GENERAL PRINCIPLES AND METHODS OF TEACHING IN BASIC SCHOOLS

UNIT ONE

DEFINING TEACHING AND INSTRUCTION

THE NATURE OF TEACHING

The nature of teaching can be inferred from the various definitions that have been given to teaching. Some of these definitions include the following:

Fleming (1965) defined teaching as any situation in which one person tries to pass to another his knowledge (belief), feeling (appreciation), purpose or action.

Nacino-Brown et al (1990) emphasise the transfer of skills, attitude and knowledge from one person to another. Their emphasis is on the goal of teaching which is to bring about a desired change in the learner.

Melby (1963) proposed that meaningful teaching calls for the full and active participation of learners. This task requires the teacher to:

- ✓ Accept new ideas and experiences
- ✓ Create an appropriate environment for learning
- ✓ Recognise the individual differences of learners.

Koomson et al (2000) explained that teaching is an activity performed by a more experienced and knowledgeable person and aimed at helping the less experienced person to learn

From the discussions above we have been made to understand the following;

- a. Teaching involves the transfer of knowledge, feelings, skills and attitudes.
- b. Teaching involves equipping the learner with the ability to solve problems of life.
- c. The teacher should be abreast on time, be current, create conducive atmosphere for learning and recognise individual differences.
- d. Teaching cannot happen without the learner but learning can happen without necessarily the teacher.
- e. Teaching should nurture self learning in pupils
- f. Finally, teaching is a face-to-face interpersonal relationship between the teacher and the learner, the educator and the educand.

Types of Teaching as a Term

FORMAL TEACHING

The teacher gives instructions to the learner to follow. He adopts the class teaching method. He rewards and punishes for good and bad behaviours respectively. *What is to be taught is structured.* The normal class teaching of subjects in which the teacher dominated the teaching and learning process is a typical example of formal teaching.

INFORMAL TEACHING

The teacher is seen as a facilitator instead of a director. In the informal teaching, the teacher presents the learning materials to the learners.

The learners fully participate in the lesson and the class is not controlled by rewards and punishment but by good planning of the lesson activities by the teacher.

TEACHING AS AN ART/SCIENCE

Searles (1967) described teaching as an art as well as a science.

Teaching as an art is explained in terms of the different skills or tools, verbal and non-verbal communication skills and materials and the learning activities presented in a meaningful way to pupils.

In addition a *positive personality becomes important as it influences the outcome of teaching* giving meaning to teaching as an art. As an art, teaching *is again influenced by personality*. Different people have their ways of teaching. Some people are said to be natural teachers though they don't have any training in teaching methodology.

Individual people teach according to their personalities. In such situations teaching becomes an art. For instance Jesus Christ, Aristotle, Socrates, Buddha etc undertook teaching as an art.

Teaching as a science is seen in terms of its structured methodology and the application of scientifically tested principles and theories that lead to stabilised patterns in the teaching-learning process.

Teaching as a *science is also seen in terms of its dynamism*. Some of the theories of teaching have either undergone or are undergoing modifications just as the discipline of science.

DISTINCTION BETWEEN TEACHING AND INSTRUCTION

Instruction can be defined as <u>the structured</u>, <u>ordered or organised information</u> that learners receive in <u>a designed programme</u>. Instruction is therefore a structured, organised activity to promote learning

Teaching on the other hand is both random and structured. Parents can teach or educate their children intentionally or unintentionally. Siblings teach each other and other members of the community teach children in one way or the other. These take place apart from the organised and structured teaching that takes place in the classroom.

Searles pointed out that *teaching is both an art and a science but instruction is purely a science*. In order to be an effective teacher one needs to be abreast on the science of instruction.

THE PURPOSE OF INSTRUCTION

Searles (1976) identified 3 purposes of instruction as helping the individual to

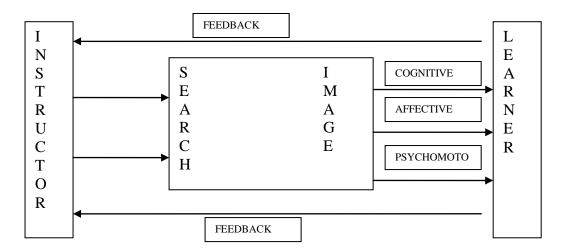
- ✓ Discover, create and express meaning.
- ✓ Develop a quest for knowledge.
- ✓ Develop a rational power.

THE BASIC INSTRUCTIONAL MODEL

Instruction may be viewed both as a system and as a process, each with clearly defined parts.

Instruction as a system (structure):

A system is made up of <u>interrelated parts which work together for a common goal.</u> Instruction as a system indicates that there are parts that are related and at the same time connected to form a whole. The parts in instruction include <u>the teacher/instructor</u> on one hand and <u>the learner/pupil/student</u> on the other hand, and <u>the search image.</u> The search image is the item to be learnt. It is made up of organised information that is easier to be learnt and could be imparted to the learner during instruction. The learner/pupil/student is the individual to whom the search image is directed. The instructor is the one who imparts and directs knowledge or the search image.



Instruction as a process:

This is the **way or strategy** through which the instructor imparts knowledge to the learner. The process of instruction just like the system has parts that are related and these form the instructional model. Four of such teaching models are

- a. the stripped down model by Robert Glaser,
- b. the school learning model by John Carrol
- c. the social interaction model by Ned Flanders,
- d. the computer based teaching model by Lawrence Stolurow and Daniel Davie

The basic teaching model also known as the stripped down model divides the instructional process into four related parts. These are:

- a. instructional objectives
- b. entering behaviour
- c. instructional procedure
- d. performance assessment.

FACTORS TO CONSIDER IN PLANNING INSTRUCTION

- 1. Educational goals.
- 2. Objectives.
- 3. The nature of the topic and its place in the syllabus and the scheme of work.
- 4. Mode of instruction
- 5. Knowledge of content
- 6. Learner characteristics
- 7. Learning environment

THE PRINCIPLES OF TEACHING AND LEARNING

WHAT ARE PRINCIPLES

Principles are rules that guide one's behaviour. Others see principles as personal ideas they follow to behave desirably. Generally speaking, principles are rules, laws and beliefs about how things happen and/or the way one should behave.

IMPORTANCE OF PRINCIPLES

- 1. Principles are the basis upon which good decisions and plans of action are based.
- 2. Also principles guide the thoughts of men and helps individuals to avoid decision by impulse.
- 3. Again by following teaching principles, teachers readily and voluntarily adjust and readjust their teaching methods to bring efficiency.
- 4. Principles help the teacher to understand the different methods of teaching and thereby select the most appropriate for a particular class or lesson.
- 5. With the principles for effective classroom teaching in mind it echoes to the teacher the best and educationally accepted manner of managing and controlling his class.

CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD TEACHER

- 1. A good teacher should create a situation for the learners to feel at home.
- 2. A good teacher is one who creates a rich learning environment in the classroom.
- 3. A good teacher is the one who has the ability to reduce the content to meet the individual learner's need and as well use and vary his method to the satisfaction of the individual learners.
- 4. A good teacher is the one whose presence in the classroom raise high love for schooling in the learners.

PROFESSIONAL SKILLS OF THE GOOD TEACHER

- 1. Organisation and careful planning of the classroom routines
- 2. Very good teacher-learner interaction.
- 3. Using varied activities to explain lessons.
- 4. Developing confidence when teaching.
- 5. Ability to handle problems timely before they get out of control.
- 6. Avoiding being temperamental at the misbehaviours of the learners.

CHARACTERISTICS OF GOOD TEACHING

Teaching is an interaction between the learners as well as learning materials and has some peculiar characteristics that make it unique.

- 1. The teacher's teaching relates to the learners' abilities, needs and interests.
- 2. The teacher must have thorough knowledge in the subject matter for effective delivery.
- 3. The method used by the teacher should seek to develop the creativity of the learners
- 4. The method used by the teacher should develop in the learners, traits of good emotions such as sympathy, empathy, love and concern for others.
- 5. The teacher should create conducive atmosphere through his lesson delivery.
- 6. Teaching should address the full development of the learners.

TEACHING ACTIVITIES

According to Koomson et al (2002), teaching involves many activities among which are:

1. Talking and chalking.

- 2. Non-verbal and verbal directions or cues.
- 3. Explaining and questioning.
- 4. Marking pupils work.
- 5. Listening to pupils and reinforcing their behaviours.
- 6. Encouraging pupils to carry out their individual work and helping weaker ones.
- 7. Arranging classroom materials.
- 8. Organising pupils in smaller groups.

WHAT TEACHING REQUIRES

- 1. Helping learners not caning learners.
- 2. Understanding the learners, develop maturity, interest and readiness to learn.
- 3. Knowledge of how to help learners to do things in a new way.
- 4. Development of good teaching sensibility by the teacher.
- 5. Knowledge of how and when to help pupils fully concentrate their efforts in learning.
- 6. Values of honest feedback from pupils.

Signs Showing That Learners Are Attentive To Teaching

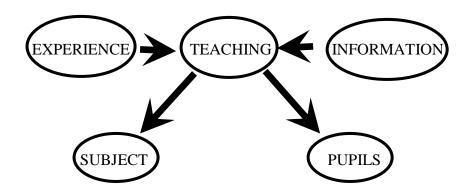
- 1. The children may show smiling faces.
- 2. The children may raise up their hands to answer or ask questions.
- 3. Stretch their necks and heads forward to listen attentively to what is being taught.

Signs Showing That Learners Are Not Happy With The Teaching

- 1. They may withdraw from class.
- 2. They may squeeze their faces.
- 3. Put their heads on their tables.
- 4. Drag their feet when called upon.
- 5. Talk casually and in a low voice to colleagues.
- 6. Refuse or fail to answer questions.
- 7. Fail to make contributions to teaching.

THE TEACHING PROCESS

FIGURE 1: Watson and Osibedu (1987) cited by Dondieu (2003)



THE PRINCIPLES OF TEACHING

- 1. The child must be active in the teaching and learning process.
- 2. Respect the freedom of the child.
- 3. Consider the child's maturational stage.
- 4. Build on the child's desire to learn.
- 5. Utilize the child's R.P.K.

6. Use multi-sensory approach.

PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING

Learning is a relatively permanent change in behaviour through practice. There are many learning principles basic among which are the principle of:

- 1. Multiple Response
- 2. Mental Set
- 3. Analogy or Assimilation
- 4. Associative Shifting
- 5. Partial Activity

THE LAWS OF LEARNING

- 1. The Law of Effect
- 2. The Law of Exercise
- 3. The Law of Readiness

IMPLICATIONS OF PRINCIPLES OF LEARNING MULTIPLE RESPONSES

Trial and error learning is derived from this principle. Through trial and error, learners gain much experience, have the opportunity to undertake experiments on their own and learn from their own mistakes as the saying goes "we learn from our mistakes".

The role of the teacher is to offer guidance to the learners when needed. They gain experience by making mistakes and as all experiences are educative, making errors is also educative.

MENTAL SET

Positive mental set is an essential condition to promote learning. Teachers will have to give an advance preparation to the learners to set their minds on what is to be learned by

- a) giving them homework or assignment
- b) giving a gist of the topic as preview
- c) inviting people very knowledgeable (experts) in a particular study area to talk and interact with learners.

ANALOGY OR ASSIMILATION

To apply the principle of Analogy the teacher needs to

- a) Show the differences and similarities in new and old topics to avoid proactive and retroactive inhibitions in what learners learn.
- b) Base his teaching on the previous knowledge of the learners i.e. teach from known to unknown.
- c) Relate what he teaches to real life situations in which learners have some experience.
- d) Encourage learners to make self decisions.

ASSOCIATIVE THINKING

Teachers should also inculcate in the learner the following qualities among others:

- a) Respect for objective views of others
- b) Sound and effective work habit
- c) Systematic problem solving methods
- d) Concern for others

PARTIAL ACTIVITY

Teachers should try to make learners concentrate their attention on what they teach by:

a. presenting the learning tasks in attractive and meaningful ways

- b. ensuring that there is very conducive emotional atmosphere in the learning situation
- c. Involving learners actively in his lessons.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE LAWS OF LEARNING

The Law of Effect

This law states that, favourable effect of ones action prompts the re-occurrence of that action.

- a. Teachers should make their lessons very satisfactory and enjoyable to learners
- b. To achieve this, teachers should make sure that what they expect the learners to learn are meaningful and has relationship with the personal life experience of the learners.
- c. Teachers should motivate the learners, guide them and encourage them

Law of Exercise

- a. Teachers should provide enough opportunity for learners to put into practice what they learn.
- b. Teachers should encourage the learners to constantly review what they learn.
- c. Teachers should use drill in their teaching to strengthen the link between stimulus and response.

Law of Readiness

- a. Teachers should teach what the learners are ready for by way of maturation and experience.
- b. Teachers should not start to teach when the learners are not ready. He therefore has to create a scenario that will alert their readiness by saying a brief prayer, a brief story related to the topic
- c. Introduction to lessons should be very stimulating to attract the learners' attention to the class.
- d. The lesson presentation should be lively to sustain learners' interests throughout the lesson delivery.
- e. The learners should be actively involved in the lesson.
- f. The selection of the content should consider the needs, interests, abilities and the age level of the class.
- g. The teacher should use appropriate teaching and learning materials and in appropriate quantity.

INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS AND THE LEARNING ENVIRONMENT

What are instructional materials?

Any item that can be seen or heard, touched or cannot be touched, eaten or not eaten, liquid or solid, that can enhance learners' understanding of what is taught in or outside the classroom, are described as instructional materials. Instructional materials are also known in contemporary times as instructional media.

What is the best form of instructional materials?

The best form of instructional materials are those that provide the learners opportunity to use as many senses as possible since every person learns through the five senses namely sight, hearing, smelling, touching and tasting.

THE RELEVANCE/IMPORTANCE OF TEACHING/ LEARNING MATERIALS (TLM) IN THE TEACHING-LEARNING PROCESS

- 1. They make the learners focus attention on the lesson being taught.
- 2. Teaching and learning materials promote easy understanding of what is taught.

- 3. It saves instructional time instead of oral description and explanation which takes much of the time for teaching.
- 4. They also provide the opportunity for learners to get involved in the teaching and learning process.
- 5. As learners talk about the materials and use them, they contribute to the learners' communication ability.
- 6. Teaching and learning materials are aids to memory.
- 7. The use of teaching and learning materials promote self learning ability in learners.
- 8. They provide previous knowledge on which future learning could be based.
- 9. They help to promote transfer of learning.
- 10. Misbehaviour of pupils, boredom and tiredness associated with classroom learning are reduced.

TYPES OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

In terms of classification the first category is classified into 3 namely Primary, Secondary and Tertiary instructional aids.

CATEGORY ONE OF INSTRUCTIONAL AIDS

PRIMARY AIDS: These are instructional materials that are real/actual natural objects found in their natural habitats e.g. cattle grazing on the field, fish in a river or pond, aeroplanes in the airport, ships in the harbour, etc.

SECONDARY AIDS: These are models of real objects e.g. models of cubes and cuboids used in mathematics and models of houses, cars, aeroplanes, gun, snake and animals.

TERTIARY AIDS: These are used as two dimensional illustrations. They are mainly artificial materials and equipment used in teaching. E.g. films, maps, globes, photographs, charts, cardboard drawings, chalkboard illustrations, radio talk shows, etc.

CATEGORY TWO OF INSTRUCTIONAL AIDS

The materials that mostly come under this category are the visual, audio and audio-visual aids

VISUAL MATERIALS: They are presented to be watched by learners. Materials that come under this category are three dimensional materials, printed materials, chalkboards, flannel boards, bulletin boards, pictures from newspapers, magazines, etc and graphic materials.

