

Trainer's Handbook – A 14 Days Teaching Methodology Course

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Trainer's Handbook – A 14 Days Teaching Methodology Course

By

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GERMAN DEVELOPMENT SERVICE, KENYA (DED)

A 14 DAYS TEACHING METHODOLOGY COURSE TRAINERS' HANDBOOK – Version 1., August 1997

This handbook is a training manual for teaching methodology trainers working with the DED In-service Training Programme for Youth Polytechnics in Kenya.

To those wanting to use this handbook:

Please feel free to photocopy what you need from this handbook, as long as the original text is properly acknowledged and the objective is not for profit and gain.

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Given the fact that we drew a lot of insights from other published and unpublished materials, we owe the authors a great deal of gratitude. In this regard we are greatly indebted to Mr. Mohammed Bwika among others for his thoughts and ideas from which we drew heavily in the area of Teaching Methodology.

Last but not least, we are grateful to Youth Polytechnic managers and instructors whom we met in the course of carrying out evaluations of In-service Training courses. The experiences arising from those encounters formed the bedrock of creative thinking which culminated in this work.

Asman Makokha
Michaela Ongwae

III. INTRODUCTION

The German Development Service in co-ordination with the Ministry of Research, Technical Training and Technology has been organising Teaching Methodology courses for the Youth Polytechnic instructors and managers in different parts of Kenya since 1993.

Youth Polytechnic instructors and managers who attended these courses, had not undergone any teacher training before. New skills learnt were of great benefit to them personally and professionally and to the institutions they had come from.

This handbook was designed to provide trainers of the In-service Training Programme with a unified approach, providing necessary handouts as well as guidelines for activities. It is essential that course

participants are actively engaged in this course.

During the past number of years we have observed different trainers of teaching methodology courses using different training styles and whereas the majority were using participatory approaches, some of them were teaching in a disciplinarian manner. This is a contradiction in itself to the course content and it caused confusion amongst course participants.

This handbook attempts to streamline training styles and provides trainers of teaching methodology courses with guidelines on how to set up a training venue, conduct courses, arrange course content in a systematic way and to carry out a course evaluation.

It also provides YP managers with guidelines on how to assess and supervise their instructors after they have started to implement newly acquired skills in the YP set up.

We have tried to design this handbook as practically as possible. However, as much flexibility as possible may be exercised while using this book. It is the contention of the authors that in a participatory training set up, there are neither fast nor rigid procedures which can be overzealously applied. We therefore welcome any suggestions on the content and suggested process from trainers and other users. Such comments should be forwarded to the authors, care of the German Development Service, P.O. Box 47136, Nairobi.

IV. ENTRY REQUIREMENTS

Participants for this teaching methodology course have to meet the following suggested minimum entry requirements:

- Should have completed the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) up to form 4 or its nearest equivalent.
- Should be currently employed as either a full-time or part-time instructor in a GOK assisted or privately sponsored Youth Polytechnic.
- Should be recommended by the employer or designated agent of the employer. In the case of GOK assisted YPs, an express recommendation should emanate from either the Management Committee or the YP Manager.
- Should be proficient in English language as a medium of instruction.
- Should be willing to utilise his/her new found skills within the YP sector after going through the course, rather than simply using the course as a stepping stone to other careers.

PART I. TRAINERS CHECKLIST

PART I. TRAINERS CHECKLIST

In order for this Teaching Methodology training to become productive and fruitful, a trainer needs to go through thorough preparations.

Prior to the training, the following has to be clarified:

1. OBJECTIVES

Organisers and trainers need to be sure of the course objectives. Objectives should capture the key ideas, skills and values to be transmitted (or acquired by the participants). For example:

- ***At the end of this course, participants should be able to understand, identify different questioning techniques and apply them in a practical teaching situation.***

The ideas or knowledge being focused upon in these objectives is UNDERSTANDING what questioning is all

about. The skill level is DIFFERENTIATING questioning techniques. Lastly value (application level) is IMPLEMENTING or demonstrating such knowledge and skills through actual use in the teaching situation.

2. NUMBER OF PARTICIPANTS

For this teaching methodology course it is recommended to have a maximum of 20 participants.

3. TRAINING VENUE

Organisers of this course should visit the proposed venue before training takes place to assess if it is appropriate for this particular training course. The trainer should identify potential sources of distraction in the room, both for himself/herself or the trainees. One should never teach in front of a window, poster or other wall decorations, course participants attention will be diverted away from the trainer. Make sure that all participants will be able to see the blackboard, flip chart or other instructional aids. Also check that all participants will be able to hear the trainer from the different angles of the room, specially those sitting at the back. In case you are going to use an overhead projector or slides check whether there is electricity. Besides these, check and confirm whether or not there may be other physical or lighting distractions within the vicinity of the room.

4. SEATING ARRANGEMENTS

Seating arrangements are going to have a great influence on the training sessions. There are different types of seating arrangements:

- 1. Row of tables**
- 2. Hollow U-shape**
- 3. Banquet**
- 4. Conference table**
- 5. Circle of chairs**
- 6. Table trios**
- 7. Semi circle**

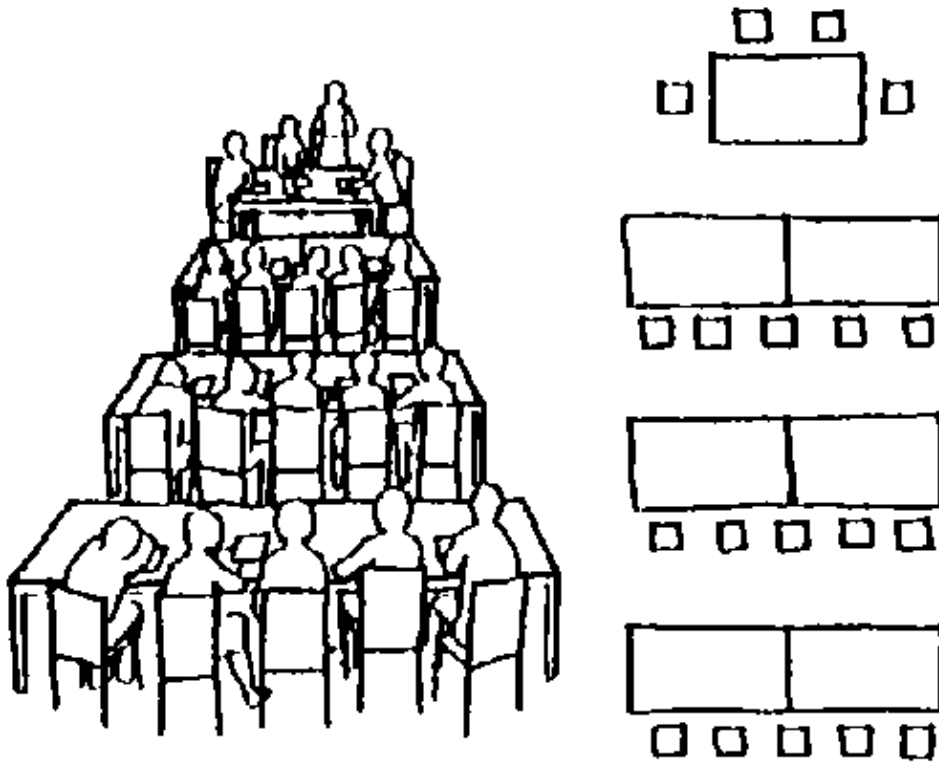
1. ROWS OF TABLES AND/OR CHAIRS

Advantages

- Can fit more people into a room.
- Everyone faces the front.

Disadvantages

- Participants cannot make eye contact with each other.
- Difficult for trainer to make eye contact with those at the back.
- Trainer cannot walk easily amongst participants.
- Impossible to break into groups without major reorganisation of chairs and tables.
- People tend to sit at the back first, distancing themselves from the trainer.
- It is like classrooms at school, too formal.



ROWS OF TABLES AND/OR CHAIRS

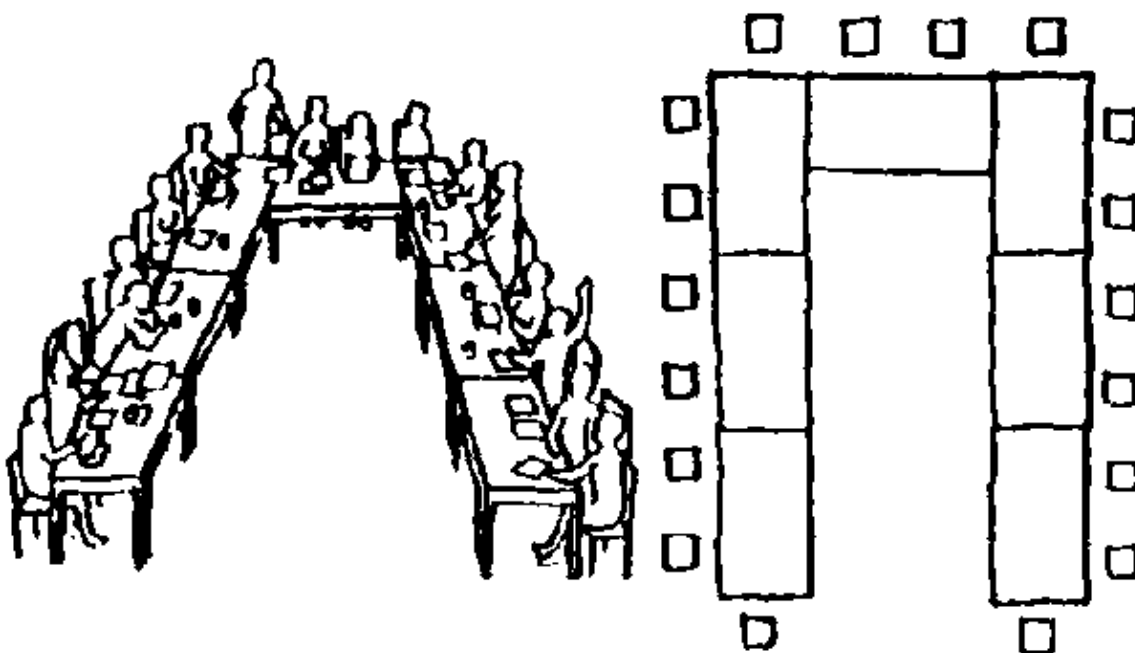
2. HOLLOW U

Advantages

- Trainer can walk amongst participants.
- Trainer has eye contact with all participants.

Disadvantages

- Participants along each arm of U do not have eye contact with each other.
- Fewer people can fit into the room.
- Impossible to break into buzz groups without reorganising chairs and tables.



HOLLOW U

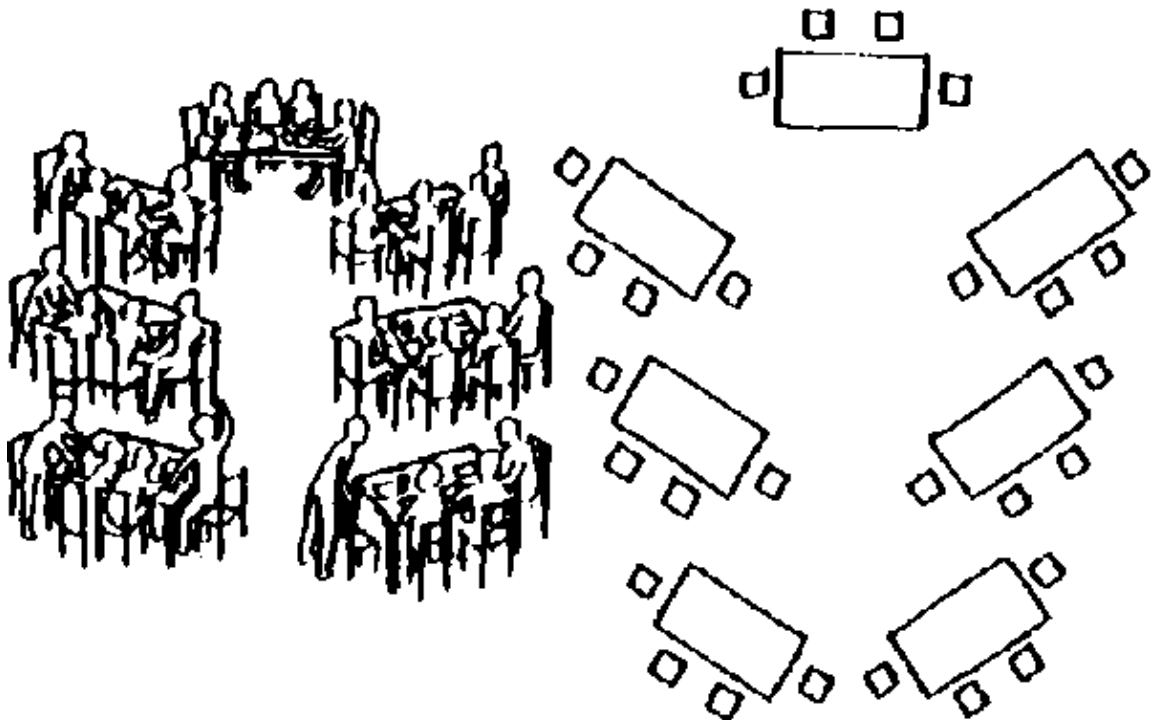
3. FISH-BONE OR BANQUET STYLE

Advantages

- Participants arranged in groups.
- Arrangements is easy to use if mixing lectures with buzz sessions and group work.
- Trainer can walk easily amongst groups

Disadvantages

- Fewer people can fit in the room.
- Participants cannot make full eye contact with all other trainees.
- If tables are too long and thin, participants at the ends are likely to be left out of the conversation.



