present more detailed information about it at the seminar.



Review Questions

1. In what ways is school different from family? What are its characteristics?
2. Describe the school system structure according to the international classification (ISCED) and apply it to the system in the Czech Republic.
3. Provide the basic characteristics typical of alternative schools.



Summary

School is one of the most important educational institutions. It provides education within a defined space and time through which it performs a range of specific functions. Its educational effects are supplemented by other out-of-school-hours institutions. Cooperation between family and school is important for the successful course and outcomes of education.

Schools are structured in the education system by the educational objectives they provide which correspond to the age of learners and focus of education.



In addition to common schools, there are also alternative schools which differ either in their incorporator or concept of education. They have been here since the turn of the 19th and 20th century as traditional or reform schools. The new ones are called modern or contemporary alternative schools.



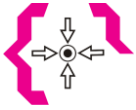
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www.eurydice.org

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12 Out-of-school-hours Education



Objectives

After studying this chapter:

- You will explain the concept of out-of-school-hours education and leisure time. You will justify their importance, functions and educative potential and specifics.
- You will characterise differences of out-of-school-hours education from formal education and specific means of education.
- You will name institutions committed to out-of-school-hours education.
- You will explain why attention should be paid to the effects the media have on children and young people.



Terms to Remember (Key Words)

- out-of-school-hours education
- leisure time
- leisure-time pedagogy
- media
- media education
- extracurricular education
- formal, non-formal and informal education
- edutainment



Introductory Questions and Assignments

1. How did you spend your leisure time in your childhood and how did you experience it? How do you spend your leisure time now? What does it give to you?

12.1 Characteristics of Out-of-school-hours Education

The concept of **out-of-school-hours education** or **extracurricular education** means education outside the effects of formal school education (i.e. out of school).



According to the authors of *Pedagogický slovník [Dictionary of Education]*, **activities out of school hours** include activities organised by school beyond the framework of school instruction and during leisure time (Průcha, Mareš, Walterová, 2003).

Out-of-class activities are activities organised by school in the school environment during the time outside lessons in class (Průcha, Mareš, Walterová, 2003).

They include relaxation and recreational activities, in particular interest activities, self-service and community services, activities related to the preparation for lessons.

Extracurricular education includes education organised by school and non-school institutions (out of school hours). It is provided in facilities designed for out-of-school-hours education, cultural and educational institutions, enterprises and foundations. They provide so-called non-formal education (Průcha, Mareš, Walterová, 2003).

Out of school hours cover leisure time of learners devoted either to school-related activities or to activities having nothing to do with school. The organisational form is provided by school and/or school facilities for out-of-school-hours education (Průcha, Mareš, Walterová, 2003).

Leisure time is the time one can spend arbitrarily. This is the time left after performing obligations and hygienic care for body (Průcha, Mareš, Walterová, 2003). It is the opposite of forced work and obligations.

Leisure time provides an opportunity for education and self-education.

Functions of out-of-school-hours education:

- educational function (preventive and developmental focus of education);
- health function;
- social function (Pávková, Pavlíková, Hrdličková, 2008).

Functions of leisure time (according to Opaschowský, 1988, 1990):

- recreational function (for recovery);
- compensational function (for removing negative emotions);
- education and further training (non-formal education, free, voluntary learning, social learning);
- contemplating function (seeking the meaning of life);
- communication function (establishing social contacts, friendships);
- participating function (having a share in the organisation of activities);
- integrating function (integration in society);
- enculturation (cultural self-development, impact on value orientation, creativity in art, sport, technology). (For details, see Němec, In Průcha, ed., 2009)

The specifics of the process of out-of-school-hours education (in non-formal education) are primarily grounded in the voluntary nature of activities and their selection on the basis of interest and internal motivation. The performance of activities is accompanied by pleasant feelings, higher activity of the individual by the effect of varied and non-traditional methods. Educators assert their informal authority which is positively perceived by the educated persons. They learn moral standards on the basis of internal processes of autonomously constituted morals. This type of education is also different thanks to the diversity of experience and habits of the persons encountered by educatees in non-formal education, also mostly in a real environment or an environment close to the real one. All of this has great benefits for the development of individual personality. (For details, see J. Němec, In Průcha, J., ed., 2009.)

Leisure-time pedagogy (also pedagogy of extracurricular education) is an educational discipline of extraordinary social importance. It focuses on:

- the content and means of education contributing to autonomous and meaningful spending of leisure time by teenagers and adults in order to cultivate their personality and spend leisure time in a socially beneficial manner;
- theory and research on how the contemporary youth currently spend their leisure time.

Why should this issue be given attention?

- The length of leisure time increases and the leisure-time industry develops.
- There is a need to fight boredom and/or workaholism.
- It has a potential of prevention against patho-social phenomena.
- Appropriately spent leisure time can protect children and young people against media manipulation which deprives them of free use of leisure time.

(J. Pávková, V. Smékal, V. Spousta – *Socialia* anthology, Průcha, Mareš, Walterová, 2003)

Education for leisure time

- It teaches learners to accept leisure time as a value and use it meaningfully for their development and devote it to suitable activities.
- It relates to intellectual activities, aesthetic and expression activities, participation and viewing, recreation and relaxation.
- It is part of general education focusing on personality development. It is implemented by means of interdisciplinary issues in general subjects of



education. It is supported in out-of-class activities and extracurricular education. (Průcha, Mareš, Walterová, 2003.)

Principles of leisure-time pedagogy:

- autonomy of activities, personality development, strengthening and reinforcing of health;
- activity of the subject (development of individual creativity);
- focus on social contacts, joint experience;
- spontaneity;
- entertainment;
- relaxation (Průcha, Mareš, Walterová, 2003).

Methods used in leisure-time pedagogy:

Methods of education in leisure time include activities adequate to the principles of leisure-time pedagogy. They activate the individual which provides him/her with new knowledge and experience on the basis of own activities and experience. The educational effects are intensified with self-reflection and self-knowledge. They include games, cooperative activities, methods of experience-based pedagogy and animation.

Forms of implementing out-of-school-hours education

The educational objectives are achieved through **formal school education** but also through non-formal and informal education carried out by means of a wide range of leisure-time activities.

Non-formal education offers educational activities through a variety of interest groups organised in facilities, centres or structures outside the school system framework.

Out-of-school-hours education provided in school facilities is also termed as interest-based education.

Out-of-school-hours education is provided by

1. a network of social organisations;
2. the system of school facilities adapted for out-of-school-hours education and interest-based education in leisure time;
3. cultural facilities;
4. mass media.

Informal education is not prepared by anyone; it is not coordinated; it is neither systematic nor structured. It is provided by family, peer groups and the media.



All forms develop intentional and functional effects. The efficiency of overall educational efforts is even stronger if activities of all forms of education are combined.

Media and their formative influence

Special attention will be devoted to mass media considering the seriousness of their effects.

Mass media (periodical press, radio and television broadcasting, Internet, film) are regarded as an important socialising and formative factor because they provide communication at the society-wide level as well as cognition and entertainment. With this, they intentionally (or unintentionally) form an individual. They can overshadow the impact of family and school. Their strong influence can be seen in the extensive media representation in everyday life and in the adaptation of social reality to media reality having its specific logic and a potential to have even a negative (destructive) impact on education. (For details, see Jirák, Wolák In Průcha, ed., 2009.)

Media education means education to the use of the media. It targets

- the understanding of the mass media and their offer with respect to quality and importance for life and their critical evaluation;
- the use of the media for self-education;
- building resistance to the negative influence of the media.

In school education, it is nurtured through interdisciplinary relations and cross-sectional themes (Průcha, Mareš, Walterová, 2003). In other words, it aims at shaping individual skills to adequately receive, treat and evaluate the stimuli coming from the media.

Edutainment

Edutainment has recently become a specific kind of entertainment within extracurricular education. It provides education which entertains, pleases and brings experience and knowledge of one's self. The means of this type of education include the procedures of experience-based pedagogy, virtual reality and information technologies.

This 'entertaining' education is provided by museums, leisure-time centres, centres of environmental education and ZOOs as well as the media, unincorporated associations and information and communication technologies.

We can also find means of interest-based education (for the saturation of interests) in various areas of science and culture as well as corporate and distance learning activities and activities offered by institutions of non-formal education (not aimed at completing education). These means are also used in

school facilities to exercise institutional and protective education and pastoral care in education (e.g. specific church services). For details, see *Pedagogická encyklopedie [Encyclopaedia of Education]* (Němec In Průcha, J., ed., 2009).



Application Tasks

1. Prepare a summary of school facilities being of major importance for out-of-school-hours education.
2. Find information about the animation method, describe it and give examples.
3. Which opinion do you side with? Should we be concerned about the media or use them for education?
4. Find the objectives of media education in the framework educational programmes.



Review Questions

1. Explain the concept of out-of-school-hours education and leisure time. Justify their importance for children and young people.
2. Characterise the principles and methods of leisure-time pedagogy.
3. Compare the characteristics of formal and non-formal education.
4. Characterise the impact of the media on the young generation and the importance of media education.
5. Explain the term *edutainment*, its specifics and which institutions provide it.



Summary

Out-of-school-hours education impacts at the time when school instruction is over. It is mostly provided in an environment outside the formal school. It has an educational, health-related and social function. Leisure-time pedagogy has articulated specific principles and uses specific methods to fulfil educational intentions. The media are one of the important factors having influence on an individual during his/her leisure time. Edutainment is currently increasingly used in extracurricular activities.



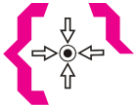
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13 The Educator and the Educatee



Objectives

After studying this chapter:

- You will name and account for the basic determinants of education, i.e. the educator and educatee (teacher and learner).
- You will characterise the roles and relations between the educator and the educatee.
- You will know the specifics of the teaching profession, requirements for the educator and teacher's competences.



Terms to Remember (Key Words)

- | | | |
|------------------------------------|---------------------------------|--|
| • educator/teacher | • requirements for the educator | • specifics of the teaching profession |
| • educate/educated person/ learner | • teacher's competences | • education of teachers |
-



Introductory Questions and Assignments

1. Who can be considered as educator?

Education is a phenomenon which originated naturally for the purpose of preparing and training the coming generation for life for them to be able to live in the human society and successfully integrate for their own benefit and for the benefit of others. This phenomenon currently concerns adult people as well. Adults must react to the increasingly frequent changes of living conditions should they be able to further function within the society. It is here where the person of the educator steps in who, depending on the circumstances, has a more or less effect on the changes in the educatee's personality in order to cultivate and bring about positive changes in personality.

This chapter will briefly describe these two important anthropogenic factors of education. It will highlight the fundamental moments in their roles.

13.1 The Educatee

The **educatee** means an individual, in particular a child, pupil (learner/student), a group member who happens to be a part of an educational situation, who learns something under the leadership of the educator.