AUDIO AIDS: These are teaching materials that produce only sound. The sound from these materials is what aids teaching and learning. They appeal to only the hearing senses.

AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS: These are the teaching materials that produce both sounds and pictures. Examples of audio-visual teaching materials are films and video tapes.

MEASURES TO ENSURE BENEFIT FROM THE USE OF TEACHING/LEARNING MATERIALS

- 1. self preparation:
- 2. prepare the environment:
- 3. prepare the pupils:
- 4. proper use of the materials:

STEPS TO FOLLOW WHEN USING TLMs

- 1. Ensure that the aid can be seen or heard by all if it is a poster, tape etc.
- 2. When materials are not adequate in terms of quantity, the learners must be put into groups.
- 3. Be specific as to what you want the learners to do with the materials.
- 4. Don't confuse the learners by presenting too many visual aids at a time.
- 5. Face the class when using visual materials.
- 6. Make your visual materials attractive in respect of colours and labelling.
- 7. Present the materials at the point in the lesson which is most appropriate.
- 8. Pre-try the materials before use to avoid failures and embarrassments.
- 9. Always choose an aid that suits your topic.
- 10. Don't use any aid which is likely to embarrass, offend or annoy somebody or some group.

PREPARATION OF INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

SKILLS THAT THE TEACHER NEEDS

- 1. Using matchstick figures to produce simple chalkboard and other pictorial illustrations.
- 2. The art of improvisation; how to identify things possible to be improvised for use in the classroom in the absence of the real objects.
- 3. The preparation of "papier marche" for making models such as highlands and lowlands.
- 4. The preparation of cardboard drawings, charts, etc

PREPARATION OF CARDBOARD DIAGRAMS - STEPS TO FOLLOW

- 1. Practice drawing or sketching on an old newspaper so as to correct all mistakes before transferring same onto the cardboard to save your cardboard and as well as save cost.
- 2. All illustrations on the cardboard should have an appropriate and a meaningful heading (title).
- 3. If labelled, the label must be very clearly and boldly written.
- 4. The labelling should be done in a neat handwriting.
- 5. Use different colours to produce the material but the colours must not be too many.

CHALKBOARD USE

- 1. The writing should be bold and legible.
- 2. The letters used in writing words the on the chalkboard should have uniform style.
- 3. Any information on the chalkboard should be neatly arranged.
- 4. Spaces should be uniform between words and between lines.
- 5. Start the lesson with a clean chalkboard and leave the board clean after the lesson.
- 6. Practice writing on the bard at your free time.
- 7. Use duster and not your hand in cleaning the board.
- 8. Move to the back of the class from time to time to make sure that all of them can see from their seating position.

CHALKBOARD ILLUSTRATIONS

- 1. Should be simple in outline.
- 2. Should not be complicated in providing details.
- 3. Should be clearly visible for those sitting at the back to see.

WRITING ON THE CHALKBOARD

1. Writing on the board should be accurate.

- 2. There should be correct spelling of words.
- 3. Examples on the board should be correct and good.
- 4. There should be precise and logical summary.

POSITION OF CHALKBOARD IN THE CLASSROOM

- 1. Should be placed where every pupil will see clearly from it.
- 2. Where teachers will not block pupils view.
- 3. Kept away from reflection of the sun.

WHY SOME TEACHERS DO NOT USE INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

- 1. Lack of knowledge about suitable and useful instructional materials.
- 2. The cost involved in acquiring the materials.
- 3. The belief that TLM (the material) should be ready made and supplied by GES.
- 4. Circuit Supervisors do not insist on the use of the materials (TLMs).
- 5. Scarcity and unavailability of the materials.

SOLUTIONS TO THE PROBLEM OF NON USE OF TLMs BY TEACHERS

- 1. GES should provide wide range of them for teachers to use when necessary.
- 2. Inspecting officers and basic school heads should monitor the use of materials by teachers during teaching.
- 3. Workshop on the presentation and use of TLMs should be organised by the GES for teachers.
- 4. Specialised materials for use in schools should be provided by the GES.
- 5. Knowledge and effective use of instructional materials should form part of the requirement for the promotion and inspection for Best Teachers' Awards.

INTERACTION AND COMMUNICATION IN INSTRUCTION

CONCEPT OF COMMUNICATION

MEANING:-

Chapel and Read (1984) define communication as any means by which a thought is transferred from one person to another.

In the classroom, communication means the transfer, transmission or exchange of information, ideas, knowledge, belief or attitude from one person to another.

According to Warren Weaver and Claude Shannon (1949), communication is all the procedures whereby one mind may affect another. They further explain that, it doesn't involve only written and oral speech but also music, the historic arts, the theatre, ballet, in fact all human behaviours.

According to Shuter (1979) there is *inter- personal communication and intra-personal communication*.

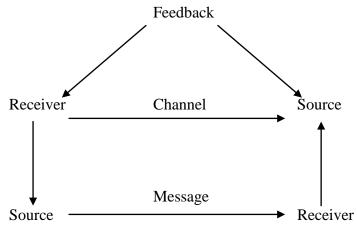
Inter-personal means from one person to another and

Intra-personal means talking to one's self.

From the view point of teachers, communication means transfer, transmission, exchange of ideas, knowledge, belief or attitude, from one person (the teacher) to another person (the learner) and the receiving of information.

ELEMENTS OF COMMUNICATION

According to a simple communication model proposed by Berko (1960) there are four basic elements in the communication process namely: the source, the message, the channel, and the receiver.



A model of interpersonal communication (Wayne Weiten, 1985) cited in Dondieu.

SOURCE:

The source is simply the person who transmits the message (the originator of communication). In a 2-way communication both persons serve as source and receiver of information as well i.e. whoever has his turn to speak to the other becomes the source with the listener becoming the receiver.

MESSAGE:

This is the content and the purpose expressed by the source in the form of verbal, gestures, written facial expressions or any other form.

CHANNEL:

This is the medium through which the message is sent to the other person. This may be a vehicle, by post, phone, e-mail, letter carrier (a person-messenger) etc.

There are generally two channels:

- a. verbal or linguistic channel
- b. non-verbal channel.

RECEIVER:

The person at the end of the channel for which the message is intended (one for whom the message is targeted).

FEEDBACK:

The response the source receives from the receiver. According to Asamoah et al (2000) the feedback is an additional element of the communication process.

NATURE OF CLASSROOM INTERACTION

Classroom interaction generally follows in *a two way direction between the teacher and pupils and between pupils*. The teacher basically serves as the hinge of classroom interaction dictating the substances and pace of interaction. The teacher is not to do more than two thirds of the talking in any lesson activity, where this is so; the lesson becomes teacher centred and lecture oriented.

The teaching-learning process encompasses talking and listening of which various activities are undertaken by the pupils under the teacher's direction. The talking is of two typesquestions and statements.

The next issue is the direction of talking. This in most cases is between the teacher and the pupils and the rest of the time, it is between pupils which is very minimal out of the whole instructional time. The attention is also centred most of the time on brighter or talkative pupils. A good interaction should involve both teacher and pupils and pupils and should involve all members of the class.

DETERMINANTS OF COMMUNICATION IN THE CLASSROOM

The following are considered as the determinants of the nature and effectiveness of communication.

- 1. **The message:** The lesson to be taught. It should be arranged in a systematic way; simple to complex, concrete to abstract etc.
- 2. **The receiver:** The pupils to be taught. Their level of maturation or entry characteristics should be considered and they should be made psychologically ready to attend to the message.
- 3. **The code- the nature of communication.** This may be verbal or non-verbal communication. The teacher must use the most appropriate and effective mode for each situation.
- 4. **The medium:** This is the channel through which the message is communicated. It may be audio, visual or audio-visual e.g. chalkboard illustrations, models, pictures, broadcasts etc.
- 5. **The noise:** These are distractions or distortions that influence the communication process. E.g. inattention, lack of interest and/or knowledge, limited experience etc. the teacher must be able to determine some of these in advance and work to minimize or eliminate the noise.

TYPES OF COMMUNICATION IN THE CLASSROOM

- 1. **Verbal communication;** this involves the use of the spoken words either in face to face setting or through telephone calls.
- 2. Written communication; written letters, memoranda, annual report etc.
- 3. **Non-verbal communication;** this includes facial expression, gestures, eye movement, posture and other body movements.

Physical expression like nodding, indicating approval, cocking of the head indicating disapproval, a smile indicating satisfaction and a frown to discourage repetition of a particular behaviour come under non verbal communication.

ADVANTAGES OF NON VERBAL COMMUNICATION

- 1. It can take the place of verbal communication and therefore reduce the amount of talking in the classroom
- 2. It gives opportunity for pupils to get involved in the class.
- 3. It stimulates interest among pupils especially when they are reinforced by new clues that have been developed by the teacher.
- 4. When positively reinforced by non-verbal clues, they become very happy because it raises their self esteem.
- 5. By using non-verbal communication approach, the teacher communicates with the pupil without distraction the attention of others or breaking the lesson.

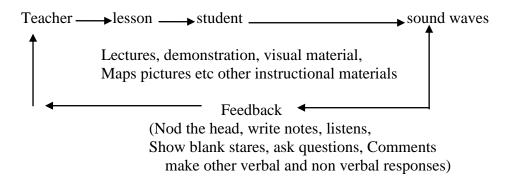
COMMUNICATION IN THE CLASSROOM

In the teaching and learning process the teacher invariably initiates communication. The teacher plans his lesson and through the channel of language (oral or written) and visual and auditory materials or aids transmits his ideas to the learners.

The learners are the receivers. They listen, interpret, comment, evaluate in a form they can understand. When the pupil receives the message they give feedback by way of asking questions, writing notes, copying something from the board, frowning, asking questions etc.

The responses are the feedback and they enable the teacher to modify his message to match the prevailing situation.

Below is a communication process in a teaching learning situation (Nacino et al 1990:17)

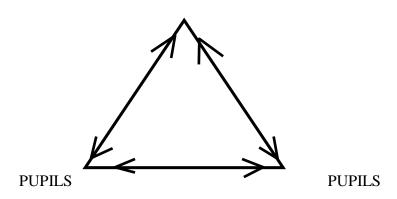


TYPES OF INTERACTION IN THE CLASSROOM

For communication to be complete there must be a sender (communicator), the message and the receiver. In the teaching situation, the teacher is the sender, the lesson is the message and the pupils are the receivers. The teacher communicates both verbally and non-verbally and pupils respond to the message which serves as feedback for the teacher.

The most common interaction in the classroom are:

TEACHER



Teacher Pupil Interaction

The moment instructional period begins, the teacher starts to interact with learners. This may mainly be in the form of verbal cues and reinforcement. Teacher-pupil interaction is through the use of questioning, praise, encouragement, reprimand, pupils' responses, exchange of greetings, pleasantries and interviews.

i. **Verbal Clues (Oral Expressions):** these are the various oral responses that pupils provide. The teacher must not harbour any biases or pre-conceptions. He must

- attend carefully to these responses so that he/she can differentiate between the cognitive and the emotional content being given by the pupils.
- ii. **Reinforcement (Praise and encouragement):** This refers to any event that can be shown to strengthen a response or increase the likelihood of a response repeating.

There are two forms of reinforcement: - verbal and non verbal reinforcements.

- iii. **Questions:** teachers rely on questions in most part of their teaching. Questions focus attention on what is being taught.
- iv. **Exchange of greetings**: Soon as you get to the classroom, greet the learners and enquire about their health. This makes the learner see you as being friendly and one who cares about them.
- v. **Interviews:** Interview learners and collect vital information about their problems, socio-polio-economic conditions etc.

IMPORTANCE OF TEACHER-PUPIL RELATIONSHIP

- 1. It makes it easier for the teacher to identify and correct the shortcomings of the children.
- 2. The teacher is able to identify the intelligent and creative learners and so offer the needed encouragement.
- 3. The teacher is able to identify those with learning difficulties and help them.
- 4. The personality of the learner is improved through good teacher-pupil relationship.
- 5. The learner feels at home and develops love and interest for learning.
- 6. Lesson delivery is improved because it facilitates the full participation of learners in the teaching learning process.
- 7. It facilitates good performance by the learners.
- 8. It is a good antidote to lateness, absenteeism and even truant behaviours

IMPROVING/ESTABLISHING GOOD TEACHER-PUPIL RELATIONSHIP, THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER

- 1. The teacher must create cordial, warm and democratic atmosphere in the classroom.
- 2. The teacher should praise the learners and encourage them.
- 3. Offer the learners guidance and counsel them whenever becomes necessary.
- 4. Never abuse any learner for giving a wrong response to questions. Be polite with them.
- 5. Be tolerant and show appreciation for individual differences in the learners.
- 6. Strive to seek the welfare of learners.
- 7. Avoid discrimination. Be fair and firm to all at all times.
- 8. Develop and maintain good relationship with the parents and guardians of the learners.

PUPIL-TEACHER INTERACTION

The usual situation observed during teaching and learning is that learners are rarely encouraged to ask questions. It is the teacher who usually gives information, ask the learners questions and comments on the learners' responses. This has been the typical pattern of interaction in the classroom. It is however clear that learning is prompted when learners ask their own questions. Questions of learners are usually concerned with; information gathering, solving problems, forming conclusions and developing opinions. Questions from children reveals to the teacher the misconceptions and otherwise of the learners.

How to Strengthen Pupil-Teacher Interaction

The pupils should be made to:

- 1. See the need and purpose for asking questions.
- 2. Ask questions which respond to their needs.
- 3. Identify the opportunity and time for asking questions.
- 4. Find out in what ways the answer relates to the question.
- 5. Make use of the answer or find out the necessity for another question.

PUPIL-PUPIL INTERACTION

In the classroom, communication does not only involve teacher-pupil or pupil-teacher interaction but also pupil-pupil interaction.

How to strengthen pupil-pupil interaction

- 1. They may interact with each other by putting their views and ideas across on some issues during a lesson.
- 2. As a result of previous discussion, the learners may initiate a new topic.
- 3. The teacher should play the role of a conductor, an organiser, a monitor, a stimulator, as a consultant and manager especially when learners are in great difficulty.
- 4. They should be made to participate in group activities.
- 5. They should be made to role-play some activities of adults.
- 6. They should be made to prepare a short questionnaire and administer them on their peers (peer interview).

IMPORTANCE OF PUPIL-PUPIL INTERACTION

The success of a lesson is determined to a greater extent by the pupil-pupil interaction in the classroom because the interaction;

- a. Encourages dialogue among learners;
- b. Arouses their interest.
- c. Promotes competitive spirit of the lesson;
- d. Improves their understanding of the lesson.
- e. Improves the communication skills of the learners.
- f. It develops cooperative attitude in the learners.
- g. It promotes friendliness and therefore brings about unity and belongingness in the class.
- h. It promotes self correction in the learners.

FACILITATIVE RELATIONSHIP

A facilitative relationship is the kind of interaction that should exist between the teacher and learners so as to aid teaching and learning. The facilitative relationship principle in teaching is one that requires that an interactive relationship should exist between teachers and learners to make teaching and learning easy.

Some ways through which interactions could be strengthened include:

- ✓ Dramatisation of topics learnt.
- ✓ Excursion to educational sites.
- ✓ Playing together.
- ✓ Group work.
- ✓ Debates etc.

The principle of facilitative relationship possesses the following characteristics:

1. Love: The teacher must teach children with love to learn, love to do his or her work etc.

- 2. Empathy: This is the ability to feel the way learners feel and be in the shoes of the lesson.
- 3. Trust: This is a confidence building measure between the learner and the learners.
- 4. Good communication: This enhances the free flow of information. It creates a positive interaction, healthy relationship and good classroom work. It also results in a closer emotional relationship between teachers and students.
- 5. Care and positive regard: the teacher is expected to show positive regards to his pupils.