FISH-BONE OR BANQUET STYLE

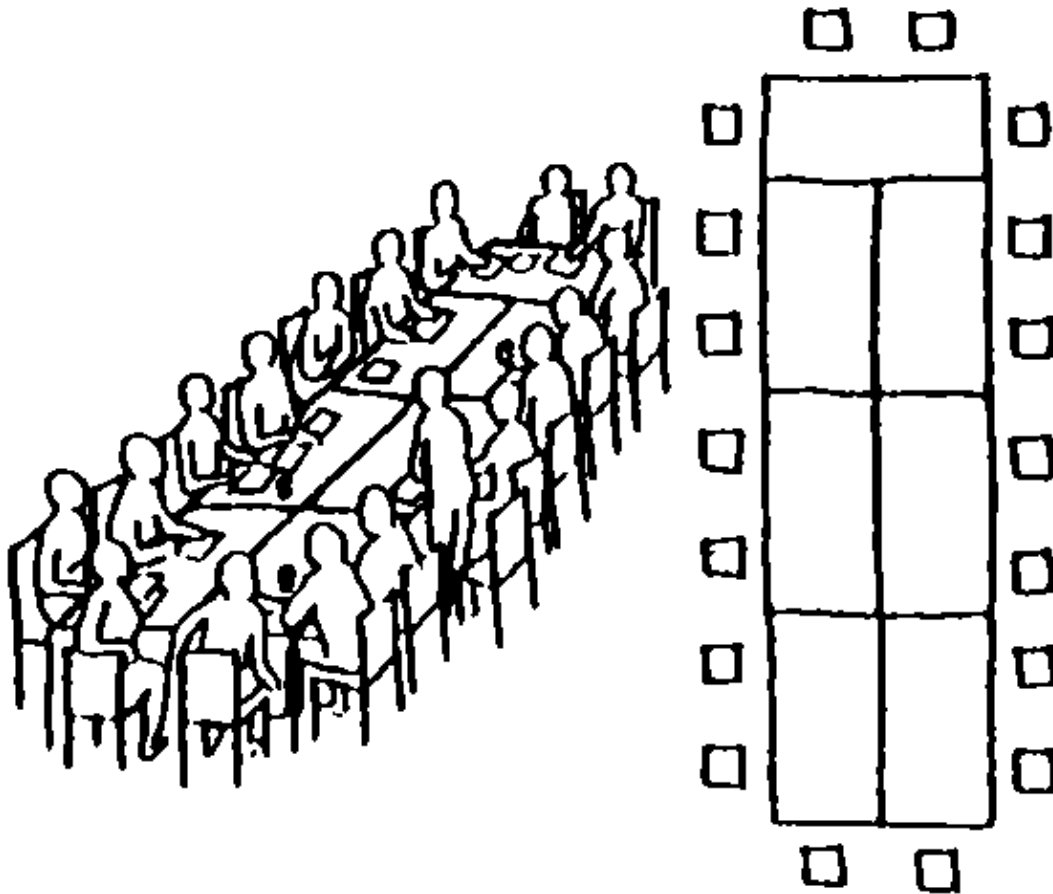
4. CONFERENCE TABLE

Advantages

- Large proportion of participants have eye contact with each other
- Large table useful for plenary group discussions

Disadvantages

- Cannot break into small groups easily.
- Cannot fit many participants around table.
- During general discussions, several sub-discussions may form and disrupt proceedings.



CONFERENCE TABLE

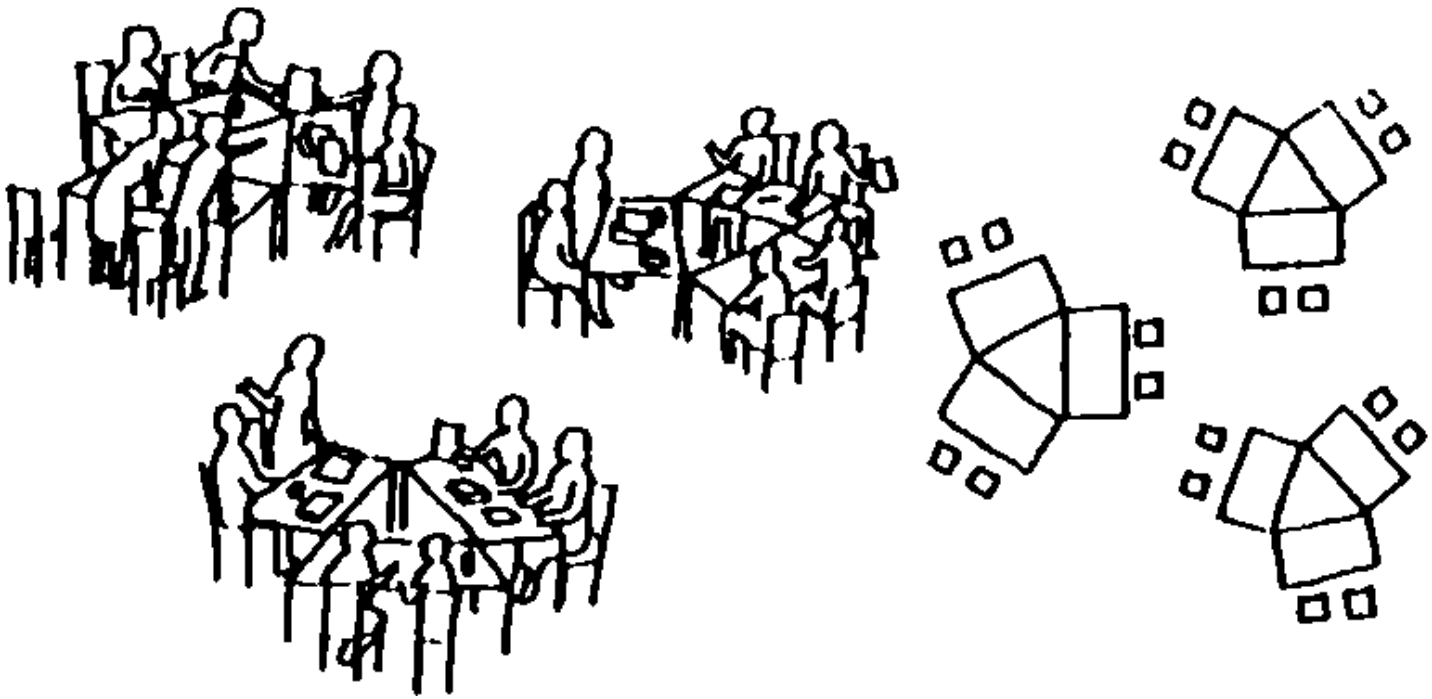
5. CIRCLE OR SEMI-CIRCLE OF CHAIRS

Advantages

- People can relax and interact well.
- Participants able to adopt open poses.
- No natural top position for trainer, so very egalitarian.
- Easy to move into various exercises and games.
- Stops people sticking to a specific desk or chair.

Disadvantages

- No flat work surface.
- No tables on which to rest books or materials.
- No physical barriers, so more openness needed.
- Intimidates shy people.
- In large groups, participants sit far from those opposite them.



CIRCLE OR SEMI-CIRCLE OF CHAIRS

6. TABLE TRIOS

Advantages

- As with banquet style.
- With tables pointed towards the front, the trios are all close together, so better than banquet for group work.

Disadvantages

- Needs many tables, more banquet style, if the total group is large
- Tables take up much space.

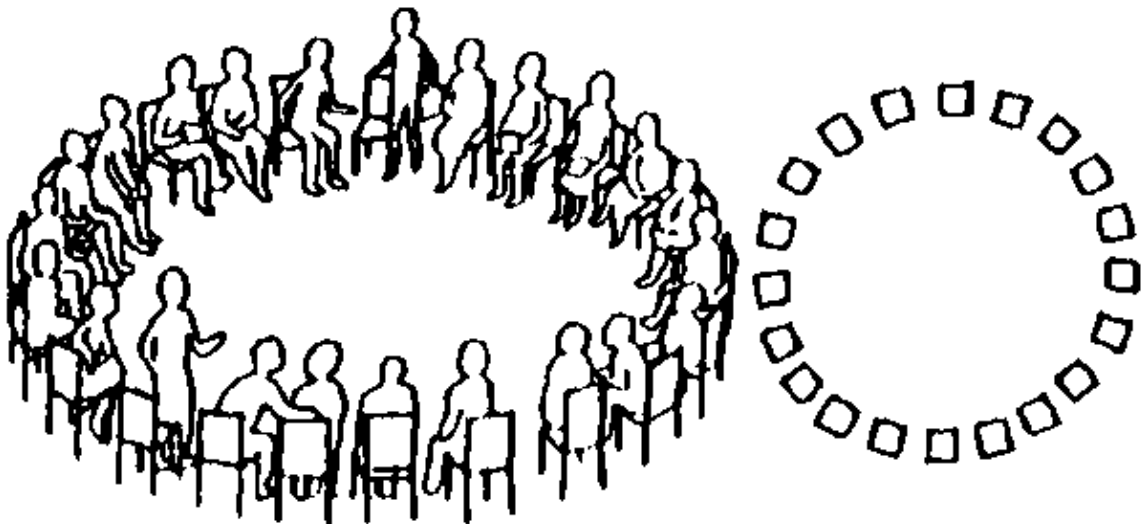


TABLE TRIOS

Source: Participatory Learning and Action, Pretty, Jules et al.

Each one of those seating arrangements have advantages and disadvantages. Above all, the bottom-line is that participants need to see each other i.e. whom they are speaking to. Care has to be taken to avoid situations where participants sit behind one another.

Once participants have arrived at the training venue and are set for the course, the trainer should introduce the participants to this course. The following are some samples of different types of introductions:

5. CREATIVE INTRODUCTIONS enable participants to know each other but in a less formal and more relaxed and less threatening manner. Ideally, participants themselves may be asked in the plenary what details they may want to know about their colleagues. This helps the trainer to decide on a creative format which can then be used. Examples are as follows:–

- **SOCIOGRAM.** Allowing those who know each other very well to introduce their friends.
- **THE RIVER OF LIFE.** Here individuals can introduce themselves through focusing on the 'lows' and 'highs' in their lives.
- **PAIRED INTRODUCTIONS.** In groups of 2's and 3's individuals who remotely know each other get together and exchange information about themselves on each other's Do's and Don'ts. Then they get back together in the plenary and introduce each other.

Generally, creative introductions, if well handled, help to de-freeze the group of participants quickly so that they can participate more actively in the training process. (See activity No. 1)

6. EXPERIENCE SHARING involves exchanging views on practical achievements and challenges that individuals have gone through in the course of their work. This helps both participants and the trainer to determine suitable entry points. After taking stock of their experiences, it would be possible to determine how new knowledge, skills and attitudes will fit into what is already there. For example, if participants are to be trained in content which is totally new to them, it might be important to find out what else they have done in previous training, at school, or in the course of their work which can provide a meaningful entry point so that the new knowledge doesn't appear too abstract.