During the educational process, the individual's personality is affected by external conditions, primarily by the stimulating nature of the social environment. This is why the qualities of the persons having an immediate effect on the individual are very important. The effectiveness of the educational environment also depends on internal conditions, e.g. on age-related and individual peculiarities, temperament, abilities and interests.

The role of the educatee

The approach to the child has changed during the course of the society's historical development and its knowledge of the ideas of education. The child's position and means of education used in family and school corresponded to this development as described in the history of pedagogy. Authoritarian education was increasingly applied in the past. The approach to the child materially changed at the turn of the 19th and 20th century together with changes in the society and deeper knowledge of the child age specifics and individual peculiarities, which was also reflected in child education in family and in the educational concepts implemented through school instruction. The relationship between the educator and the educatee has become more equal in the contemporary democratic society. The child's greater activity, self-reliance and creativity is encouraged as well as his/her autonomy.

The changes in the child's position in the society are reflected in the Convention on the Rights of the Child (see, e.g. Ondráčková, 2001).

If we focus on education in the strict sense of the word, i.e. moral education, then education is expected to educate an individual with moral behaviour and conduct which is in accordance with ethical standards of the given society and own consciousness. This target should be achieved through the formation of moral consciousness and awareness, feelings, belief and moral autonomous conduct by an individual who

- has formed volitional, character and pro-social qualities;
- has interiorised the value system;
- will be able to further determine his/her value-based orientation.

All of this is expected to happen initially through the influence of the educator and consequently through the individual's own self-education.

Should the educatee be guided towards self-education, the following facts must be considered:

- Self-education should be approached as the self-development of the individual's positive character qualities.
- The character is connected with motivation and will with which an individual can achieve the set targets. This means that if an individual is convinced that he/she needs to change or improve his/her character qualities, this can be done through self-education. This is the purpose of self-education, which is why it should be given special care.

The opening chapters stated that education should cultivate and refine an individual's relations to the world, to other people and to one's self. The personality structure is also divided by the person or object to which the individual's relation is tied. The table below (Table 5) shows the relations and examples of desired qualities of man.

Table 5 *Relations of an Individual and the Desired Qualities*

Relations of an individual	Qualities
Relation to one's self, self-evaluation, self-control	honesty, self-respect, self-trust, self-criticism, self-control, ambitions, (reasonable) self-confidence (absence of self-satisfaction)
Relation to others	warm-heartedness, generosity, pro-social attitude, empathy
Relation to work	dutifulness, responsibility, diligence
Relation to values	morals, environmental protection

Who is the learner/pupil/student?

If the child or young person participates in the educational process in an educational institution, he/she becomes a learner/pupil/student. Educational effects at school are guided by humanist ideals. The objective and content of educational processes head towards learning of the fundamentals of science and culture in the extent and depth equivalent to the respective school stage and type and with regard to the needs of the society and the student and are appropriate to the student's age.

Learner's competences

Learner's competences cover the capabilities necessary for life. Students at basic and secondary schools should learn the so-called key (life) competences

which include a set of knowledge, skills and attitudes needed by an individual to become optimally involved in all important spheres of human life: social activities, work, leisure time, care for health and for the coming generation. These competences are considered as an important part of school education, which is why they form one of the levels of objectives articulated in educational programmes for basic and secondary schools. They are enumerated and described in these documents (see the website msmtcr.cz) and further worked up in school educational programmes within the individual subject syllabi. The approach to the key competences of learners is very wide and regards the development of the physical, psychological and social potential of individuals. At the same time, they should not remain at the informative value only, they should also be reflected in the skill-based and attitude-based level. Although different names are given to these competences at both school stages, they generally include the skills to communicate, learn, solve problems and the personality and social development, etc.

Learners and students at secondary schools and institutions of higher education should also learn competences in different fields to be able to perform a certain profession (then, such competences are vocational or field competences).

13.2 The Educator

The educator is the person exerting educational influence on the child, teaching the child something. The educator's role is to guide and lead the educatee towards a certain educational objective (i.e. self-reliance, morality, character and will). In these endeavours, the educator uses authority based on his/her role and partner relations. The educator encourages the individual in the desired activities and manifestations, defining limits, explaining the surrounding phenomena, helping to understand life and human relations. The educator is consistent and protects the educatee during his/her growth and maturing.

The pedagogue (teacher) is the person having pedagogical education (teaching qualifications). The pedagogue is either engaged in direct educational work with educatees or works in science and research.

The educator is a factor bearing social responsibility for the effectiveness and success of educational influence. For this influence to have high quality, the educator must have a positive relation to children and young people and have valuable personality characteristics, character, moral and volitional qualities and professional competences.

The teacher is a pedagogue, a person educated to perform the teaching profession at school institutions, i.e. to teaching and instruction. The teacher is an important agent in the educational process because the teacher plans,

organises, controls and assesses these processes. The teacher is responsible for these activities.

Basic **qualities** expected from the pedagogue/teacher:

- humanist and democratic value orientation;
- general and special education;
- teaching erudition given by pedagogical, didactic and methodological skills and habits;
- personality traits and character of the pedagogue, e.g. creativity, high-principled moral attitudes;
- pedagogical optimism, tactfulness, interest, relation to learners and strict fairness;
- physical resistance, health and psychological endowment (Průcha, 2002).

Teacher's competences (professional competences)

The teacher's readiness to cope with the requirements of school instruction is conditioned by the so-called professional competences. They concern the skills to plan, implement and assess instruction and to cope with problems in relation to learners. They should also combine with the skill to communicate with learners and partners outside school.

The teacher's competences have various structures. We will use the **categorisation** by J. Průcha (2002). The teacher should have the following competences:

- competences related to the subject of teaching qualifications: acquisition of the scientific foundations of the field and subject taught;
- psycho-didactic competences: to know and master the conditions for teaching learners;
- communication competences: communication skills for the benefit of the relation towards children, adults, the world;
- organisational and management competences: abilities to plan and manage educational activities;
- diagnostic and intervention competences: skills to find out how a learner thinks, feels, acts and why, and consequently to adequately react to the situation established;
- counselling and consulting competences: skills to provide expert counselling to children and young people (and their parents) with respect to their personal and social problems;
- competences of reflecting one's own activities: skills to analyse one's activities, draw consequences and measures for the purpose of self-development and improvement of quality of educational influence.

The teacher acquires professional competences during pre-graduate training. This training is provided by faculties of education. (For details on the historical development of teacher training, see Váňová In Vališová, Kasíková, 2011). But teachers continue their education even when teaching in order to expand their professional and pedagogical and psychological competences.

The teaching profession has its peculiarities resulting from many requirements posed for the knowledge and experience during planned teaching activities, for the psyche when managing educational situations and learning activities of students. It is a demanding role due to the diversity and multiplicity of social contacts to which the teacher is exposed and due to the permanent 'control' of the person of the teacher even outside school hours.

Pedutology is the theory of the teaching profession.

The role of the teacher and educators

The educator calls forth educational processes aiming at the interiorisation of standards, requirements and values in educatees because this leads to positive personality changes. Also, the teacher helps to create the processes of value interiorisation, which has an impact on his/her position.

In addition to education to values, the teacher develops and cultivates learners in various areas of science and society's culture.

The educator and the educatee in pedagogical situations

The issue of coping with educational situations is always a matter of the approach to the educator's authority and to freedom of the educatee which is shaped either by experience and/or by studying scientific and popular literature about this topic.

These situations may be difficult to solve for educators (especially beginners), which is why it is useful to get advice from experienced educators. There is also an option to study theoretical foundations which provide one with a summary of possibilities of how to deal with such situations and thus with a detached view of this issue. The list of literature contains some sources which will provide theoretical information and specific suggestions on how to solve the most frequent situations.



Application Tasks

1. Read about the development of education of teachers in the Czech Republic in the history of pedagogy. Make excerpts.

2. Choose a piece of literary text which would bring about discussion about the issue of values (in fiction) or the current events in education (newspaper, magazine article).
 - a) Articulate questions to bring about discussion about the selected topic.
 - b) Write your own opinion on and attitudes towards the described situation. And about the author.



Review Questions

1. What does personality development mean?
2. Name the requirements imposed on the qualities of the educator (pedagogue) and the teacher's competences. Compare them.
3. What is the role of the learner in instruction?
4. What are the specifics of the teaching profession?
5. Which determinants must be taken into account when raising children?



Summary

The educator and the educatee are the basic agents of the educational process and each of them has his/her own role. Both should be equipped with a range of competences to be able to fulfil their specific roles.

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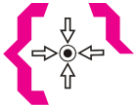


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14 Methodology of Pedagogy



Objectives

After studying this chapter:

- You should be able to define the basic terms and concepts related to methodology of pedagogy;
- You should have a better understanding of methods of pedagogical (education) research.

After studying this chapter, the student is expected to:

- take a more global view of pedagogy as a science;
- provide the basic characteristics of methodology of pedagogy.

The student is also expected to acquire:

- the ability to choose an adequate procedure when carrying out own applied education research, in particular when preparing the final thesis;
- the ability to provide the basic counselling to his/her colleagues when designing a research project;
- a more detached view of the issue of education research.



Terms to Remember (Key Words)

- methodology
- methodology of pedagogy
- methods of education research

Introduction

Should a specific scientific discipline be regarded as a science, several basic conditions characteristic for each science must be fulfilled.

A 'must-have' of a scientific discipline:

definition of the language of the science, i.e. exact definitions of terms and concepts used within the given scientific discipline;

clear definition of the subject matter of the given science, i.e. the subject matter (object) of research (in pedagogy, it is education);



tools (methods) used to examine the given subject matter and draw conclusions for further development of the science. The methodology of pedagogy deals with this issue.

The term **methodology** is derived from Greek (*methodos*=monitoring, observing, tracing; *hodos*=a path) and means the teaching about a method or the theory about a method. Methodology focuses on general theoretical problems of scientific cognition and rules of scientific research. Methodology can be defined as the theory of methods applied when examining an object. The methodology of pedagogy includes the methods applied when examining educational phenomena and processes.

The **methodology of pedagogy** represents a set of knowledge on approaches to research into educational phenomena and processes, on the manners of obtaining and evaluating knowledge which truly and as objectively as possible reflects the permanently changing educational reality in the conditions of the ever-changing society. The **subject matter of the methodology of pedagogy** includes methods of scientific work used to discover phenomena, relations and rules in education and to contribute to the development of new theories.