IMPROVING CLASSROOM COMMUNICATION

- 1. The teacher should endeavour to improve on his speaking ability or skill.
- 2. Subject matter should be planned and organised in a logical, easy to understand manner.
- 3. The teacher should use an appropriate code.
- 4. Technical and difficult materials should be plainly explained.
- 5. He/she should develop a sympathetic hearing and give the required attention to pupils' questions, answers or comments.
- 6. He should take steps to reduce noise and its effects.

THE RATIONALE FOR ACQUISITION OF INSTRUCTIONAL SKILLS

Instructional skills refer to the competencies needed by instructors for the easy delivery of the structured, ordered or organized information that learners receive in a designed programme. They include questioning skills, class management skills, lesson planning skills, oral language skills, skills in handling disruptive behaviour, skills in the preparation and use of teaching learning materials, etc.

Some of the reasons why teachers need to acquire instructional skills include:

- 1. It will help teachers to understand and plan instructional activities systematically so that learners' potentials will be properly developed.
- 2. It will enable the teacher to determine the instructional resources needed to make the lesson delivery more effective.
- 3. It will also enable the teacher to make efficient use of time in lesson delivery.
- 4. The misbehaviour of pupils will reduce considerably. Good instructional skills will keep pupils adequately engaged and busy to minimise misbehaviour.
- 5. The acquisition of instructional skills by teachers facilitates the acquisition of relevant skills and knowledge by learners to meet instructional objectives.

Searles (1967) underscored three purposes of instructional skills to the individual. These include:

- a. Discovering, creating and expressing meaning.
- b. Developing of a rational power.
- c. Developing a quest for knowledge.

LESSON PREPARATION AND DELIVERY

The preparation of any sustained teaching-learning interaction over a considerable period of time has in its process, three important aspects. These are designing of an instructional programme (syllabus), the preparation of scheme of work, and the drawing up of a lesson plan.

DESIGNING THE SCHEME OF WORK

A scheme of work is plans which ensures that the content of the syllabus provided for a certain period of time, say a semester, is taught within that period. This entails breaking the topics down into smaller units and assigning a duration of time within which unit will be covered. The units are arranged in such a way that those that provide pre-requisite learning are placed before subsequent ones.

The content that we can put in the structure includes:

- 1. The week during which the information is to be taught. This is usually identified by the date on which the week will end.
- 2. What is to be taught (topics and sub-topics).
- 3. Reference books
- 4. Teaching/learning materials
- 5. Remarks

SUBJECT		CLASS		. TE	RM	YEAR	
Week	Week-	Topic/Unit	Reference			Teaching/Learning	Remarks
	ending					Material	
1	22 nd -26 th	Unit 1	English	Langua	age	Card board, Sample	
	Oct. 2007	Informal	Syllabus	for J	SS	essays	
		Letters	Page 21				

WEEKLY FORECAST (SCHEME OF WORK)

IMPORTANT ISSUES OF THE SCHEME OF WORK

- 1. The topic and teaching support issues that follow it are for a week, but it could be extended to two or three weeks. The sequence in which the topics are written should be done by the teacher. It is generally advisable to treat easy topics earlier.
- 2. The duration meant for each topic should also be carefully considered. You should be flexible in allocating the time. For instance, games and sports, cultural engagements, etc, could disrupt the original time.
- 3. Ensure that materials selected should be available and if possible capable of being improvised.
- 4. Submit your scheme to your head teacher for vetting. You should equally let a colleague teacher look at it before you probably give it to your head.

IMPORTANCE OF PREPARING SCHEME OF WORK

The scheme of work:

- 1. helps the teacher to know in advance the amount of work that has to be done each term, week and day.
- 2. enables a substitute teacher to know where to continue in the absence of the class teacher.
- 3. serves as the record of work for the period.
- 4. puts the syllabus into a working perspective.
- 5. guides the teacher to read or research for specific information or knowledge.

LESSON PREPARATION

Effective teaching depends, to a large extent, on adequate preparation. It is therefore important that the teacher gains good mastery of the subject matter of the topic which he intends to teach.

Slavin (1931) stated that a lesson is a process by which information, skills or concepts are communicated from teachers to students. This remains a major means for teaching and learning in schools even though students could be asked to find out information for themselves.

The three main components of a lesson are

- a. set induction or introduction
- b. presentation
- c. closure

KINDS OF LESSONS

- 1. **DEVELOPMENTAL LESSON:** This is used when you want to develop a new idea of new knowledge. It is also used when you are starting a new topic.
- 2. **INDUCTIVE OR DEDUCTIVE LESSON:** This kind is primarily aimed at developing a formula, law, rule or principle. It deals with learner inquiry or investigation unlike the developmental lesson that focuses on teacher presentation.
- 3. **APPRECIATION LESSON**: It is the kind of lesson that focuses on capturing the feeling or attitudes of pupils. It is used to help pupils appreciate values in a phenomenon.
- 4. **SKILL LESSON:** This is a mechanical act. This lesson is mechanistic and takes a practical dimension. It also involves mental activity such as computation, a skill in mathematical calculation or computer skills. Other skills that can be learnt include writing and spelling.
- 5. **REVISION LESSON**: Here the teacher goes over what pupils have learnt previously to get a deeper understanding of what has been taught.

FACTORS TO CONSIDER IN PLANNING INSTRUCTION

- 1. Relate your topic to the goals of education for the nation or your community.
- 2. Examine the nature of the topic and its place in the syllabus and scheme of work.
- 3. The objectives for the topic should guide you on how to deliver the lesson.
- **4.** The learning environment influences the lesson.

LEARNER CHARACTERISTICS

- 1. Socio-economic background
- 2. Intellectual ability
- 3. Relevant previous knowledge
- 4. Level of development of your pupils
- 5. The attitude and motivational characteristics of the learner.

WRITING INSTRUCTIONAL OBJECTIVES

- 1. They must be stated in behavioural terms i.e. verbs used can be observed and measured.
- 2. The must specify the condition under which pupils are expected to display that behaviour learned.
- 3. They must specify the behaviour that the pupil is expected to display at the end of the instruction e.g. write, draw, define, etc.

4. They must indicate the acceptable level of performance of the expected behaviour. E.g. by the end of the lesson, the pupil will be able to state two importance of naming ceremonies.

IMPORTANCE OF WRITING OBJECTIVES

- 1. It helps the teacher to select an appropriate method.
- 2. It helps the teacher to know how successful the lesson was.
- 3. It guides the teacher to know how much time to use in delivering the lesson.

WRITING LESSON PLANS

A good lesson plan should have:

- 1. General information or background variables. This includes the date for the lesson, the reference with pages of books of reference, subject, class, number on roll, average age, time and duration of lesson. These variables provide information which helps the teacher to decide on the appropriateness of lesson delivery content and strategies.
- 2. Lesson topic (it should be short and concise).
- 3. Lesson objectives (it should state the skill, knowledge and attitudes learners are expected to acquire).
- 4. Relevant assumed knowledge. This talks about entry behaviour of pupils, i.e. what they know already.
- 5. Teacher/Learner activities.
- 6. Core points. These are the skills, attitudes, knowledge, ideas and other behavioural outcomes you want to develop in your pupils.
- 7. Evaluation. It comprises the questions and exercises given in the course of a lesson. It helps the teacher to know whether he has achieved the stated lesson objectives or not. It therefore makes remediation meaningful.
- 8. Remarks. It is written to indicate the level of success achieved and difficulties faced.

IMPORTANCE OF LESSON PLANNING

Lesson plan enables the teacher to:

- a. Sequence what is to be taught, i.e. the teacher will be able to determine what should come first, second, etc.
- b. Identify and gather materials required for teaching.
- c. Become confident in presenting the lesson.
- d. Read and consult some sources of information. This can make the lesson worthwhile.

SKILLS IN LESSON DELIVERY

- 1. Sufficient knowledge and understanding of subject matter.
- 2. Using rewards and sanctions effectively.
- 3. Step by step delivery of a lesson.
- 4. Oral speech and simple language usage.
- 5. Monitoring pupils' interest.
- 6. Timing.
- 7. Addressing the needs of pupils with learning difficulties as well as gifted pupils.

FEEDBACK AND EVALUATION

Strategies for lesson evaluation:

- 1. Class exercise
- 2. Oral questions
- 3. Observation
- 4. Assignments
- 5. Checking pupils' exercise books.

IMPORTANCE OF LESSON EVALUATION

- 1. It can help teachers to identify the learning difficulties of pupils.
- 2. It gives the teacher an idea of the pupils' general rate of progress towards mastery of the knowledge, skills, and attitudes being taught at each level.
- 3. It enables a teacher to know if pupils are achieving the set objects of the lesson.
- 4. It gives the teacher an indication whether the teaching strategy has been effective.
- 5. It helps the teacher to know enough about individual pupils' performance. The knowledge of this will help teachers in counselling pupils.

TRADITIONAL (HERBATIAN) AND CURRENT LESSON STRUCTURES

The traditional lesson structure followed what was called the Herbatian steps. It was developed by an educator called Herbat. It had the following sequence:

- 1. Revise previous knowledge
- 2. Explain new material in relation to the previous knowledge
- 3. Compare and contrast information (draw out similarities and differences)
- 4. Formulate general principles
- 5. Apply principles and rules
- 6. Summarise and conclude.

UNIT TWO

METHODS OF TEACHING

PUPIL CENTRED METHODS OF TEACHING

ACTIVITY METHODS OF TEACHING AND THE DISCOVERY LEARNING PROCESS

Activity is said to occur when children are engaged in incessant activities such as playing, running, climbing, dancing, speaking, reading, writing and painting. These activities contribute to forming our habits.

FEATURES AND PURPOSE OF ACTIVITY IN TEACHING

FEATURES:

Farrant (1980) suggests that a good activity:

- 1. is enjoyable for those taking part in it
- 2. sustains the interest of the pupils for as long as it takes them to succeed in whatever they are learning is well within the competence of the age and ability of the children using it
- 3. allows ample freedom for children to express themselves
- 4. does not make the consequences of initial failure too serious or disturbing
- 5. helps the learner to gain a finer grasp of what is learnt by leading to a deeper understanding

PURPOSE

The purpose, intention is to help the pupil:

- 1. Develop a skill such as drawing, measuring, self-control, etc.
- 2. Discover /acquire new knowledge through investigation, experimentation, exploring, etc.
- 3. Apply the knowledge to useful ends e.g. decorating a room.

USE OF PLAY AS AN ACTIVITY ORIENTED METHOD

Play is an activity which does not necessarily result in a product. It may involve only one child or a group of children. It may require toys, tools or nothing. It may last a few minutes or hours.

Mayesky (1990) suggests five characteristics of play which are:

- 1. a natural part of every child's life; adults don't have to tell children how to play.
- 2. self directed; it is determined by the personality of the individual and adults should not interfere.
- 3. an activity is not a production. Nobody should expect end results because it is dominated by children and the results are uncertain.
- 4. a total activity; that is to say, children can be completely absorbed as they play.
- 5. a sensitive thing for children; they seem deeply involving. It could however be easily destroyed by the interference by an adult.

HOW TO HELP CHILDREN HAVE EFFECTIVE PLAY

- a. Limit play at irrelevant activities.
- b. Guide play towards useful activities

- c. Link play with and use it to strengthen useful knowledge and skills the child has begun to acquire either socially, emotionally, cognitively and physically.
- d. We can also make pupils see the usefulness of what they learn by helping them apply it. E.g. when they learn about measurement they can also play roles of a tailor and his/her customers.

DISCOVERY METHOD

This is a method of teaching where *pupils are guided to find solutions to problems through their own effort.* The *teacher only serves as a facilitator and not a 'think-tank'*. In this method there is direct interaction between the student and the materials and as a result a lot of incidental and consequential learning occurs.

This method is known as inquiry Socrates, the Greek Philosopher, is regarded as its first proponent. The leading exponent of discovery learning method is *Jerome Bruner*. Discovery learning may be presented <u>in three variations</u>. These are Pure discovery, Guided discovery and Guided learning.

(**Pure discovery** – this is where the learners learn or discover things for themselves without the assistant or support from others or the teacher.

Guided discovery – with this type of discovery, teachers are much more involved. They might coach the learners, give hints and feedbacks and perhaps model solution strategies.

Guided learning – this is where the learner is guided to acquire knowledge. This is could be very structured where the learner follows prescribed instructions either from documents or from an instructor).

Nature of Discovery Method

- i. Students carry out the main part of the learning activities.
- ii. It requires the use of materials
- iii. The teacher guides, leads and organises pupils in order to help them discover some connections between parts of what has been learnt.

Steps in Discovery

- 1. Define the problem to be investigated.
- 2. Clarify the objectives
- 3. Relate the problems of study to what is known or to some real life problem to heighten interest.
- 4. Consider any related factor.
- 5. Propose hypothesis or guesses of how the problem may be tackled.
- 6. Collect information to test the guesses or suggested lines of attack.
- 7. Evaluate and organise the data/information they have assembled.
- 8. Interpret their findings.
- 9. Draw conclusions.
- 10. Suggest what may be done next.

ROLE OF THE TEACHER

- 1. He should set realistic and achievable objectives.
- 2. The method used should encourage creative responses to problem solving and are flexible to meet changing demands.

- 3. The teacher should not be seen as the one doing the work. His conduct should help pupils to work as independently as possible.
- 4. He should ensure adequate materials are available to be used.

ADVANTAGES

- 1. It develops students' creative and critical thinking.
- 2. It gives instant feedback from children's learning.
- 3. What is learnt sticks longer in students' mind as most of them are learnt through personal experience.
- 4. Interest of students are aroused as students learn best when they engage in practical activities.
- 5. It aids transfer of what is learnt in the curriculum to out of school situations.

DISADVANTAGES

- 1. It can consume time.
- 2. Pupils can be frustrated when they make mistakes.
- 3. Large number of students use relatively small amount of materials.

BRAINSTORMING

<u>It is a problem solving technique</u> in which small groups of pupils sit usually in round table formation and search for solutions to a problem by thinking in different directions.

This method is used <u>to elicit a wide range of responses</u> from pupils and through it ideas are generated or a variety of solutions to problems are found. Each student is given the opportunity to talk no matter their level of intelligence. It encourages unrestricted, thinking and pupils learn to follow the democratic principles of interaction. It is best used with a group range of five to twenty students.

STAGES

- 1. Definition of the problem for which solutions are required
- 2. Brainstorm session
- 3. Review
- 4. Discussion.

TEACHER'S ROLE

- 1. The teacher should open the stage by presenting the problem to the class.
- 2. He acts as the leader of the discussion and therefore controls the class to avoid chaos.
- 3. He should direct the learners to speak on the topic/problem on hand.
- 4. He ensures that pupils do not contribute at random but only when asked to do so.
- 5. He should ensure that every pupil has fair chance of expressing himself/herself so as to avoid the tendency of the extroverts dominating the lesson.
- 6. He should take note of the key related points raised by the learners.
- 7. He should ensure that consensus is reached by the end of the lesson.
- 8. Importantly, he should ensure that each person's view is given the desired consideration.
- 9. Before opening the floor for children's contribution, he should outline some rules pertinent to the success of the class among which should be
- i. listen attentively when one is speaking.
- ii. Don't ridicule or insult anybody's contribution with your contribution

- iii. Wait to be called before you speak.
 - 10. At the end of the lesson the teacher should summarise the salient points raised.

USEFULLNESS OF BRAINSTORMING METHOD

- 1. It involves feedback and pupils' participation
- 2. It is used to change undesirable attitudes.
- 3. It develops learners' verbal communication skills.
- 4. It makes the introverts able to speak out their views.
- 5. When used in groups, it develops leadership skills in learners.
- 6. It develops logical thinking abilities in learners. Pupils become aware of contrary views of their mates and therefore develop in them the spirit of tolerance.
- 7. It helps to develop team spirit in the learners.
- 8. It seeks to build in the learners self confidence and raises the self esteem of the learners.

