DOWNLOAD PDF HISTORY OF LEARNING

Chapter 1 : History Learning Site - Educational Resources For GCSE and A-Level

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Why do they treat me differently? Medicine, psychology and social administration rarely look at these questions from the viewpoint of the person with the label. Academics least of all. But that person would not necessarily have been seen as different in the distant past. And if the past was another story, the future can be another story too â€” and a better one. We are a group of academics researching the history of learning disability, the history of intellectual disability, and the history of developmental disability. They are the poor relations of disability history, and are largely absent from the history of psychology in general. Our interest is in historical scholarship. However, we are not obscure theoreticians. That is to say: Small but tangible advances are being made towards this goal in various parts of the world, but there is massive resistance from the prevailing social and political systems. Knowing about the historical context can help to overcome this. They reflect the passing anxieties of a particular era. In the longer future they may be something different, or nothing at all. In that case, the same applies to their opposites, and to intellectual disability, developmental disability and learning disability itself. This website and blog invites academic discussion about the changing ideas that have gone into the history of learning disability. We are interested in these topics too. Modern society has created not just an idea, but something quite real: For those of you tangling with the system â€” families, activists, supporters, psychologists, psychiatrists, social workers and other practitioners â€” knowing about the history of psychology and the history of learning disability will help to keep you going. We invite you too to join this forum. Leave a reply You must be logged in to post a comment.

Chapter 2 : Chapter One: What is a learning history?

An e-learning history timeline Long before the internet was launched, distance courses were being offered to provide students with education on particular subjects or skills. In the â€²s Isaac Pitman taught his pupils shorthand via correspondence.

Learners are like rats! Burrhus Frederic Skinner was born March 20, In , he became the chairman of the psychology department at Indiana University. In , he was invited to come to Harvard, where he remained for the rest of his life. He was a very active man, doing research and guiding hundreds of doctoral candidates as well as writing many books. A behaviour followed by a reinforcing stimulus results in an increased probability of that behaviour occurring in the future. Everybody know his examples with rats. But Skinner also developed a learning system! And during the 50s the attitude towards teaching machines radically changed. In the United States, there were not enough people to fill all the teaching positions. Also the television was popular within education. Skinner presented the content in small, related chunks of information. Skinners Programmed Instruction was very popular. At this very moment, programmed instruction is popular when it comes to digital self study courses. Please visit the edutechwiki to find out more about Skinner and programmed instruction. With the Apple and the IBM the computer was reliable enough and was used for didactical purposes. The usability was improving and the computer was not only meant for nerds anymore. Especially within mathematics and science many projects were started. Simulations and programmed instruction De Jong, were used the most. Computers were used to make the current, existing tasks easier to perform. They were helpful to some teachers and a nice addition to their teaching tools. It could hardly be called Innovation. A lot of teachers with some technical skills start programming their own courseware educational programs. Not a lot of courseware were shared amongst teachers. Blackboard; teaching machine of the 90s. Teaching machine of the 90s At the end of the 90s the learning management systems LMS were used. Some universities started to design and develop their own systems but most of the educational institutions started with systems off the market. One of the key players within the educational market was the American company Blackboard. Blackboard was a complete solution for the management of the courses. Students and teachers could: The environment was able to facilitate learning in quite an easy way. The product was quite simple to use by teachers, there was not a steep learning curve. That was one of the mean reasons for the popularity. Criticasters were telling everybody that this was nothing more than an old model of learning very teacher centred with a new way of interacting. No educational innovation was involved. Mirande shows us that the use of Blackboard actually changed the educational world because this was the first moment that teachers were accepting and using technology within their own classrooms on a large base! Hype cycle of Gartner, used for e-Learning Hype cycle for e-Learning Every innovation starts in a specific way. It never starts with a balanced use of the new technology. There is a certain process. With Gartner, a leading technology industry analyst, calls this the "hype cycle," and it is unfailingly accurate in the way it predicts technology adoption. The e-learning market is no exception. Like every other successful technology market, e-learning has wandered down a well beaten path of irrational exuberance followed by manic depression, and now many people are wondering "will this market ever take off? With clear expectations and a realistic view on the relevance of the technology and the concept. In many organizations e-Learning is part of the learning strategy and is fully integrated in the organizational processes. It is up to YOU to answer the question about the way you want to use it within your own organization or classroom.

Chapter 3 : History of virtual learning environments - Wikipedia

The History Learning Site is the new home of studying for GCSE and A-Level History as well as history enthusiasts world-wide.

See Article History Alternative Titles: Distance learning traditionally has focused on nontraditional students, such as full-time workers, military personnel, and nonresidents or individuals in remote regions who are unable to attend classroom lectures. However, distance learning has become an established part of the educational world, with trends pointing to ongoing growth. An increasing number of universities provide distance learning opportunities. A pioneer in the field is the University of Phoenix , which was founded in Arizona in and by the first decade of the 21st century had become the largest private school in the world, with more than , enrolled students. It was one of the earliest adopters of distance learning technology, although many of its students spend some time in classrooms on one of its dozens of campuses in the United States, Canada, and Puerto Rico. A precise figure for the international enrollment in distance learning is unavailable, but the enrollment at two of the largest public universities that heavily utilize distance learning methods gives some indication: Students and institutions embrace distance learning with good reason. Universities benefit by adding students without having to construct classrooms and housing, and students reap the advantages of being able to work where and when they choose. Public-school systems offer specialty courses such as small-enrollment languages and Advanced Placement classes without having to set up multiple classrooms. In addition, homeschooled students gain access to centralized instruction. Characteristics of distance learning Various terms have been used to describe the phenomenon of distance learning. Four characteristics distinguish distance learning. First, distance learning is by definition carried out through institutions; it is not self-study or a nonacademic learning environment. The institutions may or may not offer traditional classroom-based instruction as well, but they are eligible for accreditation by the same agencies as those employing traditional methods. Second, geographic separation is inherent in distance learning, and time may also separate students and teachers. Accessibility and convenience are important advantages of this mode of education. Well-designed programs can also bridge intellectual , cultural, and social differences between students. Third, interactive telecommunications connect individuals within a learning group and with the teacher. Most often, electronic communications, such as e-mail , are used, but traditional forms of communication, such as the postal system , may also play a role. Whatever the medium, interaction is essential to distance education, as it is to any education. The connections of learners, teachers, and instructional resources become less dependent on physical proximity as communications systems become more sophisticated and widely available; consequently, the Internet, mobile phones , and e-mail have contributed to the rapid growth in distance learning. Finally, distance education, like any education, establishes a learning group, sometimes called a learning community , which is composed of students, a teacher, and instructional resourcesâ€”i. Social networking on the Internet promotes the idea of community building. Early history of distance learning Correspondence schools in the 19th century Geographical isolation from schools and dispersed religious congregations spurred the development of religious correspondence education in the United States in the 19th century. For example, the Chautauqua Lake Sunday School Assembly in western New York state began in as a program for training Sunday school teachers and church workers. From its religious origins, the program gradually expanded to include a nondenominational course of directed home reading and correspondence study. Its success led to the founding of many similar schools throughout the United States in the chautauqua movement. It was the demand by industry, government, and the military for vocational training , however, that pushed distance learning to new levels. In Europe, mail-order courses had been established by the middle of the 19th century, when the Society of Modern Languages in Berlin offered correspondence courses in French, German, and English. Most nonreligious mail-order correspondence courses emphasized instruction in spelling, grammar, business letter composition , and bookkeeping, but others taught everything from developing esoteric mental powers to operating a beauty salon. The clear leader in correspondence course instruction in American higher education at the end of the 19th century was the