14.1 Sources of the Methodology of Pedagogy

When exploring the sources from which to draw the foundations for our cognition and subsequently for relevant conclusions, we can basically use the following sources:

In pedagogy, education is perceived in the broadest sense of the word as the **source of research**. When exploring education, both the researcher and the pedagogue in practice use not only their own experience but also many other sources and resources. First and foremost, they should suppress their subjective view as much as possible because it is undoubtedly represented in each research. Research studies

- opinions and experience (or concepts) of past and current pedagogues (both theoreticians and practitioners) (This issue is in more detail addressed by the history of pedagogy and comparative pedagogy.);
- opinions and experience of parents, learners and of the wider non-pedagogical public;
- historical and modern documents related to the issue of education (laws, regulations, directives, school educational programmes, websites of schools and school facilities, school statistics, chronicles, annual reports of schools and school facilities, minutes from educational boards, school almanacs, class registers, school magazines, etc.);

- the results of educational research and results from other scientific disciplines related to education (e.g. monographs, conference and seminar proceedings, etc.);
- the results of educational research and experience from abroad with possible application in the local conditions. (This issue is addressed by comparative pedagogy, in particular in relation to the experience gained within the European Union.)

The European Documentation and Information in Education (EUDISED) system provides coordination and collaboration of educational research in Europe. It is an international database gathering information on the launched and completed research projects in the member states of the Council of Europe. There are also other databases focusing on specific areas of pedagogy.

What is the difference between theory and scientific knowledge? To put it simply, theory represents a system of knowledge, just like science, except that the scientific knowledge is proved and reflects objective reality. Theory includes a range of varied knowledge which is a mere (often ingenious) assumption which is only to be verified. Religion is a classic example of a perfectly elaborated theoretical system (providing answers to all essential questions of the world and life).

14.2 Approach to Educational Phenomena

In educational research, it is also important to specify in the approach to educational phenomena whether the quantitative or qualitative approach should prevail.

- * **Quantitative research** is an approach requiring facts (so-called hard data) exploring the frequency, degree of occurrence of a certain phenomenon, etc. It is rather analytical in nature. It seeks to clarify causality and predict consequences.
- * **Qualitative research** seeks to capture the level of educational activities, relations and situations and their holistic picture. It is rather synthetic in nature. It seeks to interpret and understand the problem under study.

14.3 Methods of Educational Research (Data Collection)

There is a range of tools for how to draw specific conclusions and collect the necessary data. These tools (methods) of acquiring the required information may be categorised by the overall nature of research as follows:

a) quantitative methods



Quantitative methods (as is apparent from their designation) are based on the numerical data; they establish the amount, extent, frequency or degree of a given phenomenon. Their advantages include the relatively easy mathematical treatment of the data collected this way. However, the problem of quantitative research is that it requires exact definition of variables, emphasises their strict and accurate measurement and analysis of causes of the respective relations. Emphasis is placed on the determination of a sample set (sample of respondents) which must be described in detail (especially with regard to any comparisons and possibilities to use them in longitudinal research), and the researcher must also choose the procedure for the selection of specific respondents. All of this then enables statistical processing of the data.

b) qualitative methods

If qualitative methods are applied, findings in the verbal form are given, which is fairly difficult to evaluate, in particular for inexperienced or beginning researchers (e.g. interview). On the other hand, it may be noted that certain phenomena can be partly translated into statistical summaries. Supporters of the quantitative approach to the study of educational phenomena oppose that the human aspect diminishes behind the final figures and emphasise the need to get closer to the persons under study and penetrate into situations, understand the essence of the problem because this is the only way to describe and understand these phenomena. If qualitative research is applied, researcher must keep as great distance from the phenomena under study as possible for the sake of impartiality, which also applies to the distance from the respondent.

Quantitative methods are mostly used to prepare the final thesis, which is mainly for prosaic reasons because we can obtain a high amount of data which are easy to evaluate (this is especially suitable for writing bachelor's theses). Research eruditeness is necessary for the application of certain qualitative methods (i.e. they can be applied when writing master's thesis).

Below is a brief summary of selected methods which may be applied to acquire the necessary information and analyse the phenomena under study.

14.4 Quantitative Research Methods

Explorative methods

Explorative methods are the most frequently used methods. They are based on the statements made by respondents. The share of individuals and their direct involvement in the response obviously provide a '*reflection*' of their own opinion, feeling, attitude, etc., i.e. responses need not correspond to reality, which reduces objectivity (validity) and reliability of these methods. A ***questionnaire*** is a typical explorative method widely used in practice. A ***survey*** is a possible alternative, mostly targeting a great number of

respondents and revealing attitudes and opinions of a large group of people. However, it has only an approximate informative value. Therefore, the survey largely contains only a few specific questions so that it is not too time-consuming for the respondent.

Questioning is the common characteristic of these methods (techniques). We can differentiate the following types of questions:

- *closed*
- *semi-closed* (the respondent can articulate the answer on his/her own next to the offered variants)
- *open* (giving the respondent a free hand to express his/her opinions)

There is a diverse number of closed questions. 'YES' or 'NO' questions are the simplest example, but such questions do not capture the content variability of the possible own opinion. On the other hand, their advantages include the fact that they do not prefer the average. A certain scale is mostly used where the respondent is permitted to choose only one of the answers. For instance: *As for the planned career rules, I am: very satisfied – rather satisfied – rather unsatisfied – absolutely unsatisfied – I have another opinion.*

The questionnaire can be given either in person, over mediators (e.g. class teachers) or by mail. In case of surveys, survey sheets can also be freely available on tables in various institutions, markets, etc., or are disseminated by the media. (For details on explorative methods, see Gavora, Pelikán).

Content analysis of text

This is a vital source of information in education research. Most frequently, it involves:

- analysis of *personal documentation*
- analysis of *school documentation* (or of documentation of other educational facilities, e.g. school rules)
- analysis of *school indicators* (e.g. outcomes of practical activities, school websites, themes of bachelor's theses)

The first case provides information about the pupil/learner/child and eventually also about the teacher/educator. The second case may include documents such as various regulations, decrees, school plans and rules (of the given facility), minutes of various meetings, inspection reports. The third group of documents may include school grades and results of learners, absence at school, etc. Analysis can be performed from the *quantitative* perspective (if the phenomena subject to analysis are measurable, e.g. number of events, participation, etc.) and from the *qualitative* perspective (we analyse the content). (For details on this method, see Gavora, Pelikán)

Observation

The observation method primarily includes the observation of respondents' activities in a planned, systematic and goal-directed manner (unlike the usual observation activities in classroom). A record (report) is maintained about observation. There is a difference between *evident* observation where the observer is known and seen, *hidden* observation (most frequently with a camera) and *participant* observation where the observer becomes one of the participants. Records can also be made additionally after observation, but many aspects can thus remain uncaptured. High-quality observation requires an experienced observer.

Note: For detailed information, see e.g. Svatoš: *Kapitoly z pedagogické a sociální komunikace* (In English: Chapters from Educational and Social Communication) which provides more detailed information on observation (see: Hradec Králové: Gaudeamus, 2009, and others).

Sociometry

This method is used to establish the current *interpersonal relations*. One can basically measure the degree of *liking* (preferences or rejection of individual persons by others) and the *social status* (or prestige) of individual group members (it enables to unveil the leader in the group or isolated individuals). This method is often used to solve serious educational problems (such as bullying).

The selection of items (formulation of questions) can be positive (such as: With whom would you want to sit?; With whom would you like to sleep in a 4-bed room during a class trip?; etc.), but also negative (With whom would you definitely not like to spend leisure time?; Next to whom would you not want to sit during the school year?, etc.). If the negative choice is used, the researcher must carefully heed that the information is not disclosed and the relations in the group (class) do not get worse. The data acquired is recorded in sociometric matrixes (tables) or can be depicted in charts and graphs and converted into sociograms.

Experiment

This method is applied in educational research only to a limited extent. It is always difficult to experiment with people. It is of utmost importance that no one is harmed and that regular conditions are established. The experiment is based on the verification as to whether the influence exerted on one (independent) variable results in changes in the other (dependent) variable. This means that only one condition at a time should always be changed, which is very difficult in the educational process. For instance, we can observe how a

new system of playing affects performance of players in the field, but can hardly exclude the impact of the current mental and physical condition of players. Sometimes, it is impossible to exclude the impact of factors of which we even have no knowledge (so-called intervening variables). The classic experiment assumes two groups (experimental and control group). They should be balanced in a way to allow for objective comparisons. Therefore, the status of the phenomena under study must be established first and only then the observed variable can be changed in one (experimental) group (e.g. we check up on a new procedure in instruction). The traditional approach is applied in the other (control) group and finally, we compare the results (e.g. of an output test) with the initial level. For completeness' sake, we can differentiate between two types of experiments: laboratory experiment and natural experiment (in the field, performed in natural conditions).

Interview

The ***interview*** is sometimes included among explorative methods. Oral statements enable contact between the researcher and the respondent, which provides certain benefits. A record is made from the interview. It involves either answers to pre-specified questions (which may remind of the completion of a questionnaire on the basis of the respondent's answers and which is why interview is sometimes included among quantitative methods) or it may be non-structured, which is why it is by some experts included among qualitative methods.

14.5 Qualitative Research Methods

Ethnographic

This method is one of the newer streams which seek different approaches to study educational phenomena. It is based on efforts to penetrate into the environment under study as deep as possible and not to interfere with it with this intervention. The researcher does not have clearly pre-specified and articulated goals and does not actually know what to study (what will attract his/her, what will seem to be remarkable, important). The use of the above-mentioned participant observation may be one of the options of the ethnographic approach, i.e. the observer acts as an observing or full participant in all happenings.

Interview

In addition to observation, the use of the ***interview*** is also an option of how to become familiarised with the given school (institution) as objectively as possible (compared with the interview as a quantitative method). It is an uncontrolled interview; it is not structured and is primarily based on non-directive questions

aimed at learning as much as possible from free statements. The researcher must endeavour that the interview be absolutely informal and in the 'home' environment.

The reading of documents may also serve to supplement additional information. In addition to the documents specified above, they may also include school magazines, works of students (works of art, literary work), chronicles, etc. The researcher puts the information down during the entire research and analyses and summarises it. It is evident that certain subjective views (impressions) of the researcher cannot be avoided in this case, and then it is much more difficult to draw general conclusions. The starting point of such research is to establish to what extent all actors agree with this research and a kind of communion of the researcher and the given environment.

Case histories

Case histories (case studies) mean a description of individual cases according to detailed and complete records and are often used as supporting documentation to draw certain conclusions and solutions. This approach is taken also in medicine, law, pedagogy and education, etc. Should we use educational terminology, this approach may also be described as the '*learner's/pupil's/student's pedagogical characteristics*'. We must realise that it is always about a specific and individual case. Case histories normally contain an *anamnesis* (personal or family anamnesis) capturing the current personality development (somatic, mental, social), the social and economic situation of the family, social relations in the family. It is part of the overall *assessment (diagnosis)*, i.e. the result of cognitive activities serving to provide as complex a view of the learner (family) as possible. Case histories are mostly used in works focusing on psychological issues.

The extent of this text does not make it possible to deal with individual methods in more detail, which is why we refer to the respective sources (Gavora 1996, 2000, Pelikán 1998, Švec 1998). Let us add that from the practical perspective, the researcher cannot normally do with a single method and uses multiple methods within one research. For instance, it is appropriate to complement the questionnaire (one of the most frequently used methods) with interview or observation, etc. A combination of quantitative and qualitative methods strongly increases objectivity of conclusions.