DEMERITS

- 1. It is indeed time-consuming as every individual learner tries to expose his view on the topic at stake.
- 2. If not handled with the experience it deserves from the teacher the extroverts and the brighter learners may dominate at the expense of the introverts and the less bright learners.
- 3. The method can't be used with learners in the lower forms at the primary school.
- 4. Time may not be available to be able to critically analyse all points raised by the learners. Thus the group may be tempted to accept ideas without the needed analyses
- 5. The teachers or the leader would not be able to force anybody to come out with his/her views hence the highly introverts may still not contribute to the deliberations and thus become passive listeners.

DISCUSSION METHOD

The discussion method is a method of teaching **where the teacher raises pertinent** issues for students to wrestle with. In the discussion method communication does not only flow from teacher to the pupils, it also flows from one pupil to the other. This is referred to as multiple – channel flow of communication.

For an effective use of discussion method, pupils might have assimilated data from experience gained on a field trip; through experience, from a film and from a reading assignment. The students are asked series of questions to stimulate the discussion. The teacher provides cues as he guides the discussions through the question he poses. Students are allowed to do most of the thinking and talking.

Discussions mainly take the following forms:

- a. Whole class
- b. Small group

Tamakloe et al (1996) outline the following as forms of small group discussions:

- 1. Buzz session
- 2. Debate
- 3. Panel discussion
- 4. Forum
- 5. Brainstorming
- 6. Colloquium

- 7. Symposium Workshop
- 8. Problem solving

When using the discussion method in large classes the following steps may be adopted;

- i. Prepare learners for the discussion session by:
 - a. Agreeing with the learners on the pre-discussion activities to be carried out, e.g., reading specific chapter of a book, collecting samples of real/concrete objects which form the focus of the discussion, or asking older persons about certain phenomenon or historical information.
 - b. Agreeing on the exact activity on which to concentrate during the pre-discussion activity
 - c. Agreeing on the objectives of the discussion exercise
- *i.* Find out if learners have carried out the pre-discussion assignments given to them by examining what they have collected or the information they have gathered in their search.
- ii. Assign roles to individual pupils or to groups of pupils.

ROLE OF TEACHER IN THE DISCUSSION METHOD

- 1. The teacher should pose thought provoking questions alone.
- 2. The teacher must be alert in recognising questions which are asked by students to side track the discussion and those questions which are not relevant.
- 3. If the discussion is between the teacher and the students, he should not parry all the questions. He should redirect questions to other students to answer.
- 4. The topic selected for the discussion should be sufficiently controversial or require different opinions.
- 5. The topic and other guidelines should be given for pupils to prepare in advance
- 6. Periodically, the major points of the discussion should be summarized by the leader or teacher.
- 7. A recorder should keep notes of the key points discussed. This record can be verbally presented, displayed on the chalkboard or an overhead.

ADVANTAGES OF THE DISCUSSION METHOD

- 1. Discussion tends to make the students more tolerant as they become aware of different views which they may have to accommodate.
- 2. It helps to develop group feeling which welds students together.
- 3. Discussions are likely to get at deep feelings. It can sometimes make real changes in attitudes and behaviour that are too deep for other teaching technique to influence.
- 4. Discussion involves the process essential to a democratic system.
- 5. Prejudices and biases are frequently modified when they are subjected to the scrutiny of the group.
- 6. When individuals in group pool the ideas, they are much more likely to correct deficiencies in evidence and reasoning than they could on their own.
- 7. Because group discussion gets a high level of student participation and involvement, it tends to warm up the class.
- 8. Discussion promotes inter-learning where both the teacher and pupils learn from each other.

DISADVANTAGES OF DISCUSSION METHOD

- 1. Discussion presupposes adequate preparation. It is impossible to reflect effectively upon facts and concepts that are unknown or incompletely comprehended.
- 2. The discussion method is extremely difficult to use well.
- 3. Discussion can easily become a policy of ignorance.
- 4. Group agreement or consensus does not ensure accomplishment of objectives.
- 5. It is unpredictable in its outcome.

THE PROJECT METHOD

The project method is not really a specific method. Rather, it is a general name for the form of the teaching – learning process that consists of students working on some task with relatively little direct interaction with the teacher. The method was the idea of pragmatic educational ideas of the famous American educationalist and philosopher John Dewey. It was however developed and shaped by Dr. William Head Kilpatric of the University of Colombia in the U.S.A.

The method is important for solving problems. It is a good method of generating activity for the development of the cognitive, affective and psychomotor.

MAJOR PRINCIPLES OF THE PROJECT METHOD

Six major principles of project method:

- 1. Freedom: it must not be forced on students but must be spontaneous. There should be restrictions and imposition in thought and expression.
- 2. Reality: it must deal with real life situations. Learning processes become very meaningful if they are linked with life situations which interest the learner.
- 3. Experience: Experience is gained when the student undertakes a variety of activities which are closely related to his interests. Students come face to face with real life situation and it gives them first hand information.
- 4. Purpose: An awareness of purpose or objective of embarking upon a learning experience not only serves as a great stimulus, it also enhances the students chance. The project method ensures that purposeful and worthwhile activities are undertaken by students.
- 5. Activity: the student is involved actively both mentally and physically to ensure effective learning.
- 6. Utility: effective learning takes place when the learner is aware that what is learnt is of importance and can be put to some use to his advantage.

STEPS IN THE PROJECT PROCESS

- 1. Creating a congenial atmosphere
- 2. Selection and purposing: Planning: planning is the next thing which the students have to grapple with after a consensus has been reached on the choice of the project. The teacher should guide the students in planning for the project.
- 3. Carrying out the plan: students have to look for the materials needed for the project. It requires a great deal of searching and collating.
- 4. Self evaluation: it is essential that the work is reviewed when it is completed. The teacher should let the students evaluate their own work. It is important because it helps students to give a balanced assessment of themselves and any performance that they have put up.
- 5. Documentation: there is the need to record all the activities which have been undertaken in the project. The details of the various steps adopted should be properly documented.

CHARACTERISTICS OF A GOOD PROJECT

Aggarwal (1982) suggests the following characteristics:

- 1. Timely: the project should be related directly to the lesson and vocational interest.
- 2. Usefulness: it must fulfil a long-standing need. It must be capable of being applied to life.
- 3. Interesting: they must appeal to the emotional hunger and drives of the students.
- 4. Challenging: projects should neither be too simple and easy nor too long and difficult.
- 5. Economical: they should not unnecessarily tax the energy and pocket of the students.
- 6. Rich in experience: the project selected should be capable of correlating different subjects and practical activities of life.
- 7. Co-operativeness: the student should be allowed to think and plan independently and co-operatively.

MERITS OF THE PROJECT METHOD

- 1. Related to life
- 2. Promoting a democratic way of life:
- 3. Promote citizenship education
- 4. Lessens the incidence of indiscipline
- 5. Based on some principles of learning
- 6.

LIMITATIONS OF PROJECT METHOD

- 1. Lack of competent teachers
- 2. Unsuitable for students who shirk responsibilities
- 3. Lack of requisite textbooks
- 4. Time consuming
- 5. Unsuitable for students on transfer.

THE PROBLEM SOLVING METHOD

According to Aggarwal (1982), Problem solving is a method of teaching in which the learner uses his experience and ability to solve problems which confront him. This method follows the discovery process. The problem solving method is scientific in nature. It is a plan of attack on a problem. The plan comes through thinking (cognitive process).

Pattern is a concept very much useful in problem solving. The pattern of doing something is developed in the mind when the child learns to put together jigsaw puzzles. It is the thinking that serves as the driving force for one's action hence it is very important. Systematic action does not come without thinking.

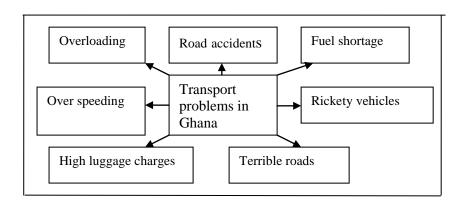
STAGES OF PROBLEM SOLVING

Problem solving goes through the following stages:

- 1. Definition of the problem
- 2. The stage 2 of the problem solving method is referred to as the stage of dissection.
 - a. The problem is critically looked at and broken up to see if it is a single problem or has other related problems.
 - b. When the different parts of the problem are seen and how they are connected is identified, it reveals several alternative solutions to the main problem (defined problem).
 - c. The next thing to do having known the alternative solutions is to be able to select possible solutions and putting them together.
 - d. The selected solution is the utilised (put into action).

e. When the solution is put to use, it should be closely studied to see if really it overcomes the problem and whether it would bring new unexpected problem, so that the needed adjustment could be made in the solution selected.

Diagram showing a defined problem and the aspects related.



KEY SKILLS DEVELOPED IN THE PROBLEM SOLVING METHODS

- Discovering patterns, rules and concepts
- Collecting information
- Explaining events
- Trying a process to see the effect
- Observing events
- Describing events or parts of objects
- Re-combining, using rules and regulations.

SOME EXAMPLES OF PROBLEMS THAT CAN BE TACKLED THROUGH PROBLEM SOLVING METHOD

- Flooding
- Fire outbreak
- Food scarcity
- Water shortage
- Epidemic
- Truancy
- Teenage Pregnancy.

IMPLICATIONS OF THE PROBLEM SOLVING METHODS FOR TEACHING (THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER)

- i. The method is a discovery method so the teacher's duty is to encourage the pupils to develop the skills of using the project.
- ii. The teacher should assume a low profile in the teaching and learning process and allow the pupils to do most of the activities.
- iii. Assist pupils to choose problems on which they will work.
- iv. The teacher encourages different styles of working with common materials
- v. He should encourage the learners to work t arrive at different results
- vi. The teacher should not be disturbed with the failure of the learners to arrive at results rather should build in them freedom to experience and willingness to take risk
- vii. The teacher should allow pupils to present and discuss their results in class.

THE DIFFERENCES BETWEEN PROJECT AND PROBLEM SOLVING METHODS

PROJECT

- methods and plans
- 2)Practical approach leading to a specific product or item
- 3) Project activities may last for weeks
- 4) Involves both cognitive and physical interaction
- 5) It requires elaborate formulation and 5) It requires a simple procedure. procedure

PROBLEM SOLVING

- 1)Students are free to follow their own 1) Stresses on specific plan of attack(use of scientific methods and special way of thinking about problems
 - 2) Primary school targets is on development of skills of problem solving and the use of scientific method.
 - 3) Problem solving activities last in shorter times e.g. one day
 - 4) May involve only cognitive interaction.

WHY PROBLEM SOLVING IS NOT PROMINENT IN SCHOOLS

- 1. Most primary school teachers believe that the method is good for mature students not primary school.
- 2. It takes too much time.
- 3. Lack of materials.

MERITS

- 1. It promotes cognitive development.
- 2. Learners develop the skill of solving problems.
- 3. Some topics in the syllabus demand the use of problem solving method.
- 4. Learners develop analytic mind through problem solving method.
- 5. The method is applicable in most subject areas among which are science, maths, environmental studies, physical education and recreation.
- 6. It is useful for attitudinal development.
- 7. It is suitable for use at all school levels.

DEMERITS

- 1. The problem solving method is not easy to implement.
- 2. It is time consuming.
- 3. It is costly since almost all the different skills to be developed through the problem solving method demand various materials to be used by the learner to improve his skills.

CO-OPERATIVE LEARNING

MEANING

Co-operative learning is a teaching approach where students are assigned to work in small groups to maximize each individual's and group's learning. Learning groups normally consists of 5-8 students who work on an assignment or project together in such a way that each group member contributes to the learning process and also learn the basic concepts being taught. Both individual students and the group as a whole are held accountable for the outcome. The learners in a team work through tasks until all group members successfully understand the task and complete the assignment.

CHARACTERISTICS

- 1) Positive Interdependence. This is where each individual provides support for the other in the learning process. This can be encouraged by establishing the following:
- i. mutual learning goals
- ii. joint reward
- iii. shared materials and information
- iv. assigned roles
- 2) Face to face interaction. Each member of the group takes part in all sessions as absenteeism is not tolerated. A clear understanding of group processes and the willingness to ensure personal and group success reduces the rate of absenteeism.
- 3) Individual accountability for self and others. Each works to ensure personal and collective understanding of the given task(s).
- 4) Use of effective interpersonal skills. Teachers need to teach appropriate communication, leadership, trust, decision-making, and conflict management skills to students and provide motivation to use these skills for effective functioning of the groups.
- 5) Group evaluation. Group members evaluate and discuss how well they are meeting their goals, what actions help their group and what actions seem to hurt group interactions. They may articulate these evaluations during the class discussion or provide the teacher with written reports. Students should also have a way of alerting the teacher to group problems.

PRACTICE

Cooperative learning can be put into practice through the following measures:

- 1) Students of the same or varied ability are grouped irrespective of social background.
- 2) Leaders and secretaries are selected or appointed by the group or the teacher.
- 3) Various responsibilities are assigned to and within the group.
- 4) Learning procedures may be characterised by activities such as debates, brainstorming, discussion, etc.
- 5) Compilation and presentation of learning outcomes.

Some of the activities that use cooperative learning are as follows:

- 1. Think-Pair-Share: this is a three step co-operative structure where in the first step learners think silently about a question posed by the teacher. They then pair up to exchange thoughts. Finally they share their responses with other pairs, other teams or with the whole group.
- 2. Three-minute review: in this technique, teachers stop at various intervals during a lesson and give teams three minutes to review what has been taught, they then ask questions for clarification or answer questions.
- 3. Number Heads: this involves a team of four, each with a number of 1 to 4. A question is given and groups work on the question together in such a way that every member of the group can verbally answer the question. The teacher calls out a number and each pupil who has been assigned that number will be required to provide the answer on behalf of the group.
- 4. Jigsaw: this involves setting up groups of five with each member being given some unique material to learn and teach his group members. All those who are assigned the same material meet to master the material and then return to teach their original group members as experts for the area they worked on. The whole class is then assessed on all the areas given for study.

BENEFITS

- i. Improves comprehension of basic academic content.
- ii. Reinforce social skills.
- iii. It is beneficial to students who learn best through social or group learning processes.
- iv. It creates active learning environment and makes learning mutually beneficial to teachers and students.
- v. It boosts students self esteem.
- vi. It enhances diverse learning styles.
- vii. It promotes sense of responsibility in students.
- viii. It makes teachers work easier where there is cooperation from learners.

DEMERITS

- i. Not very suitable to students who do not learn best through groups.
- ii. Some members may dominate the group at the expense of others.
- iii. Non-cooperating students can retard the work of the group.
- iv. It can be frustrating in the absence of proper guidance and relevant material.

DYADS

This is a small group which comprises approximately two to seven sub-groups. The purpose is to enable them share ideas and bring individuals together for discussion or problem solving. The smaller the group, the greater the chance of individual participation.

The sub-groups work under the principles of cooperative learning. Each sub-group thus has a membership of 4 to 8. Each sub-group is given an assignment to undertake and when they are through a forum is created for each group to present its work which is discussed by all the other groups.

The turn-taking continues until all the issues are exhausted and every sub-group has had the opportunity to present and have its work discussed.

PROCESS

- 1. Assign task to each group. It may be one task assigned to all groups or each group might be assigned with a different task.
- 2. Clearly state the purpose of each task and impose time limit for the completion of tasks.
- 3. Clearly define how the group work is to be presented.
- 4. Shared responsibility for presentation is given to all group members. This is to promote readiness for learning and ensure the maximum participation of all members within each group.

The merits and demerits of dyads follow the merits and demerits of the cooperative learning approach.