University of Chicago , where William Rainey Harper employed methods that he had used as director of the Chautauqua educational system for several years starting in Early educational theories and technologies Behaviourism and constructivism During the first half of the 20th century, the use of educational technology in the United States was heavily influenced by two developing schools of educational philosophy. Behaviourism , led by the American psychologist John B. Watson and later by B. Skinner , discounted all subjective mental phenomena e. Constructivism, whose leading figure was the French developmental psychologist Jean Piaget , asserted that learning arises from building mental models based on experience. These theories led to different techniques for the use of media in the classroom, with behaviourism concentrating on altering student behaviour and constructivism focusing on process- and experience-based learning. Technological aides to education One of the first technological aides to education was the lantern slide e. By the start of the 20th century, learning theories had begun concentrating on visual approaches to instruction, in contrast to the oral recitation practices that still dominated traditional classrooms. The first significant technological innovation was made by the American inventor Thomas Edison , who devised the tinfoil phonograph in This device made possible the first language laboratories facilities equipped with audio or audiovisual devices for use in language learning. After World War I , university-owned radio stations became commonplace in the United States, with more than such stations broadcasting recorded educational programs by Edison was also one of the first to produce films for the classroom. Many colleges and universities experimented with educational film production before World War I, and training films were used extensively during the war to educate a diverse and often illiterate population of soldiers in a range of topics from fighting technique to personal hygiene. While the most artistically acclaimed propaganda production may have been Triumph of the Will , one of a series of films made by Leni Riefenstahl during the s for the German Nazi government, similar films were produced by all the major belligerents. In the United States the army commissioned Hollywood film director Frank Capra to produce seven films, the widely acclaimed series Why We Fight â€”45 , in order to educate American soldiers on what was at stake. Instructional television courses began to be developed in the s, first at the University of Iowa. By the s community colleges all across the United States had created courses for broadcast on local television stations. Much of the early research was conducted at IBM , where the latest theories in cognitive science were incorporated in the application of educational technology. The next major advancement in educational technology came with the linking of computers through the Internet , which enabled the development of modern distance learning. Modern distance learning Web-based courses By the beginning of the 21st century, more than half of all two-year and four-year degree-granting institutions of higher education in the United States offered distance education courses, primarily through the Internet. With more than , different online courses to choose from, about one-quarter of American students took at least one such course each term. Common target populations for distance learning include professionals seeking recertification, workers updating employment skills, individuals with disabilities, and active military personnel. Although the theoretical trend beginning in the s seemed to be toward a stronger reliance on video, audio, and other multimedia, in practice most successful programs have predominately utilized electronic texts and simple text-based communications. The reasons for this are partly practicalâ€”individual instructors often bear the burden of producing their own multimediaâ€”but also reflect an evolving understanding of the central benefits of distance learning. Similarly, self-paced software educational systems, though still used for certain narrow types of training, have limited flexibility in responding and adapting to individual students, who typically demand some interaction with other humans in formal educational settings. Both proprietary and open-source systems are common. Although most systems are generally asynchronous, allowing students access to most features whenever they wish, synchronous technologies, involving live video, audio, and shared access to electronic documents at scheduled times, are also used. Shared social spaces in the form of blogs , wikis Web sites that can be modified by all classroom participants , and collaboratively edited documents are also used in educational settings but to a lesser degree than similar spaces available on the Internet for socializing. Web-based services Alongside the growth in modern institutional distance learning has come Web-based or facilitated personal educational services, including e-tutoring, e-mentoring, and research assistance. In addition, there are many

educational assistance companies that help parents choose and contact local tutors for their children while the companies handle the contracts. The use of distance learning programs and tutoring services has increased particularly among parents who homeschool their children. Many universities have some online tutoring services for remedial help with reading, writing, and basic mathematics, and some even have online mentoring programs to help doctoral candidates through the dissertation process. Finally, many Web-based personal-assistant companies offer a range of services for adults seeking continuing education or professional development. Open universities One of the most prominent types of educational institutions that makes use of distance learning is the open university, which is open in the sense that it admits nearly any adult. Since the midth century the open university movement has gained momentum around the world, reflecting a desire for greater access to higher education by various constituencies , including nontraditional students, such as the disabled, military personnel, and prison inmates. The origin of the movement can be traced to the University of London , which began offering degrees to external students in In the University of South Africa , headquartered in Pretoria, began offering correspondence courses, and in it was reconstituted to provide degree courses for external students only. By the end of the s the university had 25, students, and it has since grown to annual enrollments in the hundreds of thousands. As one of the most successful nontraditional institutions with a research component, the Open University is a major contributor to both the administrative and the pedagogical literature in the field of open universities. The university relies heavily on prepared materials and a tutor system. The printed text was originally the principal teaching medium in most Open University courses, but this changed somewhat with the advent of the Internet and computers, which enabled written assignments and materials to be distributed via the Web. For each course, the student is assigned a local tutor, who normally makes contact by telephone , mail, or e-mail to help with queries related to the academic materials. Students may also attend local face-to-face classes run by their tutor, and they may choose to form self-help groups with other students. Tutor-graded assignments and discussion sessions are the core aspects of this educational model. The tutors and interactions between individual students are meant to compensate for the lack of face-to-face lectures in the Open University. Academic issues and future directions From the start, correspondence courses acquired a poor academic reputation, especially those provided by for-profit entities. As early as , as a study commissioned by the Carnegie Corporation found, there was widespread fraud among correspondence schools in the United States, and there were no adequate standards to protect the public. While the situation was later improved by the introduction of accrediting agencies that set standards for the delivery of distance learning programs, there has always been concern about the quality of the learning experience and the verification of student work. Additionally, the introduction of distance learning in traditional institutions raised fears that technology will someday completely eliminate real classrooms and human instructors. Because many distance learning programs are offered by for-profit institutions, distance learning has become associated with the commercialization of higher education. Distance learning, whether at for-profit universities or at traditional ones, utilizes two basic economic models designed to reduce labour costs. The first model involves the substitution of labour with capital, whereas the second is based on the replacement of faculty with cheaper labour. Proponents of the first model have argued that distance learning offers economies of scale by reducing personnel costs after an initial capital investment for such things as Web servers, electronic texts and multimedia supplements, and Internet programs for interacting with students. However, many institutions that have implemented distance learning programs through traditional faculty and administrative structures have found that ongoing expenses associated with the programs may actually make them more expensive for the institution than traditional courses. The second basic approach, a labour-for-labour model, is to divide the faculty role into the functions of preparation, presentation, and assessment and to assign some of the functions to less-expensive workers. Open universities typically do this by forming committees to design courses and hiring part-time tutors to help struggling students and to grade papers, leaving the actual classroom instruction duties, if any, to the professors. These distance learning models suggest that the largest change in education will come in altered roles for faculty and vastly different student experiences. The emergence of Massive Open Online Courses MOOCs in the first and second decades of the 21st century represented a major shift in direction for distance learning. MOOCs are

characterized by extremely large enrollmentsâ€”in the tens of thousandsâ€”the use of short videotaped lectures, and peer assessments. The open-online-course format had been used early on by some universities, but it did not become widely popular until the emergence of MOOC providers such as Coursera, edX, Khan Academy, and Udacity. Although the initial purpose of MOOCs was to provide informal learning opportunities, there have been experiments in using this format for degree credit and certifications from universities.