Data processing

The data obtained must be subsequently processed to provide the informative value. Statistical methods also offer a range of other options for data evaluation. For instance, it is the exploration of dependence between two or

more phenomena (e.g. between age and physical height). The closeness of dependence is designated as correlation, and there are several procedures of calculating the closeness of this dependence (from very significant to insignificant).

Those interested in all of these statistical procedures may be referred to study the relevant sources on statistics (e.g. Lašek, Maněnová, 2009).



Summary

The term **methodology** means the learning on method or theory of method. The **methodology of pedagogy** represents a set of knowledge on approaches to research into educational phenomena and processes, on the manners of obtaining and evaluating knowledge which truly and as objectively as possible reflect the permanently changing educational reality in the conditions of the ever-changing society. The **subject matter of the methodology of pedagogy** includes methods of scientific work used to discover phenomena, relations and rules in education and to contribute to the development of new theories.

Sources are important, which may comprise: opinions and experience of past and present pedagogues (theoreticians and practitioners), opinions and experience of parents, pupils and wider non-pedagogical public, historic and current documents, results of education research and of scientific fields related to education.

The approach to educational phenomena is important. We can take either a quantitative or qualitative approach and use the corresponding methods. The **methods of quantitative research** include: survey, questionnaire (explorative methods), content analysis, observation, sociometry, experiment and interview. The **methods of qualitative research** include the ethnographic method, interview and case histories.



Application Tasks

Read about the course and results of research. Make a graphic illustration of the text content and add a commentary focusing on the importance (benefits) of what you have found out. What do the results show in general?



Review Questions

Questions, suggestions, assignments and exercises

1. Characterise the basic sources of knowledge and give specific examples.
 - a) Make a difference between the following terms: technique – methods – methodology (give examples from the field of pedagogy)
 - b) Characterise the basic techniques of quantitative research. Give a brief characteristic and present your own example.
 - c) Characterise the basic techniques of qualitative research. Give a brief characteristic and present your own example.
 - d) Compare both groups of techniques (quantitative vs qualitative), their advantages and reserves.
 - e) Try to find an example of a descriptive, relational or causal solution of a research problem in scientific literature (best in conference proceedings).
 - f) Choose the appropriate tool (technique) of data collection (for your potential bachelor's or master's thesis). Justify your choice.



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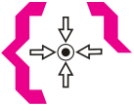
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15 Major Figures and Trends of the (Recent) History of Pedagogical Thought



Objectives

After studying this chapter:

- **Pedagogy in historical context**
The objective of this introduction is to set the historical and philosophical context necessary to understand the current situation in pedagogy. We will compare the ideological premises of the pre-modern, modern and post-modern eras and analyse their pedagogical implications.
- **Major figures and trends of the (recent) history of pedagogical thought**
The objective of this chapter is to give a basic outline of the pedagogical ideas of key figures from Comenius to modern times.



Terms to Remember (Key Words)

- scholastic method
- J. A. Comenius
- J. F. Herbart
- reform pedagogy
- post-war pedagogy



Introductory Questions and Assignments

Outline of the chapter:

1. Introduction: What is the point of studying history?
2. Pedagogy as preparation for Eternity: before the Modern Era
3. Pedagogy as remedy for human things: Comenius at the turning of epochs
4. Pedagogy as training for life I: the Enlightenment and early Modern Era
5. Pedagogy as training for life II: modern reformist movement
6. Bending nature to our will: pedagogy in the hands of totalitarian ideologies



15.1 Introduction: What is the Point of Studying History?

Pedagogy is all about the individual. It is about leading a student, step by step, to a pre-specified goal. After all, the original Greek meaning of *paidagógos* is the 'leader of children'. The objective is to bring up an educated, able and morally advanced human being. When born, no one is a complete person. Nobody is guaranteed to become a hard-working, responsible, principled, noble, lazy, obstinate, selfish, human or inhuman individual. Each person's character is more likely to be a mix of both the positive and negative potential – as has always been the case in the entire history of humankind. Whether the human will outweigh the inhuman in a specific person's life depends to a certain degree – an important but not absolute degree – on education. Since time immemorial, people have always provided education and upbringing for their offspring, preparing them for their future role of members of the society. However, ideas about what it means to be human significantly changed throughout history and with them the approach to pedagogy and teaching changed, too.

That is why the study of the history of pedagogy is so interesting and why it is so enlightening to look at how individuals in the past and in different cultures saw themselves and what their views meant for teaching and teachers. We will describe how different eras were defined by different ideological paradigms or meta-narratives – stories that underpinned the integrity of communities, explained human actions and legitimised various components, structures, concepts, values and institutions of a culture (including pedagogy).

A student of the history of pedagogy cannot do without an understanding of the cultural and philosophical background. This chapter explains how different concepts of humanity and different pedagogical approaches to upbringing (education) are related to the wider intellectual framework, where various ideas come together to add to and build on each other, but often exclude each other. The history of pedagogy is thus a rich source of views and attitudes that make up an immense spiritual wealth that is entirely indispensable for any student of pedagogy or a prospective teacher who wants to truly understand his/her profession. What is true for history in general is also true for the history of pedagogy: without an understanding of the past, one cannot understand the present or the future. This brief chapter will focus primarily on pedagogy in the modern and immediately pre-modern times in the West. We will give a concise overview of the pedagogical thinking of leading figures from Comenius to the present. Our selection of teachers and thinkers can serve as a sample of pedagogical thought and its development over the past four centuries.

15.2 Pedagogy as Preparation for Eternity: Before the Modern Era

If we want to understand the principles of modern pedagogy and its influence in schools up to the present, we must first, however briefly, describe what preceded it and what ideas were faced and contested by modern and pre-modern pedagogues. Our aim is not to discuss the historical context in its entirety. We will concentrate only on those aspects that seriously influenced pedagogical thought.

The driving force behind the pre-modern meta-narrative is Christianity. What lies at its core? And how did it affect pedagogy? Christianity has its roots in the Hebrew culture, more specifically in the Old Testament as its central cultural text. All books of the Old Testament are pervaded by educational objectives. When reading their holy texts, Ancient Hebrews learnt about all of the fundamental questions of life: where do humans come from, what is a human being, what his value is and what the goal of all his actions is. In terms of educational culture, answers to these questions are of the utmost importance. According to the Old Testament, humans get their humanity by virtue of the act of creation. Creation itself fills the reader with awe and respect. The creation of man is the most amazing act of all because only man is created in the image of God. Later thinkers would say that man is the *'Imago Dei'* (see Genesis 1:26). This privilege is the foundation of the majesty and dignity of mankind. In the hierarchy of creation, man is the only being endowed with consciousness – he is aware of himself, possesses intelligence, creativity, sensitivity to beauty, ability to distinguish between good and bad, true and false. Only man is able to choose the good, beautiful and true and his character mirrors of the character of God who represents the *summum bonum*, the highest possible sum of all that is good. The gift of free will is one of the key elements that make up the essence of humanity. Animals, the sea, a stone or a triangle do not have to and indeed cannot choose, they have no way of changing their nature. A triangle can neither elevate its triangularity nor degenerate into something non-triangular. Its essence is given once and for all. The character of a human being, however, is different. Man can and should choose. If he chooses well he becomes more human and lives in harmony with his essence. If he chooses evil he becomes less human and in conflict with his essential destiny.

In addition to origins and purpose, the fundamental bases of human dignity and value, the stories of the Old Testament also talk about the central problem of the human race, the problem of evil. There is a conundrum: Why a noble being like man makes evil decisions and acts in an inhumane way? The same question was asked much later by Socrates who concluded that the real cause

lies in ignorance and a lack of understanding of the true nature of good. The Old Testament gives a very different answer. The problem is not with knowledge but with will. Man knows what is good but his will to do good has suffered a mortal blow. His will is in disarray. The Genesis story tells how Adam and Eve chose to disobey their Maker in an archetypal narrative that applies to all humankind. We are looking at an order disrupted: man degrades God-Creator from his preordained position and puts himself in the top place. In other words, man is tempted to become godlike. However, a will that is not subordinated to a higher power turns to evil – it is a disordered will, a will without order, an inordinate will. A man whose will recognises no power other than his own will is dangerous, capable of evil. Such a man has no reason to do good (i.e. act honestly and honourably) when there is no one else watching. This is, according to the Old Testament, the root of all evil and human misery.

Is there any hope for mankind? According to the Hebrew Bible, there is. A Messiah was promised to man – a Saviour whose love will overcome and free man's will that has been subjugated by its sinful propensity to evil. Man, cast out and disinherited, will be able to rejoin his Creator of his own free will. The same message is repeated in the narrative, poetic and prophetic books of the Old Testament. And parents are urged to bring up and educate their offspring in this spirit. Evil, injustice, sin and death should not prevail in the end. There is hope. There is a loving God who cares about his creation and who is much more powerful than Evil. The text of the Old Testament thus becomes didactic teachings against licence, lawlessness, evil, despair and death. The paramount obligation of Hebrew parents was to bring up their children to honour God and a preordained power. As such, God not only guarantees the ultimate transcendent justice but also gives meaning to the immediate earthly reality through a hopeful expectation of imminent redemption.

In formal terms, Hebrew education took place primarily within the family circle. Schools and synagogues began to appear in a great number only after the Diaspora (i.e. after 70 A.D.). Wisdom literature indicates that both parents were involved in the education of their children. For example, Proverbs 1, 8–9 says: 'Listen, my son, to your father's instruction and do not forsake your mother's teaching. They are a garland to grace your head and a chain to adorn your neck.'

As today, children's education was determined by the overall contemporary situation, needs and means available to the educators. The main focus was primarily on agricultural, pastoral and trade skills. Each parent was also responsible for teaching their children to read and write in order to make it possible for them to access the holy texts. The ultimate goal of education was to foster in one's children the love of God and his commandments, the source of hope and life – cf. the following two quotes:

'Now all has been heard; here is the conclusion of the matter: fear God and keep his commandments, for this is the duty of all mankind. For God will bring every deed into judgment, including every hidden thing, whether it is good or evil.' (Ecclesiastes 12,13)

'Hear, O Israel: The LORD our God, the LORD is one. Love the LORD your God with all your heart and with all your soul and with all your strength. These commandments that I give you today are to be on your hearts. Impress them on your children. Talk about them when you sit at home and when you walk along the road, when you lie down and when you get up.' (Dt. 6, 4-6)

The New Testament's narrative builds on the Old Testament, both in the gospels and in the epistles. The evangelists record the coming and acts of the Messiah in the person of Jesus of Christ, Son of God, whose mission it is to save man from the damnation of both the body and soul. Salvation itself is a curious thing. At one point, Jesus himself says that 'doctors are not needed by the healthy but by the sick'. If a man should be cured, he first must know that he is sick. The disease here, according to the Bible, is the aforementioned archetypal fall from good to evil and is expressed by man's desire to equal God. This desire removes man from God, the source of all life, and removes him from other people as well as from himself. This desire kills. The original sin carries fatal consequences: the dispossessed creation (nature) groans in the hands of man, man is capable of hurting another man, even laying hand on the greatest of all gifts – life, his own life and that of others. The whole world is in a peculiar state. On the one hand, it is beautiful, fascinating, brimming with life and harmony. On the other hand, it is full of pain, anguish, inhumanity, absurdity and death. Christianity explains this tension by its teaching of creation, which was despoiled by man's fall into sin. All beauty, harmony, good and meaning is anchored in the genius of God the Creator's divine being. On the contrary, all evil, pain, inhumanity and mortality are consequence of the original sin. From mankind's perspective, these are unnatural, abnormal and non-original phenomena. That is why man always finds evil revolting – originally, he was not created for evil.