SIMULATION METHODS

A simulation is a representation or re-creation of a real object, problem, event, or situation. Although it mirrors reality, a simulation removes the possibility of injury or risk to the participants. The learner nevertheless plays an active role, engaged in demonstrating a behaviour or previously acquired skill or knowledge. Simulation can be used to stimulate interest in a topic, provide information, enhance skill development, change attitudes, and assess performance by measuring it against an already established standard (Greenblat, 1988). Simulation exercises should be selected for specific learning objectives for which they

are appropriate. All simulation exercises should stimulate learners to learn more through independent study or research.

When engaged in simulations students become immersed in the activities almost immediately. It promotes the taking of initiative and social interaction among students. It also involves an element of risk taking among participants. Though there is no penalty for 'wrong' responses, participants tend to view simulations in a serious personal way, especially those that require decisions about critical human values. Simulations seem to be more easily applied to the study of issues than of processes. They encourage students to express themselves on the various sides of an issue. It is used to provide opportunity for students to gain experiences that they may ordinarily not get from the routine application of learning skills and principles. What the teacher needs is some ingenuity, knowledge of the subject, initiative, and imagination, to design an effective small-group simulation.

GOALS OF SIMULATION

- 1. Develop changes in students' attitudes
- 2. Change specific behaviours
- 3. Prepare participants for assuming new roles in the future
- 4. Help individuals understand their current roles
- 5. Increase students' ability to apply principles
- 6. Reduce complex problems or situations to manageable elements
- 7. Illustrate roles that may affect students' lives but that they may never assume
- 8. Motivate learners
- 9. Develop analytical processes
- 10. Sensitizes individuals to other persons' life roles.

ROLE PLAY

Role play as an activity occurs when children imagine they are somebody else e.g. father, mother, nurse, driver, policeman, etc. and pretend to do their jobs. They use role play to learn about the people around them and their environment.

IMPORTANCE/PURPOSES

- 1. Role play helps children to practice skills, standards, attitudes and social habits they will use later in life e.g. bandaging, sorting, mothering etc.
- 2. It helps children bring into the open many of their anxieties and worries such as those that have frightened or shocked them. E.g. quarrels among parents and injections at hospital until they come to terms with them.
- 3. Their make-believe play which involves anger, violence, frustration, etc act as safety valves through which they can release tension.
- 4. Imaginative play, even when done alone, is a form of communication. Whether we talk of experimentation, creative role or role play, the teacher's role remains the same as one of facilitation.

CRITERIA FOR USING ROLE PLAY

- 1. The child needs an environment rich in materials with which he can play.
- 2. Too little material to play with will limit and restrict his experiences to an extent that she may not discover the patterns of relationships in his world. Such discoveries would form his foundation for subsequent learning.
- 3. Materials must be suited to her age and level, otherwise she will easily get bored and frustrated.

- 4. Showing an interest in what they are doing, talking about them and with encouraging remarks will build up their confidence.
- 5. Giving them freedom to operate, but guiding them with least restrictions will build up their independence.
- 6. If you answer their questions as honestly as possible, it will make them fearless in finding out the truth about things.

GAMES

A game is an activity with a goal, rules and lots of fun. Children's games may be grouped as:

- a. Outdoor and indoor games
- b. Competitive and co- operative games
- c. Individual and group games
- d. Counting and reading games
- e. Board and non board games

PURPOSE OF GAMES

- a. To reinforce and practice ideas or skills taught
- b. For investigation
- c. To fill time / occupy pupils whilst teacher is busy
- d. For fun
- e. For reinforcement eg. Ludo can be used to reinforce the concept 1-6
- f. For inculcating attitudes: if desirable habits and bad habits are incorporated into the game, the more you play, the more you pick up the attitudes

USING GAME AS A METHOD

- a. You must decide the purpose the game will serve in teaching
- b. Using your handbook, you can select or invent a game
- c. Have rules governing the game to avoid arguments, quarrels and fights
- d. Rules must include how one wins. Younger children cannot follow many rules examples of games: chain games, Kims game.

DEMONSTRATION METHOD

It is a method of teaching in which the teacher begins the lesson by acting in a way that will send signals to the learners as to how to go about to be able to perform the activity the teacher intends to teach them.

It involves showing the learner how a new skill, activity, etc. should be done. This means that the method is applicable in cognitive, psychosocial and psychomotor fields of learning. When the teacher operates a machine or manipulates equipment to the observation of the learners or performs an activity in physical education, home economics, etc. for the learners to watch so that they could also perform, act, read, etc, the teacher is said to be using the demonstration method.

TECHNIQUES IN PREPARING AND PERFORMING A DEMONSTRATION

- 1. Task analysis
- 2. Preparation of explanatory materials.
- 3. Rehearsal of demonstration
- 4. Preparation of outline
- 5. Preparation of environment.
- 6. Decision on type of demonstration

7. Preparation of written material.

PERFORMING THE DEMONSTRATION

- 1. Establish proper attitude
- 2. Keep the demonstration simple
- 3. Refrain from deviating from salient point
- 4. Use proper pacing for dramatic effect
- 5. Constantly check on students understanding
- 6. Summarise and conclude

HOW TO ORGANISE AN EFFECTIVE DEMONSTRATION LESSON - TEACHER'S ROLE

- 1. The class seating arrangement should be a horse-shoe formation with the teacher located in the middle almost surrounded by the learners. This ensures that whatever the teacher does is clearly visible to the learners.
- 2. All materials required for the lesson should be made ready in the class before the lesson. They should be orderly arranged to effect coherent lesson delivery.
- 3. The teacher should give advance organisers to the learners by way of stating the learning objectives on the board or verbally before beginning the lesson.
- 4. Review the relevant previous knowledge of the learners through questions to link the new lesson.
- 5. Ensure attentiveness on the part of the learners.
- 6. Perform the activity step by step explaining thoroughly at each step how the activity is performed.
- 7. Make sure the key ideas in the activity being performed is clearly outstanding.
- 8. Be very skilful when performing an act or operating the machine, equipment, etc.
- 9. Find out whether learners are attentive and following what is being done through effective questions.
- 10. Assign students to work or perform activities to test their understanding.
- 11. As learners are performing the teacher should move round to supervise.
- 12. Keep other learners meaningfully occupied (performing an activity) when demonstrating to a part of the class, i.e. keep the learners positively busy.
- 13. Give precautions seriously to the learners.
- 14. The teacher should not speak directly to the materials, equipment, etc. but to the learners.
- 15. The teacher should provide a summary of what is being taught or learnt.

MERITS

- 1. Learners get first hand information.
- 2. Learners learn by doing.
- 3. Learners make good use of their senses hence learning becomes firm in the learner.
- 4. Learners take advantage of realism in the learning situation by observing, being briefed on the use of the tools, equipment, etc.
- 5. There is always a model from the teacher to be imitated be the learners.
- 6. It allows for immediate feedback (knowledge of results) and correction of faults.
- 7. It make learners learn by knowing how to perform an activity, operate a machine, etc. instead of knowing about an activity, an equipment, etc.

DEMERITS

1. Lesson delivery becomes useless activity if teacher is inexperienced in the handling of equipment in the performance of the activity.

- 2. The equipment, tool, machine, etc. for the demonstration may be faulty in the process therefore rendering the lesson a waste of time and energy.
- 3. It is costly in most cases since a demonstration on the use of the machine etc. should be concrete not abstract.
- 4. It is best suited for vocational skills training and not in all subject areas.
- 5. Demonstration method does not develop concepts and ideas.
- 6. Learners learn how to do it without knowing it is done.

EDUCATIONAL VISITS AND FIELD EXPERIENCES

Field work (also referred to as field trip) is the teaching and learning that takes place outside classrooms or laboratories. It can take place within the school, the environs of the school, or in the community within which the school is situated.

There are two major types of field work: the structured and the unstructured. In the unstructured field work method the teacher prompts the students to indicate any phenomenon which is of interest to them and they would like to study. The teacher only serves as a guide and a facilitator.

In the structured type, the students are aware of what definite task they have to perform in the field. They go out to observe and look for pre-planned issues or problems.

Ways of having a successful fieldwork

- 1. Prerequisites: the teacher should be the first to visit the place of interest to familiarise himself with the conditions there.
- 2. Pre-field work activities: the teacher introduces the project/method through a lead lesson. It may be a lecturette, a film or a video show. This is then followed by a teacher-class discussion.
- 3. Fieldwork activities: as soon as the students assemble in the school for a fieldwork, there should be a head count. The teacher should select a meeting place. The activities which students perform in the field should vary according to the study undertaken. As students work in the field the teacher goes round to counsel, help offer suggestions, and general support. There should be another headcount after the days' work.
- 4. Post-field work activities: Data collected in the field should be organised and presented. It is relevant at this stage that each group makes a conscious effort to sift relevant information from what is not relevant. The material is then reported to the entire class. The class then criticise or commend where due. This can give room for a group to make some modifications or corrections.

MERITS

- 1. It enhances cooperative learning.
- 2. The group work promotes tolerance in students.
- 3. Students learn to work on their own as they are given individual assignments to carry out.
- 4. It exposes the learner to the real world situation which cannot be compared to other classroom teaching-learning activities.
- 5. The students learn to become good leaders and followers in respective grounds.
- 6. Through observation the students discover new ideas.
- 7. It eliminates abstract thinking and encourages practical activity.
- 8. Through the method, the students are able to think critically.

DEMERITS

1. many teachers lack the skills to organise fieldwork

- 2. It is time consuming.
- 3. It can sometimes affect the school's programme.
- 4. It exposes students to hazards.
- 5. It may be costly to organise.

OTHER INDUCTIVE AND DEDUCTIVE METHODS

The deductive method is defined as a method in teaching that proceeds from rules or generalisations to examples and subsequently to conclusions onto the application of the generalisations.

By deduction on the other hand the pupils arrive at particular facts by applying previously established conclusions, propositions, or generalisations. By this rule axioms or other generalisations are given and the pupils apply general conclusions to the particular problem at the moment. By this the pupil first considers and understands what the problem is, he then has to select the correct principle to apply. Then thirdly he draws an inference which may or may not prove to be correct. The child should look at the teacher to confirm his solutions to the problem.

Inductive reasoning is defined as reasoning that proceeds from known data to a generalisation such as a theory or hypotheses that will explain at hand.

Through questioning generalisations and inferences the children establish their own rule. The inductive method requires the learner to find out things for himself. The child finds it an intriguing experience to search for the common element in a group of things or events. In the primary school the child tends to have fixed ideas on a biased mind but he must be taught to consider all possibilities that his classmates, his teacher and he himself can think of or anticipate.

In the upper primary the child must be made increasingly aware of the scientific process of inductive reasoning. The following steps provide a summary of the pattern.

- a. a problem is presented and defined.
- b. Various hypotheses on the possible explanations are proposed.
- c. Procedures are devised for testing each hypothesis in turn and factors not being tested are controlled.
- d. Data are collected in a systematic fashion.
- e. The data are searched for common element or relationship.
- f. The result is applied to similar problem or situation.

UNIT THREE

TEACHER- CENTRED METHODS AND STRATEGIES OF TEACHING

Teacher centred methods of teaching refers to the approach to teaching in which the teacher feeds the learners with knowledge. This type of teaching is also known as the 'Expository Teaching Method'. The teacher is viewed as the store of knowledge or ideas hence in the teaching and learning process, the pupils only listen attentively to receive ideas or knowledge from the teacher.

The role of the teacher in the expository approach to teaching is to select what is to be taught or learnt. This method is indeed a spoon-feeding approach to teaching. No opportunity is created for the learners to find things themselves. With this method, the only task of the learner is to listen, observe, receive the information and try to understand it. The lecture method is a typical and commonest form of the expository method.

OUESTIONING

What is a Question?

A question is a problem which needs to be discussed. In an examination, a question is a problem which is set in order to test our knowledge or ability. According to Koomson et al (2000;207) a question may be interrogative statement or command. E.g. "Tell me what you see in this book." (Command)

"We will describe what you see in the book" (command)

"What do see in this book?" (Interrogative)

All the above sentences are expecting responses.

In the context of teaching however, question may be defined as a teacher utterance which has the objective of eliciting an oral response from the learners. I.e. is an oral response statement or gesture intended to evoke a student response?

The reasons for questioning

It enables the teacher:

- 1. Know what is in the mind of the learners.
- 2. Make the pupils express what they have understood in the lesson.
- 3. Make the learners think.
- 4. Remind learner about important issues or points which they may not deem important.
- 5. Remind learners of what they know.
- 6. To find out if learners can use their knowledge
- 7. To make the introverts express themselves in class, i.e. it prompts pupils to take part in the lesson.
- 8. To draw learners attention to the main points in the lesson.
- 9. To check and correct inattention, i.e. it keeps the learners alert
- 10. To find out how effective his teaching has been, i.e. to assess the achievement of the lesson objective(s).

KINDS OF QUESTIONS AND PURPOSE

FACTS QUESTIONS:

They are meant to draw up thought. They call for quick responses. E.g. to test whether learners remember names, dates, etc.

DRILL QUESTIONS:

To sharpen children's memories. They aid memorisation. They are also known as warm-up questions.

THOUGHT QUESTIONS

They are meant to encourage originality in answering. Thought questions lead to general discussions by the class. They are used to stimulate questions from the learners themselves. Thought questions require reasoning or judgement on a problem.

DISCUSSION QUESTIONS:

The questions make learners form different points of view. The teacher does not explain what he expects from the learners.

EXPLORATORY QUESTIONS:

These questions are asked to introduce a lesson. It seeks to remind learners of what they have been taught before. (Review of P.K) they are check – up test. The aim is to stir up learners' eagerness to know more. It also let the teacher know the knowledge of the learners and what to build on.

EDUCATION QUESTIONS:

They are meant to let the learner compare, imagine, or infer so it enable the learners build upon their ideas as the teacher wants. The questions are therefore call for real mental effort of the learners.

AID-TO- MEMORY QUESTIONS:

These questions are meant to let learners remember things they often forget. They are used only when pupils go against rules, advice or instructions.

TYPES OF QUESTIONS AND PURPOSE

RHETORICAL/FUENCY: They test how fluent learners are. Learners are expected to answer in full.

PROMPTING QUESTIONS: The wordings of such questions suggest their answers. They prompt pupils to make them answer questions. E.g. Godfred is a good spokesman, isn't he? Teachers resort to these questions on realising that learners find his lesson difficult to understand.

CONVERGENT: They are questions that limit answers to single or small number if responses. The learner has already heard the answer before or has previously read or heard and is only to recall the facts. E.g. "What does the term etc mean? What is the name of your class teacher?

Convergent questions are also called direct or closed response.

DIVERGENT QUESTIONS: These questions are opened for several responses i.e. it has no single answer but it can have wrong answers. The questions do not require specific answers. The questions do not require specific answers to be right or wrong. Divergent questions are also known as indirect questions.

They are aimed at encouraging speculation and creativity among learners. They also make learners think critically.

e.g. the question 'who is the most important person in Ghana?" will call for several answers.

PROBING QUESTIONS: They are questions that immediately follow a student's response to a question. Probing questions are also called investigation questions.

Probing questions are used to elicit clarification because they induce learners to show more of what they know thereby revealing exactly what they understand.

They are also used to solicit new information. Thus they make respondents follow up their responses with small extension of their responses.

HIGHER ORDER QUESTIONS: these questions make pupils think and analyse issues.

FOCUSING QUESTIONS: They are also known as recapitulatory questions. They are asked at the end of each stage of the lesson and at the end of the lesson. They help the teacher to find out whether learners have assimilated what has been taught. It helps the learners to get in mind the important facts. They provide summary of each stage of the lesson.

LOWER ORDER QUESTIONS: These questions demand simple responses like Yes/No; True/False.