Chapter 4 : History of Learning Disability

The history of education in Japan dates back at least to the 6th century, when Chinese learning was introduced at the Yamato court. Foreign civilizations have often provided new ideas for the development of Japan's own culture.

March 20, Boston Gazette contains an advertisement from Caleb Phillipps, "Teacher of the New Method of Short Hand," advising that any "Persons in the Country desirous to Learn this Art, may by having the several Lessons sent weekly to them, be as perfectly instructed as those that live in Boston. Institutionally sponsored distance education began in the United States in at the Illinois Wesleyan University. The University of Wisconsinâ€"Extension [3] was founded, the first true distance learning institution. The Machine Stops a short story by E. Sidney Pressey, an educational psychology professor at Ohio State University , develops the first "teaching machine. LaZerte, Director of the School of Education, University of Alberta , developed a set of instructional devices for teaching and learning. Most courses aired at night so that students who worked during the day could watch them. Skinner develops "programmed instruction" [B. This course already made evident two important characteristics of distance education that carry over to contemporary online instruction: The PLATO system featured multiple roles, including students, who could study assigned lessons and communicate with teachers through on-line notes, instructors, who could examine student progress data, as well as communicate and take lessons themselves, and authors, who could do all of the above, plus create new lessons. There was also a fourth type of user, called a multiple, which was used for demonstrations of the PLATO system. Teaching Machines Inc, a group of psychologists produced a series of programmed learning texts. The texts were based on the work of B. Skinner , breaking complicated tasks to a one-step-at-a-time activity terminal learning objectives. With his colleagues at the Stanford Research Institute, Engelbart started to develop a computer system to augment human abilities, including learning. The initial concept of a global information network should be given to J. However, the actual development of the internet must be given to Lawrence G. It describes a British machine, the Empirical Tutor thus: The article also refers to a language teaching system developed by Professor Rand Morton of Michigan University. A science fiction story in the same Annual, by Brian Aldiss, predicts mobile learning, wearable computing, brainâ€"computer interfaces , the development of personal computing in the nineteen-seventies, and concern over global warming. The presentation of materials "slide selector" was called an electronic book. The store of information in the system was called an electronic blackboard. PLATO had a sophisticated help system, whereby different types of wrong answers resulted in the student being sent different help sequences. A rudimentary spell checker was included in the system. A comment page allowed the student to comment on the lessons at any time. An instructor page allowed the instructor to communicate with the student. A "perfect workbook" recorded student responses to questions, as well as kept a record of each button the student pushed and the time at which he or she pushed it. These records were stored on magnetic tape for later statistical analysis. The system included course management features and roles for the users such as instructor, manager, and student, and allowed intercommunication among them. Stanford University participated in the research and development that predated the IBM s release. Ted Nelson uses the terms " hypertext " and " hypermedia " in his paper Complex information processing: Initially, over 6, students were served in classrooms, each one equipped with a satellite dish and a black-and-white TV set. The system is still in use, but now reaches over a million students in 16, rural facilities in Mexico and several Central American countries. This system was finally taken out of service on April 10, , after twelve years of operation. Over 20, people had used the system in that interval, and programming was available for 17 university courses. The instructional operating system of the IBM had a registration system, bookmarking, authoring, and progress reports all built-in. It is described as a computer based system of instruction that is "low-cost, high quality education that is completely individualized. The group put out 33 newsletters over the course of the project. This is an early example of student controlled, individualized use of computers in education. The idea of going "solo" was that the student was in charge of his or her own learning. However, the limitations of the approach were also recognized, and the group ended up proposing a "Community of Learning" model in The Merit Network facilitated

instructional uses of computing facilities among the three institutions. By it had been used by over 10, students and teachers in applications that included science technology, remedial mathematics, career guidance, and industrial training. This was implemented though a medium-sized computer and terminals in the schools. Over natural language dialog programs were created between and Initial projects were conducted on Teletype model 33 , paper tape punch machine that operated at a baud rate. Interactive television services included informational and educational demonstrations using a touch-tone telephone. Skill Exchanges â€" which permit persons to list their skills, the conditions under which they are willing to serve as models for others who want to learn these skills, and the addresses at which they can be reached. Peer-Matching â€" a communications network which permits persons to describe the learning activity in which they wish to engage, in the hope of finding a partner for the inquiry. Reference Services to Educators-at-Large â€" who can be listed in a directory giving the addresses and self-descriptions of professionals, paraprofessionals, and free-lancers, along with conditions of access to their services. It is led by Alan Kay , who advanced the idea of a graphical user interface GUI by inventing icons for folders, menus, and overlapping windows. Kay and his group envisioned a computer for teaching and learning that they called the " KiddiKomputer ", to be programmed using the Smalltalk language they had developed. While Kay could see many educational uses for this computer, he had four initial projects in mind: Second level projects for teaching children with a computer included 1 Computer evaluation, 2 Iconic programming, especially for children under 8. Kay and his colleagues started teaching programming to children and adults in These included "drill, skills practice, programmed and dialog tutorials, testing and diagnosis, simulation, gaming, information processing, computation, problem solving, model construction, graphic display, the management of instructional resources, and the presentation and display of materials. These included all student academic and personal data, all faculty data that dealt with courses and teaching, all course data in regards to student, faculty and class meeting times and days, enrollments, buildings, and the college calendar and catalog. There was also "an interaction course management system". He wrote a CAI Computer-Assisted Instruction module that, however crudely, used some of the principles discussed in this article. A frame, or paragraph of information, was presented, and the machine branched to different follow-up frames and questions depending on the response to the embedded questions. It proved useful; students could then use the software without close attendance by the instructor. This work was in no way as dramatic as the other accomplishments of the day, however it does show that by this time CAL was not restricted to studies of learning methods. Much of this is on its applicability to the "Virtual Classroom", including field trials in the s. The specifications for EIES 2 are particularly seminal â€" note in particular the material on roles, resources and hypertext. An "international school" was held in a remote Italian resort to explore the state of the art of computer-assisted instruction CAI. Direct connections with computers in Italy and the United States made it possible to demonstrate a variety of existing CAI systems. Papers describing the use of CAI in five sets of educational institutions were presented. The modified TICCIT system supports student terminals made of modified television sets providing text and graphics in seven colors, digital audio, and a video switching device to embed video into the computer generated instruction. A specialized keyboard allows students to control their own progress through the courseware, which includes both tutorials, drills, and testing. It emphasized unique audiovisual capabilities of the television set and light pens. The project ran until Development of the language Pop11 derived from the Edinburgh AI language Pop2 and its teaching tools starts at the University of Sussex. This later evolved into Poplog. There were similar developments under way in the US and France. Zinn at the University of Michigan describes computer-based conferencing, computer-based seminars, computer-assisted curriculum development, computer-based committees, and computer-based proposal preparation. The experiment allowed students in California and Toronto to interact via electronic classrooms. There is little trace of Cyclops now on the Open University web site. In it became divested from Legent. Similar developments were under way in France Teletel and Canada Telidon. Only those active at the time will remember the sense of euphoria and opening of possibilities in what would now be called the e-business and e-learning worlds. Sadly, the concept was premature, although in France it had most success. The intent was to demonstrate and develop educational applications for videotex and teletext systems. The Athabasca University educational Telidon project used a Unix path structure which allowed the