7. PARTICIPANTS EXPECTATIONS

Participants expectations, as well as other concerns are extremely important to understand and address at the very start of the course. Expectations underline individual goals and the psychology each brings to a training environment. Often such individual goals are not always in harmony with course aims and objectives.

It is therefore the duty of the trainer to allow participants, first, to express their personal expectations. Thereafter, these personal expectations need to be harmonised with course objectives. One way of doing this is by the trainer explaining which of the stated (expressed) personal expectations won't be met by the training, and which ones stand a chance of being met (or achieved). If this is not carefully done or is overlooked, some individual participants can experience frustration.

8. TIMING OF COURSE

This is a 14 day teaching methodology course. After looking at course objectives, experience sharing and expectations, it is often advisable for the trainer to unveil a proposed block time–table of content. This helps participants to take stock and react to it. Thereafter any desirable adjustments can be agreed upon by consensus and included.

9. TIMING OF SESSIONS

It is important that the trainer times his/her sessions wisely as participants lose their concentration after about 20 minutes. Therefore it is very important that he/she involves participants in the training activity. Monotony can be broken through a break, exercises, jokes, or audio–visual material. Besides group work helps a lot in drawing upon the resourcefulness of participants themselves while engaging their participation to the full. During the morning hours participants are usually more alert than in the afternoon hours. Mornings would be more ideal for new inputs. After lunch participants are usually tired. The trainer will have to make training sessions more lively. Avoid lecturing after lunch. At most, it is advisable that more practical exercises and group work be scheduled in the afternoon hours.

ACTIVITY 1. INTRODUCTION – Activity: 15 minutes

Before going into the course content the trainer will facilitate an introduction session.

OBJECTIVES

1. To welcome everybody.
2. To introduce the workshop programme, discuss timing of meals and breaks and check that practical details such as accommodation and participants special needs are attended to.

METHOD

1. The trainer should ask everybody to introduce themselves to the group, stating who they are, where they come from, and the kind of work they do. Include yourself (trainer/s) in this. Time: 10 minutes.
2. Give the proposed timing of sessions, meals and breaks and make sure that this is acceptable to participants.

Adopted from Oxfam Gender Training Manual, Oxfam UK and Ireland 1995

ACTIVITY 2. PARTICIPANTS EXPECTATIONS AND CONCERNS – Activity: 1 hour

After introductions the trainer will facilitate a session on participants expectations and concerns.

OBJECTIVES

1. To allow participants to express any feelings which could prevent them from fully participating.
2. To enable trainers to adapt the programme if necessary.
3. To enable participants to be clear about the programme so that they do not have unrealistic expectations.
4. To encourage a feeling of participation and solidarity and reduce potential hostility or fear.
5. To arrange reporting of the training.

METHOD

1. All participants to form groups of three or four and discuss their expectations of the course, listing them on paper under the following headings:

a) HOPES: what they hope to get out of the course.

b) FEARS: what they hope will not happen, or they fear may happen.

c) CONTRIBUTIONS: Each person brings some special experience, certain skills and aptitudes, give these examples to the groups and encourage everyone to identify their own contribution in the process of learning.

2. Put the lists up on the wall and ask them to report back, first each group's hopes, then each groups fears, then their contributions.
3. Go through each presentation and explain any which may not be met, and why, in each case.
4. Go through the programme and explain how much flexibility there can and cannot be in timing the sessions and meals and breaks.
5. Ask the group of participants to select a small monitoring team, which remains the same throughout the course. Explain that the group will discuss and report back to the trainer or organisers:

a) Is training content appropriate, relevant, comprehensive, pace too fast or too slow?

b) Process: How are the group dynamics, is everyone getting a chance to contribute?

c) Practicals: such as food and accommodation.

TEACHING METHODOLOGY COURSE–TIMETABLE

WEEK 1

	Day 1	Day 2	Day 3	Day 4	Day 5	Day 6	Day 7
AM	Introductions Expectations and concerns	Methodology Adult Learning	Human Relations	Communication	Qualities of a good instructor	Motivation of trainees	Types of teaching methods
PM	Concept of teaching and assumptions	Adult learning	Human relations	Communication	Role of an instructor	Methodology	Types of teaching methods End of week evaluation

WEEK 2

	Day 8	Day 9	Day 10	Day 11	Day 12	Day 13	Day 14
AM	Scheme of work preparation	Lesson planning	Using questions to instruct	Assessment	Micro–teaching	Micro–teaching	Course Evaluation Instructors depart after lunch
PM	Scheme of work preparation	Lesson planning	Instructional aids	Micro–teaching	Micro–teaching	Micro–teaching	Managers come back for one session: Instructor evaluation for managers

PART II

1. CONCEPT OF TEACHING AND ASSUMPTIONS

HANDOUT 1. CONCEPT OF TEACHING AND ASSUMPTIONS

Teaching methodology is a very important component of teacher education or instructor training within the realm of teaching as a profession. Before we venture further to look into the essentials of teaching methodology, it is necessary to define some key concepts. These concepts are teaching, learning and finally teaching methodology. The understanding of these concepts will be crucial for our overall understanding and application of teaching methodology.

**Knowledge is like a garden: If it is not cultivated, it cannot be harvested.–
Guinean proverb.**

TEACHING – SOME ASSUMPTIONS

It is often assumed that when one knows the subject matter well, then such a person is capable of teaching the subject. For example, a highly skilled carpenter may feel that he can readily instruct others in the skills of his trade by simply showing how he does the work and explaining the ideas and purposes which are involved. This does not amount to teaching.

Many people also mistakenly think that anybody can teach. Perhaps one inordinate precedent which reinforces this thinking is the concept of “untrained teachers”. We rarely hear of untrained doctors, engineers, architects e.t.c. What makes teaching a profession, like others, is that it has its own principles, ethics and unique practices. Therefore, not every Tom, Dick and Harry can arrogate to themselves the functions of teaching without undertaking the requisite training in teaching.

Teaching is not simply the presentation of new skills and knowledge to the trainee. It is also not the mere transferring of what the teacher/instructor knows into the hands or minds of the trainee. Furthermore, teaching, is not the same as telling nor is telling synonymous with teaching. Effective teaching means that there are certain things which the teacher must do and other things which the trainees must also do to increase the chances of learning taking place. The teacher has to go through formal, theoretical and practical training. In addition, the teacher needs to plan his/her activities in order to ensure that trainees can acquire the desirable knowledge and skills. In teaching the process is just as important as the product. We do not focus on the product alone: Both the means and end are crucial.

Planning is crucial because it involves the selection and organisation of learning experiences which will lead to meaningful interaction between the teacher and trainees.

“Tell me and I will forget show me and I will remember do it with me and I will know”.

This means knowledge is a result of telling, showing and doing “actively” with learners (trainees) in a teaching process.

FOCUS OF TEACHING

Teaching focuses on three fundamental elements and processes. These are cognitive, psychomotor and affective processes. All the three are interrelated and it is often difficult to arbitrarily teach only one without unconsciously or sub–consciously teaching the other.

1. COGNITIVE PROCESS

The cognitive process is related to knowledge. It appeals mainly to our mind or intellect. It is reflected in the acquisition of new ideas or the re–organisation of an existing body of ideas. This knowledge affects our responses and reactions to situations. We can illustrate cognitive abilities in teaching situations involving:–

- Ability to identify facts which explain the existence or absence of particular matter.
- Ideas which can convince or persuade someone in an argument.
- Ability to determine the interconnection between two or more things.
- One’s ability to create alternative ways of doing something.
- One’s ability to organise ideas and thoughts when making a verbal or written presentation:–
 - a) Ideas, facts, figures, numbers and symbols.
 - b) Inter–relationship between such facts, ideas, figures, numbers, symbols e.t.c.
 - c) Organisation of such ideas, figures, facts, numbers, symbols e.t.c. in an orderly manner so as to reflect clear, understandable and logical meaning.

2. PSYCHOMOTOR PROCESS

Refers to skills acquired through the teaching/learning situation. These skills relate to how we learn to co-ordinate and use our hands, heads, legs and other parts of our bodies. We can manipulate things using our psychomotor abilities such as:-

- Manual (Using hands) skills in Carpentry, Garment-making, Motor Vehicle Mechanics, Masonry e.t.c.
- Ability to play any or all ball games e.g. Soccer, Basketball, Netball, Rugby, Volleyball e.t.c.
- On becoming effective athletes and gymnastics.
- Undertaking any other trade, skill or craft.

All these processes will require both teachers and trainees to be practical, creative, precise and manipulative.

3. AFFECTIVE PROCESS

Affective means feelings and attitudes. Our feelings and attitudes reflect the values we are associated with. Some values are positive and progressive while others are negative and archaic. Affective teaching seeks to promote positive values and attitudes while at the same time gradually, but systematically chipping at those which are negative and disruptive. Attitudes and values are important in another sense. They greatly influence not only what we do, but also how we do what we do.

TEACHING AND TRAINING

What would be the difference between teaching and training? Is training the same as teaching and vice versa? The answer to these questions particularly the second one, is YES and NO. Yes because training focuses mainly on the ***practical*** known as “knowledge how” as differentiated from “knowledge that”, the theoretical (or philosophical knowledge). But not all training is teaching because in training, the instructor can almost determine with certainty the exact skills and expected behaviour of a learner. That is why we know how a trainee who has acquired desirable skills should behave. But teaching in general travels beyond this. It has to do with making learners creative and critical thinkers with desirable values and attitudes in addition to having requisite skills (Which is an aspect of training). But as we said earlier on, it is difficult to teach skills alone, for example without communicating (consciously or unconsciously) certain attitudes and values.

GUIDELINES OF TEACHING

According to Carl Shafer, “effective learning is fostered by masterful teaching.” This means teachers should develop an ability for making complex or difficult material simple enough for their learners. Successful teachers are those who display the following abilities.

- **Good mastery of the subject they teach.**
- **Stimulate and sustain learners’ interest in what they teach.**
- **Use language which learners understand easily.**
- **Break down the content or lesson into simple manageable yet systematic blocks.**
- **Help learners to learn on their own rather than depending wholly on the teacher.**
- **Makes learners creative and critical in order to fully understand the idea, art or skill being taught.**
- **Ability to review, test and confirm, if not apply what has been taught.**

Put differently, Shafer has come up with specific guidelines which he refers to as the seven laws of teaching. These laws can be paraphrased as shown below.

A good teacher needs to:

- 1) Have a clear understanding of the content embodied in the lesson.

- 2) Makes learners develop interest in the subject matter through effective class management techniques.
- 3) Uses words and expressions which have common meaning to the learner and teacher alike.
- 4) Starts teaching the known and proceeds gradually to teach the unknown or more abstract material.
- 5) Makes learners to think, act and discover new knowledge on their own.
- 6) Encourages learners to reproduce in their own words what they have learned.
- 7) Evaluates what has been taught in order to determine its worth and correct any false impression.

See: The Seven Laws of Teaching by Carl Shafer.

ACTIVITY 3. FOCUS ON TEACHING

Procedure: Divide the participants into three or more groups depending on their size (in numbers)

Question: Let each group discuss the question: What kind of broad changes are reflected in individuals after undergoing any training?

Processing: Each group makes a presentation in the plenary. At the end of each presentation a few minutes of question and answer, a critique or comments should be allowed.

Facilitator: Helps the groups after presentations on newsprint to identify issues which can go together or have common intent. Once the

clusters of
issues emerge
the facilitator
helps the whole
group to identify
which ones
relate to any of
the following:

- Knowledge
- Attitudes
- Practices

2. METHODOLOGY

HANDOUT 2. METHODOLOGY

The next area of concern is teaching methodology. And how is it related or linked to teaching? First, a method is a technique of doing something effectively and efficiently. But Lawrence Stenhouse does not like the word “Method”! He would rather talk of ‘strategy’. He argues that a strategy is well thought out, systematic and discretionary, whereas a method would be what is commonly accepted and is in use or recommended to be used. Be that as it may, the use of certain sets or combination of more than one set of methods would constitute methodology. For example teaching being an art and skill requires that a teacher has to use and vary the lesson by employing different methods for effective learning to take place. In summary teaching methodology means:–

- Techniques and procedures which govern the instructional process.
- Teaching methodology is not abstract, but practical and real.
- It arises from deliberate choice and practical experience of the teacher/instructor.
- It facilitates the acquisition of knowledge, skills and values by the learners.
- It helps to build bridges between the “Known” experiences and the “unknown”.