WHEN TO QUESTION DURING TEACHING AND LEARNING

(A) AT THE BEGINNING OF LESSON i.e. introduction of a lesson.

- 1. To test children's precious knowledge.
- 2. To call children to attention to begin a lesson.
- 3. To arouse the curiosity of the learners.

(B) DURING THE LESSON.

- 1. To encourage learner involvement in the lesson.
- 2. To find out how far the learners have understood the lesson up to a point.
- 3. To correct misconceptions of learners.
- 4. To call learners to attention.

(C) AT THE END OF THE LESSON

- 5. To evaluate the lesson taught.
- 6. To stress the most important points.
- 7. To find out the difficulty areas of the learners.

HOW TO MAKE QUESTIONS EFFECTIVE

- 1. Questions must be clear and straightforward meaning and wording.
- 2. Questions should dwell on important details.
- 3. Questions should be put in a logical order.
- 4. Questions should be put for all learners in the classroom not specific learners.
- 5. Questions may be carefully written down before hand.

HOW TO QUESTION

How to ask question during the teaching and learning process is a skill to be acquired by all teachers. Among other techniques teachers can adopt when asking questions in class are as follows:

1. Avoid chorus responses from learners.

Defects of chorus responses

a. some individuals may noticeably not take part. It therefore suppresses individual self expression.

- b. it decreases individual thought. Individuals may not think of the question to be answered.
- c. it does not permit the teacher to monitor feedback from individual learners.
- 2. Teachers should follow a simple five-part questioning procedure to draw the mind of all the learners to the question.

THE FIVE PART QUESTIONING PROCEDURE

- 1. Ask question before naming a pupil to answer the question.
- 2. Pause ("wait times"). This will make every learner have time to think about the question. While waiting, watch the learners for non-verbal feedback to determine how long to pause; at least three seconds.
- 3. Call on one learner at a time and by name.
- 4. Listen to the answer.
- 5. Emphasise the correct answer.

THE EXPOSITORY TEACHING PROCESS

The expository method is a method where the teacher leads students through a carefully planned sequence of activities to arrive at learning objectives using either statements or questions or both. The teacher presents the materials or lesson to be learned in a well structured way whilst students attempt to assimilate or keep the facts to be remembered in memory. The commonest forms of exposition are the lecture and lecture-demonstration methods.

In the school situation, exposition is achieved through reception learning. Reception learning refers to the situation where the teacher organised information in its final state for learners to receive. The basic difference between receptive learning and expository teaching is that in reception learning, pupils are presented information in organised teacher-structured lessons, whilst in expository teaching is an instructional technique in which information is presented to pupils in an organised finished form. The following format is used:

- a. Structure and organise the information to be learnt.
- b. Select materials that are appropriate to the level of students.
- c. Present material in a well organised and systematic way that progress from general to specific details.
- d. Ensure that effective feedback techniques are used to ensure that pupils pay attention.

For reception learning to be effective the following should be ensured:

- 1. The pupil must **remember** what he or she receives from the teacher. After the pupil receives the rule by hearing or reading he must try to remember it.
- 2. The pupil must **understand** what he or she receives from the teacher or he or she must turn what is received in the mind and understand the rule.
- 3. The pupil must attempt to **generalise** the information he or she receives form the teacher. He or she must try to find particular instances of this rule.
- 4. The pupil after receiving the information from the teacher must **act**. By acting the pupil is expected to be able to give back the information when he or she is requested to do so.

David Ausubel (1968) outlines three principal stages of exposition lesson presentation.

LECTURE METHOD

In this method, the teacher presents the subject matter and does most of the talking for the pupils to listen. The teacher arranges the subject matter systematically for the learners to

absorb it in the form it was presented to them. The assumption with this method is that the learner does not have any knowledge but the teacher has all knowledge.

This method is teacher centred because it stresses on the initiative, interest, planning ability and the involvement of the teacher. It also stresses on the pupil's listening ability.

CONDITIONS FOR USE OF THE LECTURE METHOD

- 1. to give highlights of a new topic to prepare the minds of the learners on the new topic. This is done at the beginning of the lesson.
- 2. To provide a summary for a lesson taught. This could be done in the middle (during) of the lesson or at the end of the lesson. This reinforces retention of what is learnt (remembering).
- 3. To give some information known by the teacher but generally unknown by learners.
- 4. When the class size is so large and materials (resources) available are so limited that class involvement may pose problems.

THE MERITS OF LECTURE METHOD

- a. Lecture has large content coverage
- b. It is desirable for a large class size
- c. It is economical in terms of time and use of resources
- d. It trains and develops the listening powers (attentiveness) of the learners
- e. The learner learns how to take down notes during the teaching and learning process.
- f. It improves the spelling ability of the learners.
- g. It makes the learners develop feeling of security and confidence since the knowledge, information, ideas and the way of doing things are coming from the teacher. Learners are confident that the knowledge they receive is authentic.

THE DEMERITS OF THE LECTURE METHOD

- 1. It does not encourage learner participation.
- 2. This method is not appropriate at the basic level
- 3. It does not help the pupils to know how to solve problems since solution for problems are cooked for.
- 4. The learners especially at the basic school levels find lecture boring and tend to lose interest in the lesson
- 5. Individual pace of learning is absent with the lecture method.
- 6. With this method, teachers can hardly monitor learning progress as it brews rote learning without understanding and pouring to be forgotten immediately.
- 7. It does not promote individual attention from the teacher.
- 8. It does not respect the concept of individual differences.

HOW TO MAKE LECTURE METHOD EFFECTIVE

- 1. The teacher should make adequate preparation i.e. the teacher should have mastery of the subject matter and should understand every concept within the content area.
- 2. The attention of learners should be maintained by the use of visual materials such as charts, diagrams, illustrations, pictures and realia (real objects).
- 3. The teacher should consider his choice of words. This will make the learners understand what they hear from the teacher.
- 4. The teacher should possess good teaching voice i.e. neither too loud nor too low. It should be audible and clear.
- 5. The teacher should have adequate knowledge of the learners' abilities, interests, achievements and age levels so that what he presents would be within the learners' level of assimilation.

- 6. The teacher should respect the concept of individual differences so that his lecture would satisfy the individuality of the learners.
- 7. The teacher should move at a moderate speed so that he would be followed closely by learners.
- 8. The teacher during the lesson delivery should face the class and should not speak to one side of the class.
- 9. The teacher should when necessary make use of gestures to convey meaning to what he says.
- 10. Allow children room to ask questions for clarification of salient points.
- 11. Emphasise important points in the course of the lecture.
- 12. The teacher should avoid the use of distracting or annoying mannerisms.

USING DRILLS

Drill is a skill to be learned and used by all teachers. Drills are activities that promote over learning in pupils. Frequent repetition of what is learnt reinforces learning. It is also known as Drill-and-practice approach to teaching. The learner is taken through series of practice or exercise on a new skill or task to renew the task or the information fresh in mind. Drill is mostly used in subject areas like maths, language (especially foreign language) and equipping learners with vocabulary.

CONDUCTING DRILL WORK (USING DRILLS)

Teachers need to properly plan if they want to use drill to make what learners learn permanent with the learners. The teacher should adequately understand the nature of the drill to be used and both the teacher and the learners should approach the drill exercise very well. Drill exercise should target the set objectives. Drill should be applied to make responses fixed after learners have understood material learnt to make learning meaningful and not rote learning.

Drill should not cover a lengthy period or time. Instead of a lengthy block period, it should be spread over shorter periods.

The teacher should be aware and indicate the form of drill he\she intends apply.

As and when desirable teacher should make use of mnemonic devices ie acronyms. Drill-and-practice should be lead to permanent learning.

NATURE OF DRILL AND PRACTICE.

Drill and practice are techniques used after a lesson has been taught. Drill and practice are not teaching methods but use to reinforce or help learners to master what they have learnt.

Drill is not the same as practice. Drill stress on repetition so as to memorize the important facts in the lesson whereas practice stresses on memorization, application or intelligence use of and manipulation of facts. Repetition help learners to be accurate and perfect in the use of knowledge acquired.

Drill stress on repetition of motor skills or mental responses. Practice is a more meaningful and purposeful repetition.

WHEN DRILL IS NEEDED

- 1. When there is the need to memorise facts, formulas, quotation, symbols, names, dates, places, vocabularies, spellings.
- 2. When one wishes to memorise verbatim definitions, theories, principles or rules.
- 3. To make important mental or motor skills automatic. E.g. Pronunciations, grammar spiking or serving the ball in volleyball.

TECHNIQUES OF DRILL AND PRACTICE

The target of drill is to ensure automatic response by the learners having been given a cue and some little time to think of what the learner have learnt.

To achieve this, the teacher has to follow some steps among which are;

- a. identification of what the learner is going to be drilled on or practice.
- b. demonstrate to the learners the patterns for the drill. I.e. provide model for the drill.
- c. pupils should have the chance to practice or have the chance to practice.
- d. use variation of drill and practice.
- e. there should be individual exercise after the group practice.

ADVANTAGES OF DRILL AND PRACTICE

- 1. They indeed help students to understand better what they have learnt.
- 2. They polish or refine learnt skills and abilities.
- 3. They serve as foundation on which higher level cognition skills are built.
- 4. They are able to correct and improve parts of skills learnt.
- 5. They help general vocabulary and structure development.
- 6. They are especially useful in helping pupils become accustomed to and absorb the individual sounds and stress patterns of a new language.
- 7. They are based on Thorndike's law of exercise which states that all things being equal, the more a response is practiced frequently the more it is acquired.
- 8. They are very effective and useful strategy for developing learners' ability to memorise.

DISADVANTAGES OF DRILL AND PRACTICE

- 1. If learners are not highly encouraged, if the purpose is not clear and interested and accepted by the learners they tend to be boring thereby losing its worth.
- 2. When learners do not firmly grasp understanding for what they learn, drill and practice tend to mere rote-learning
- 3. High motivation to learners may be difficult to develop.
- 4. It takes a lot of time to make learners perfect through drills and repetition.

DIMENSIONS OF PLANNED REPETITION

There are 4 forms of repetition: Simple, Spaced, Massed, and Cumulative repetition.

SIMPLE REPETITION:

Repetition of a word, phrase, some concepts, principles etc immediately after it is mentioned. Example, when teaching key words in a reading lesson (Beginning of a lesson).

SPACED REPETITION:

The repetition of such ideas, concepts, principles etc at certain stages to reinforce them. E.g. Reciting the National Anthem and the National Pledge daily at morning assembly (some days/hours after teaching).

CUMMULATIVE REPETITION:

Repetition of major parts so far covered before continuing with the rest of the lesson. The aim is to provide anchorage for points already made and a base for points yet to be made. (Drill in the middle of a lesson).

MASSED REPETITION:

Repetition of all major points of the lesson as summary (the end of the lesson).

TYPES OF ORAL DRILL

1. **ADDITION DRILL**:-Teacher gives a pattern for children to repeat. Teacher then gives a further group of words which they add to the first.

Sample: Tr. : She'll leave. Tr. : At 5 o'clock Pupils: She'll leave

Pupils: She'll leave at 5 o'clock.

2. **INCLUSION DRILL**: Teacher gives a pattern for the class to follow up with a word which has to be correctly placed in a pattern.

Sample: Tr. : He's at the science laboratory.
Pupils: He's at the science laboratory.
Tr. : Still at the science laboratory.
Pupils: He's still at the science laboratory.

3. **REPLACEMENT DRILL**: The teacher gives a one word which has to replace the word in the given pattern.

Sample: Tr. : Kofi bought a bicycle.

Pupils: Kofi bought a bicycle.

Tr. : Bicycle.

Pupils: Kofi bought a bicycle.

Tr. : House.

Pupils: Kofi bought a house. The pattern is "Kofi bought a"

DISCUSSION METHOD (2)

TEACHER LED DISCUSSIONS

This is a method of teaching in which the teacher introduces the topic and invites views of pupils and gets the pupils involved. The lesson is developed with the involvement of the learners. The teacher leads, plans carefully a sequence of activities and he uses questions to lead the learners through. The success of this method is dependent on the type of questions and how they are presented.

Learners also ask questions for the teacher to answer. This promotes high understanding of what they learn. It is indeed a two-way approach to teaching and learning.

TYPES OF DISCUSSION

Depending on the class size and objectives of the discussion, the discussion method takes different forms, namely, **small group** and **whole class discussion**.

SMALL GROUP DISCUSSION

This type of discussion is mostly useful for mature learners. With this type, the class is put into small groups. The teacher goes round the class to find out how the group is progressing. The teacher may direct the group through leading questions. He may through the leading questions call the group to the path if the group is going off the topic.

The groups are to work within a time set. This makes the groups confine their discussions on only relevant issues. Each group appoints a secretary who records the decisions of the group. When the time is up, the secretary i.e. the recorder presents to the entire class the summary of the points for further discussions.

WHOLE CLASS DISCUSSION

This is suitable especially for young learners. It is mostly used when learners are not matured to lead discussions. The teacher becomes the leader for the whole class of learners.

The teacher initiates the discussion, interaction, directs the discussion among the learners. He ensures that, there is harmony in the class and that ideas flow from all angles of the classroom. He also sees to it that the argument is in line with the desired goals. The teacher ends the discussion by summarising the main and relevant points to the class.

The success of the whole class discussion depends on the teacher's ability to ensure good interactions and the pupils' active participation and knowledge of the topic.

ADVANTAGES OF THE DISCUSSION METHOD

- 1. It is a powerful tool for stimulating thought and checking pupils understanding.
- 2. Both teachers and pupils are actively involved in the discussion.
- 3. It promotes high teacher pupils, thus developing high interest in the learners.
- 4. The teacher and learners learn from each other.
- 5. The method develops verbal communication skills making pupils express themselves confidently.
- 6. Learners develop leadership skills in learners as the act as leaders to the groups.
- 7. It encourages constructive and logical thinking as irrelevant points would not be accepted by the group or class.
- 8. It develops and change undesirable attitude of learners.
- 9. It encourages the introverts (the quiet pupils) to participate in the lesson to make the lesson interesting.
- 10. It makes pupils more tolerant as they become aware of contrary views.
- 11. Learners' responses indicate to the teacher the success or otherwise of a lesson.

DISADVANTAGES

- 1. Discussion method may be time consuming.
- 2. Not all the types are suitable for young learners but matured learners.
- 3. Its success is at the mercy of the competency of the teacher and the leader.
- 4. The brighter learners may dominate discussion rendering the weaker ones mere observers of lesson.

THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER IN DISCUSSION METHOD (HOW TO MAKE IT EFFECTIVE)

- 1. Topic(s) for discussion should be given to the learners well ahead of time to give enough time for preparation.
- 2. The teacher should prepare very well the guide questions fir the discussion.
- 3. Teacher to get pupils involved in the discussion with the topic in focus.
- 4. The teacher should avoid unnecessary debate or argument.
- 5. The teacher should ensure that individual view points are welcomed and that no learner is laughed at or teased at in the discussion.
- 6. Ensure that the extroverts do not dominate the discussion at the expense if the introverts.
- 7. The teacher should ensure that definite conclusions are always arrived at.

- 8. The teacher should take note of the main points and summary with the main points provided for the learners.
- 9. Teacher should check excessive noise during the discussion.

ORGANISATION OF DISCUSSION METHOD (HOW TO ORGANISE DISCUSSION)

- 1. Let pupils be aware of what they have to do as prelude to the discussion
- 2. Let pupils be aware of the exact activity they have to concentrate on during the prediscussion activity.
- 3. Make the objective of the discussion very clear to the learners
- 4. Before the discussion, whether the task for the pre-discussion has been done by learners.
- 5. The class should be arranged in a horse-shoe formation.
- 6. The seating arrangement should be changed from activity to activity to make the arrangement suitable to the specific activity in progress.
- 7. To ensure fuller participation of all pupils, it is desirable to put the class into smaller groups.
- 8. Organise the discussion as an outdoor activity if the subject for discussion is on natural phenomenon, biological, geological or geographical features
- **9.** The teacher should see to it that every pupil is involved in the discussion

CASE STUDIES

Case study is a method of collecting accurate detailed information about a person's development, causes of one's or group failures etc.