Christ's work of salvation lies in his opening the possibility of man's return to his original state. Christ's sacrifice on the Cross is an act of conciliation for the guilt of humankind. God teaches man through love, grace and forgiveness. Even though man turned away from God, God has not turned away from man. This is the message of Christ's evangel (from Greek *evangelion* – good news). Those who accept the Gospel and believe in Christ the Saviour are saved, i.e. redeemed from the power of death and sin. Acceptance of the Gospel is not an easy or effortless matter. It presupposes an understanding of one's need of forgiveness for own guilt, which is an unpleasant and humbling experience



described in the Bible in terms of penance or conversion. At the same time, it is a liberating and finally mystically happy experience because the knowledge of an unconditional forgiveness that cleanses the conscience and renews a fundamental and intimate relationship with God is a 'good' that can hardly be expressed in words. Those who achieve and experience it remain changed forever. Overcome by Christ's grace, their only wish is to willingly follow in his footsteps and imitate him as their master and teacher. A classic example illustrating this fundamental reversal is the parable of the prodigal son told by Jesus to his disciples:

'There was a man who had two sons. The younger one said to his father, 'Father, give me my share of the estate.' So he divided his property between them. Not long after that, the younger son got together all he had, set off for a distant country and there squandered his wealth in wild living. After he had spent everything, there was a severe famine in that whole country, and he began to be in need. So he went and hired himself out to a citizen of that country, who sent him to his fields to feed pigs. He longed to fill his stomach with the pods that the pigs were eating, but no one gave him anything. When he came to his senses, he said, 'How many of my father's hired servants have food to spare, and here I am starving to death! I will set out and go back to my father and say to him: Father, I have sinned against heaven and against you. I am no longer worthy to be called your son; make me like one of your hired servants.' So he got up and went to his father. But while he was still a long way off, his father saw him and was filled with compassion for him; he ran to his son, threw his arms around him and kissed him. The son said to him, 'Father, I have sinned against heaven and against you. I am no longer worthy to be called your son.' But the father said to his servants, 'Quick! Bring the best robe and put it on him. Put a ring on his finger and sandals on his feet. Bring the fattened calf and kill it. Let's have a feast and celebrate. For this son of mine was dead and is alive again; he was lost and is found.' (Gospel According to Luke, Chapter 15)

What is the educational potential of Christ's original teaching? It does not lie so much in an impressive rhetoric, a didactic strategy or a pedagogical system, although all these elements are certainly present. At the same time, this is not a teaching that would require a methodical training, learning, intellectual processing and understanding. Neither is it a religious education in the sense of an achievement that would earn and guarantee the student an eternal life. It is a teaching aimed at a fundamental transformation of a life's ambitions, an internal change. The Greek *metanoia* – change of mind is usually translated as repentance. An intimate encounter with God helps the believer face his own self and of his own free will yearn for a fulfilment of his calling – to become a true



image of God, a reflection of his character. Such a man is then prepared to meet God and face eternity. If there is any trace left (not confessed) of evil, eternity would be spent in Hell.

As a whole, Christian teaching very efficiently met people's psychological and spiritual needs. It gave understandable answers to basic human questions concerning the meaning of existence. It laid the foundation of man's dignity and value, because in the Biblical context man is a being that God not only deemed worthy of creating but also of saving. The Bible clearly explained origin of all creation, its current ambivalent situation, and clearly defined humankind's earthly mission and its ultimate goal. Its eschatology made sense of human history. In addition, its teaching was laid out within an ethical context that appealed to large masses due to its social implications. Christianity gave understandable answers to cosmological, anthropological, psychological, social and other questions. This may explain the vigour with which it swept through Europe and touched all aspects of the contemporary society including education and pedagogy. At catechism, monastic and cathedral schools and later at universities, Christianity formed the cornerstone of any and all forms of education.

With time, Christ's original teaching underwent substantial changes that may be described as decadent. They represent a synthesis of certain elements of Classical philosophy and culture with Biblical theology. A good example is the merging of traditional platonic dualism with Biblical terminology. Plato distinguished between a spiritual (ideal) reality and the natural or material reality, which is a priori of a secondary character. An interaction with the Biblical concepts of 'holy' and 'sinful' resulted in a corrupt dogma that praised human 'spirituality' over the flesh. The body was considered base, even sinful. This development carried crucial consequences (not only) for pedagogy. All corporal aspects were neglected and negated and all emphasis was laid on the nurture of the spirit, the mind and morals.

It is a paradox then that a central problem of medieval thought concerns the mind and ethics, namely the cognitive method and the question of the immoral 'method' of human salvation. In methodological terms, the problem was addressed chiefly by the Scholastics. What is scholasticism? It is generally considered both a philosophical school and a methodological approach to enquiry and the reality as such. *De principibus non sit disputatio* ('no discussion about principles') is one of the Scholastics' key doctrines. The same proscription applies to traditional and revered authorities. While strong and unchanging foundations and premises provide a certain possibility to study existence, they also define the limits of such enquiry. If we are taught to rely on the predetermined principles and to mistrust our sensory experience, we are entering a specific *scholé*, which is simply incapable of capturing some aspects



of reality. We can eventually become masters of logical and dialectic, using syllogisms, deduction and other logical operations to search for conclusions that would be in harmony with the precious truths of our fathers' traditions. There is a catch, though – fathers are often wrong. The Earth is turning, the Heaven is not a crystal dome with seven layers, the Sun has spots, not matter what Aristotle has to say about these things. A deduction derived from an erroneous premise will be erroneous although entirely logically consistent. The greater the dogmatic insistence of a medieval scholar on his unshakeable fundamentals, the deeper the dispute over discoveries made by the first empirical scientists who, armed with their new induction method, observe a radically different reality. Their empirical progression from the specific to the general and their experimental method will strike huge scientific triumphs, eventually culminating in the Renaissance revolt against the dogmatism, pedantry and superstition of the whole Middle Ages.

The moral problem of medieval theology has a political dimension. At the moment of the union of the State and the Church, religion becomes a power tool. The Church – backed by the executive power of the State – polices orthodoxy, which endows it with an immense political potential. The most vulgar uses of this potential include the notorious trade in salvation, holy relics and indulgences critics by Jan Hus. The indecency of this practice spurred a deep crisis inside the Church and eventually sparked the Reformation movement.

15.3 Pedagogy as Remedy for Human Things: Comenius at the Turning of Epochs

Jan Amos Komenský, or Comenius, is, without question, one of the leading figures and heirs of Czech Reformation and Czech pedagogy. His pedagogical project is a specific mix of Renaissance and Reformation influences. Like the Renaissance, Comenius tries to find an efficient method of enquiry and a didactic method 'how to teach anything to anybody'. Like the Reformation, he wants to return to original roots, to a purely Biblical teaching. The truth of the Scripture must be accessible to every person without the intermediary of the (Catholic) Church's magisterium – the authority that lies down and controls didactic dogma and that, according to the Reformists, has either twisted or completely obscured the truth. Hence the Reformation's motto *sola scriptura* – 'nothing but the Scripture'. It expresses a conviction that the Bible is all that is required if we want to lead a good and pious life. All Church dogma, Papal and Marian cult, liturgical rules, etc. are but unnecessary and alien accretion. This is a key moment in the history of pedagogy as the new movement called for literacy for the masses – let every man (and according to Comenius every



woman) read for himself and develop an authentic relationship with God through Scripture.

Comenius's pedagogical reform project is a reaction to dark social, political and religious struggles of the time. When reading his works, we must always do so with a certain degree of caution in this respect. His writings are governed by completely different philosophical premises than those we are used to today. Any interpretation that disregards or ignores the contemporary conditions under which Comenius (or indeed any author) wrote his books is condemned from the start to misinterpretation and misunderstanding. We shall, therefore, start with a brief overview of Comenius's philosophical and theological premises and points of reference, upon which his educational project is built.

A fundamental component of Comenius's system is the concept of 'the natural', a synergy of cosmology, anthropology and nature philosophy. As a theologian, he sees nature and the entire created world as 'Creation', i.e. the intentional and meaningful work of a Creator. As a philosopher, he investigates natural creation '*sub specie educationis*' – from a pedagogical perspective – in order to discover educational potential in nature. Right at the beginning of his *Didactica*, he states that 'everything that is has a purpose.'¹ In other words – the natural world is not a chance collection of things or sequence of events that happen without any meaning and pass from nowhere to nowhere, but rather a purposeful continuance of existences called to a meaning. Everything that is, is 'in order to ...', to quote R. Palouš (1992, p. 18). Everything exists for some purposes, in order to do something. Every object, every entity is characterised by its teleological properties. It has a goal that lies outside of itself. It exceeds itself, exists and transcends itself because it was intended and created to be and do so. In Comenius's own words – nothing is '*samosvojně*', i.e. existing only for itself. And therein lies the pedagogical endowment of the created world. At the moment of birth, every person is enrolled in the school of the world, which naturally fosters his humanity.

In Comenius's worldview, man is in need of such pedagogy. Of all creation, man is the only being capable of making himself with final purpose of his own existence, of 'existing only for himself', thus disrupting and standing out of the created order, or the pan-harmony of creation a Comenius himself says in his later writings, because creation finds '*samosvojnost*' unnatural, unoriginal and

¹ To give the full quote: 'We also mean by 'nature' God's all-encompassing providence or the stream God's goodness that never ceases to act on everybody and everything: to endow every created thing with a purpose. The hallmark of God's wisdom is that nothing was made in vain, without a goal and without the means needed to attain that goal. Everything that is, therefore, is for a purpose and in order to fulfil that purpose everything is provided with the tools and means necessary and even a certain instinct so that nothing is led to its particular goal against its will and aversion, but rather gently and pleasantly, following its own nature and inclination.' Komenský, J. A.: *Didaktika velká*, Prague 1905, pp. 51-52.

disorderly. How does Comenius explain this anthropological anomaly? In the introduction to his *Didactica Magna*, he gives a rather detailed explanation of the state and causes of the human problem that he hopes to rectify through his didactics. He starts with the Biblical story where man is presented as *'Imago Dei'*, a being created to enjoy an intimate relationship with God. Man's nature should reflect God's character, be a reflection of the greatest imaginable and possible Good. Due to the archetypal fall into sin, man lost his *'nexus hypostaticus'* – his deeply personal relationship with his Maker, a relationship with a preordained power that makes possible a crucially important transcendence. Man thus deformed and closed himself off. This deformation prevents him from fulfilling his fundamental human function.