FACTORS WHICH INFLUENCE TEACHING METHODOLOGY

There are four factors which influence teaching methodology. These are, the purpose of what shall be taught (objective of the lesson), subject matter itself, the instructional materials to be used and learners themselves.

(i) PURPOSE

This refers mainly to the goal or main objective of what we want to teach. Before an instructor decides on suitable teaching methodology, he/she should ask the following questions:

- What do I want to achieve by teaching this lesson? Or what is the purpose of this form of education? Alternatively, why do I want to take my trainees/learners through this lesson?

Every form or type of education, be it academic, technical or vocational education has definite aims, goals and objectives. If the purposes of what we want to teach are clear, then we can decide how to teach it in order for effective learning to take place. Besides, if we know precisely why we want to teach a particular body of knowledge, then we can justify its relevance for our learners.

For example the aims of the Kenya Certificate of Secondary Education (KCSE) in Kenya today are:–

- To build on the concepts, principles and skills established in the primary cycle.
- Preparation of learners for self–reliance, training and further education.
- Help in laying a firm foundation for the development of self–discipline, integrity, diligence, adaptability, co–operation and patriotism.

Amongst other things, one of the cardinal aims of technical education as practised in youth polytechnics in this country today (and which is similar to those above) is the preparation of learners for self–reliance through appropriate training and further education. The ultimate projection is to see learners acquire skills which can enable them become self–employed in order to earn their living without looking up to the government or the private sector for white collar jobs.

(ii) SUBJECT MATTER

To a great extent, subject matter (i.e. a body of knowledge or content) has a direct bearing on the choice of teaching methodology. The simple logic here is to select methods which will ensure, that teaching proceeds from the simple matters to the complex matters of content, but in a sequential fashion. Learning by its nature is gradual and systematic. A methodology which ensures a breakdown of content into manageable steps makes it easier not only for the teacher to teach but also for the learners to understand easily. The rule here is simplicity. That the choice of method should be determined by the extent to which it will help to simplify the material to be taught.

A picture says a thousand words

Anonymous

(iii) INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIAL

The techniques we adopt for teaching are directly influenced by the choice of instructional materials. The interesting thing is that instructional materials are quite varied and often depend on WHAT and WHY we teach what we teach. Some common examples of instructional materials often used in the classroom are:–

- Chalkboard
- Flip chart
- Felt/flannel board
- Magnetic board
- White board
- Maps
- Posters
- Charts and graphs
- Photographs
- Textbooks
- Manuals
- Handouts/handout material
- Summary cards
- Overhead projectors
- Slides and slide projectors
- Film strips and projectors
- Workbooks

The most basic element here is that the choice of instructional material will determine the activities of the teacher as well as those of the learners, and hence the Methodology. For example use of the chalkboard may involve note–making on the part of the teacher and note–taking on the part of the learners. This would mean the teacher has to employ among other things an expository or lecture method.

(iv) LEARNERS THEMSELVES

Different learners bring to a learning situation many diversities. The vast differences in the learners, otherwise called “Entering behaviour” is manifested in the form of varied:–

- a) Experiences
- b) Aptitudes
- c) Skills
- d) Values
- e) Feelings
- f) Responses

An experienced instructor needs to do a delicate balancing act. This is required of him/her in order to synchronise and harmonise these differences amongst learners in order for each and everyone to benefit from the learning process. Learning requires that both the teacher and learners have to contribute. But for each and every learner in a classroom setting to do this he/she must feel accepted for what they are, and what they possess.

That is why it is useful to emphasise that every learner brings to a learning situation unique:–

- | |
|--|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none">• Knowledge• Skills• Experiences |
|--|

Each and every learner can benefit from others’ knowledge, skills and attitudes, just as much as they learn from the teacher. The difference is that the methodology employed should enable both the teacher and learners to share whatever they have in order to promote meaningful learning. This calls for methodology which allows for equal participation of learners in the teaching/learning process.

SUMMARY:

In summary four main factors which influence the choice of teaching methodology are:–

- The purpose of teaching
- Subject matter.
- Instructional materials.
- Learners themselves.

3. ADULT LEARNING

HANDOUT 3. ADULT LEARNING

Who is an adult? More specifically who is an adult learner? These and many others are questions whose answers are relative. The reason being, that they depend upon and are influenced by different cultures, societies and other extraneous factors.

For example, the whole question of youth versus adulthood is influenced by many disciplines. In psychology, there is a differentiation between chronological age (CA) and mental age (MA). In legalistic terms, there are stipulations which vary from one community to another which determine when a person (man or woman) can make independent decisions like voting, taking a bank loan, taking a driving licence, drinking alcohol, holding certain public offices etc.

But for purposes of this book, an adult learner is one who is capable of deciding to pursue a particular career or vocation. This could be with or without any prior formal schooling. The bottom–line is that an adult in this case is somebody of sound mind, because he/she can take own decisions, above all else.

Psychology of learning

1.0. Motivation

Although adults have the ability to learn, that ability alone without efforts produces no result. For a learner to make an effort, there must be a motive.

1.1. Definition of a motive

Motive simply means a desire, need, urge or drive to achieve a certain goal. It is that drive which makes you do what you do. The motive will also include interests, attitudes and purposes.

There are different definitions of motivation. Motivation is what causes a person want to know, act, understand, believe or gain particular skills. Motivation can also be defined as the drive to satisfy the individual's need e.g. an adult learner who wants to learn how to read and count so that he won't be cheated when s/he goes out shopping.

As an instructor/teacher you should understand your learners needs, interests, purposes and attitudes so that you are able to encourage them to learn. You should provide the environment that motivates the learners because if they are not motivated, they will not come back to classes after the first few sessions. It is your duty to create and sustain interest in learning.

Intelligence and abilities are not necessarily preconditions of learning. Remember that to have abilities does not mean that the adults will in fact learn. They have to wish to learn. They have to have some kind of interest in what they are learning. They also aspire to master certain skills. Since adults are motivated learners, you will need to work hard to sustain and build on that motivation. It is important that you seek to understand each individual's motive for wanting to learn, so that you make the learning experience more relevant to the learner's needs. The approach you use for teaching should be more in line with the learners wishes. By so doing you can best help the learners.

Adults may have more than one motive for attending classes. However, the basic motive of an adult learner is the need for achievement and reward. An adult learner also needs to feel good about something. No adult learner wants to go and waste time in class. Usually motives vary from one individual to another, one area to another or one institution to another.

1.2. Ways of motivating learners

Some suggestions on how to motivate learners.

1. Encourage the efforts made by learners by word of praise.
2. Set and keep a routine and be regular in the way you conduct your dealing with learners e.g. start class in good time, keep learners well occupied doing their work etc.
3. Be punctual as this will make learners want to be in class early and feel that they are valued. Adults are partners in learning and not inferiors.
4. Give learners work that is challenging and yet which they can do successfully. The work should neither be too easy that they lose interest, nor should it be too difficult to discourage them.
5. Use teaching methods that are interesting and stimulating.
6. Let the learners know the result of that work and give guidance on what to do.
7. Let learners study or do what they can put into practice. The work and the knowledge should be functional and profitable to the learners.
8. Take interest in learners as individuals. Listen to their problems and show them they are people worthy of respect and consideration.
9. Revive and maintain interest by using a selection of different methods.

2.0. Motivation in Adult Education

2.1. Learning as work

Learning is work, sometimes very hard and it looks easy only when it is either not going on at all, and the learners are merely being entertained, or when motivation is so high that the work involved in the learning task becomes enjoyable as well as arduous. For adults, the question of entertainment does not arise as an adequate source of motivation. For adults, learning may be traced to some fundamental need, which sets the stage for learning, because its satisfaction provides the conditions of reinforcement necessary for the continued learning. This “need” is the source of motivation for adults.

2.2. Adult Education is Voluntary

Adult educators must worry of motivation on two levels, first, because theirs is a voluntary institution and people must be motivated to come in the first place and second because once they come they need continued motivation to stay in the group. “Motives which are strong enough to bring an individual into the learning situation may be too weak by far to keep him/her in it for long enough, the very high drop-out rate in adult programmes which are not vocationally based is in part a measure of that motivation strength”.

3.0. Key principles of adult learning

3.1. Experience based

Unlike children education Adult Education takes advantage of an adult’s ability to solve problems which require reason and judgement. Adult Education ties in with the experience of adults, with their distinct traditional customs’ and cultural values and beliefs. Their reservoir of life experiences provides a useful resource for learning through interactions with fellow learners.

One of the most important characteristics of good Adult Education is that it is based on “Problem-Posing”. It is not a banking process where a little more knowledge is deposited in each lesson. An outside expert is not called upon to decide what the community needs to know or do, and then to ‘pour’ his or her own knowledge into the empty heads of the trainees. No. As Mao Tse Tung said, ‘the role of the educator is to present to the community in a challenging way the issues they are already discussing in a confused way’. The whole emphasis is on learning, not teaching.

This means that traditional teachers’ need to be re-educated to understand the role of the adult educator, i.e.

- Creating a learning climate,**
- posing problems,**
- encouraging a process of search for causes and solutions**
- assisting the group to discover as much as possible for themselves, and**
- planning action**

All this is very different from the traditional teachers’ role. We all have strong memories of ‘what-a-teacher-does’ from our own school days, but if we are to work effectively with adults using the problem-posing method, we need to wipe this model right out of our heads.

The adult educator should therefore realise that adults have wide experience and have learnt much from life. They learn most from their peers. Adult educators should help them to share their own experience and create a situation where they are encouraged to have a dialogue with one another. Let them sit in a circle where they can see each other’s faces so that speaking and listening can both be helped by the use of their eyes.

3.2. Relevance of Learning Content to immediate needs

“A very pleasant thing about adult education is that we can learn what we want to learn – what we feel would be useful to us in our lives”. At school, children are taught the things, which we adults decide they should be taught. But adults are not like children who sit in classrooms and are then taught history, or grammar, or a foreign language. As adults, we can try to learn these things if we wish: we do not have to do so. Instead, we can learn about growing a particular crop, about the government, about house building – about whatever interests us. We can build on the education we already have – using the tools of literacy or a foreign language, or an understanding of scientific principles. Or, if we never went to school, we can start by learning about the things of most immediate importance to us – better farming methods, better child care, better feeding. We do not even have to start by learning to read and write.

The desire to learn is essential to effective learning. This is especially true with adults who are under no compulsion to attend classes or to prepare assignments. Adults therefore, have a specific need to be satisfied

through attending literacy classes. Unless the literacy programme is therefore tailored to meet these specific needs, the adult learners will drop out. The major difference therefore between the adult learner and the child is that while the latter hopes to find the knowledge acquired and accumulated over many years in school useful sometime in future, the former would want to apply the new knowledge acquired immediately. Hence, the adults perspective of learning is that of immediate application for the desired change. This should be born in mind while designing adult education.

To achieve the above, both the curriculum as well as the materials to be used should not only be within the expectations of the learner but also intelligible to the learner. Adults are interested and learn quickly about things that are relevant to their lives. Adults should therefore have a share not only in planning their own curriculum based on their needs from which they can choose relevant areas of focus in their group discussions, but (perhaps even more importantly) also participate in regular evaluation of what they are doing.

3.3. Sense of personal dignity

Adults, unlike children, have a strong sense of self-respect and therefore expect others to affirm this self-image. Adults expect to be treated with respect at all times and never want to feel humiliated or laughed at before others. It is for this same reason that some adults in a group hesitate to assume responsibilities readily. They often fear failure with ridicule as a consequence. These people need encouragement and an assurance that the way the group is organised does reflect respect for the dignity of each individual learner. No one will be coerced into any responsibility or activity. A group committee should be chosen to make decisions suitable for themselves and avoid any chances of imposition from the teacher or external forces.

3.4. A Permissive, threat free environment

Threat and punishment is not, psychologically, the reverse of reward. It disturbs the relationship of the learner to the situation. The learner who is emotionally and psychologically free to look at experience is ready to start on the process of acquiring the necessary behaviour. The classroom climate should be explicitly designed to reduce defensiveness and to provide the emotional support which will enable the individual to endure awkward stages of developing and trying out new forms of behaviour and new thought patterns. Mutual respect should grow out of need satisfaction rather than position.