PROCEDURES FOR CASE STUDY

- 1. Identification of the topic and the problem to be studied.
- 2. Preparation of questionnaires i.e. interview schedule for the collection of data. Besides the use of interview schedule, observation, experimentation, demonstration and library research may be used to collect reliable and valid information on the subject for the case study.
- 3. The reports and findings are assembled and latter discussed with other members of the

RELEVANCE (IMPORTANCE) OF CASE STUDY

- 1. Whether group work or individual work, case study encourages active learner participation.
- 2. Learners develop insight into solving future problems
- 3. The learner has the chance of using various resources, resource areas resource persons..

DEMERITS

- 1. For lack of funds it is not easy or sometimes not possible to have the needed materials for the study.
- 2. It is not economical (in terms of money, time and energy
- 3. It cannot be undertaken by inexperienced teachers.
- 4. Case study as a method of teaching is only suitable to the tertiary educational institutions, because the basic and senior secondary students cannot use case study.

UNIT FOUR

CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES

Classroom management may be defined as the process of organising and controlling the physical and social environment in the classroom to achieve educational goals. It may also be defined as the efficient control and efficient use of available resources in the classroom to promote learning.

The physical environment includes tangible objects or physical entities like the teacher's table and chair, pupils' tables and chairs or desks, the chalkboard, duster, textbooks, audiovisual aids, wall charts and pictures, cupboards and cabinets, and the teacher and pupils. The teacher and pupils in a classroom constitute a social unit and the types of interactions between the teacher and pupils constitute the social environment.

Class management includes all the strategies that the teacher uses to bring harmony into the teaching and learning environment.

The teacher as a manager of his class performs some management functions. These include *planning* what to teach, how and when to teach. This is done by preparing a lesson plan. The teacher also *budgets* for the material and human resources he will need in the teaching-learning environment. He is also expected to *organize* by arranging, assembling and using the physical and human resources to achieve stated objectives. He also *controls* by directing the teaching-learning process from beginning to end until the set objectives are attained. Finally the teacher performs the management function of *problem solving* by ensuring that the class environment is free of conflict and conducive for learning as well as helping individuals to deal with their personal, academic and social problems.

To perform these functions the teacher must have competence in **subject matter knowledge** (**content**) and in **action system knowledge** (**methodology**). In addition to these he must have a positive, consistent and firm personality that will empower him to exercise the influence on his class to achieve his set objectives.

Elements of Effective Classroom Management

Classroom management systems include routine ways of managing instructional and behavioural interactions in the classroom. Six key elements of effective classroom management are:

- > Planning
- > Establishing usable rules
- > Getting off on a good start
- > Monitoring the classroom environment
- > Keeping records efficiently
- > Creating strategies for managing interruptions.

IMPORTANCE OF MANAGING THE CLASSROOM

- 1. Good classroom management helps to promote discipline in the classroom to enhance teaching and learning.
- 2. It ensures harmony during the teaching and learning environment.

- 3. It again ensures healthy conditions under which classroom activities can be carried out effectively.
- 4. It again promotes the development of good behaviour and accepted patterns of life among peers.
- 5. Classroom management encourages the development of leadership skills among pupils.
- **6.** Good classroom management again helps to monitor pupils' progress in the classroom.

MOTIVATION

Motivation comes from the Latin word "movere" which means "to move". Motivation can therefore be explained as moving oneself and others to work towards the attainment of set individual as well as organisational goals. Slavin (1991) defined motivation as the influence of needs and desires on the intensity and direction of behaviour.

Lefton (1994) defined it as any condition, usually internal, that appears by inference to initiate, activate or maintain an organism's goal-directed behaviour.

Motivation as it relates to the classroom can be seen as a process of arousing and sustaining the interest of pupils in class activities.

THEORIES OF MOTIVATION

These are theories that explain the process of motivation. They include historical explanations, the behaviourist approach, the humanistic approach, and cognitive theories.

Historical Explanations

These are earlier theories that were generated to explain the concept of motivation. They include: The Instinct Theory which says that complex, unlearned patterns of behaviour common to an entire species account for behaviour.

The Arousal Theory proposed biological explanations. Theorists of this orientation propounded that increasing arousal is defined by psychological changes such as we experience in respiration and heart rate. This is normally accompanied by increasing alertness or wakefulness and ranges from very low state for example sleep and boredom to very high state such as panic and anxiety. People try to maintain an optimal level of arousal for maximally effective behaviour.

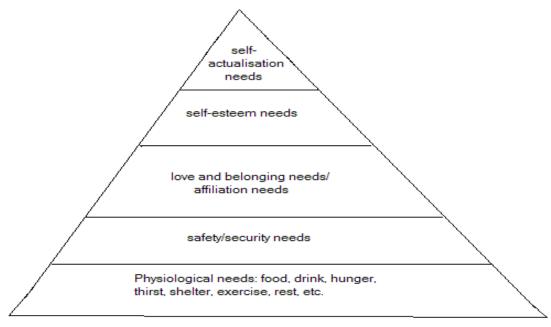
Behaviourist Approach

These theorists stress the importance of positive and negative extrinsic reinforcers. These are external influences that are brought to bear on the individual to arouse and sustain his interest in an activity. One important reinforcer is praise. The effectiveness of praise depends to a large extent on the kind of interpretation the pupil gives to the situation. Praise should therefore be used systematically, deliberately, and intelligently.

Humanistic Approach

These theorists on motivation emphasize intrinsic or internal motives such as those relating to autonomy, competence, and self-actualisation. Consequently, educators who ascribe to this orientation are especially concerned with the personal development of students and the enhancement of positive self-concepts. Abraham Maslow's humanistic theory presents a hierarchical arrangement of need systems, with physiological needs at the lowest level known as basic needs. At the highest level is the need for self-actualisation, also known as Meta

needs.



Maslow's Hierarchy of needs

Cognitive Approach

Cognitive theorists on motivation describe humans as active, exploring, evaluating organisms capable of delaying gratification and of explaining the outcomes of their won behaviours. Albert Bandura, one of the cognitive theorists proposed that the idea of **self-efficacy** that is personal effectiveness is important for determining which behaviours will be undertaken. He added that children are least likely to attempt activities when they expect failure and the amount of effort that will be put in an activity will be greater if success is anticipated. Judgements of self-efficacy are affected by the following:

✓ Enactive influences - successful outcomes increase positive judgement

✓ Vicarious influences - comparisons with others
 ✓ Persuasory influences - persuasion by others

✓ Emotive influences - high arousal can increase or decrease judgements of Self-efficacy

Weiner is another cognitivist who propounded the **attribution theory**. This theory says that individuals tend to attribute their success or failures to internal or external causes. Internal causes refer to one's ability and effort while external causes refer to difficulty or luck. Those who make attribution to internal causes are said to have internal locus of control, while those who make external attributions are said to have external locus of control.

TYPES OF MOTIVATION

The two types of motivation are Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation.

1. INTRINSIC MOTIVATION:

This is a type of motivation that comes from within an individual. It is a self-imposed motivation. The intrinsic motivation is the type where the learner is moved from within to perform a task without any external influence. It is influenced by self interest and excitement.

2. EXTRINSIC MOTIVATION:

The extrinsic motivation is externally imposed. It is a type of influence that comes from outside to induce learning. What triggers the extrinsic motivation is the use of rewards, praises, grades, promotions and interest teachers show in pupils' achievements. When one performs an act because someone has influenced him/her to do it, than that person has been motivated extrinsically.

IMPORTANCE OF MOTIVATION

- 1. Motivation puts learners on their toes as rewards and praises make them alert.
- 2. It encourages students to contribute during instructions.
- 3. Motivation gives students the courage to think more on a topic.
- 4. It again enables the teacher to secure the attention of the class.
- 5. It again creates interest and excitement that is necessary for classroom learning.

STRATEGIES FOR MOTIVATING LEARNERS

- 1. Teachers should plan their work to meet the different levels of aspirations among the pupils. Make provision for different materials, activities and projects for pupils of different abilities and aspirations.
- 2. Provoke the pupils' curiosity at the set-induction stage. For instance, the teacher can pose a problem or give a pre-test.
- 3. Encourage self-competition (intrinsic motivation) rather than making individuals compete against each other. Use group co-operation and team competition.
- 4. Use appropriate teaching learning materials and practical experiences in the teaching and learning process.
- 5. Use games, dramatisation and role-play to get pupils involved and to participate in lessons
- 6. The use of praises, marks, rewards, gifts etc. especially for average, slow learners and those who lack self-assurance.
- 7. Respect the needs and nature of students. Recognise differences in the abilities of students and set standards for performance that are congruent with what students can accomplish. Reward effort; nevertheless maintain standards for good work.
- 8. Take pupils on fieldwork or fieldtrips to change classroom atmosphere.
- 9. Set goals that are realistic and achievable because when tasks become too difficult for students, it may discourage them.
- 10. Provide regular feedback to pupils to inspire them to put in more effort in their learning.
- 11. Show attitudes of acceptance of pupils so that they will feel loved and have a sense of belonging.

ORGANISING ROUTINE ACTIVITIES

CLASSROOM ROUTINE ACTIVITIES:

A routine refers to a fixed and regular way of doing things. Classroom routine activities therefore refer to the sequence of activities and events which occur regularly in the classroom. As these activities are repeated regularly, they become a matter of exactly what activities are to take place and at what time.

KINDS OF ROUTINE ACTIVITIES IN THE CLASSROOM

Some of the routine activities in the classroom include the following:

- 1. Asking politely for a thing or favour.
- 2. Greeting of teacher by pupils as he or she enters the classroom.

- 3. Asking permission before leaving the class.
- 4. Getting up and responding to greetings when a visitor enters the classroom.
- 5. Raising up one's hand before answering or asking a question in class.
- 6. Maintaining silence and attention whiles the teacher teaches.
- 7. Orderly distribution and collection of exercise books and other teaching materials.
- 8. Seating arrangements.
- 9. Checking the roll
- 10. Use and cleaning of the chalkboard by teacher and pupils.

ASSIGNING ROLES AND RESPONSIBILITIES IN THE CLASSROOM

To ensure that pupils obey rules and regulations in the classroom the teacher has to give various roles and responsibilities to some pupils. Among these roles given to pupils are;

- ✓ Class prefect
- ✓ Cupboard monitor
- ✓ Sanitary prefect

In giving out the roles to students the teacher needs to consider the gender aspect as well as the individual differences. This will ensure fair or balanced assigning of roles. There is no strict role that only boys or girls can perform.

ENCOURAGING PUPILS TO FOLLOW CLASSROOM ROUTINES

To encourage pupils to follow routine activities in the classroom, the teacher has to motivate pupils using both tangible (materials) and intangible (non materials) rewards. Tangible rewards include gifts such as chalk, books, pencils and pens, good terminal reports, etc. Intangible rewards include good remarks, applauses, praises, etc.

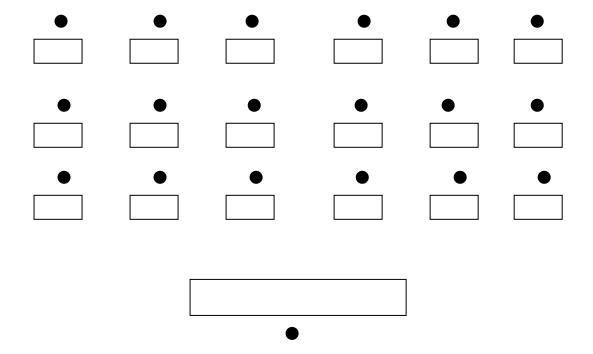
CLASSROOM SEATING AND ARRANGEMENT

Classroom furniture always has some influence on the learning atmosphere to some extent, but the choice is sometimes outside the control of the teacher as they are often fixed or too heavy to move.

In situations where the chairs and tables/desks are freestanding, they can be rearranged to have a flexible seating pattern to full advantage of the lesson. In other situations where they are fixed or where they are too heavy to move, the teacher may be left no choice than to stick to the original arrangement.

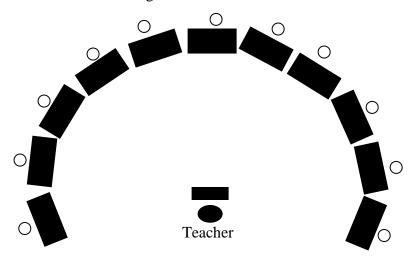
SOME CLASSROOM SEATING ARRANGEMENTS

A. **SIMPLE ROWS** / **SEATING IN ROWS:** this is the most common seating arrangement used in Ghanaian schools. Desks / tables are arranged in rows and columns with spaces between them and the teacher's seat in front facing the class. See diagram below:



B. HORSE SHOE OR SEMI-CIRCULAR ARRANGEMENT:

This is sometimes described as circular seating, but it is in the form of a semi circle with pupils facing the teacher in the middle. It allows for face to face contact and is suitable for a small class. See diagram below:



ADVANTAGES:

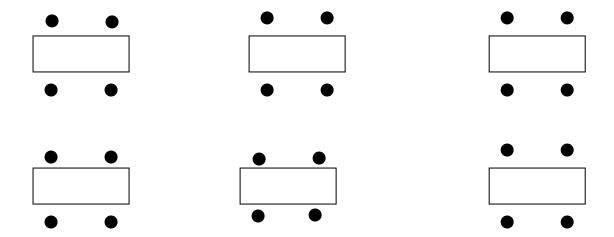
- 1) It makes the classroom relaxed and friendly.
- 2) A few T.L.M can be effectively used.
- 3) It makes it easy for children to show ideas (collaborative learning).
- 4) It enables the teacher to establish eye contact with the pupil to exercise control of the class.
- 5) Suitable for lessons like story telling.

DISADVANTAGES

- 1) It makes it easy for pupils to copy from each other.
- 2) Classroom atmosphere becomes informal and degenerate into disorder.
- 3) Movement is hindered to some extent.

GROUPS AROUND DESKS

This is where pupils are seated around desks located separately from each other. The number of pupils per desk depends on the required size of groups and the number of pupils in the class. See diagram below:



ADVANTAGES

- 1) Grouping is easy.
- 2) Create forum for collaborative and participatory learning.
- 3) A few T.L.M. are utilised.
- 4) Very useful for practical works like science.
- 5) Creates opportunity for children to develop leadership and other social skills.

DISAVANTAGES

- 1) Movement is difficult for the teacher and pupils.
- 2) It creates fertile grounds for fidgeting and disorder.
- 3) Children tend to copy from each other instead of learning.
- 4) Class control is not easy.

FACTORS TO CONSIDER IN SEATING PUPILS

- 1. Friendships and familiarity
- 2. Pupils' interest
- 3. Visual problems
- 4. Auditory problems
- 5. The level of the class

OTHER FACTORS:

- a. Height problems.
- b. The nature of the furniture.
- c. The size of the classroom and the number of pupils.
- d. The nature of the activity to be performed.

MANAGING INSTRUCTIONAL TIME

The instructional time is also known as the **contact hour.** It is the time frame for interaction between the teachers and the students to do an activity. The instructional time is only the period the teacher meets the class to give them an instruction. Any meeting out of this period even though is part of the actual curriculum of the school is not part of the instructional time, for e.g. interaction during break, dining period, games etc. do not form part of the instructional time.