Comenius, therefore, has a complex view of humanity. Man carries both positive and negative potential. People's humanity is not entirely right, but is not entirely lost either. Human character is not pre-given. Man is capable of both humanity and inhumanity. Being human is not a static condition; it is a vocation, in which each person should actively and consciously participate. It is clear (not only to Comenius) that man and mankind are not doing very well in this respect. That is why we need schools and education that would help man fulfil his fundamental function. Nature itself offers a wealth of didactic material. One just needs to be patient and carefully observe the natural world.

For example, in one of his fundamentals², Comenius notes that nature 'makes not jumps, but rather progresses forward gradually' and uses birds as an example. When a fledgling is hatched 'the mature bird never orders him to fly and find its own food straight away', Comenius says and continues: 'and when the youngster is finally covered with feathers, the parent does not push him off the nest but trains him in the art of flight slowly, first stretching the wings inside the nest, then rising and flapping the wings just above the nest, then they attempt flight in the close proximity of the nest, then they hop from branch to branch, from tree to tree, from hill to hill, until the parent is confident in entrusting his offspring to the open air.' Comenius draws the following didactic principles from this analogy:

- I) The sum of all study should be precisely divided into classes to make sure that what is learnt first lays the path and lights the way for what comes next.
- II) Time should be carefully divided to make sure that a specific task is assigned to each year, month and day.
- III) Let this system of time and work be strictly followed; skip nothing and do not change the order.

² Fundament No. VII in *Didactica Magna*. All subsequent quotes are from the same work. See Komenský, J. A.: *Didaktika velká*, Prague 1905, pp. 155-157.



Comenius gives similar deductions for all his principles in the *Didactica*, linked by the common theme of a syncretic unity of the didactic method and the a priori naturalness of the world, as expressed in his well-known motto '*omnia sponte fluant, absit violentia rebus*'³. In the words of modern pedagogy: nature offers analogies for all the natural laws of efficient education: The educational-ontological principle – why teach? The ordering principle of teaching material – what to teach? The timing principle – when to teach? The methodical principle – how to teach?

Comenius gave the following structure to his central pedagogical work: In the *Prologue*, he discusses whether, in principle, man has the capacity to learn, touches upon pedagogical teleology and explains why contemporary schools are inadequate and why he wants to reform them. In the second, general section (*Didactica generalis*), the core of the *Didactica*, Comenius sets forth 29 didactic fundamentals divided into four chapters called:

- I) How to make study certain (to achieve certain results)?
- II) How to make study easy, pleasant?
- III) How to make study thorough (powerful)?
- IV) How to teach economically (quickly)?

In the specific section of his book (*Didactica specialis*), Comenius applies his didactic principles on the teaching of sciences, arts, languages, morals and piety, covering all the areas of study of his times. He also proposes a new system of school organisation, which to this date surprises by its level of technical detail and topicality. Most readers are probably familiar with his system but we give a brief summary here for the sake of completeness:

- I) Maternity school – children are to be brought up at home from birth to the age of six. The content of education at this level is outlined by Comenius in his parenting handbook *Informatorium školy mateřské*.
- II) General school – from 6 to 12 years of age, children attend a general school that should be in every town and village. Boys and girls go to school together. The curriculum includes reading, writing, counting, religion, general studies (nature and society), singing, and handiwork. Lessons take place during two hours in the morning and two hours in the afternoon.
- III) Latin school – from 12 to 18 years of age. Comenius recommended that each town has a Latin school. The curriculum is based on the seven liberal arts (grammar, rhetoric, dialectics, arithmetic, geometry, astronomy and music), natural sciences, geography, history, mathematics and languages such as Latin and Greek. However,

³ 'Let everything pass naturally (spontaneously), let any violence be forbidden.' This motto prefaces the title page of Comenius's supreme didactic work *Opera didactica omnia*.

Comenius also recommends the study of modern languages so that people are able to communicate with their neighbours.

IV) Academy – from 18 to 24 years of age. Each country should have one. It is an institution of higher education teaching theology, law and medicine. Religious and philosophical education is also important. He uses the work Academy that at the time denoted a Protestant place of higher learning – all Universities being Catholic.

In *Pampeadia*, a work from his later period included in his key book *De rerum humanarum emendatione consultatio catholica*, Comenius also adds the inspirational concept of a 'school of old age' and a 'school of death'. Study at an advanced age is highly recommended because while we can die at any moment of our lives, we must die in old age, Comenius observes. This gives an old person the unique opportunity to meditate, reject all that is transitory and prepare for eternity. While Comenius concedes that death is 'the most terrible of terrible things', he who commands his life to the hands of God has nothing to fear. 'You were not afraid to be born, why be afraid to die? In both cases, the decision is not in your hands but in the hands of God.' Those who die in this spirit, die a good death. By far the most important lesson of the school of life is, according to Comenius, the art of 'the good death', i.e. dying in peace, forgiveness and grace, subjects that one must master if he wants to graduate to the "eternal academy".

Comenius was an excellent observer of nature and human nature. The imagery he uses is didactically precise, functional and timeless. With his poetically archaic expressions, he managed to perfectly and understandably define didactic rules, which were to be much later rediscovered and experimentally tested by modern pedagogical science. Modern pedagogical theoreticians especially appreciate Comenius's insistence on a correlation between concepts and objects, i.e. on the role the senses play in understanding, which was a crucial breakthrough at Comenius's time; adequate speed, time and phasing of lessons, taking into account individual factors, the age, abilities and prior experience of each student – again something previously unheard of; emphasis on the use of methods suitable for the subject matter; emphasis on practical utility of what is being taught – Comenius often described this principle using the word *chrésis*, i.e. the judicious use what one has learnt and its application for the betterment of the world as opposed to learning for learning's sake; the democratic spirit of his pedagogical system that called for an education for everybody regarding of their social status or sex; emphasis on the systematic, integral and complex organisation of education. This is precisely why Comenius is considered the founder of pedagogy as a science because his didactic work essentially covers the entire conceptual programme of a systematic pedagogical science. What is also fascinating and inspiring for



current (modern and post-modern) readers of Comenius's work is that all his timeless principles are deduced from an entirely pre-modern anthropology and cosmology.

Modern commentators often leave aside Comenius's philosophical and theological points of reference as outdated residues of his times (e.g. Popelová 1958, p. 143). However, philosophy and theology play a fundamental role in Comenius's educational system and it is, therefore, impossible to ignore them without the risk of jeopardising the integrity of the thinker's legacy. Many elements of Comenius's metaphysics do indeed merit the epithet 'naïve' or 'utopian' and even 'fantastic'.⁴ It is equally true that his didactic principles – no matter how genius for his times – cannot compete with modern didactics with its immense wealth of empirical findings in the fields of psychology, biology, sociology, cybernetics, etc. However, what remains inspiring about Comenius's work and what modern pedagogy lacks is his (overlooked) teleology of transcendence. The final end of all his methodical principles, precepts, rules and all his pedagogical efforts is not a mere efficient teaching system that prepares students for their future life – in modern parlance 'for successful establishment in the job market'. His objective is the complete opposite: to educate students not to live only for themselves. This is *educatio* in the original sense of the word 'to lead forth', 'to take out' man from himself, from his preoccupation with himself, from his withdrawal from others and from the world. Comenius knows that one's wellbeing cannot be attained without or at the expense of general wellbeing and declares this in his famous saying 'we all stand in the same theatre of the world and whatever happens on the stage concerns us all'⁵ as well as in his favourite holistic and universalist prefix *pan*, which in his mature works he consistently uses with nearly all areas of human activity (pansophia, panglotia, panharmony, etc.).

While Comenius's didactic achievements are genius in and of themselves, they make sense only if they are employed to make many man truly human, i.e. in harmony with the Universe, the Creator and creation. A school guided by the natural constitution of an open and outwardly engaged Creation becomes a genuine 'workshop of humanity and, thereby, a tool of the general remediation of all things human. Herein lays the greatest contribution of Comenius's pedagogical work.

⁴ Cf. Comenius's numeric speculations (almost all cosmological principles appear to him triads) or pansophist mosaic. For more on this topic, see Hábl, J. *Lekce z lidskosti v životě a díle J. A. Komenského*. Praha: Návrat 2011.

⁵ A paraphrase from *Unum necessarium*: "We all sit in the great theatre of the world: everything that happens here concerns us all." Czech translation from Molnár, A., Rejchrtová, 1987, p. 294.



15.4 Pedagogy as Training for Life I: the Enlightenment and early Modern Era

At the time of the birth of the Modern Era, the motto of Enlightenment thinkers was *sapere aude* (dare to know!). It was a reaction to the Middle Ages' traditional reliance on external authority. The Enlightenment saw itself as an age of ripening of mankind, an immense historical milestone when humanity finally finds the courage to free itself from the grip of ignorance. The means of this emancipation is the rediscovered human *ratio* that man hoped would help him autonomously 'discover, describe and explain the natural order of things' (see Wright 2004).

At the beginning of this era, the emerging scientific and technical paradigm had little influence on pedagogy. Natural studies, for example, were considered a peculiar hobby of weirdoes and charlatans until the mid-19th century. Even Lavoisier presented his experiments at the court as a sort of light entertainment. The practical value of science was started to be appreciated in the course of the 19th century, especially by people involved in production. Pedagogy had to adapt to the new situation. Up until now, people could do with just the knowledge, skills and habits passed on through personal relationships – father to son, master to apprentice, etc., and had no need to training in special institutions. Those who went to school did not do so because of work but in order to elevate their spirit, as R. Palouš points out. When a man does not need to work, has no other worries and is not concerned about gaining his living, he can afford the luxury of *scholé* (Greek for the free use of time for wonder, curiosity and cultivating discernment) that enables him to look inward, reflect on his life, devote himself to learning and meditation about the meaning his actions and daily preoccupations. But new science that leads to modern production techniques and industrialisation requires a radically new pedagogy and schools. While in the pre-modern era, the primary goal of education was the search for and maintenance of the harmony of being, i.e. harmony between man and the world (and God), the dawn of modern science distances man from the world (and God). The world becomes objectified. First, it becomes the object of observation, description and classification and later of analysis and reconstruction. Reconstruction of the world is made possible by a new set of concepts that essentially reduce reality while allowing man to efficiently understand, command and, most importantly make use of reality. Ever since Francis Bacon, the scientifically minded man does not ask 'just so' questions as a speculative exercise. His aim is always to expand useful knowledge. He strives to uncover the secrets of nature in order to allow men to usurp it, rule over it and use it to their advantage. Man will no longer be at the mercy of physical, biological, chemical or any other natural phenomenon. On the contrary, they

will be recruited to his service: steam, pulley systems, the atom, genes – all shall be at his command. Scientific achievements shall, according to Čapek's engineer Prokop, the fictional inventor of the explosive krakatit, 'give light and warmth'. The Enlightenment's humanists do not yet concede that they could also burn and kill. It is because the humanist believes in good intentions of the good human nature, which, if constantly enlightened with the light of reason, will reach a higher evolutionary stage to finally establish the fabled *regnum hominis* (the reign of humaneness). Stanley Grenz expresses this belief quite accurately: 'The modern scientist holds it axiomatic that anything yielded by enquiry will be always good. This assumption of internal goodness of understanding gives certain optimism to the Enlightenment worldview. It leads to the faith that progress is inevitable, that science together with the power of education will eventually free us from our helplessness face to face with nature and from any form of social slavery.' (1997, p. 14) Intoxicated with scientific advances, the modern man started to believe in moral progress, too. After all, those who know 'right' will also act 'right'. The question of a connection between *scientia* and *conscientia* was not exactly new *per se*, but the assumption that science and education will automatically have a humanising effect in the processes of ennoblement of the human race received its first doctrinal form only as part of the modern narrative (see Menck 2001, pp. 261-275).

