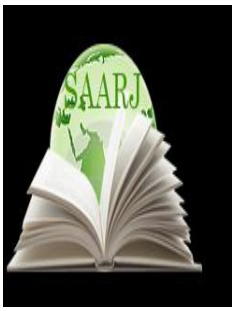

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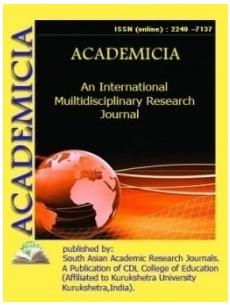

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FORMATION OF STUDENTS' MEDIA COMPETENCE ON THE BASIS OF SUPERVISORY METHODS (ON THE EXAMPLE OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE)

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ABSTRACT

This article describes briefly the history, formation and application of supervision of instruction and ultimate goal of supervision of classroom instruction on the basis of English language. Supervision, as a field of education practice with clearly delineated roles and responsibilities, did not fall from the sky fully formed. Rather, supervision emerged slowly as a distinct practice, always in relation to the institutional, academic, cultural, and professional dynamics that have historically generated the complex agenda of schooling.

KEYWORDS: *Supervision, Field of Educational Practice, Roles and Responsibilities, Formation of Media Competence, English Language.*

INTRODUCTION

Supervision, as a field of education practice with clearly delineated roles and responsibilities, did not fall from the sky fully formed. Rather, supervision emerged slowly as a distinct practice, always in relation to the institutional, academic, cultural, and professional dynamics that have historically generated the complex agenda of schooling.

In colonial New England, supervision of instruction began as a process of external inspection: one or more local citizens were appointed to inspect both what the teachers were teaching and what the students were learning. The inspection theme was to remain firmly in the practice of supervision.

The supervision of instruction is by design a developmental process with the main purpose of improving the instructional program, generally and teaching, specifically. ...

The supervisory function is best utilized as a continuous process rather than one that responds only to personnel problems.

What is the ultimate goal of supervision of classroom instruction? The improvement of teaching and learning is the general purpose of supervision. A basic premise of supervision is that a teacher's instructional behavior affects student learning. An examination of instructional behaviors can lead to improvement in teaching and learning.

MAIN PART

The history of supervision as a formal activity exercised by educational administrators within a system of schools did not begin until the formation of the common school in the late 1830s. During the first half of the nineteenth century, population growth in the major cities of the United States necessitated the formation of city school systems. While superintendents initially inspected schools to see that teachers were following the prescribed curriculum and that students were able to recite their lessons, the multiplication of schools soon made this an impossible task for superintendents and the job was delegated to the school principal. In the early decades of the twentieth century, the movement toward scientific management in both industrial and public administration had an influence on schools. At much the same time, child-centered and experienced-based curriculum theories of European educators such as Friedrich Froebel, Johann Pestalozzi, and Johann Herbart, as well as the prominent American philosopher John Dewey, were also affecting the schools. Thus, school supervisors often found themselves caught between the demand to evaluate teachers scientifically and the simultaneous need to transform teaching from a mechanistic repetition of teaching protocols to a diverse repertory of instructional responses to students' natural curiosity and diverse levels of readiness. This tension between supervision as a uniform, scientific approach to teaching and supervision as a flexible, dialogic process between teacher and supervisor involving the shared, professional discretion of both was to continue throughout the century.

In the second half of the century the field of supervision became closely identified with various forms of clinical supervision. Initially developed by Harvard professors Morris Cogan and Robert Anderson and their graduate students, many of whom subsequently became professors of supervision in other universities, clinical supervision blended elements of "objective" and "scientific" classroom observation with aspects of collegial coaching, rational planning, and a flexible, inquiry-based concern with student learning. In 1969 Robert Goldhammer proposed the following five-stage process in clinical supervision: (1) a pre-observation conference between supervisor and teacher concerning elements of the lesson to be observed; (2) classroom observation; (3) a supervisor's analysis of notes from the observation, and planning for the post-observation conference;(4) a post-observation conference between supervisor and teacher; and (5) a supervisor's analysis of the post-observation conference. For many practitioners, these stages were reduced to three: the pre-observation conference, the observation, and the post-observation conference. Cogan insisted on a collegial relationship focused on the teacher's interest in improving student learning, and on a nonjudgmental observation and inquiry process.