3.5. Observation and reasoning

Research has shown that people remember:

20% of what they hear
40% of what they hear and see and
80% of what they discover for themselves

As adults grow older their memories may get weaker but their powers of observation and reasoning often grow stronger. Education should therefore stress **Learning** more than **Teaching**. Where possible, animators should create a learning situation where adults can discover answers and solutions themselves through observation and reasoning. People remember the things they have said themselves better than what the teacher tells them. So teachers should not speak too much. They need to give participants a chance to find out solutions before adding important points the group has not mentioned.

Usually, codes are used for this purpose. These are problem-posing materials to provoke or stimulate a group for discussion. A code could be a play, a poster, video, slides, song, proverb, a story etc. It should be short, relevant and to the point and should depict a familiar situation of immediate concern to the group. The role of the animator is to facilitate the “decodification” discussion systematically until a plan of action is drawn in response to the phenomenon.

3.6. Knowledge of results

Learning is aided if the adult finds out immediately after practice whether or not his/her response was correct. This essentially constitutes knowledge of results. It is also referred to as feedback which acts as a positive reinforcer. Knowledge of results can be provided fairly readily in learning involving developing psychomotor abilities.

For example in typing, a key is stuck and the results appear immediately on the paper. But knowledge of results may be relatively difficult to gauge immediately in learning involving cognitive processes. But the

teacher can only do this mainly through questioning and observation. Another form of assessment of cognitive learning is through informal quizzes or informal tests.

Summary

In summary motivation, is an internal desire which makes us energised to engage in an activity e.g. learning. Without motivation learning becomes quite unproductive and mechanical. The bottom line is for the instructor/teacher to generate and sustain motivation throughout the lesson. This is only possible when learning is made (through the instructor's efforts) less compulsive to the extent that it is seen by learners to be

- Learning as work
- Learning being voluntary i.e. it proceeds with the consent of learners; rather than only the will of the teacher.

Four key principles of Adult learning, therefore, can be summarised as:

- Is Experience based (i.e. the material is useful for the learner.
- Is relevant to immediate needs of the learners.
- Respects the learners' sense of personal dignity.
- Hinges on observation and reasoning.
- Knowledge of results.

According to the educational psychology of adult learning, the following factors underly a conducive learning situation:

- Adults learn best if new material is taught in a situation similar to the one in which the material will be used.
- Adults learn best when success is neither too easy nor too hard. If it is too easy, they tend to become bored. But if it is too hard, then they are quite likely to fail, and yet the prospect of failure for adults means quitting altogether.
- Any perceived failure in a given task should be followed by repeated (reinforced) success. For adults, satisfaction from success is the best reward. Therefore when training adults on a skill, repeated failure can only convince them they can't do it anyway.
- Adults learn better through actual participation in what is taught than relying on the excessive direction of the trainer. They hate being perceived to be helpless and incapable. Therefore even when the instructor or trainer has given an input (or lecture) it should not be more than 15 minutes. And this lecture should be followed by practical involvement of adults. But any tendency by the trainer to talk too much will "put off" adults.
- A fair opportunity should be given to the adults to practice what they have learned as soon as possible, preferably after it has been taught.
- For learning to be effective, the instructor needs to win the respect of the adult learners. The instructor should be someone who can be approached easily for personalised assistance. This is only possible if the instructor is approachable and willing to listen. Often times such an instructor would also be willing to find answers for problems of the adults even when they don't readily have them at hand.

ACTIVITY 4. THE PROCESS OF LEARNING – Activity: 1 1/2 hours

Often when we ask people what they know, the first things they think of are what they have been taught in a classroom. This exercise assists people to look at what they have learned and how they have learnt it. By examining one's own ways of learning, one can see how other adults learn, and what conditions are important for adult learning.

Instruction:

a) Explain the purpose of the session. Then give each person a piece of paper and ask them to answer the following questions:

List three things that you learned out of school that are important to you, that affect your daily life. These should be things which you remember learning.

– Now choose one of them, and think carefully through the whole process of how you learned it:

(The following questions are written on newsprint or a blackboard)

- Why did you learn it?
- Who helped you to learn it?
- What was the relationship between you and the person who helped you?
- What was the situation in which you learned it?
- In which way did you learn it?
- Can you remember anything that made your learning easier or more difficult?

Each person writes for 10 minutes.

– Then ask them to share these points in groups of three.

– In the plenary the answers are collected on separate pieces of newsprint in the following way:

- Content – What they learned
- Situation – What helped them to learn
- Method – How they learned
- People – Who helped them to learn

Materials: paper, pens, newsprint, tape, markers.

4. HUMAN RELATIONS

HANDOUT 4. HUMAN RELATIONS

What is human relations?

Human relations is the satisfaction of members that enables a group to achieve its objectives. In any organisation, there are different people with different skills and talents. At the same time there are certain set, goals, or objectives. The extent to which people interact or interrelate with each other can either influence the success or failure of corporate goals.

This implies that people often depend on each other in order to achieve intended objectives. And human relations in any organisation work as a lubricant for the collective satisfaction of each towards achieving any set goals.

Aim of Human relations

The aim of human relations in any organisation revolves around:

- To facilitate and promote productivity and development for all people involved in any organisational set-up.
- To gain acceptance of all the people we work with and relate to, be they supervisors, equals or juniors.
- To make the organisational environment humane, less formal and conducive to freedom of consultation and group productivity.

- To make voluntary human efficiency possible.

Characteristics of good human relations

(a) Being a good listener

One of the hardest habits to learn to do is just to listen. Most people want to interrupt as a story is told and thus end up not understanding what is said. As teachers/instructors we can encourage or develop this skill amongst our trainees (and ourselves of course) in order to maintain some good human relations, which may help satisfy needs.

How can we learn the skill of listening?

- Give the speaker our full attention
- Avoid thinking of how we are going to answer when our turn to speak comes
- Avoid interrupting when someone is speaking
- Be prepared to summarise what has been said when it is our time to speak.

“A group never becomes a community unless it develops the habit of deep, respectful listening to one another”.
Anonymous

(b) Building up the trust

We need to build up the trust in those we work with (superiors, equals and juniors) through:

- Acceptance. We need to recognise and accept individuals we work with and communicate that acceptance to them. This makes an individual feel important, accepted in the workplace and worthwhile.
- Shared goals. We have to share the goals as well as objectives of what we do in an organisation so that people get to know why we do what we do. This makes each person goal-oriented and productive in his/her work.
- Shared data. We also need to exchange information so that people we work with are updated (or posted) on where we are. Sharing information also gives people a sense of awareness and belonging (together and to the organisation they all serve).
- Shared decision making. We should give people we work with particularly juniors an opportunity to become more accountable by allowing a share in the decision making process.

Equality is an ideal. We may never reach it, but unless we aim at equality we will find that our society is becoming more and more unequal.

Raphael Kaplinsky

Factors affecting good human relations

Good human relations are like a seedling that will later on become a tree. It needs to be grown, tended, nourished, watered and above all nurtured. But if this is not the case then human relations will be eroded through negative traits, tendencies and attitudes of mind.

In a nutshell factors affecting good human relations are:

- Tendency to boss rather than facilitate ongoing activities.
- Making promises which are never fulfilled.
- Being too easy going (a yes man or yes woman).
- Tendency to despise or hate one's cultural way of doing things.
- Boasting of one's achievements and looking down upon others.

A NEW MODEL OF MANAGEMENT

- 1. Management can be organised in such a way that decisions can be shared involving all those people who have the knowledge, skill and ability.**
- 2. People are not by nature passive or resistant to organisational needs and goals. They have become so as a result of previous experience in our educational institutions and other organisations.**
- 3. Motivation, ability, capacity for taking responsibility and the readiness to direct one's energies to meet the aims of an organisation are all present in people.**
- 4. "Managers" are actually coordinators to arrange the best methods and conditions with the organisation to achieve the goals.**
- 5. Therefore, the worker's goals are similar to, and linked to, the organisational goals.**
- 6. Organisation is built on relationships which have similar goals and interest. Decision-making and authority on different issues rests with different groups of people because of their interests and skills. More often they are on a horizontal basis rather than top-bottom line.**

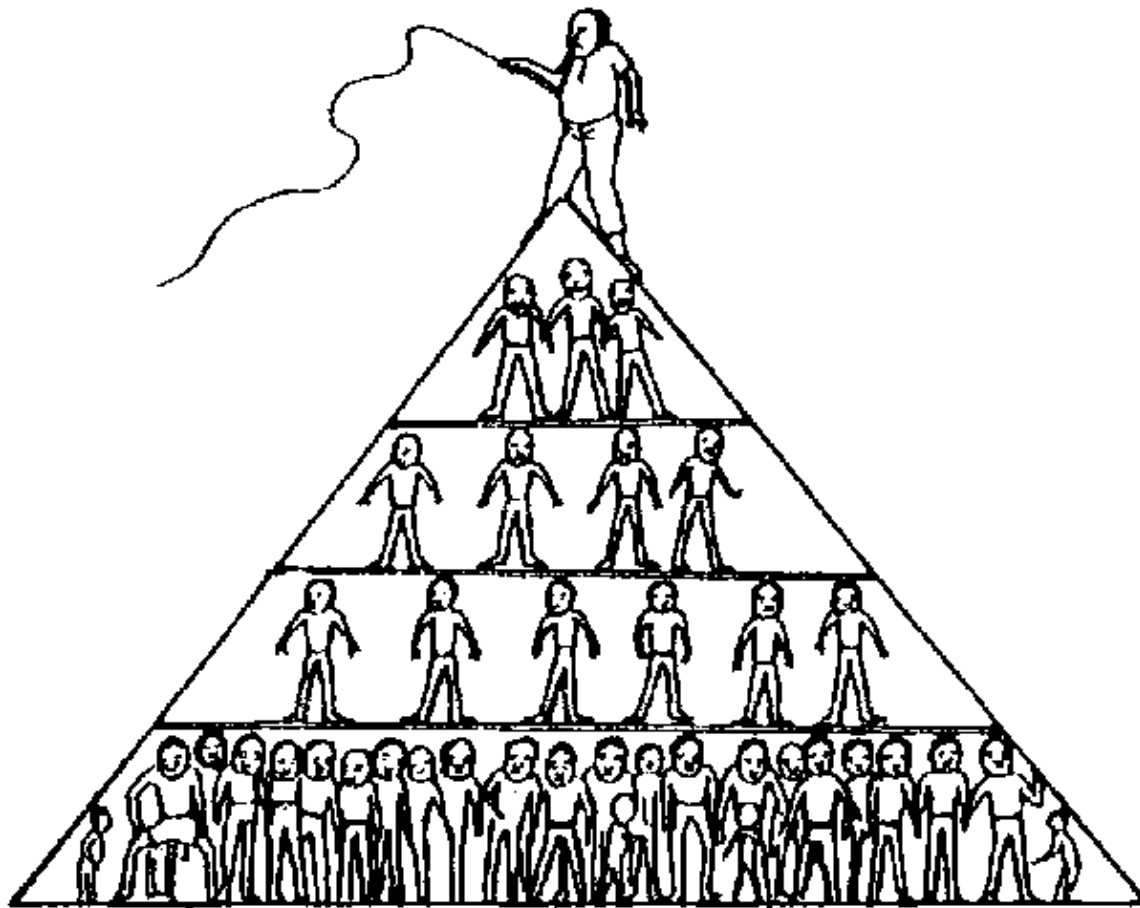
Adapted from Training for Transformation, Book III, S. Timmel et al.