Schools and pedagogy are set two specific tasks at this stage. Firstly, pedagogy becomes a tool for the spread and sharing of the optimistic-rational meta-narrative. Secondly, it becomes a methodical toolbox designed to provide the individual with the means necessary for understanding the world (nature) according to the scientific-technological paradigm. The set of information and the character of skills that one must master in order to fulfil the modern agenda can no longer be acquired by the traditional passing down from father to son. We are dealing now (and will deal in the future) with huge amounts of encyclopaedic data as well as increasing specialisation demanded by scientific progress.

The school, since time immemorial a political tool of every system of government, now appears in the centre of public attention. Assuming with Bacon that 'knowledge is power', it is in every enlightened ruler's interest to provide and expand knowledge as much as possible. This is why we start to see the emergence of compulsory school attendance in European countries in the course of the 19th century. In what is now the Czech Republic, the school system originally introduced by Maria Theresa was gradually modified in the Enlightenment spirit under Felbiger's and Kindermann's reforms. In 1869, an amendment of the School Act defined the structure of the educational system that remains in place more or less unchanged to this day.



To illustrate and compare the modern approach to pedagogy with previous (and subsequent) approaches, let us have a look at the ideas of one of the most typical representatives of modern pedagogy - Johann Friedrich Herbart. In the heart of Herbart's concept lays a specific synthesis of philosophical, ethical, aesthetic and psychological premises. His formulations and philosophical deductions were somewhat rigid and hard to understand but the same can be said about most German thinkers of this time. Simply put, Herbart's goal was to bring up a noble (virtuous) individual capable of further independent moral and intellectual growth. Defined this way, his objective is in no way unique and he still maintains pre-modern outlines and terminology, but the method proposed by Herbart for achieving this goal is already in line with the Enlightenment paradigm.

According to Herbart, the educational process takes place on three levels:

1. Domination (Regierung) – begins immediately after birth. Threats, bans, punishment and supervision are there to tame the naturally wild tendencies of the child, which is to be made ready for the systematic educational and learning experience of attending school. At this stage, the key objective is to awaken the child's will because studying without will bears little fruit.
2. Instruction (Unterricht) – is the core of Herbart's method and comprises four formal levels that define the lesson model:
 - Clarity – careful and conscious penetration into the subject matter thanks to an awakened interest in the topic.
 - Association – connecting newly learnt ideas with what the student already knows; a psychological process whereby pieces of knowledge are put into mutual context.
 - System – systematisation of conclusions drawn from the associated ideas.
 - Method – practical application of the newly acquired ideas through practical exercises.
3. Cultivation (Zücht) – character moulding with emphasis on obedience, discipline, self-control, self-development and fortification of moral principles.

For Herbart, teaching takes pride of place as the fundamental and primary means of education. Development of rational education is a basic condition for a successful moral education. He introduces the concept of educational teaching, which he uses to unite moral, intellectual and volitional elements, as can be demonstrated by this quotation: 'Teaching without moral education is a mere means without an aim; moral education with teaching is an aim with means.' The influence of the newly emerging science of psychology can be



detected in Herbart's emphasis on awakening a multifaceted interest in things, without which successful teaching is impossible. Interest concentrates attention, fosters desirable ideas and helps connect pieces of knowledge together, which allows the student to remember new material voluntarily, quickly, thoroughly and without greater difficulties. It must be noted at this point that interest was often aroused through external action, as testified by J. Úlehla's critical statement: '*Ruhe und Gehorsam, der Geist muss gezüchtigt Arden, eine heilige Ruhe.*' Úlehla believes such instruction is 'extortion' rather than 'awakening' (1904, p. 1).

Herbart's system is characterised by its systematic and elaborate approach. However, educational practice has uncovered crucial weaknesses in his concept. Herbart was the first to propose a universal didactic mechanism that can be practically applied to any study subject, to any lesson and to any age group. After all, it is not for nothing that he calls his education levels 'formal'. As part of rationalisation of the pedagogical process, he separated didactic means (method) from the goals and content. Goals no longer dictate the method. This was revolutionary because up until then goal, content and method were intimately linked. For Plato, for example, the good life (goal) was unthinkable without a true understanding of transcendent ideas – the role of education was to lead man from the darkness of ignorance, lies and illusions towards the light of truth. For Christianity, too, redemption (goal) was inseparable from the path or method, namely building an authentic relationship with God.

Herbart invented a mechanism how to teach anything to anybody. It was met with an immediate success and his method soon started to be used in real schools. It was lucid, sophisticated, and universally applicable. It allowed education on a mass scale, which, by the way, greatly suited the Austro-Hungarian (essentially totalitarian) establishment that needed to quickly produce an educated and high-performing population. For the same reasons, it is no surprise that Herbart's ideas came to the fore again in Czechoslovakia in the totalitarian post-war period. Although Herbart had in view nobler (good old) aims, his method perfectly corresponded to the need to develop a new type of school that would educate individuals for the new, bright future of the world.

A fundamental problem of Herbart's pedagogy is that it sees man as nothing more than a rational mechanism. While Herbart never says this explicitly his method directly implies such an anthropological reductionism. The notorious Herbartism that eventually spread through countries in Europe and overseas was at the same time a development and deformation of Herbart's system. Herbart's defenders vehemently argue that Herbartism has nothing to do with Herbart and his ideas. However, a less biased critic must concede some internal connections. The characteristic traits of Herbartism that attracted fierce

criticism at the turn of the 19th and 20th centuries are generally well-known. Here we summarise the most important ones:

- Transmission of ready-made facts to students to memorise
- Dominant, almost authoritarian, position of the teacher; student as a passive object of education
- Coercion, moralising, lecturing as basic educational methods
- Receptive, passive, verbal character of learning; no space for students' own initiative
- Largely external motivation – rewards, punishments, grades, teaching aids.

15.5 Pedagogy as Training for Life II: Modern Reformist Movement

At the turn of the 19th and 20th centuries, the drawbacks of Herbart-style schooling, described in the previous chapter, became the target of fierce criticism from teachers who gathered under then banners of a reform movement that included figures such as John Dewey, Celestine Freinet, Maria Montessori, Hellen Parkhurst, Rudolf Steiner and many others. The international reformists started from the assumption that education should be centred on the student. They were revolting, in a more or less latent way, against a scientific and technical objectification of all reality including man and child. They begin to see the child not as a mere object of pedagogical efforts but rather as an entity with individual traits and characteristics and as a being that experiences and participates in the educational process. Childhood is no longer seen as a provisory state that one must suffer through before adulthood is reached. It is a unique and irreplaceable period, valuable in and of itself. Building on the romantic and philanthropic ideals of thinkers such as Rousseau, Pestalozzi, Fröbel and others, the reformists call for an end of uniformity of educational methods, an abolition of external evaluation and motivation, a respect for the needs and interests of each individual. They criticise the mono-logic character of education and emphasis on rationality, etc. A certain unifying and characteristic element of this diverse movement is its *pedocentric* (learner-centred) nature. J. Dewey talks about a Copernican revolution where the child becomes the Sun around which all pedagogical 'bodies' turn. E. Claparede demands a school 'tailor-made for the child' while E. Key publishes a book called *The Century of the Child*. Like traditional pedagogy, the reformists want to train the individual 'for life' but they have a radically different opinion of what life is. As already mentioned, the early modern period was enthralled with the possibilities of rational and empirical discourse. The Cartesian scientific method revolution resulted in the urgent need to sort and organise an immense bounty of new findings and facts – the first encyclopaedias and compendia of 'all

human knowledge' are being written. The primary mission of Enlightenment education was to mediate the mass of encyclopaedic knowledge. Only those who knew were considered educated and prepared for 'the world of science and technology'. By contrast, the reformists recognise that knowledge alone is not enough. A human being is not just a pure *ratio*, it has other components that need to be nurtured or 'trained'. That is why they lay so much emphasis on emotional and pragmatic matters. '*Par la vie – pour la vie*' proclaims the reformists' slogan (from life, for life). The child must appreciate that education is a positive and useful thing.

All the reformists' principles were undeniably justified at their time. Scientific remove in combination with Herbart's methodological formalism distanced teaching theory from life, especially life as experienced by children. On the other hand, it must be said that all reformist-pedocentric motives contain a destructive potential if taken to the extreme. The strengths of the reformist approach can easily turn into weaknesses if they become the one and only guiding principle of pedagogical practice. For example, the practical utility of most of the lessons taught to children at school is not immediately apparent to the student precisely because the student is a child. For most children, appreciating the practical advantages of memorising the past perfect tense is difficult as they do not see the greater picture as adults do. Great effort and perseverance are often required. An immature individual rarely accepts this as a pleasant enterprise. If a child is to overcome his lack of will (or build up will) he must be guided, educated. In other words, liberal licence is not an alternative to authoritarian dogmatism.

This is closely linked to another problem inherent in the reform movement, the anthropological premises of this approach. Many a reform project has failed in the face of its humanist assumption that the human nature is by definition good, hence every individual's right to self-determination. As it turns out, the act of authentic self-determination and self-development requires a high degree of maturity, which is simply not available to a child. It is also evident that people – including children – do not only have just positive potential that can flourish on its own without any educational effort, with the educator providing only 'assistance' – to use the terminology of the reformers. Laziness, indifference and many other negative traits are part of human nature, too. These negative tendencies need to be overcome, corrected or cultured through education and upbringing. Historically, we can sympathise with the reformists' resistance to the moulding of individual character through external influences. On the other hand, experience has shown that the entire mechanism cannot be simply interiorised, putting the full responsibility for development on the individual. Whether one likes it or not, the art of autonomous self-development first demands the heteronomous influence of an educator.