The initial practice of clinical supervision, however, soon had to accommodate perspectives coming out of the post-*Sputnik* curriculum reforms of the 1960s that focused on the structures of the academic disciplines. Shortly thereafter, perspectives generated by research on *effective schools* and *effective classrooms* that purported to have discovered the basic steps to effective

teaching colonized the clinical supervision process. It was during this period that noted educator Madeline Hunter adapted research findings from the psychology of learning and introduced what was also to become a very popular, quasi-scientific approach to effective teaching in the 1970s and 1980s. These various understandings of curriculum and teaching were frequently superimposed on the three-to five-stage process of clinical supervision and became normative for supervisors' work with teachers. Nevertheless, in many academic circles the original dialogic and reflective process of Cogan and Goldhammer continued as the preferred process of supervision. This original process of supervision has been subsequently embraced by advocates of peer supervision and collegial-teacher leadership through action research in classrooms. Despite the obvious appeal of clinical supervision in its various forms, it is time-consuming and labor-intensive, rendering it impossible to use on any regular basis given the large number of teachers that supervisors are expected to supervise (in addition to their other administrative responsibilities).

Recognizing the time restraints of practicing supervisors, and wanting to honor the need to promote the growth of teachers, Thomas Sergiovanni and Robert Starratt suggested, in 1998, the creation of a supervisory system with multiple processes of supervision, including summative evaluation. Such a system would not require the direct involvement of a formal supervisor for every teacher every year. The supervisory system might cycle teachers with professional status through a three-to five-year period, during which they would receive a formal evaluation once and a variety of other evaluative processes during the other years (e.g., self-evaluation, peer supervision, curriculum development, action research on new teaching strategies, involvement in a school renewal project). The once-a-cycle formal evaluation would require evidence of professional growth. Sergiovanni and Starratt also attempted to open the work of supervision to intentional involvement with the schoolwide renewal agenda, thus placing all stimuli toward professional growth–including the supervisory system–within that larger context.

ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES OF SUPERVISORS

Since supervision is an activity that is part of so many different roles, a few distinctions are in order. First, there are university-based supervisors of undergraduate students in teacher education programs who supervise the activities of novice teachers. Next, a principal or assistant principal may be said to conduct general supervision–as distinct from the more specific, subject-matter supervision conducted by a high school department chair. Other professional personnel involved in supervisory roles include cluster coordinators, lead teachers, mentors, peer coaches and peer supervisors, curriculum specialists, project directors, trainers, program evaluators, and district office administrators. Unfortunately, these professionals, more often than not, carry on their supervisory work without having any professional preparation for it, finding by trial and error what seems to work for them.

Principals not only supervise teachers, but also monitor the work of counselors, librarians, health personnel, secretaries, custodians, bus drivers, and other staff who work in or around the school. This work requires as much diplomacy, sensitivity, and humanity as the supervision of teachers, although it tends to be neglected entirely in the literature. In their everyday contact with students, all of these support personnel may teach multiple, important lessons about the integrity of various kinds of work, about civility and etiquette, and about basic social behavior.

Principals and assistant principals also supervise the work and the behavior of students in the school. As the relationships between students become more governed by legal restrictions–including definitions of racial, ethnic, and sexual harassment, of due process, of privacy and free speech rights–and as the incidents of physical violence, bullying, carrying of weapons to school, and the extreme cases of students killing other students increase, this aspect of supervision becomes increasingly complex. Many system and local school administrators have developed a comprehensive system of low visibility, and restrained security-oriented supervision that anticipates various responses to inappropriate behavior.