Manager/Instructor and Human Relations

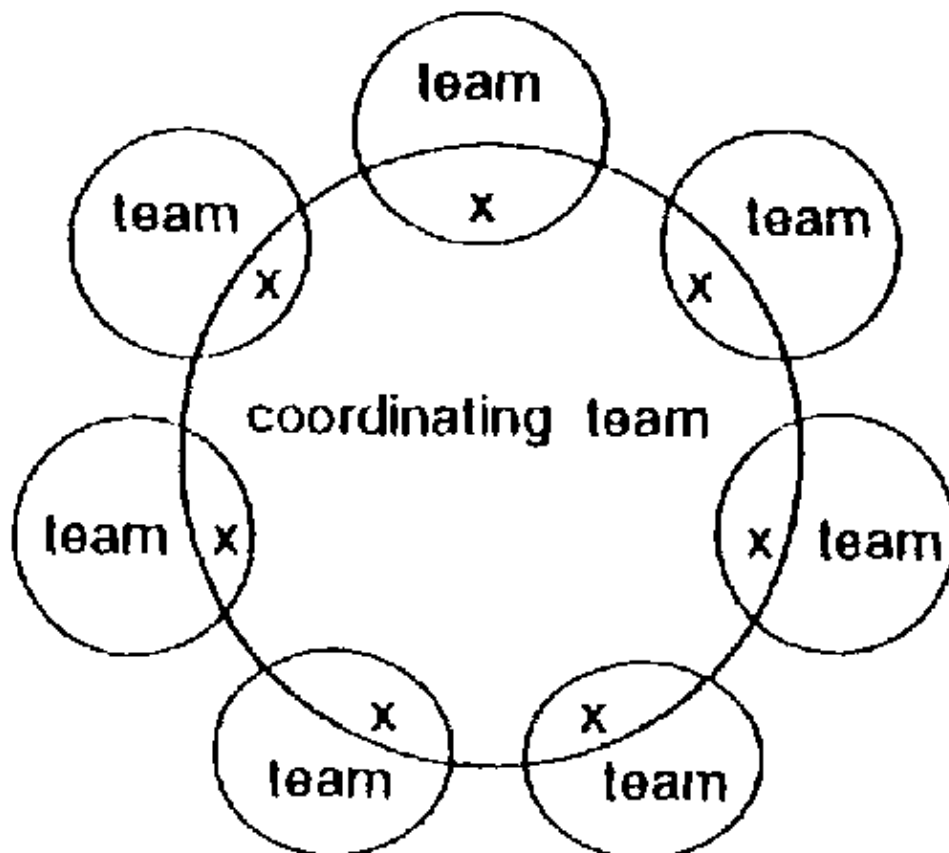
Youth Polytechnic managers and instructors need to employ human relations in the process of accomplishing their interrelated duties and responsibilities. To do these, they need to

- (i)** Set out organisational objectives, explain them and let them be understood by everybody.
- (ii)** Delegate duties to staff and trainees for collective participation in task accomplishment.
- (iii)** Evaluate performance of staff/trainees to determine how set objectives are being achieved. The participants need to be given feedback on their performance. The feedback should be aimed at motivating them to continue working hard towards set objectives.
- (iv)** Establish good working relationship between the management committee, the staff/trainees and other interested bodies that interact with institutions to promote dedication and participation in decision making.

Participants perform different roles in the organisation as they interact. As members of the human society we live, work with people, who may be members of the family, neighbours, friends, relatives and colleagues at work. Whoever they are, their presence has to be recognised as we relate to them through various means of task accomplishment and communication.



AN OPPRESSIVE MODEL OF MANAGEMENT



A MODEL OF MANAGEMENT BASED ON EQUALITY

Source: *Training for Transformation* by Hope, Timmel and Hodzi

ACTIVITY 5. TEAM MANAGEMENT – Activity: 45 minutes

1. Give copies of the following questionnaire to each participant. Ask each person to answer the questions and then as a group, discuss any differences they discover in their answers.

2. If there are some problems between members, the group should first try to solve the problems. Tell them they can invite a facilitator into their group if they are blocked. Alternatively, make sure that managers and instructors of one particular Youth Polytechnic are not members of the same group. It might be wise to create instructors only and managers only groups.

WHERE ARE YOU IN YOUR INSTITUTION/ORGANISATION?

A QUESTIONNAIRE

ORGANISATION PROCESS	DESCRIPTION	REACTION (Check 1 item per box)
INFLUENCE	How much of a say do you have in determining the institution's/ organisation's actions and directions?	<input type="checkbox"/> enough <input type="checkbox"/> not enough
STRUCTURE	How do you feel about the structure of the institution/organisation?	<input type="checkbox"/> it's too tight, rigid, controlling <input type="checkbox"/> just right <input type="checkbox"/> too loose
RESOURCES	How well do you feel your resources (skills, interests, abilities) are being used?	<input type="checkbox"/> I'm over-used <input type="checkbox"/> used just right <input type="checkbox"/> I'm under-used
EXPERIMENTATION	How creative, experimental, risk-taking, is the institution/organisation?	<input type="checkbox"/> not enough <input type="checkbox"/> just right <input type="checkbox"/> not enough
INTERGROUP COMMUNICATION	How much communication is there between you and other units in the institution/organisation?	<input type="checkbox"/> too much <input type="checkbox"/> just enough <input type="checkbox"/> not enough
GOAL	How challenging are the goals of the institution/organisation right now?	<input type="checkbox"/> too challenging and demanding <input type="checkbox"/> just right <input type="checkbox"/> too simple and understanding
INVOLVEMENT	How involved and interested are you in the institutions/organisation's activities?	<input type="checkbox"/> very involved <input type="checkbox"/> just involved <input type="checkbox"/> uninvolved
TIME	How do you feel about the amount of time you have for the work?	<input type="checkbox"/> too much time <input type="checkbox"/> just right <input type="checkbox"/> not enough time
LEARNING	How good an experience is this for your learning about how institutions/organisations work?	<input type="checkbox"/> very good <input type="checkbox"/> good <input type="checkbox"/> fair <input type="checkbox"/> poor <input type="checkbox"/> very poor

ACTIVITY 6. Building Gender Awareness

'My organisation is male/female organisation'.

Objectives

1. To allow participants to discover some of the contradictions and complexities in the structure of their institution.
2. To allow participants to practice putting forward their point of view and hearing the opposing points of view.
3. To raise the energy level and to get everybody involved.

Method

1. Explain the activity and divide the group into two teams. One team has to hold the view 'My institution is a male institution'. The other team has to hold the view that 'my institution is a female institution'. Give each team ten minutes to prepare their arguments. Tell the teams to consider staff, volunteers and the programme, and look at issues of position, power and status in the hierarchy. Meanwhile, arrange two chairs in the centre of the room facing each other. (This is a 'gold-fish bowl' debate.) (15 minutes)
2. Each team chooses one representative to start the debate, sitting on the chairs. When the person on the chair made his/her point, or when another member of their team feels they want to take over, the team member taps the person sitting on the chair on the shoulder. The team member then takes his/her place and the debate continues. This changing over of places must be done quickly in order to keep the discussion lively. A number of people should have the chance to put forward their views. (15 min)
3. At the end of the debate, discuss with the participants how they found the exercise, and whether any new information came out. Ask them how easy or difficult it was to think up arguments to support their position, and to rebut the arguments that the other team were putting forward. (10 minutes)

Facilitators notes

1. *What is interesting about this debate is that it can bring out facts about the institution/organisation which are true of the society in which we live in.*
2. *The terms 'male' and 'female' rather than 'gender-aware' are used deliberately to enable people to look at all aspects of the organisation.*
3. *The exercise is an open one to encourage debate, but you should make sure that certain key points are covered. In many organisations, women are working voluntarily or in low-paid positions than men. Many development agencies claim to target the 'poorest of the poor' and much research shows that on average women are poorer than men, so could be classified as the 'poorest of the poor'. Yet in many institutions and organisations the top positions are held by men: Many of the development programmes take on more men than women. This is unlikely to be because of a specific strategy to exclude women, but, because all organisations are operating within a context where women are excluded and discriminated against, this will happen unless there are specific steps to redress the balance. Even where there are women in some of the top jobs in an organisation, it does not necessarily follow that programmes will be gender-aware. Yet it seems unlikely that a gender-aware programme can emerge from an organisation which is itself very gender imbalanced.*
4. *The activity described here is for a training where all the participants belong to, or are connected with, the same institution/organisation. If people are from different organisations, you could simply get people into small groups to discuss these questions, and list up the arguments for their institutions being a 'male' or a 'female' organisation, to look at any similarities and differences.*

Source: Oxfam Gender Training Manual, UK/Ireland, 1994

5. COMMUNICATION

HANDOUT 5. COMMUNICATION

A single most important quality of an instructor is the ability to communicate. An instructor may have everything else; all the knowledge, skills and proper attitudes, but if he/she cannot communicate effectively, then learning won't take place. Therefore, all teaching is about communication, though not all communication is about teaching.

Communication means establishing “commonness” between two or more parties through a particular medium.

Often, in a classroom setting, this medium is the language. And essentially a language consists of words, symbols, phrases, gestures and gesticulations. Now, while communicating, the teacher should ensure that the medium (singular) or media (plural) should meet the following criteria:–

- Simple and down-to-earth.
- Clear-cut – to refer to one common meaning and interpretation.
- Familiar – to both the teacher and learners.
- Understandable – brings out the desired idea and interpretation.
- Unambiguous – is not bound to cause confusions in the learners.
- Stimulating and exciting – can convey clarity and vividness of a situation, object or example being used or given.

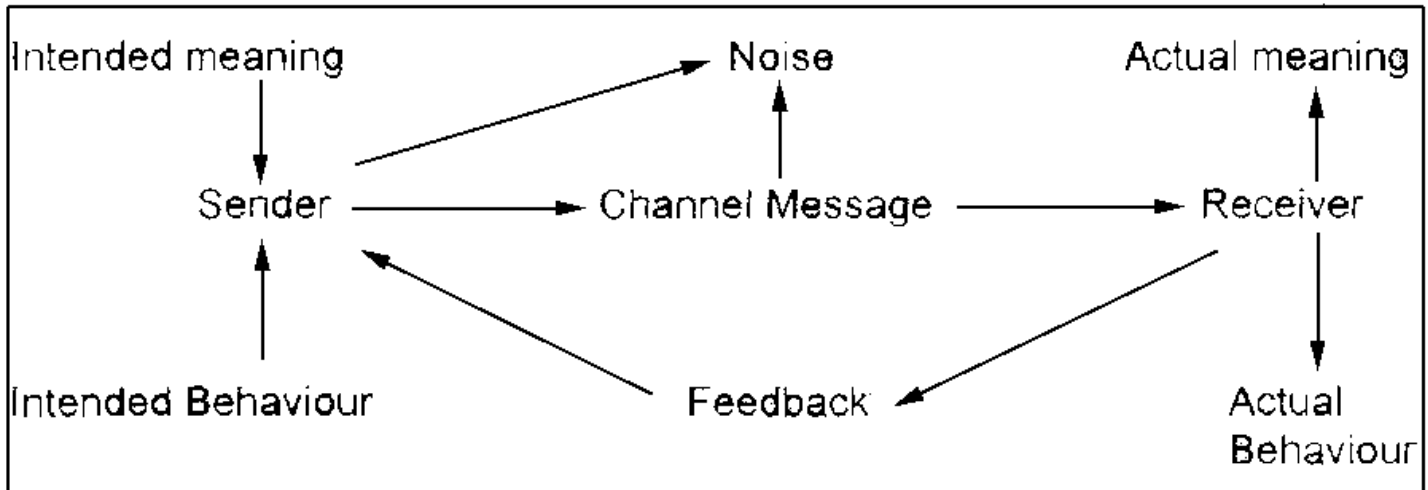
In order for an instructor to be able to do this, he/she needs to be sensitive and perceptive about the language abilities of the learners. Learners have also to be actively involved in the teaching/learning process. The instructor needs to continually gauge through their involvement whether they have common understanding with the instructor or not.

EFFECTIVE COMMUNICATION

In communicating, the initiator of the communication process (in this case the instructor) seeks to influence the receivers (Learners) in terms of their perception of the knowledge communicated through:–

- Behaviour – what the instructor wants them to do.
- Meaning – what they ought to understand.
- Message/idea – what they need to think about.
- Value/attitudes – how they should feel about what is communicated.

THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS



ENVIRONMENT CONTEXT

THE COMMUNICATION PROCESS

BARRIERS TO COMMUNICATION

Some barriers to communication arise from:

- What we communicate is not reaching the receiver (learner). Reasons for the lapse could be due to physical barriers, psychological barriers and socio–environmental barriers.
- What we communicate not being accepted.
- What we communicate not being understood.
- What we communicate not being realistic.

Other barriers mainly constitute things within our physical and social learning environment or situations which compete for our attention. An example of a physical barrier is noise. Noise is defined as any distraction, activity or intervention which disrupts the attention of the listener. Negative social attitudes as well as the perception by listeners of the sender may also constitute a barrier to communication.

LISTENING BARRIERS

“As is in the case of other skills, listening needs self–control. The individual needs to understand what is involved in listening and develop the necessary self–control to be silent and listen, keeping down his or her own needs and concentrating attention on the other with the spirit of humility. Listening obviously is based on hearing and understanding what others say to us. Hearing becomes listening only when we pay attention to what is said and follow it very closely.