A detailed description of all reform movement and attempts exceeds the scope of this work. Others have treated the topic in a much better and thorough manner.⁶ Let us conclude here with the observation that free-minded and experimental approaches to education were, understandably, very unpopular with totalitarian regimes. In Czechoslovakia, Fascism put an end to the attempts of Václav Příhoda and others who wanted to popularise some of the reform ideas imported from the West. The Communist regime, too, was hostile to the liberalising reformist tendencies that were considered threatening, bourgeois and, therefore, unwelcome.

15.6 Bending Nature to our Will: Pedagogy in the Hands of Totalitarian Ideologies

Communism, the ideology that dominated East Europe including Czechoslovakia, had a vision of a better, classless society. Given the horrors of war, the communist idea appealed to many as the most rational alternative. Its ideology was based on dialectic materialism and later also by scientific atheism that was a rather vulgar heir of Marx's slogan: 'Religion is the opium of people'. Communist pedagogy still wanted to train man for life. Once again, it espoused a radically different idea of what life is. A person with communist education was supposed to have versatile skills and ideally was to become a perfect human being who is not attached to material wealth and lives in harmony with others. Given that communism is still in our living memory, perhaps the author is excused for adding a personal note. I can still well remember 'agitation classes' where our Comrade teacher explained to us, pupils of the first few grades of elementary schools, the meaning of the slogan 'from each according to his abilities, to each according to his needs'. We were told that the then socialist system is only temporary. True communist would eventually take over, which in practice would mean that, for example, we could go to the supermarket where the products of the labour of our workers would be available for free to anybody and each person would take only what he or she needs or merits. There will be plenty for everybody. I remember the Comrade a song from a popular movie: 'one knows something and another knows something else ... together they can achieve a lot ... and everybody will own everything together...'. In teleological terms, we could argue that it was an eschatological inversion of ultimate human goals. While in the pre-modern era, man aspired to supreme glory in the afterlife Communism promised paradise here on Earth. Communist education played a functional role in strengthening and upholding the modern faith in human progress through the power of reason and science

⁶ See for example Průcha 2004.



that would together build a better future. Yesterday we split the atom, today we sent Gagarin to space and tomorrow we will bend nature to our will.

Communist propaganda required a unified educational system, and unified socialist schooling was duly introduced. In the 1950's, some aspects of the Soviet model were systematically adopted because an educated worker-communist was 'better' than a complicated intellectual. The communist educational system was for the masses, collectivist, dogmatic, permeated by ideology, indoctrination and egalitarianism. 'We are all equal' gradually turned into 'nobody is unique'. Being different was undesirable, laughed at and punished.

In didactic terms, this period was, to a certain degree, a return to Herbartism with all its accompanying problems: transmission of ready-made information, in some cases adulterated and filtered through the Communist prism; student passivity; encyclopaedic content of lessons; monologue-based methods; one-way communication; rigid form; teacher in the role of a worker 'processing' the student, 'filling' or rather 'washing' his/her brain. Of course, there were numerous exceptional pedagogues who, within the constraints of the totalitarian regime, performed pedagogical work of high-quality. Still, these were exceptional cases.

The totalitarian educational system had its brighter sides, too: large-scale eradication of illiteracy, tolerable general level of education in the population, high level of factual and even encyclopaedic knowledge, absence of serious social problems (drug abuse, bullying, etc.), high level of discipline in some pedagogical institutions (pre-school, special institutions).

In terms of administration, educational reforms followed in quick succession but the new communist man and an advanced harmonious society were nowhere in to be seen. Purges of 'reactionary' teachers were a frequent occurrence. Intellectuals were put out of sight to archives and boiler room and suffered other forms of persecution. The flagrant failure of the communist project generated widespread dissatisfaction but the establishment maintained the pretence that everything was alright and that life in the socialist bloc was better than in the West. Manipulated figures served to demonstrate the sophistication of the socialist society. The totalitarian regime's immorality and serious economic problems eventually culminated in the revolutionary events of 1989.

It is still too early to judge the success of the post-communist period. A greater historical remove will be needed before we can say whether pedagogical practice benefited from the neoliberal paradigm.



Application Tasks

1. Read about the sources on the history of pedagogy.
2. Read how the ideas on education have evolved throughout historical development.
3. Make excerpts by the following areas:
 - a. antiquity
 - b. the Middle Ages
 - c. modern era
 - i. turn of the 19th and 20th century - reform pedagogy
 - ii. interwar period
 - iii. After 20th century
4. Try to investigate whether there used to live any famous pedagogue in the vicinity of your residence (region) in the past. Write a brief report about him/her and add references to information sources.



Review Questions

1. **Pedagogy in the historical context**
 - a) Formulate essential characteristics of pre-modernity, modernity and post-modernity.
 - b) What did the pre-modern emphasis on *harmony* mean for pedagogy?
 - c) What is the difference between pedagogy as an art and as a science?
 - d) What is the essence of modern science?
 - e) What is (was) the essence of modern pedagogy?
 - f) Compare modern and post-modern emphases in the educational context.
2. **Major personalities and trends of the (recent) history of pedagogical thinking**
 - a) What does the pedagogical preparation (training) of a man 'for eternity' mean?
 - b) What are the benefits and weaknesses of the scholastic method?
 - c) Explain the context and essence of the Comenius notion of the 'remedy of human things'.
 - d) Compare educational objectives and methods of Comenius and Herbart.



- e) Characterise the main traits, benefits and problems of reform pedagogy.
- f) Describe and evaluate the post-war period in the Czech Republic from the pedagogical perspective.



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Appendix 1:

ASSIGNMENT FOR CREDIT AND EXAMINATION:

1. Summary of literature
2. Observation
 - a. during a lesson
 - b. school visitInterest activity at school
Extracurricular education
3. Reading of literature:
 - a) on philosophy of education
 - b) on psychology of education
 - c) on comparative pedagogy
 - d) on moral education
 - e) popular educational literature (e.g. for parents)
 - f) on alternative schooling (one selected school).
4. Visit a school (lesson at an alternative school) and describe the difference from the school you experienced. Read about its theoretical foundations and educational objectives and the manner they want to implement them.



Appendix 2: ESSENCE OF EDUCATION

Education is part of everyone's life and everyone encounters it both as the educatee and the educator. It is undertaken in family, at school, in a psychiatric hospital; it accompanies work, leisure time as well as cohabitation of spouses. It is the function of life and has a variety of goals, contents and means.

Although education has manifold forms, they have one thing in common: education cultivates one's relation to the world. Jiří Kyrášek saw the essence of education in the shaping of one's relation to the world⁷. If education forms one's relation to the nature, society and one's self, we must ask a question about the kind of this relation because we can understand it in many different ways depending on one's and the society's condition. Human beings definitely change the world with their very existence and activities but this is also what other animate beings do when they do good to their environment but may also destroy it. Human beings are different from animate beings in the extent to which they change their environment. Humans have developed means which can be of immense benefit for the society and themselves or totally destroy them.

This is why the relation of humans to the world is the crucial question of philosophy and pedagogy. We can simplify it by naming two, currently co-existing extremes. According to the first extreme approach, humans are a part of the nature and are subjected to its laws, to the forces which are above, as expressed by the will of gods in antique Greece or Christianity or oriental philosophy. According to the other extreme, humans are the master of the nature (and hence, also of other people). We could see this in the philosophy of Francis Bacon and René Descartes as well as in the exact science developed since the 17th century and built on objective observation and experiments, freed from prejudices and human errors and thus from human subjectivity and ethics. A science based on the methodology of direct cognition of reality and induction and resulting in the knowledge which is not doubted should have given humans the power over the nature. However, it also opened (especially in the 19th century), Pandora's box of wealth and devastation of humans and again raised the question about the relationship of the man towards the nature, society, one's self. This is now reflected in the opinion of J. Zelený who says that the previous approach taken by Galileo, Descartes, Bacon and Lock perceived the world as a book: 'There could be disputes over in which language the book where we play the role of readers was written. A major part of cognitive objectives of modern sciences has something to do with the world where we

⁷ In: Chlup, O.- Kopecký, J. *Pedagogika*. Prague: SPN, 1967, p. 16.



primarily are not in the role of readers of the book, but rather in the role of producers and products'.⁸ However, this proposition raises doubts because producers who do not read in the book of the nature produce their arbitrariness and are themselves products of this arbitrariness and the resulting errors. Therefore, if humans do not want to become victims of their activities, they must first read the book of the world.

Understanding the relation of man towards the world is basically about man's cultivation in all of his stages and forms. Teaching at kindergarten, basic and secondary schools and at institutions of higher education is only a special case of man's cultivation on his path towards nature, other people and one's self. The more complicated this path is, i.e. the broader the cognition is, the more diverse the activities are and the more dependent interpersonal relations are, the more important schooling is with its intensity and productiveness, which may be seen in the entire history of school education. Education takes over man's position in the world, reproduces and co-creates it. The opinion on this relation forms the basis of specific objectives, contents and means of education.

It is evident that the deformation of man's relationship towards the nature, society and one's self endanger his life and chances to survive. A child who does not learn the rules of family cohabitation poses a threat either to himself/herself or his/her parents. Therefore, the only thing that family education does (despite all opposing theories including anti-pedagogy) is that it cultivates the behaviour of parents and children so that their cohabitation satisfies the needs of life of all individuals and the family line. Ideas and standards such as respect for parents and children, mutual assistance, diligence, unselfishness, willingness to share food and cooperate are not innate. They must be fostered since very childhood as the basis of cohabitation and develop from one generation to another. They keep reproducing and cannot be destroyed unless they are destroyed by the family itself.

The form of the rules of family cohabitation and roles of family members may change – and they do change – but the basic norms cannot be removed should family keep on in its existence. For instance, physical punishments are justly slowly diminishing from education and a greater emphasis is placed on praise than on punishment, or new forms of collaboration are developing amid the changing roles of family members, but the rules of cohabitation remain the same. No family can tolerate arbitrariness, enviousness, selfishness or aggressiveness towards other family members if it does not was to be threatened.

⁸ Zelený, J. Afterword to Husserl, R. *Krize evropských věd a transcendentální filozofie*. Prague: Academia, 1972, p. 567.



Likewise, a school class just as any other social group develops rules which enable purposeful cohabitation and performance.

(Pařízek, V. *Základy obecné pedagogiky*. Prague: PF UK, 1996, pp. 6-7)



Appendix 3: REFLECTION on the study text

Answer the following questions:

1. What new and important aspects about education have you learned?
2. Which topic did you find the most interesting?
3. Have you found an answer to any of your problems or do you now know where to find it?
4. Which books have made you think over them? Describe their importance for you.
5. Read the questions at the beginning of this study text (p. 10). Try to answer them.