MISUSE OF INSTRUCTIONAL TIME

Instructional time is misused in several ways. Among them are;

- 1. *Late starting of classes*. This can be caused by a natural occurrence like heavy downpour or sickness. It can also be artificial like laziness, traffic or intentional. Whichever way that it occurs it affects the instructional time.
- 2. *Early closing of school*. This may be caused by some factors like closing early to attend a programme or laziness on the part of the school authority.
- 3. *Teacher absenteeism*. Any time a teacher does not come to school; it affects instructional time.
- 4. *Selection in subjects* on the time table when <u>teachers intentionally neglect</u> some subjects at the expense of others, it leads to waste of instructional time.
- 5. *Holidays*. Most of the time there are so many public holidays that force school authorities to close down schools. It affects the instructional time.
- 6. **Spending part of the time to organise sporting and cultural activities**, for e.g. some days are lost to sporting and cultural activities in the course of the term. These affect instructional time.
- 7. Organising staff meeting during instructional hours.

Hence any incident that prevents the teacher for meeting a class for instruction accounts for mismanagement of instructional time.

EFFECTIVE MANAGEMENT OF INSTRUCTIONAL TIME

- Bells or drums should be used to signal the beginning and end of a lesson.
- Teachers as well as the pupils should work with the bell or drum.
- Lesson notes should be prepared to cover all the subjects on the time table.
- Adhere to the lesson and the duration you prepared in your teaching.
- Holidays should be reduced by policy makers and the government.
- Pupils should not be allowed to play beyond the official duration given.
- Co-curricular activities should be held outside the normal instructional time.

Aside the above, Crowl, Kamisky and Podell (1997) have given the following suggestions on how to maximise the use of instructional time.

- 1. Keep students motivated
- 2. Keep instruction on students' levels. Instructions that students find to be either too easy or too difficult will make them loose interest.

- 3. Keep students active. Lessons should be composed of activities that are meaningful and promote the achievement of instructional objectives.
- 4. Be organised and prepared; anticipate problems.
- 5. Delegate responsibilities when appropriate. Call responsible students to help with administrative functions that are within their range of capabilities so that you can concentrate on essential matters and teaching.
- 6. Turn on your 'radar' and watch for students whose attention is drifting.

ORDER AND DISCIPLINE IN THE CLASSROOM

Order is submission or compliance to rules and regulations for fear of punishment, fear of losing a favour or in anticipation for some favour. When a student obeys school *rules* and regulation for fear that he/she would be punished, the student is said to be respecting order. Similarly if a truant feels he/she would be discriminated against in the distribution of prizes to well behaved students, and therefore changes, he is said to be following or being submissive to order.

Any change in behaviour that is motivated by needs, fear or discrimination, fear of punishment, etc, is said to be the result of order. Order is therefore externally imposed. The use of force and forms of punishment may work to some extent, at least for some time; such disciplinary methods are based on fear.

Discipline is defined as readiness or ability to respect authority and observe conventional or established laws of the society or of any other organisation. Discipline means self control, restraint, respect for self and respect for others. It therefore requires sacrifices, perseverance, tolerance and recognition of human dignity.

Discipline is directed by inward decision and therefore involves self-control. A disciplined person knows what is right and takes the right cause of action not for fear of punishment or in anticipation for a reward because he knows that is good to behave as such.

Disciplined people willingly learn the norms, principles and ways of life of people in the society. The purpose of school discipline is therefore to produce a well cultivated youth who will not only respect themselves and the larger society but will also respect school authorities, school rules and regulations. For set goals or objectives to be achieved discipline and orderliness are vital.

The teacher should therefore possess the needed qualities to control the class to maintain law and order. Green (1962) identified: *talking*, *disobedience*, *carelessness*, *defiance of authority*, *throwing objects*, *etc*, as the common misbehaviour that occurs among students.

Charles (1983) identified three kinds of misbehaviour that are likely to occur in the classroom and in which teachers frown upon. These are:

- 1. Behaviours that affect their senses of morality.
- 2. Behaviour that is defiant and aggressive.
- 3. Behaviour that disrupts class work.

CAUSES OF INDISCIPLINE IN THE CLASSROOM/SCHOOL

There are generally 2 categories of factors that create disorders and indiscipline namely external and internal factors. The external factors are social in kind and those that the teacher might not be responsible for causing or decreasing them. Examples are parental

rejection, poverty, low socio-economic status, viewing violent and pornographic films, frustration, inadequate scholastic aptitude and achievement.

The next factor comes from the way the school is organised. Under this factor are categorisation of pupils into high, average and low ability groups, large class size, inadequate personal attention and crowding (de-personalisation), lack of teacher authority (the head alone wields power), lack of delegation by school heads, large class size making it impossible for teachers to help learners with special attention needs, poor school-community relations. In their book 'Educational Psychology', Gage and Berliner (1984) categorised problems that bring about disorder and indiscipline into two namely "too much misbehaviour of undesirable kind" and "too little behaviour of desirable kind". The categories simply imply that, when pupils' behaviour is often undesirable it creates indiscipline in schools just as when pupils' good behaviour is very little creates discipline problems.

CATEGORY ONE PROBLEM (Too much...... Of undesirable kind)

- 1. Physical aggression
- 2. Verbal aggression
- 3. Inappropriate movement in the classroom
- 4. Creating or making unnecessary noise
- 5. Challenging authority
- 6. Disobedience to authority
- 7. Making destructive criticisms or unjustifiable complaints
- 8. Teasing and ridiculing
- 9. Frequent lateness/ absenteeism

CATEGORY TWO PROBLEM (making too little...... Of desirable kind)

- 1. Attentiveness in class
- 2. Showing interest in class work, etc
- 3. Appropriate interactions with classmates
- 4. Regular and punctual attendance to class
- 5. Independent work by pupils
- 6. Obedience to rules and regulations
- 7. Exhibiting the spirit of brotherliness

OTHER CAUSES OF CLASSROOM INDISCIPLINE

- 1. Ineffective teaching
- 2. Inappropriate staff behaviour
- 3. Authoritarian and pure lazier-faire administrative method
- 4. Harsh school rules
- 5. Influence of home and society
- 6. Harshness of school prefects
- 7. Harshness of continuing students on junior students
- 8. Poor academic results
- 9. Unsatisfactory school curricular
- 10. Poor examination results
- 11. Lack of enforcement of school rules and regulations
- 12. Poor communication between the school administrator, staff and pupils.
- 13. Poor quantity/quality food

SYMPTOMS OF INDISCIPLINE

There are signs which when seen in the school indicate that there is indiscipline in the school. Among these signs are:

- 1. Students' demonstration (peaceful/violent)
- 2. General unrest
- 3. Mass disobedience
- 4. Deliberate breaches of school rules
- 5. Drug use
- 6. Alcoholism
- 7. Delinquencies
- 8. Drunkenness
- 9. Stealing
- 10. Truancy
- 11. Absenteeism
- 12. Persistent lateness
- 13. Bullying or laziness

HOW TO MAINTAIN DISCIPLINE

If the indiscipline stems from poor school organisation the following could be used to salvage the situation.

- 1. Strong administration
- 2. Good leadership
- 3. High expectations of school achievement
- 4. Orderly school setting
- 5. Emphasis on basic skills
- 6. Frequent monitoring of pupils' progress

HOW A HEADTEACHER AND STAFF CAN ENHANCE DISCIPLINE

Discipline could be enhanced by the head teacher and his staff through some of the following ways among others:

- 1. Preparing good lesson plans and submitting them earlier for vetting by the school administrator (headmaster)
- 2. Regularly and punctually attending school
- 3. Formulating and effectively enforcing good school rules and regulations.
- 4. Being honest in the use of school funds and finances.
- 5. Avoiding favouritism in the dealing with staff and pupils.
- 6. Encouraging parents and guardians active participation in the running of the school.
- 7. Giving respect for parents and showing great concern about their problems by offering them the desired assistance towards solving the problems.
- 8. Avoiding having amorous love with the pupils of the school.
- 9. Putting in place a permanent discipline committee with the members of a sound moral behaviour and have the ability to manage conflict situation at any level in the school.
- 10. Impressing on the staff the need to set good examples for the pupils to emulate.
- 11. By impressing on the staff to work as a team and towards goals set, as well as behaving desirably in and outside the classroom.
- 12. By solving conflicts in a positive and constructive approach.
- 13. Following rules, regulations and procedures laid down by Ghana Education Service. (Employers).
- 14. Maintaining constant communication with staff and pupils using the prefectoral and committee systems.

WAYS OF PREVENTING UNDESIRABLE BEHAVIOURS

- 1. Keep students occupied with activities that will keep them busy, they will therefore not get time under normal circumstances to misbehave.
- 2. Teacher should ensure a smooth lesson delivery during instruction.
- 3. The teaching and learning materials used should meet pupils' needs and interest.
- 4. Appropriate use of motivation is an important factor as teachers should periodically motivate and admonish students to pay attention.
- **5.** The teacher should be smart and know whatever goes on within the classroom.

HOW TO PREVENT UNDESIRABLE BEHAVIOURS IN THE SCHOOL AS IDENTIFIED BY KOUMI (1970)

WITHITNESS: the tendency to know whatever goes on in the classroom. The teacher with high withitness has an "owl" eye i.e. sees everywhere, hence able detect the least undesirable behaviour put up at any corner of the classroom.

SMOOTHNESS: the ability to continue executing any activity of the school or classroom without distracting the attention of the pupils' i.e. undisturbed flow of activities.

HANDLE OVERLAPINGNESS: ability to handle 2 or more similar problems without getting confused and without loosing touch of the fact that the situations can bring additional and more serious problems if left unchecked.

MAINTAIN MOMENTUM: ability to sustain interest in everything one does i.e. no slow down, keeping to the pace.

GROUP ALERT: ability to get pupils or students actively involved in what is being taught.

HOW TO EXTINGUISH UNDESIRABLE BEHAVIOURS IN THE SCHOOL AS IDENTIFIED BY O'LEARY (1977)

WITH HOLDING ATTENTION: deliberately ignoring the misbehaviour of pupils and continuing to focus attention to the pupil who is behaving desirably.

NEGATIVELY REINFORCING UNDESIRABLE BEHAVIOUR: openly ask students or pupils to ignore the behaviour of the classmates.

MEANINGFUL OCCUPATION OF STUDENTS: keep pupils on interesting tasks so that they would rather focus attention on what is being taught instead of attending to fellow classmates' misbehaviour.

PROMPT HANDLING OF SOME MISBEHAVIOUR: since silence means concern, if undesirable behaviours are not openly criticised, they may persist. Open defiance, obscenity, hostility, bullying, directed at the teacher or the head teacher cannot be ignored. Taking prompt and immediate action is desired.

HOW TO STRENGHTEN DESIRABLE BEHAVIOUR

➤ ENCOURAGEMENT: encourage desirable behaviours from other pupils. When someone puts up an undesirable behaviour e.g. when a pupil answers a question without being called to answer a question, his answer is ignored and another pupil who puts up the hand is called to respond to the same question. When the offending

- student answers a question after putting up hand and being called, he should be praised to strengthen this desirable behaviour.
- ➤ **USE OF PUNISHMENT**: punishment is used when other strategies had failed to yield the desired results. The punishment should however be necessary and justifiable.

FORMS OF PUNISHMENT

- 1. Soft reprimand rebuke.
- 2. Reprimand linked with praise to prompt desirable behaviours.
- 3. Social isolation ostracise.
- 4. Deduction of points from section.
- 5. Banning to take part in interesting activities e.g. soccer, ludo, netball.
- 6. Negative attention harsh words, facial expression, tone of voice and gestures indicating that the learner was not behaving desirably.
- 7. Corporal punishment. It should be noted however that corporal punishment such as spanking, physical assault (using hands), detaining, imprisonment, denying pupils access to meals and water for a long time is very wrong and morally unpardonable, especially during the teaching and learning process.

HOW TO DEAL WITH "TOO LITTLE OF DESIRABLE BEHAVIOURS"

From the view point of psychiatrists and clinical psychologists, shyness, withdrawal, daydreaming and inattentiveness are more serious misbehaviours than absenteeism, truancy, lateness, etc as they affect negatively the teaching and learning process making the teacher waste his energy. The teacher should refer such acts to the specialist when they appear excessively.

Among the strategies to adopt to check such behaviours are:

- 1. **ELICITING:** call children's attention more frequently to partake in the task on hand.
- 2. **MODELLING:** use people who were active during learning process and have become high achievers or successful in their life endeavours as examples to the pupils.
- 3. **REINFORCEMENT**: immediately praise or commend the pupils showing the slightest desirable behaviour.
- 4. SHAPING: the teacher after commending, praising or appreciating the contribution (good behaviour) of the pupil, ask for more of such acts from the pupil and other pupils.
- 5. **CONTRACTING:** this is sometimes called performance contract. The teacher promise an award of marks, pencils, chalk, pens or exercise books to the pupils if he or she is able to put up a desirable behaviour.

NOTE that promise failed means breach of contract and it will result in undesirable behaviours.

HOW TO HANDLE DISRUPTIVE PUPILS

- 1. *Have a good occulence and kinesis*. This deals with eyes and body movement that will makes the teacher alert to identify particular students who misbehave and address that misbehaviour almost immediately. For lower primary class, if they are not corrected immediately they may not understand why probably they are punished.
- 2. *The teacher should maintain the momentum of teaching*. Be consistent and sustain interest of learners throughout the lesson. There should not be climaxes and downward trends during instruction.

- 3. Smoothness is another way of handling disruptive pupils. Whatever you teach pupils should flow with no distractions when it becomes necessary to change activities. If during instruction anything happens that will distract attention, allow students time to look at that thing, it should not be happening while they may be receiving instruction.
- 4. *Group alerting:* this is the ability to manage students in a way that keep students involved, attentive and alert. This could be done by maintaining suspense as to what kind of questions would be presented next. Inattentive pupils could sometimes be called upon to answer questions.
- 5. Rewarding and praising attentive students: we emphasise here that good behaviour exhibited by students should not go unrewarded. Rewards like clapping, praises and if possible marks should be used to handle disruptive students. Good behaviours should be rewarded but bad behaviours should be condemned to bring about the desired behaviour.

In dealing with tardiness (perpetual late comers) the following are suggested:

- 1. Reward students for arriving on time.
- 2. Help students to analyse skills or steps required to arrive on time e.g. determine time to leave for home.
- 3. Place a sign-in sheet at the door so that students can record their names. The class register should be marked early and at closing, the roll should also be taken.
- 4. Schedule activities that students enjoy at the start of the class period.
- 5. Set up contract with students.
- 6. Encourage parents to give watches to their children.
- 7. Assign peer tutors.

Verbal outbursts refer to cases where students talk out in class and disrupt the orderly flow of classroom activities. The following measures are suggested as means of handling verbal outburst:

- a. Establish clearly stated classroom rules regarding students' verbal interactions. Let students be very clear about circumstances under which they are allowed to talk.
- b. Reinforce students who are good models for others to emulate.
- c. Set up a points system for dealing with talking out.

In some instances, disruptive pupils may move about the classroom at inappropriate times. The following can be adopted to deal with the problem:

- i. Discuss class rules to the full understanding of students.
- ii. Record the amount of time the student is out of his seat.
- iii. Have students record their own in-seat behaviour.
- iv. Provide frequent reinforcement for appropriate behaviour.

Some students may have difficulty getting along with others and this may be characterised by aggressive behaviours or withdrawals. To improve social relationships the following measures may be used:

- 1. Use role-play to help students practice non-aggressive responses.
- 2. Teach students acceptable responses to verbal or physical attacks.
- 3. Reinforce students who substitute appropriate non-aggressive responses for the aggressive behaviour they previously exhibited.
- 4. Use reinforcers to encourage social interactions of withdrawn students.
- 5. Pair withdrawn students with a helpful peer