WAYS OF COMMUNICATING

Communicating with people can be done in a variety of different ways:

1. The most obvious is to use words by talking together or writing each other.

“Communication experts agree that tone of voice in which we speak is very important. We have all phases like “I don’t like her tone”, or “it’s her tone”. In this sense tone means the kind of feeling and the amount of feeling people put to their voices. As children not only learn to pronounce words, we also learn to inject feeling into our voice. All of us have the ability to inject a wide range of emotions into our speech: anger, contempt, love, approval, loathing, tolerance, the list is endless. But communication can use all five senses

(e.g. hearing, seeing, touching, smelling and tasting)

2. Communication is seeing something.

Everybody knows that a crying child cannot be very happy – it communicates with its parents and they understand the message they see – and hear! Lovers, who don't dare to speak to each other in situations with other people, know how to communicate with their eyes to understand each other. (Source: K. Johannsen)

3. Communication is touching something:

If a mother gently strokes her child's head, the little one will always know what this means. Children have to learn – often by experience! that something hot hurts by touching it. (Source: K. Johannsen)

4. Communication is smelling something:

Mothers or fathers, who cook a nice meal, will not have trouble in getting their children to come to eat. They will be led by their noses. Some people put on perfume to smell nicely when they go out. (Adopted from K. Johannsen)

5. Communication is tasting something:

In Germany people say: "The best way to a person's heart is through their stomach". If people eat something good and they eat it together, this atmosphere will certainly influence them in a positive way. (Source: K. Johannsen)

6. Communication includes the whole body:

We use gestures to point out something to indicate that we are combining ideas or to show that there are other points of view. Gestures help in conveying meaning. A shrug of the shoulders, a glance of the ceiling or spreading of arms may convey more meaning than a dozen words. However the timing of these gestures is as important as the gestures themselves. It is important not to oversee every point in the conversation because it is than impossible to emphasise the key points successfully. Mannerism on the other hand are movements of the body which are repeated without regard to the meaning they might convey. A teacher should be frank enough to call to his attention, mannerisms which are apparent to an audience but of which he so not conscious.

When people talk, they not only use their mouths. People, some more and some less, use their hands, their arms, their faces to express or underline their words with gestures.

Here is a list of poor listening habits:

1. ON-OFF LISTENING

This unfortunate habit in listening arises from the fact that most people think about 4 times as fast as they can speak. Thus, the listener has 3/4 of a minute of "spare thinking time" in each listening minute. Sometimes s/he uses this extra time to think about his or her own personal affairs, concerns, and troubles instead of listening, relating and summarising what the speaker has to say. One can overcome this by paying attention to more than the words, watching non-verbal signs like gestures, hesitation, etc. to pick up the feeling level.

2. RED FLAG LISTENING–WORDS THAT CAUSE AN EMOTIONAL REACTION

To some people, certain words cause emotional reaction (like a red flag to a bull). When we hear them, we get upset and stop listening. These terms vary in every group, society and organisation. The terms "capitalist", "communist", "money", "feminist", "modern youth", "tribalistic", etc. are signals to which some people respond almost automatically. When this signal comes in, we tune out the speaker. We lose contact with her or him, and fail to develop an understanding of that person. The first step in overcoming this barrier is to find out which words start an emotional reaction in us personally, and try to listen attentively and sympathetically, even when they are mentioned.

3. OPEN EARS–CLOSE MIND LISTENING

Sometimes we decide rather quickly that either the subject or the speaker is boring, and what is said makes no sense. Often we jump to conclusions that we can predict what s/he knows or what s/he will say; thus we conclude, there is no reason to listen because we will hear nothing new if we do. It is better to listen and find out for sure whether this is true or not.

4. GLASSY-EYED LISTENING

Sometimes we look at a person intently, and we seem to be listening although our minds may be on other things or in far–distant places. We drop back into the comfort of our thoughts. We get glassy–eyed and often a dreamy expression appears on our faces. We can tell when people look this way. Similarly they can see the same in us, and we are not fooling anyone. Postpone day–dreaming for other times. If you notice many people looking glassy–eyed, find an appropriate moment to suggest a break or a change in pace.

5. TOO-DEEP FOR-ME-LISTENING

When we are listening to ideas that are too complex and complicated, we need to force ourselves to follow the discussion and make real effort to understand it. We may find the subject and speaker quite interesting if we listen and understand what the person is saying. Often if we do not understand, others do not either, and it can help the group to ask for clarification or an example when possible.

6. DON'T ROCK THE BOAT LISTENING

People do not like to have their favourite ideas, prejudices, and points of view overturned: many do not like to have their opinions and judgements challenged. So, when a speaker says something that clashes with what we think or believe, we may unconsciously stop listening or even become defensive and plan a counterattack. Even if we want to do this, it is better to listen; find out what the speaker thinks; get the other side of the question so we can do a better job of understanding and responding constructively.”

FEEDBACK

A FAULT CONFESSED IS HALF REDRESSED.– Zulu Proverb

For the communication process to be complete, there has to be a way of confirming what has been communicated by the sender. In this case the instructor needs to confirm after teaching for a period of 30–40 minutes of a normal lesson, whether learning has indeed taken place.

Every lesson has its own objectives or purpose. This will constitute intended meaning and behaviour. To gauge if learning has taken place the teacher needs to review the actual meaning of ***what*** was taught as well as the actual ***behaviour*** change. The reactions or responses by the trainees to what was taught by the teacher is therefore called feedback.

If the intended meaning and behaviour communicated by the teacher is similar or corresponds to the ***acquired*** actual meaning and behaviour by the learners in the course of instruction, then we can say that the learners' (receivers) feedback to the teacher (sender) was positive. Here the conclusion is that learning did take place, but if the reverse is the case then, it becomes a negative feedback.

Source: Training for transformation by Hope, Timmel and Hodzi.

In this later case the responses of the learners do not correspond with the intended meaning and behaviour which were being communicated by the teacher.

In a situation where a majority of the learners have a problem understanding the meaning and behaviour, being communicated by the teacher, it becomes urgent to determine where the problem lies. Either, it is one or all of the following factors affecting the process.

Language i.e. words, expressions, phrases, diction, intonation e.t.c. being used.

- Lack of understanding between the learners and the teacher caused by common barriers to communication as already explained.
- Lack of clarity in the message arising from the use of competing signals.
- Use of inappropriate methodology and techniques for the delivery of communication.
- Subject matter – being inappropriate.
- Learners themselves may not be motivated or may have negative attitudes to either the teacher, subject or both.

ACTIVITY 7. COMMUNICATION

Phase one:

Let the group discuss in pairs about a certain topic (e.g. One (A) should support this statement and the other one (B) should oppose it). The rules for the discussion are now as follows:

A starts to talk (for not more than 2 minutes). Before B is allowed to answer, s/he has to repeat the contents of A's statement. B has to do this as correctly as possible and is only allowed to continue when A says that s/he is satisfied with the repetition. Now B makes her/his statement. Then it's A's turn to repeat what B said as correctly as possible.

Both should continue this exercise for about five minutes.

Phase two:

After the short discussions, groups of three are formed and asked to think about the new ideas they got from this exercise (about ten minutes)

In the following plenary ask the participants:

– What did we learn from this exercise?

As a rule for gathering answers, every speaker should repeat her/his predecessor's statement, before s/he is allowed to continue.

ACTIVITY 8. PROCESS OF COMMUNICATION – Activity: 40 minutes

Procedure: Make participants sit in a semi-circle. If they are very many, they can form two semicircles as the need may arise.

Facilitator: The facilitator may think of any phrase or statement which should either too be commonplace or quite unique. Such a statement or phrase will constitute what is called "Chinese whisper".

The facilitator whispers the phrase or statement to one person. This is meant to be whispered to the next person and so on and so forth, until it travels round to each and every participant. Then the last person to hear the whisper is asked what (s)he heard. This is written boldly on newsprint. If there is a discrepancy between what was initially stated and what has come from the last person, then the same is also written for all to see. Assuming there will be a discrepancy, the facilitator initiates a discussion using the following guiding questions.

- (1) Why did we hear different things from the original whisper?
- (2) What is likely to have influenced what we heard?
- (3) How could we have ensured that people heard the right thing which was intended?

Materials: Newsprint, Masking tape and felt pens.

Phase three:

When nothing new comes from the participants, introduce the next step:

– What should the rules be for discussion in our workshop from now on?

Ask neighbours to talk to each other first for a moment before statements are made. Let the group then decide which statements are the most important ones. These should be written on newsprint and displayed in the room. These exercise should be followed by the question:

– What does this mean for a good facilitator.

Timing: 3 hours

Material: Story, paper, pencils, newsprint, markers

6. QUALITIES OF A GOOD INSTRUCTOR

HANDOUT 6. QUALITIES OF A GOOD INSTRUCTOR

In an unpublished paper, Mohammed Bwika, a veteran teacher–trainer identifies several attributes of a good instructor. In essence these attributes draw very much from the guidelines presented earlier on.

Instructors are successful only to the extent that they enable their trainees to learn what they need at the right time, rapidly and well. The measure of their success is the quality of learning which results from their instruction. With these goals in mind, we may examine the qualities and techniques which contribute to instructor effectiveness.

a) COMPETENCE IN SUBJECT MATTER

The ultimate criterion by which an instructor is judged is his/her repertoire of the knowledge of the subject. The instructor must have “hands–on” technical and professional experience in order to teach others a technical skill. This means that there is also adequate familiarity with the subject matter in order to be able to present it from a variety of approaches depending on the trainees’ needs.

b) MASTERY OF THE TECHNIQUES OF INSTRUCTION AND EVALUATION

The instructor must be able to apply the principles, methods and techniques of instruction and evaluation in the classroom. This involves:–

- ▲ Speaking clearly.
- ▲ Repeating and emphasising key points in such a way that they stand a chance of being understood and remembered.
- ▲ Encouraging trainee participation through good questioning.
- ▲ Conducting demonstrations competently.

Whereas evaluation is an on–going process, its knowledge and application are essential to an instructor. Examinations, tests, and quizzes should be designed to determine whether or not trainees have achieved the specific objectives of acquiring knowledge and skills.

c) DESIRE TO TEACH

This is a very important factor for good instructors. The attitude of the instructor towards teaching and the trainees is crucial. The instructor requires motivation to teach. To be motivated is to have an inner drive to

achieve something. Part of this motivation is for the instructor to desire to know the individual and collective needs, problems and constraints of his/her trainees. It means genuine involvement, to assist them overcome obstacles which can be a hindrance to the teaching process vis-a-vis the learners. The attitude of a motivated instructor should not be “the fellow is too thick to understand anything”, but rather “how can I help this fellow to learn with minimum effort.”

d) RESOURCEFULNESS AND CREATIVENESS

A resourceful and creative instructor is one who is prepared for the unexpected. This involves improvising or designing teaching aids and situations which are not only attractive, but help to simplify even the most complicated material for learners to understand easily. It also relates to the use of current events, examples and appropriate references to help clarify ideas and new concepts.

e) ATTENTIVENESS TO TRAINEE NEEDS

Being attentive to trainee needs includes recognising the difficulties that may be faced by the learner. A good instructor caters for individual differences and needs in the presentation of the lesson. These individual differences will also determine the selection and combination of techniques to employ in presenting the lesson. Here, there are two or more sets of learners:–

- Those with physical or psychological disabilities; or simply slow learners.
- The moderate or average learners.
- The sophisticated or fast learners.

The instructor should be able to tailor the techniques of presentation to meet and suit this diversity. All the different categories of learners need to be given due attention by the instructor.

The instructor also needs to be sensitive to the anxieties of trainees who may be experiencing the risk of failure and hence likely to drop out of class altogether.

f) MANAGEMENT TECHNIQUES

Classroom management is an important responsibility of the instructor. This includes obtaining and distributing supplies and equipment, keeping records, making reports and accomplishing a number of other administrative details prior to the start of actual teaching.

g) PROFESSIONAL ATTITUDE

The instructor as a professional needs both self-respect and respect for the profession. Everything an instructor says and does as well as the manner in which it is done reflects professional attitude. This may be interpreted positively or negatively. Whichever may be the case, it will have an effect on the trainees, the subject and the training programme as a whole. Generally, instructor's attitudes have tremendous influence on trainees' attitude and morale.