storage of information pages in the file system tree. This is now the universal storage method for pages on the internet. As described, the system had the ability to create separate user groups with different access privileges, and to implement "action scripts" to access system functions, including email and dynamic content generation. The AU system was described in Abell, R. Zinn in Educational Technology describes the uses of microcomputers at the University of Michigan. Uses included "word processing, extending laboratory experience, simulation, games, tutorial uses, and building skills in computing. One of the main motivations was its applicability to online learning. It was available via dial-up from home, and later in the s via telnet! There were individual user codes and passwords, giving different access rights; the one generic access code was regularly attacked by hackers even in these far-off days, as URLs still on the web attest. This book inspired a number of books and dissertations on "microworlds" and their impact on learning. Normand from the University of Montreal. Their system was programmed in BASIC , and used a computer to track documents, human resources, structured activities, and places for training and observation. Evaluation activities were also available in the system. Graduated groups of questions were generated according to individual indicators. Students went through the system at their own pace. The system could be accessed remotely by dial-up as a student or an instructor using a terminal emulator. The system had a sophisticated test bank capability and generated tests and practice activities based on a learning objective data structure.

Chapter 5 : History - Layers of Learning

History of Learning & Training. On-The-Job Training (OJT) Chinese Philosophy - 5th-century BC. Greek Philosophy-Socratic or Dialectic Method - BC.

Education in ancient civilization[edit] The development of writing[edit] Main article: History of Writing Starting in about B. In Egypt fully developed hieroglyphs were in use at Abydos as early as B. One hieroglyphic script was used on stone monuments, [4] other cursive scripts were used for writing in ink on papyrus , [4] a flexible, paper-like material, made from the stems of reeds that grow in marshes and beside rivers such as the River Nile. The Phoenician writing system was adapted from the Proto-Canaanite script in around the 11th century BC, which in turn borrowed ideas from Egyptian hieroglyphics. This script was adapted by the Greeks. A variant of the early Greek alphabet gave rise to the Etruscan alphabet , and its own descendants, such as the Latin alphabet. Other descendants from the Greek alphabet include the Cyrillic script , used to write Russian , among others. The Phoenician system was also adapted into the Aramaic script , from which the Hebrew script and also that of Arabic are descended. In China , the early oracle bone script has survived on tens of thousands of oracle bones dating from around B. Out of more than written characters in use in China in about BC, as many as are identifiable as the source of later standard Chinese characters. The earliest inscriptions which are identifiably Maya date to the 3rd century B. In Chinese civilization, in school the children were not allowed to scribble. They were not to write slanted or sloppy charterers. The Middle East[edit] Further information: In what became Mesopotamia , the early logographic system of cuneiform script took many years to master. Thus only a limited number of individuals were hired as scribes to be trained in its reading and writing. Only royal offspring and sons of the rich and professionals such as scribes, physicians, and temple administrators, were schooled. Later, when a syllabic script became more widespread, more of the Mesopotamian population became literate. Later still in Babylonian times there were libraries in most towns and temples; an old Sumerian proverb averred that "he who would excel in the school of the scribes must rise with the dawn. Vocabularies, grammars, and interlinear translations were compiled for the use of students, as well as commentaries on the older texts and explanations of obscure words and phrases. Massive archives of texts were recovered from the archaeological contexts of Old Babylonian scribal schools, through which literacy was disseminated. The Epic of Gilgamesh , an epic poem from Ancient Mesopotamia is among the earliest known works of literary fiction. Ashurbanipal â€" c. His youthful scholarly pursuits included oil divination, mathematics , reading and writing as well as the usual horsemanship , hunting , chariotry , soldierliness, craftsmanship , and royal decorum. During his reign he collected cuneiform texts from all over Mesopotamia, and especially Babylonia, in the library in Nineveh , the first systematically organized library in the ancient Middle East, [12] which survives in part today. In ancient Egypt , literacy was concentrated among an educated elite of scribes. Only people from certain backgrounds were allowed to train to become scribes, in the service of temple, pharaonic, and military authorities. The rate of literacy in Pharaonic Egypt during most periods from the third to first millennium BC has been estimated at not more than one percent, [13] or between one half of one percent and one percent. In 64 AD the high priest caused schools to be opened. For details of the subjects taught, see History of education in ancient Israel and Judah. Although girls were not provided with formal education in the yeshivah , they were required to know a large part of the subject areas to prepare them to maintain the home after marriage, and to educate the children before the age of seven. Despite this schooling system, it would seem that many children did not learn to read and write, because it has been estimated that "at least ninety percent of the Jewish population of Roman Palestine [in the first centuries AD] could merely write their own name or not write and read at all", [16] or that the literacy rate was about 3 percent. The first separate school was the Nizamiyah school. It was built in in Baghdad. The teaches of Quran the holy book of Muslims claims that Muslims should learn to read, write and explore the universe. Thus, education and schooling sprang up in the ancient Muslim societies. It was originally a mosque that was built in There is mention in the Veda of herbal medicines for various conditions or diseases, including fever, cough, baldness, snake bite and others. The Brahmans were given priority even

over Kshatriya as they would dedicate their whole lives to such studies. These texts encouraged an exploratory learning process where teachers and students were co-travellers in a search for truth. The teaching methods used reasoning and questioning. Nothing was labeled as the final answer. Education was free, but students from well-to-do families paid "Gurudakshina," a voluntary contribution after the completion of their studies. Two epic poems formed part of ancient Indian education. The other epic poem, Ramayana , is shorter, although it has 24, verses. It is thought to have been compiled between about BC and AD. The epic explores themes of human existence and the concept of dharma. History of education in China and History of education in Taiwan During the Zhou dynasty BC to BC , there were five national schools in the capital city, Pi Yong an imperial school, located in a central location and four other schools for the aristocrats and nobility, including Shang Xiang. The schools mainly taught the Six Arts: According to the Book of Rites , at age twelve, boys learned arts related to ritual i. Girls learned ritual, correct deportment, silk production and weaving. Confucius BC â€" BC founder of Confucianism , was a Chinese philosopher who made a great impact on later generations of Chinese, and on the curriculum of the Chinese educational system for much of the following years. Later, during the Qin dynasty â€" BC , a hierarchy of officials was set up to provide central control over the outlying areas of the empire. To enter this hierarchy, both literacy and knowledge of the increasing body of philosophy was required: By the end of the Han dynasty AD the Academy enrolled more than 30, students, boys between the ages of fourteen and seventeen years. However education through this period was a luxury. Theoretically, local government authorities were given the task of selecting talented candidates, then categorizing them into nine grades depending on their abilities. In practice, however, only the rich and powerful would be selected. Education in ancient Greece and Education in ancient Rome In the city-states of ancient Greece , most education was private, except in Sparta. For example, in Athens, during the 5th and 4th century BC, aside from two years military training, the state played little part in schooling. Parents could choose a school offering the subjects they wanted their children to learn, at a monthly fee they could afford. At writing school, the youngest students learned the alphabet by song, then later by copying the shapes of letters with a stylus on a waxed wooden tablet. After some schooling, the sons of poor or middle-class families often learnt a trade by apprenticeship, whether with their father or another tradesman. The richest students continued their education by studying with sophists, from whom they could learn subjects such as rhetoric, mathematics, geography, natural history, politics, and logic. The education system of the wealthy ancient Greeks is also called Paideia. In the subsequent Roman empire, Greek was the primary language of science. Advanced scientific research and teaching was mainly carried on in the Hellenistic side of the Roman empire, in Greek. The education system in the Greek city-state of Sparta was entirely different, designed to create warriors with complete obedience, courage, and physical perfection. At the age of seven, boys were taken away from their homes to live in school dormitories or military barracks. There they were taught sports, endurance and fighting, and little else, with harsh discipline. Most of the population was illiterate. The literacy rate in the 3rd century BC has been estimated as around one percent to two percent. Formal schools were established, which served paying students very little in the way of free public education as we know it can be found. The educator Quintilian recognized the importance of starting education as early as possible, noting that "memory â€¦ not only exists even in small children, but is specially retentive at that age". Only the Roman elite would expect a complete formal education. A tradesman or farmer would expect to pick up most of his vocational skills on the job. Higher education in Rome was more of a status symbol than a practical concern. Literacy rates in the Greco-Roman world were seldom more than 20 percent; averaging perhaps not much above 10 percent in the Roman empire, though with wide regional variations, probably never rising above 5 percent in the western provinces. The literate in classical Greece did not much exceed 5 percent of the population. Prior to their formal establishment, many medieval universities were run for hundreds of years as Christian monastic schools Scholae monasticae , in which monks taught classes, and later as cathedral schools ; evidence of these immediate forerunners of the later university at many places dates back to the early 6th century. Students in the twelfth-century were very proud of the master whom they studied under. They were not very concerned with telling others the place or region where they received their education. Even now when scholars cite schools with distinctive doctrines, they use group names to describe the school rather than its geographical