Unfortunately, many have not attended to the corresponding need to build a nurturing system of pastoral supervision that sets guidelines for the adults in the school in order for them to build sensitive relationships of trust, care, support, and compassion with the students. This more pastoral approach to student supervision will lessen, though not eliminate, the need for other security-conscious types of supervision.

Supervisors usually wear two or three other hats, but their specific responsibilities tend to include some or all of the following arranged in ascending order of scope or reach:

1. Mentoring or providing for mentoring of beginning teachers to facilitate a supportive induction into the profession.
2. Bringing individual teachers up to minimum standards of effective teaching (quality assurance and maintenance functions of supervision).
3. Improving individual teachers' competencies, no matter how proficient they are deemed to be.
4. Working with groups of teachers in a collaborative effort to improve student learning.
5. Working with groups of teachers to adapt the local curriculum to the needs and abilities of diverse groups of students, while at the same time bringing the local curriculum in line with state and national standards.
6. Relating teachers' efforts to improve their teaching to the larger goals of schoolwide improvement in the service of quality learning for all children.

With the involvement of state departments of education in monitoring school improvement efforts, supervisory responsibilities have increasingly encompassed the tasks at the higher end of this list. In turn, these responsibilities involve supervisors in much more complex, collaborative, and develop-mental efforts with teachers, rather than with the more strictly inspectorial responsibilities of an earlier time.

A variety of trends can be seen in the field of supervision, all of which mutually influence one another (both positively and negatively) in a dynamic school environment. One trend indicates that teachers will be "supervised" by test results. With teachers being held accountable for increasing their students' scores, the results of these tests are being scrutinized by district and in-house administrators and judgments being made about the competency of individual teachers–and, in the case of consistently low-performing schools, about all the teachers in the school. In some districts, these judgments have led to serious efforts at professional development.

Unfortunately, in many districts test results have led to an almost vitriolic public blaming of teachers.

Another trend has been toward a significant involvement of teachers in peer supervision and program development. In the literature, these developments are often included in the larger theme of teacher leadership. Along with this trend comes an increasing differentiation in the available options by which teacher supervision may be conducted, thus leaving the more formal assessment for experienced teachers to once every four or five years. Whatever form supervision takes, it has been substantially influenced by the focus on student learning (and on the test performances that demonstrate this learning), and by the need to make sure that attention is given to the learning of all students. Thus, the supervisory episode tends to focus more on an analysis of teaching activity only in relation to, rather than independent of, evidence of student learning.

This focus on student learning in supervision is further influenced by the trend to highlight the learning of previously underserved students, namely those with special needs and consistently low-performing students. Supervisors and teachers are expected to take responsibility for high quality learning for all students, a responsibility that necessarily changes how they approach their work together. Finally, all of these trends are combined in the large trend of focusing on schoolwide renewal. This means attending not only to instructional and curriculum issues, but also to structural and cultural issues that impede student learning.

There are a variety of issues in the field of supervision that need resolution–or at least significant attention. To confront the large agenda of school renewal (in which schools are required to respond to state-imposed curriculum standards or guidelines), systems of supervision at the state level, the district level, and the school level need to coordinate goals and priorities. The politics of school renewal tend to lend a punitive, judgmental edge to supervision at the state level, and to some degree at the district level, and that impression poisons supervision at the school level. Test-driven accountability policies, and the one-dimensional rhetoric with which they are expressed, need to take into account the extraordinarily complex realities of classrooms and neighborhood communities, as well as the traditionally underresourced support systems that are needed to develop the in-school capacity to carry out the renewal agenda. If state and district policies call for quality learning for all students, then schools have to provide adequate opportunities for all students to learn the curriculum on which they will be tested. Supervisors are caught in crossfire. On the one hand, parents and teachers complain that a variety of enriched learning opportunities for children who have not had an opportunity to learn the curriculum are not available; on the other, district and state administrators complain about poor achievement scores on high-stakes tests, while ignoring the resources needed to bring the schools into compliance with reform policies.