location. Those who studied under Robert of Melun were called the Meludinenses. These people did not study in Melun , but in Paris, and were given the group name of their master. Citizens in the twelfth-century became very interested in learning the rare and difficult skills masters could provide. Monasteries were built all over Ireland and these became centres of great learning see Celtic Church. Northumbria was famed as a centre of religious learning and arts. Initially the kingdom was evangelized by monks from the Celtic Church , which led to a flowering of monastic life, and Northumbria played an important role in the formation of Insular art , a unique style combining Anglo-Saxon, Celtic , Byzantine and other elements. After the Synod of Whitby in AD, Roman church practices officially replaced the Celtic ones but the influence of the Anglo-Celtic style continued, the most famous examples of this being the Lindisfarne Gospels. The Venerable Bede wrote his Historia ecclesiastica gentis Anglorum Ecclesiastical History of the English People, completed in in a Northumbrian monastery, and much of it focuses on the kingdom. Brought into contact with the culture and learning of other countries through his vast conquests, Charlemagne greatly increased the provision of monastic schools and scriptoria centres for book-copying in Francia. Most of the surviving works of classical Latin were copied and preserved by Carolingian scholars. Charlemagne took a serious interest in scholarship, promoting the liberal arts at the court, ordering that his children and grandchildren be well-educated, and even studying himself under the tutelage of Paul the Deacon, from whom he learned grammar, Alcuin, with whom he studied rhetoric, dialect and astronomy he was particularly interested in the movements of the stars , and Einhard, who assisted him in his studies of arithmetic. After the decline of the Carolingian dynasty, the rise of the Saxon Dynasty in Germany was accompanied by the Ottonian Renaissance. Cambridge and many other universities were founded at this time. Cathedral schools and monasteries remained important throughout the Middle Ages; at the Third Lateran Council of the Church mandated that priests provide the opportunity of a free education to their flocks, and the 12th and 13th century renascence known as the Scholastic Movement was spread through the monasteries. These however ceased to be the sole sources of education in the 11th century when universities , which grew out of the monasticism began to be established in major European cities.

Chapter 6 : History of education - Wikipedia

History of Learning Theories. Generally, learning theories develop explanation, hypotheses and statement about how people learn, which is defined as a process that involves acquiring and modifying knowledge, skills, strategies, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors (Schunk,).

For example, in most school districts in the United States, state, national, or world history is taught in grades four through six, grade eight, and at several points in high school. In England, history forms the backbone of the social studies curriculum from primary through secondary schools. History is also a curriculum staple in continental European countries, among post-Soviet republics, in China, and in such places as post-apartheid South Africa. History in the school curriculum has not been without a number of recurrent debates and controversies. Many of them stem from disputes over the goals and purposes school history should serve e. Other issues arise in connection with questions about how, from the vastness of history itself, to define what constitutes historically significant events that should be taught. The proper role of integrating social science disciplines e. Finally, various parties argue over maintaining a relative balance between transmitting historical knowledge derived from the work of historians and teaching students to learn to think and investigate the past the way historians do. Taking time to do both often creates time-use dilemmas within an already surfeited school curricula. Political Socialization of Historical Thinking and Understanding The interest in securing a firm place for history in the curriculum frequently stems from its sociopolitical uses. This is especially true in the teaching of national histories. As George Orwell reminded readers in his book, , control of the present and the future depends in good measure on control over the past. Perhaps no other school subject serves this political socialization purpose more than the study of history. As political parties change or revolutions occur, new regimes attempt to rewrite history in general, and school history in particular, in order to cast themselves and their new politics and policies in a favorable light. Those disempowered by political change often resist such efforts to recast the past. Various groups use history in an effort to shape or reshape the nationalist identities of youth around whatever the prevailing view privileged by those in power is at any given time. In post-Soviet eastern European countries, for example, a major educational agenda has been to rewrite history textbooks and reconfigure the history curriculum since Prior to the mids, little systematic research had been done on how history was taught in schools and what students learned from studying it. Since then, there has been a surge of interest in studying school history teaching and its learning outcomes, particularly among researchers in England and in North America. As a result, a sizable body of scholarship has emerged. Much of it challenges the practice of using school history to advance sociopolitical ends. History education researchers have attempted to divert the teaching of history away from an exercise in socializing students to particular partisan views; instead suggesting the aim of history as an investigation of the past and the social world. In other words, it is likely that in history classrooms teachers would lecture or tell stories about the past via lessons drawn from textbooks sanctioned by those in political control. Research bears out this image. For much of the past century, the teaching of history in schools in many places around the world has been dominated by textbook recitations and teacher lectures or storytelling. This has been especially true in the United States. There have been moments of change is these traditional practices such as during the "New Social Studies" movement in the United States during the s and early s. During this period, historians and social scientists constructed curriculum units that were designed to assist students in learning more about how historical knowledge was constructed in the discipline. Teachers were to guide students in the process of investigating the past via study of primary sources, much the way historians do. However, such efforts to promote pedagogical and curricular change in history typically have not had lasting effects in the United States, and the traditional lecture-textbook-recitation-recall approach has remained dominant. In England, the Schools Council History project had more lasting results. Educational and instructional changes there during the s and s in some ways mirrored the efforts of historians working under the auspices of the New Social Studies in the United States. The goal was for teachers to learn to teach students the reasoning process of historical investigators. Not only were students to study important ideas in English history, but also to learn