Another issue needing attention is the divide between those supervisors who accept a functionalist, decontextualized, and oversimplified realist view of knowledge as something to be delivered, and those who approach knowledge as something to be actively constructed and performed by learners in realistic contexts–and as something whose integrity implies a moral as well as a cognitive appropriation. Assumptions about the nature of knowledge and its appropriation, often unspoken, substantially affect how supervisors and teachers approach student learning and teaching protocols. This is an issue about which all players in the drama of schooling will only gradually reach some kind of consensus. A related issue concerns the degree

to which schools and classrooms will accommodate cultural, class, gender, racial, and intellectual diversity. Supervisors cannot ignore the implications of these necessary accommodations for the work of teaching and curriculum development.

Perhaps the biggest controversy in the field is whether supervision as a field of professional and academic inquiry and of relatively unified normative principles will continue to exist as a discernable field. More than a few scholars and practitioners have suggested that supervisory roles and responsibilities should be subsumed under various other administrative and professional roles. For example, principals, acting as "instructional leaders," could simply include a concern for quality learning and teaching under the rubric of instructional leadership and eliminate the use of the word *supervision* from their vocabulary. Similarly, teacher leaders could engage in collegial inquiry or action researches focused on improving student learning and teaching strategies, and similarly eliminate the use of the word *supervision* from their vocabulary–terms like *mentoring, coaching, professional development,* and *curriculum development* could instead be used.

Many professors whose academic specialization has been devoted to research and publication in the field of supervision oppose this relinquishing of the concept of supervision, not only because of the vitality of its history, but also because of the fact that the legal and bureaucratic requirements for supervision will surely remain in place. Having a discernible, professional field of supervision, they contend, will prevent the bureaucratic and legal practice of supervision from becoming a formalistic, evaluative ritual. Keeping the professional growth and development aspect of supervision in dynamic tension with the evaluative side of supervision can best be served, they maintain, by retaining a discernible and robust field of scholarship that attends to this balance.

These trends, issues, and controversies will likely keep the field of supervision in a state of dynamic development. However, a lack of attention to the implications of these issues will most certainly cause the field to atrophy and drift to the irrelevant fringes of the schooling enterprise.

By analogy with themodels of Russian and foreign researchers we have analyzed, we can formulate a model for the development of media competence and critical thinking of students of a pedagogical university in the classroom of the media education cycle as follows: Definitions of basic concepts: Media education is the process of personality development by means of and resources of mass communication (media): that is, the development of a culture of communication with media, creative, communication skills, critical thinking, skills of full-fledged perception, interpretation, analysis and evaluation of media texts, teaching various forms of self-expression using media technology, etc.

The media competence acquired as a result of media education helps a person to actively use the possibilities of the information field of television, radio, video, cinema, press, the Internet, contributes to a better understanding of the language of media culture. Media education can be divided into the following main areas:

1) Media education of future professionals in the world of press, radio, television, cinema, video and the Internet - journalists, editors, directors, producers, actors, cameramen, etc.;

2) Media education of future teachers at universities and pedagogical institutes, in the process of improving the qualifications of university and school teachers in media culture courses;

3) media education as part of the general education of schoolchildren and students studying in ordinary schools, secondary specialized educational institutions, universities, which, in turn, can be integrated with traditional disciplines or autonomous (special, optional, circle, etc.);

4) Supplement media education, acquired in educational institutions of additional education and recreation centres (cultural home, extracurricular work, aesthetic education and Art Education Center), Clubs in their place of residence, etc.);
5) Distance media education for students, students and adults through news, television, radio, video, DVD and Internet Systems (media criticism plays an important role here);

6) Independent / sustained media education (theoretically, in one's life). Critical creative thinking of media system and media text is a complex process of reflection thinking, including associative perception, Combining audio-visual imagination and virtual experiment, the functional mechanism of social media and media text (information / information) is analyzed and evaluated, Make logical and intuitive prediction in the media field.