how to read primary sources, judge their status relative to other sources, draw inferences about the past from them, and construct historical accounts of their own making. Research on the results of approaching history that way were generally favorable, indicating that students typically progressed in their capacity to learn to think historically as modeled by experts in the discipline itself. Data also indicated that students developed deeper understandings of English history. The project largely succeeded in changing the way teachers taught history because teacher educators and teachers along with education researchers were all involved in changing pedagogical and curricular practices. In the Thatcher government attempted to reverse this trend. Alarmed that children in British schools, in their view, were not receiving adequate instruction in the stories of British national and international successes, the education establishment mandated significant changes in the British national history curriculum. Those changes called for more emphasis on teaching stories drawn, for example, from the days of the British empire. Less stress was to be placed on teaching historical-reasoning processes. The changes brought on by the Schools Council project and by the work of teacher educators and researchers however, had been institutionalized in many places. Reverting back to teaching history in lecture-textbook-recitation fashion became difficult. Cognitive scientists interested in history education and researchers in general who study how history is taught and to what result stress the importance of teaching history more closely aligned with the way in which history operates as a distinctive discipline. Those who are more interested in the power of using history to forge particular nationalist identities among youth remain skeptical of teaching history as an exercise in educating thinking processes and critical habits of mind. Generally, they prefer an approach that favors transmission of favored views of the past via lectures and textbook recitations, and a focus on stories that celebrate chosen accomplishments and historical successes. Historical Significance The debates about the purposes, goals, and uses of school history are exacerbated by the problem of choosing what constitutes historically significant events worth teaching. The very breadth and vastness of the past from which school history lessons must be chosen coupled with the finiteness of the school day and the press for curricular room by other subjects makes this issue difficult. It would be convenient if those who devise the history curriculum in the schools could turn to the discipline and to historians for help in addressing which events and historical actors of significance to choose. The debate within the discipline over what constitutes historical significance is perhaps even more intense than in school history. This has been especially true since about and advent of postmodernism with its deep skepticism about the veracity of Western knowledge-production projects rooted in the scientific method. The issue of historical significance has been further exacerbated by the multiculturalization of many Western societies, rendering questions about "whose" history to teach as important as "which" history. The problem of defining historical significance leaves history teachers, curriculum designers, educational policymakers, and politicians without much firm ground upon which to anchor their decisions about which or whose history to teach. The inability to resolve this issue, however, gives history education researchers some support in their efforts to press the importance of teaching history primarily as an exercise in habits of mind. Debates between advocates for the importance of subjects other than history can have the effect of reducing the time teaching history might otherwise have in the overall school curriculum. To the extent that politicians exercise greater control of textbooks and history curriculum and assessment approaches e. History taught as historical reasoning and understanding tends to languish in the context of overabundant time pressures. Interdisciplinarity In some countries, educational policymakers and curriculum developers see the teaching of history as an opportunity to integrate the social science disciplines into history syllabi. Issues arise over the right mix and relationships of such disciplines as geography and political science to the teaching of history. Some express concern that such interdisciplinary approaches effectively water down the actual teaching of history, reduce its value for students, and contribute to confusion about how to conduct appropriate assessments of student learning. Others argue that history already draws from the social science disciplines; therefore, calling attention to its interdisciplinarity makes good sense, opening up learning opportunities for students. Much like the controversies over historical significance, this issue of interdisciplinarity has not been resolved. The time factor also plays a role in this debate. Assessments The aforementioned issues and debates also intersect with questions about how to properly assess what students learn from being taught history. During the last quarter

of the twentieth century, many Western countries moved closer to centralizing assessment practices in many school subjects including history. What consequences these tests hold vary from county to country. In the Unites States, a national test of history learning the National Assessment of Educational Progress, or NAEP, which also tests other subject learning as well was developed in the s. As of this test was voluntary and was considered to hold low stakes for participants. Congress is engaged in a debate to make the NAEP a required national test, thus making it a high-stakes test with sanctions and resource allocations related to outcomes. Between the late s and the history portion of the NAEP was given three times. During the administrations of George Bush and Bill Clinton, the data suggested that students in grades four, eight, and twelve recalled low to moderate levels of historical knowledge about the United States. Based on the growing number of in-depth studies of teaching and learning history, educational researchers such as Linda Levstik countered with the claim that more history, particularly if taught as lecture and textbook recitation, would do little to solve the problem. Reminiscent of the debates described above, the U. This debate over the most productive pedagogical approach to teaching history e.

Chapter 7 : Learn Our Historyâ€”American History Video Lessons For Kids

The conference articulated the cornerstones on which the field of Learning Disabilities is based. The underlying assumptions put forth provided the frameworks for legislation, theories, diagnostic procedures, educational practices, research and training models.

In recent years, the idea of building a "learning organization" has gained currency in management circles. Many senior managers, in particular, have come to recognize that, with the right approach to collective learning, their enterprises can continually gain new talents and capabilities even as they weather the vicissitudes of fate. Managers in middle levels, meanwhile, have embraced the "learning organization" idea because it encourages people to follow their own aspirations and, in the process, boost organizational performance. This implies that people can reclaim a little bit of the spirit of community and personal involvement that has been leached out of conventional business decision-making. But even the most fervent "learning organization" enthusiasts have difficulty demonstrating a link between organizational learning efforts and key business results. The same is true for other types of "change" and "transformation" efforts. Executives authorize millions of dollars for organizational learning, reengineering, re-invention, or quality improvement -- and then grapple unsuccessfully with the problem of assessing their investment. Assessment is also vital for the participants in learning efforts. They need to judge the value of their past experience, if only to help their organizations move forward and to develop their judgment and skills further. Moreover, the rest of the company also needs to understand the experience of its learning efforts to date. They will, after all, need to build upon that experience. How do they replicate the first successes, and avoid repeating the first mistakes? How do they spread the sense of potential achievement through the rest of the organization? How do they overcome the disdain for anything "not invented in our part of the company"? Companies have found it notoriously difficult to institutionalize the learning of its subgroups, to help the rest of the organization develop. Finally, successful learning efforts generally require people to rise above their conventional blinders to add new ways of thinking and new forms of behavior to their repertoire. But these sorts of changes are misunderstood. To really make sense of a learning effort, people throughout the organization need to see it through the various perspectives of people who have been involved with it firsthand ,so that they can come to terms with it based on actual data not just on the gossip that reaches them , and make sense of it in a way that is credible to them. In short, when an organization has been through a learning or change process, people throughout the organization need a feedback process that can provide guidance and support Yet reacting to the pressure of assessing learning can easily undermine any learning effort. As people become aware of being assessed and measured, the intrinsic motivation which drove them to learn is supplanted by an extrinsically motivated desire to look successful. Learning histories were invented in response to these concerns and needs. A "learning history" is a document,or a series of documents, possibly in audiovisual form ,that is disseminated in a deliberately structured manner. The document, and the dissemination, are both designed to help organizations become better aware of their own learning and change efforts. The learning history presents the experiences and understandings of participants ,people who initiated, implemented and participated in organizational transformation efforts, or some collaborative learning experience ,as well as non-participants who were affected by these efforts. The history includes reports of actions and results. It shows readers how learning is an approach to get what they want, and it illustrates how others have achieved the results they wanted. The history also includes descriptions of learning methods and techniques ,the intent, tools, and design of an intervention. In this way, the unwritten but powerful tacit knowledge and undiscussable myths are brought to surface, codified, and turned into a knowledge base. People can test their understandings against the perspective of others, without having to be in the same room at the same time. The history includes the perspectives of a variety of people including people who did not support the effort. No individual view, not even that of top managers, can encompass more than a fraction of what actually happens in a real organization, and this reality is reflected in the learning history. Learning history work goes beyond writing a history that documents a project. It is a critical element in developing an organizational infrastructure to support learning.

Its research, distillation and dissemination processes are designed to create new opportunities for organizational learning. A learning history document becomes an artifact which is then used as a piece of directly observable data which becomes the basis for individuals, a team and an organization to share a common, collective history of what happened in the past, build on the learning of others, and have a new kind of conversation that helps them to move forward in their own learning process. Learning history practice provides a philosophical and methodological basis for addressing issues related to how we measure and assess organizational learning. The learning history draws upon established theories, techniques, and skills of action science intervention, oral history, anthropology, sociology, literature, and theater. The integration of these theories and techniques, using a philosophy consistent with organizational learning principles, is what makes learning histories unique. The value of a learning history Most learning history projects begin with three questions: But if they have not learned to listen, then history is destined to repeat itself. These days, people in most organizations have been involved in change efforts, transformations, learning initiatives and innovative breakthroughs. They know the pitfalls that befell them, the value of their experiments and how the rest of the organization could benefit from their experience. However, they lack a way to reflect on their story collaboratively, talk about it effectively, consider its implications, and communicate its "learnings" to others. How do we keep from making the same mistakes over and over and over again To instill organizational learning requires a deliberate attempt to institutionalize reflection in organizations as whole entities. Somehow, brilliant components and skeptical overseers must be given a channel for engaging each other thoughtfully and productively. Reflection is rarely put into practice in business, because organizations are not equipped for it. For one thing, the time pressures of corporate life mean that there is no slack built in to the typical management process. Managers act collaboratively, but they lack the time to make sense collaboratively of their actions. Instead, they are continually pressed to skip directly into more action. Moreover, reflection requires the difficult and often counter-intuitive task of building self-awareness. Most managers have little experience with inquiring openly into the successes and mistakes of the past. They face overwhelming temptation to cover up such inquiries, because there is generally an organizational norm, or an unspoken agreement: Confrontational issues like mistakes are not meant to be discussed. And, as Chris Argyris has noted, this unwillingness to discuss tough issues is, itself, undiscussable as well. A manager who tries to "swim upstream" and reflect collaboratively on past mistakes might be labeled a complainer; and even the attempt to protest the label will be discounted as complaining. The manager is placed in a terrible double bind. In the absence of reflection, the organization looks elsewhere for its assessments. Outside consultants or "expert" staff members interview some employees and present back the results as a set of "answers. The people of most large organizations already know what they need to hear without a cadre of experts to intermediate. Each member of the organization knows some aspect of the pitfalls that have befallen them, the ways in which the organization creates its own problems, the impacts of changed policies, and the means by which the enterprise could move forward into the future. They simply lack the opportunity to reflect on their experience together, and make sense out of the total experience of which each member holds a part. Learning histories are labor-intensive, and can be expensive. It might take person-days to conduct those interviews, distill them, and present the results in a document and workshops. This is significantly more expensive than a survey, but it should be seen in the context of a transformational effort that costs tens of millions of dollars. Without the learning history, there may be no effective way to judge the effectiveness of that much larger investment. Furthermore, a learning history project provides several benefits that a survey does not: It is a process, not just a product. The work does not end with the written document; indeed, the final dissemination effort is as carefully planned and implemented as any other part of the work. The learning history process establishes a vehicle for reflection in all of its stages, from the interviews to the final workshops. Surveys tend to produce a set of "answers" that are endorsed or not endorsed by senior management. The learning history creates a reflective experience that encourages people to make up their own minds; it involves people throughout the company in thinking about the past in a way that helps plan for the future. Surveys translate qualitative experiences into quantitative data. In doing so, they distort the experience and inevitably lose credibility and focus. The learning history work trains a core group of internal people in the methods of

reflective interviewing, distillation, and even writing, and brings them up to speed in an overview of the existing transformation process. It starts a "buzz" going throughout the company, as people start to make sense of the new "mythic" stories that the learning history generates. Learning histories make use of the skepticism that exists in organizations, by reproducing it faithfully in the context of both collective aspirations and current reality. This helps build judgment among both of them. Instead of merely copying the best practices of others, people who read learning histories are now equipped to develop their own best practices. The process builds actionable knowledge among organizations. Learning histories have existed, in the form developed here, for less than three years, but a body of "results" is beginning to emerge. At one corporation AutoCo, a large automobile company , learning histories are credited with helping preserve the innovations of one key car launch team, so that other teams could build on their experience. At a manufacturing facility, the opportunity to see their story told in learning history form has been a significant morale and involvement factor ,especially since the plant is being spun off from the parent company, and its managers and workers must develop their own organizational identity. It will be produced in book form next year. There is reason to believe that others will follow, and that the growing body of data will comprise a rich source of generalizable knowledge that spans organizational boundaries. Each one has its own chapter in this Field Manual. Determining the boundaries The planning stage delineates the range and scope of the project. It is conducted, typically, by a learning history advisory team, composed of the external team leaders and a group of "champions" within the company ,people who are willing to invest some effort in helping a learning history take root. This planning phase includes identifying "noticeable results: It also involves recruiting internal learning historians, and establishing the primary audience, audience, the scope of the inquiry, and the specific questions that must be addressed. This planning stage is not just a crucial logistic phase, but a key avenue of reflective participation. Interviews and data gathering The internal and external historians conduct reflective interview conversations with participants in the original learning effort along with key outsiders, such as suppliers, contractors, and consultants , taking pains to gather perspective from every significant point of view. Between 50 and people may be interviewed, depending on the scope of the inquiry. These interviews involve skill development for the internal interviewers, reflective opportunities for the interviewees, and information gathering for the entire project. Thus, the interviews build reflective capacity in the organization ,both for the learning historian and for the interviewee, who may never have had an opportunity to ruminate at work, at length, about his or her experience. This stage may also involve other forms of research, including observations, examination of documents, etc. Establishing key themes and "plots" From the mass of data interviews, observations, field notes, and documents , the internal and external learning historians cull meaningful themes, systemic understandings, and implications. This also builds analytic and synthesizing skills for internal learning historians. We have chosen the word "distill" carefully to convey the essence of this activity ,taking volumes of data from interviews, and then rectifying, purifying and refining the "raw data" into a form which the organization can hear. In this distillation effort, we balance our "research" imperative ,to keep our conclusions clearly rooted in the data ,with the "mythic" imperative ,to tell an archetypally moving story with the "pragmatic" imperative ,to tell the story in a way that it can be effectively read, heard and discussed in organizations.

Chapter 8 : History of Learning Styles | Synonym

The Blended Learning History. In order to create a successful blended learning strategy, it's wise to learn as much as possible about its key ideas and values.