The media competence of a person is a set of skills (motivational, contact, informational, perceptual, interpretive / evaluative, practical-operational / activity, creative) to choose, use, critically analyze, evaluate, transmit and create media texts in various forms, forms and genres, analyze complex processes functioning of media in society. Professional media competence of a teacher is a set of skills (motivational, informational, methodological, practical / operational, creative) to carry out media educational activities in an audience of different ages. Conceptual framework: synthesis of cultural, sociocultural and practical theories of media education. Objectives: the development of the media competence of the individual, the culture of his communication with the media, creative, communication skills, critical thinking / autonomy, skills of full-fledged perception, interpretation, analysis and evaluation of media texts, teaching various forms of self-expression using media technology, preparing future teachers for media education of students in institutions of various types. Tasks: development of the following skills of the audience: • practical and creative (self-expression with the help of media technology, that is, the creation of media texts of various types and genres); • perceptual and creative (creative perception of media texts of different types and genres, taking into account their connections with various arts, etc.); • analytical (critical analysis of media texts of various types and genres); • historical and theoretical (independent use of the knowledge gained on the theory and history of media / media culture); • methodological (mastery of methods and forms of media education, various technologies of self-expression with the help of media); • practical and pedagogical (using the acquired knowledge and skills in the field of media education in the process of pedagogical practice).

Organizational form: cultivate students' media ability and critical thinking within the scope of "media education" major of Pedagogic Universities. The registration number is 03.13.30). Methods for teachers and students to develop critical thinking and media skills in the media education cycle: 1) according to the source of knowledge - oral (Lecture, Discussion, including the creation of problem situations); Visual (display media text, illustrations); Practice (performing various practical and creative tasks on media materials); 2) Cognitive activity level: explanatory expenditure (teachers' information about media and media education, The audience's perception and absorption of the information; Questions (analysis of certain situations in the media and / or media text to develop critical thinking); Research (organizing students' research

activities related to media and media education). In this case, the course mainly relies on practice, games, creative tasks and role play. The main part of the media education program (related to the study of key concepts such as media education and media capability) Media literacy, media organization, media category, media technology, media language "Media representative" and "media audience", etc.): the status and role, types and types, media language of media and media education in today's world; Basic terms, theory, key concepts, direction, media education mode The main historical stages of media education development at home and abroad in Russia; Media competence, critical analysis of media functions in society, and different types and types of media texts (content analysis, structural analysis Plot / narrative analysis, stereotype analysis, cultural myth analysis, character analysis, autobiographical (personal) analysis, portrait analysis Symbol analysis, identification analysis, ideological and philosophical analysis, ethical analysis, aesthetic analysis, cultivation analysis Hermeneutic analysis of cultural background- Media education technology with students (based on the following types of creative tasks: literary imitation, drama games, visual imitation Literature analysis, etc.). Application fields: Pedagogic University, normal school, teacher / teacher advanced training course.

CONCLUSION

In our opinion, this model of media education of future teachers can be presented in the following form: 1) diagnostic (ascertaining) component: ascertaining the levels of media competence and the development of critical thinking in relation to media and media texts in a given student audience at the initial stage of training; 2) content-target component: a theoretical component (a block for studying the history and theory of media culture, a block for the development of media educational motivation and technology, that is, students' study of methods and forms of media education of the audience) and a practical component (a block of creative activity based on media material, that is, the development of creative skills students to express themselves with the help of media technology: create media texts of various types and genres; creatively apply the acquired media educational knowledge and skills in the process of pedagogical practice; block of perceptual and analytical activity: development of students' skills to critically perceive and analyze media texts of various types and genres);

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