You realize that the flexibility of the classes will help alleviate your tight schedule, and saving on your commute means a little extra money for shopping! You begin to wonder who created this marvelous invention. Believe it or not, distance learning was not developed when universities received access to the Internet. Though there is some discrepancy when determining the origins of distance learning, there are countless sources informing what happened next! When did it Start? Some sources trace distance learning as far back at the s. Soon after this time, distance education was practiced through a method called correspondence education. This form of education grew without bounds, and swept across countries. The process was very slow and could take several weeks for a response from the instructor. Pitman would mail text on postcards to students, and students would mail their assignments back to him. Correspondence courses continued to catch on, and the Museum of Distance Education timeline reveals that , in , the University of London became the first college to offer distance learning degrees. Radio, Television, and Development As time went on, technological advances played a pivotal role in distance education. The introduction of the radio allowed universities to broadcast information and courses to students. The difficulty with these methods, however, was that they are one-way forms of communication. Pupils were not able to ask the professors questions or interact with other students, because everything was broadcasted directly to them. Learning from Home These methods continued into the mid-century years. It might be hard to believe, but credible degrees were attainable through these televised courses. Even the traditional housewife was able to find time in her day to begin learning university-level concepts and ideas without leaving home. This allowed students to communicate with one another and their professors, so that they learned interactively, rather than just being taught passively. As you can see, even big brands started to get involved with distance learning, allowing their employees to participate in virtual classes. Distance learning had greatly developed by the s through use of satellite virtual classrooms, mobile telephones, videoconferencing, and the Internet. Today and Beyond The journey of distance learning continues into the 21st century. Thankfully, distance learning has moved beyond one-sided communication. Today, distance learning is referred to as online education. Ask any college student you know, and you will see how integrated online courses have become. Most students today have taken or are currently enrolled in at least one online class. Students can take these courses to learn more about certain topics, but they do not receive credit for these courses. Even cell phone applications, such as iTunes U, allow students to enroll in non-credit courses on the go! The evolution of distance learning continues thanks to technology. How You Can Learn, Too! If you are ready to get your mind working, apply today! Works Cited Crotty, James Marshall. Forbes Magazine, 14 Nov. Distance Education Foundaton, n. Forbes Magazine, 12 Feb. University of Florida, n. Foundations of Distance Education. Forbes Magazine, 30 July A Critical History of Distance Education. The Open University,

Chapter 9 : History of e-Learning

A (Very) Brief History of Learning Theory Slideshare uses cookies to improve functionality and performance, and to provide you with relevant advertising. If you continue browsing the site, you agree to the use of cookies on this website.

Learning from History "â€¦can we possibly refuse to admit that there exist in each of us the same generic parts and characteristics as are found in the state? For I presume the state has not received them from any other source. It would be ridiculous to imagine that the presence of the spirited element in cities is not to be traced to individuals, wherever this character is imputed to the people, as it is to the natives of Thrace, and Scythia, and generally speaking, of the northern countries; or the love of knowledge, which would be chiefly attributed to our own country; or the love of riches, which people would especially connect with the Phoenicians and the Egyptians. Some of those would be more practically useful, in terms of contributing to the normal and decent functioning of well-meaning societies than others. The selection soon continues with other quotations where such seriously famous observers as Edmund Burke, David Hume, Immanuel Kant, Ralph Waldo Emerson and Machiavelli present views that very directly suggest that learning deep lessons from history is both possible and desirable. Our overview of this learning from history may not so much explicitly focus importance on the broader range of past mistakes of history, of which there are many, as learning useful lessons about - The Human Condition AND Social Change. This can show, through cautionary examples, how past mistakes and serious misjudgements have arisen from time to time disrupting the normal and decent functioning of would-be well-meaning societies. But what experience and history teach is this - that people and governments never have learned anything from history, or acted on principles deduced from it. Each period is involved in such peculiar circumstances, exhibits a condition of things so strictly idiosyncratic, that its conduct must be regulated by considerations connected with itself, and itself alone. Hegel "We learn from history that we learn nothing from history. In any future great national trial, compared with the men of this, we shall have as weak and as strong, as silly and as wise, as bad and as good. Let us therefore study the incidents in this as philosophy to learn wisdom from and none of them as wrongs to be avenged. The value of history, then, is that it teaches us what man has done and thus what man is. Collingwood "Mankind are so much the same, in all times and places, that history informs us of nothing new or strange in this particular. Its chief use is only to discover the constant and universal principles of human nature. What is the stuff of which it is made? Who is the personage of history? There are many different elements in history. Evidently again, the elements of human nature. History is therefore the development of humanity, and of humanity only; for nothing else but humanity develops itself, for nothing else than humanity is free. Moreover, when we have all the elements, I mean all the essential elements, their mutual relations do, as it were, discover themselves. We draw from the nature of these different elements, if not all their possible relations, at least their general and fundamental relations. Victor Cousin Introduction to the History of Philosophy Ralph Waldo Emerson, alike with very many of the thinking persons living in the USA in the eighteen-thirties who had the inclination and leisure time to interest themselves in ideas, was greatly influenced by the works of Victor Cousin! Journal entry of December, Our neighbours are occupied with employments of infinite diversity. Some are intent on commercial speculations; some engage warmly in political contention; some are found all day long at their books â€¦ This dates from January - February, A "Human Tripartism" from the Great Faiths, Plato, Socrates, Pythagoras, and Shakespeare!!! Ralph Waldo Emerson wrote that: According to the seriously influential philosopher Immanuel Kant, in his brief work entitled "Idea for a Universal History from a Cosmopolitan Point of View": However obscure their causes, history, which is concerned with narrating these appearances, permits us to hope that if we attend to the play of freedom of the human will in the large, we may be able to discern a regular movement in it, and that what seems complex and chaotic in the single individual may be seen from the standpoint of the human race as a whole to be a steady and progressive though slow evolution of its original endowment. A man is a bundle of relations, a knot of roots, whose flower and fruitage is the world. His faculties refer to natures out of him, and predict the world he is to inhabit, as the fins of the fish foreshow that water exists, or the wings of an eagle in the egg presuppose air. He cannot live without a world. Of the

works of this mind history is the record. Man is explicable by nothing less than all his history. All the facts of history pre-exist as laws. Each law in turn is made by circumstances predominant. The creation of a thousand forests is in one acorn, and Egypt, Greece, Rome, Gaul, Britain, America, lie folded already in the first man. Epoch after epoch, camp, kingdom, empire, republic, democracy, are merely the application of this manifold spirit to the manifold world. This arises from the fact that they are produced by men who ever have been, and ever shall be, animated by the same passions, and thus they necessarily have the same results. The events of display the existence and latent power of many societal pressures which have subsequently fully contributed to the "Emergence of Modernity" in the Western world. Prior to the existence of these societal pressures was often unsuspected or ignored, - their latent power was certainly vastly unappreciated. The European Revolutions of In February , the British historian Lewis Namier delivered a lecture commemorating the centennial of the European Revolutions of In this lecture Namier presented facts about the historical developments, themes, and events evident in and reached the conclusion that: It crystallized ideas and projected the pattern of things to come; it determined the course of the following century. Learning lessons of history can surely be seen as a pressing necessity in the hope of yielding up some guidlines for the adoption of practical policies intended to enhance the possibility for the lessening of injustices and for the avoidance of conflict. We would hope that our coverage of this "dramatic historical watershed" will provide something of a persuasive outline as to how it came about that the Dynastic Europe of came to undergo those sweeping changes which have tended to produce the populist Europe of Modern Times! The European political map above, agreed at the Congress of Vienna of , saw some changes, principally due to the emergence of Belgium and Greece , before the widespread Revolutions of