The instructor who has a proper professional attitude continually boosts the teaching/learning environment which in turn becomes conducive to the acquisition of knowledge and skills. More often than not, such an instructor has a sympathetic understanding of the trainees' problems and deals fairly with each individual. In order to do the job very well, it may be desirable at times to stay behind after hours to help a trainee. The professional should always be ready and willing to go beyond the immediate call of duty.

h) ABILITY TO DEVELOP GOOD PERSONAL RELATIONS

Instructors, students and supervisors need to get along and relate to each other well. Instructors need to avoid negative traits, like using abusive, derogatory or sarcastic language to trainees both within and outside the classroom. Neither should instructors be seen to be living in their own “Ivory Towers”, by their trainees. This means living in a world of their own and oblivious of the problems of their trainees. Equally importantly, the relations between instructors and their heads need to be cordial.

Go with the people live with them learn from them start with what they know build with what they have but of the best leaders when the job is done the task accomplished the people will all say we

have done this ourselves.

Lao Tsu, China 700 B.C.

Below find the characteristics of a bad instructor. "Each of them could be discussed in a school environment and those with problems should be assisted to change. Transfers of instructors with problems from one institution to another does not help them to change. Institutional managers need to be patient enough and continue assisting the instructors change for the improvement of the institution." (Wabuko, N.M.S. April 1995, STM TM Course).

A BAD INSTRUCTOR

- is cruel to trainees and fellow staff
- not ready to accept criticism
- not confident
- not time conscious
- not honest
- not audible
- unco-operative
- lazy
- not organised in his/her activities
- not creative and resourceful
- has poor classroom control
- shows favouritism
- poor communication with staff and trainees
- drunkard while on duty
- shows strong tribal sentiments
- lack professional preparation
- mastery of subject/content inadequate
- looks for flimsy excuses to avoid duty
- doesn't follow laid down chain of command
- doesn't motivate trainees
- gossips all the time
- poor social interactions with colleagues
- absent from duty without explanation
- shows bad examples to trainees
- poor mannerism during the lesson
- is highly emotional
- is inward looking most of the time.

ACTIVITY 9. QUALITIES OF A GOOD INSTRUCTOR – Activity: 1 1/2 hours

Procedure: The facilitator needs to identify a few capable participants to do a role play. This needs to be done and even rehearsed before this session.

Composition: an ideal situation should be one where 2 role plays are acted out after each other. Each role play should consist of a maximum of five (5) participants playing the role of learners plus one playing the role of an instructor or teacher.

In the first role play the instructor is very harsh, intimidating and uncaring about learners. (s)he does not allow them to ask questions, abuses them and when they attempt to answer questions, he often says they are wrong answers. This is seen to demoralise learners so much.

In the second role play, the instructor is the opposite of the first one. (s)he is humble, caring, encourages participants to learn without talking of wrong answers (s)he knows learners by name and appreciates their problems and difficulties.

Facilitator: After seeing these two contrasting role plays, the following are used as guiding questions for discussions.

(1) What did you see happening in the two role plays?

- (2) Does it happen in real life?
- (3) What are the root causes of such occurrences?
- (4) What consequences/effects may result from such activities?
- (5) What can we do as facilitators or instructors to rectify the negative aspects which came out of the role plays?

Materials: Newsprint, felt pens and masking tape.

ACTIVITY 10. QUALITIES OF A GOOD INSTRUCTOR – Activity: 1/2 hour

Procedure:

Use both individual and group brainstorm. Participants are each given a small piece of paper. While still in the plenary session each is asked to identify at least 5 positive qualities of an instructor, and on the opposite side of that piece of paper identify another 5 negative qualities of an instructor. Note that these qualities being identified should be borne out of their experiences because each one has passed through the hands of a teacher at one time in their schooling.

Group brainstorm:

The participants are then divided into convenient groups. Each group should discuss and agree on the five most important good qualities as well as the five most serious negative qualities.

Then back in the plenary session, group presentations are made. Questions for clarification may also be raised and discussed, as well as additional remarks.

Materials required:

Newsprint, woodcards or small pieces of paper, masking tape and scissors.

7. THE ROLE OF AN INSTRUCTOR

HANDOUT 7. THE ROLE OF AN INSTRUCTOR

Not to know is bad, and no want to know is worse.

A Nigerian Proverb.

Skilful instructors are essential to every training programme. Facilities, equipment and instructional materials are all important. But without instructors who are fully competent in instructional skills, no training programme can be a success. The major job functions of a classroom instructor may be summarised as follows:–

(1) LESSON PREPARATION

To customise prepared lesson plans to suit the personal teaching styles and needs of the trainees. Preparation also involves assembling resources, arranging classroom/workshop set-up, and maintaining a physical conducive environment to the learning process.

(2) LESSON DELIVERY

To administer classroom instruction through lectures, discussions, demonstration, or using other appropriate methods of instruction.

(3) EVALUATION

To administer and score tests, and determine trainees' grades. Besides, the instructor also

assists in the construction and analysis of tests and examinations.

(4) CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND INNOVATION

The instructor is a foremost curriculum developer right from the classroom. He/she is always experimenting (Sometimes unconsciously) with new ideas and techniques of teaching. On the basis of self-evaluation arising from the performance of trainees, and the need to do some things differently, the instructor becomes the foremost curriculum innovator.

RELATIONSHIP WITH OTHER RELATED DEPARTMENTS

Both formal and informal elements with other organisations and departments are critical to the success of every training programme. To be effective, the training staff ought to have the freedom to freely move throughout the work place to develop relationships with other people. Such people should be associated or linked to the training programme. The importance of such linkages and networks whether they are horizontal or vertical lies in keeping abreast of any changes and developments within one's area of expertise.

SUMMARY:

The role of the instructor in any training programme is fourfold:-

- | |
|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"><input type="radio"/> Lesson preparation<input type="radio"/> Lesson delivery<input type="radio"/> Trainee evaluation<input type="radio"/> Curriculum development and innovation |
|---|

ACTIVITY 11. ROLE OF AN INSTRUCTOR

Plenary brainstorming session:

What are the roles and responsibilities of an instructor?

After participants have come up with their contributions, write them on the chalkboard or blackboard and group these into the following headlines:

1. Lesson preparation
2. Lesson delivery
3. Evaluation
4. Curriculum development
5. Networking with other departments

Following this the facilitator may give additional input.

Material: Chalk, Blackboard or felt pens, newsprint and flipchart/or masking tape.

8. MOTIVATION OF TRAINEES

HANDOUT 8. MOTIVATION OF TRAINEES

There are different types of motives in people. These can be grouped into the following:

1. **Vocational motives:** desire to acquire skills for employment or self advancement
2. **Self Development Motives:** to acquire skills for better standard of living
3. **Social motives:** to acquire new friends and acquaintances.

There are two assumptions:

1. One's motivation to perform a variety of activities arises from the necessity to satisfy the basic human needs – hunger, thirst, sleep, sex and avoiding pain, anxiety and discomfort.
2. One's motivation is based on the need to enhance relationships within the society i.e. self fulfilment.

Abraham M. Maslow's hierarchy of needs theory states that human needs are a series of needs starting from the basic to the complex ones:

1. **Physical needs – Physiological needs** like water, food, rest, shelter, clothing etc.
2. **Security needs** – Personal safety and security from worry, want, protection from physical injury and desire to acquire possessions.
3. **Social needs** – Love, affection, belonging, acceptance and group identification.
4. **Self-fulfilment** – attainment, achievement of personal potential i.e. strive for excellence and creativity.

ASSUMPTION OF NEEDS THEORY

1. No need can ever be completely satisfied. Only partial fulfilment of a need is necessary before another need appears.
2. Needs are constantly changing within one individual and are usually hidden from ones consciousness.

METHODS OF MOTIVATION

- | | |
|---|--|
| 1. Motivation by force | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – use of threats – stick approach |
| 2. Motivation by enticement | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – i.e. promise of records, status recognition and tucks (or flattery) – cannot approach |
| 3. Motivation by identification or ego involvement | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> – i.e. make one “want to do” something. |

Needs are often group related and are often overlapping.

IMPORTANCE OF MOTIVATION IN LEARNING

A trainee learns best when he recognises the need and develops the desire to learn. This is through motivation. Motivation stimulates trainees to think, concentrate and learn effectively. Learning is an active process requiring a participative role. Motivation influences the rate of learning, the retention of information and desire to learn. When not well motivated, a trainee learns very little with difficulty as (s)he sees no need to learn.

Motivating trainees to learn is a major concern in any training situation. Motivation is one of the prime tasks in teaching. The instructor should ensure that it is built in every lesson presentation. Motivation should be started during the introduction of the lesson to ensure the trainee's interest and to direct attention to what is to be learnt. It should not stop at the introduction stage, but be continued throughout the entire lesson presentation.

The key characteristics of learning are as follows:

- (a) Learning is not directly observable.
- (b) There must be a change of behaviour after learning.
- (c) Learning is the practical application of joined knowledge, attitudes and skills.
- (d) Learning is transferable.
- (e) Learning is relatively permanent.

TECHNIQUES OF MOTIVATING TRAINEES

1. Show the need for the lesson

Do not assume that trainees recognise the lessons importance. No, show the benefit of the lesson to the trainees needs.

2. Arouse and maintain interest

Be interesting in your lesson presentation. Be enthusiastic and illustrative, exemplary. Use effective teaching aids. Be humorous and reasonably entertaining. But your task is to teach not to entertain or cheat.

3. Increase chances of early success

Encourage trainees at early stages of training to work on projects that they can complete successfully. Success motivates trainees, it encourages extra effort. Success is achievement. Achievement brings pleasure, confidence and stimulation to greater effort. Failure during early stages destroys motivation.

4. Give recognition and credit where due.

Appreciate heartily where a trainee does a good job, individuals crave for social approval give credit where it is due. Praise generously trainees with correct and good responses. Give opportunities for trainees to show what they know. Do not embarrass slow learners.

5. Praise, avoid blame

Praise is a powerful reward and incentive for work well done. Blame is destructive. Offer constructive criticism in a positive diplomatic manner. Start with the good points of a trainee before mentioning suggestions for improvement.

6. Avoid emotional responses

Emotional reactions to trainees anger and frighten them. This distracts them from the subject being taught. Emotional outbursts interfere with learning and are demotivating.

7. Be professional

Set an exemplary example. Trainees emulate instructors. S/he is the model. Be motivated to teach and the trainees will be motivated to learn.

NOTE: A dissatisfying style of teaching, poor training facilities, inefficient training and administration, and poor interpersonal relationship are demotivating to trainees.

8. Set clear goals

Ensure that trainees understand what you are teaching them, and what they have to know and do, as a result.

9. Provide necessary facilities/resources

Ensure trainees the opportunity to do what is expected of them on their own. This instils confidence and increases motivation.

10. Give responsibilities

Give trainees the opportunity to do what is expected of them on their own. This instils confidence and increases motivation.

11. Treat trainees as special individuals

Give each trainee his/her due respect as befits him/her. Recognise individual skills and promote them. Attend to individual needs.

12. Give correct guidance

Provide correct and good support when needed, especially at the time of difficulties, i.e. sickness, lack of fees, hunger, slow learning e.t.c.

9. TYPES OF TEACHING METHODS

HANDOUT 9. TYPES OF TEACHING METHODS

There are different types of teaching methods which can be categorised into three broad types. These are teacher-centred methods, learner-centred methods, content-focused methods and interactive/participative methods.

(a) INSTRUCTOR/TEACHER CENTRED METHODS

Here the teacher casts himself/herself in the role of being a master of the subject matter. The teacher is looked upon by the learners as an expert or an authority. Learners on the other hand are presumed to be passive and copious recipients of knowledge from the teacher. Examples of such methods are expository or lecture methods – which require little or no involvement of learners in the teaching process. It is also for this lack of involvement of the learners in what they are taught, that such methods are called “closed-ended”.

(b) LEARNER-CENTRED METHODS

In learner-centred methods, the teacher/instructor is both a teacher and a learner at the same time. In the words of Lawrence Stenhouse, the teacher plays a dual role as a learner as well “so that in his classroom extends rather than constricts his intellectual horizons”. The teacher also learns new things everyday which he/she didn't know in the process of teaching. The teacher, “becomes a resource rather than an authority”. Examples of learner-centred methods are discussion method, discovery or inquiry based approach and the Hill's model of learning through discussion (LTD).

(c) CONTENT-FOCUSED METHODS

In this category of methods, both the teacher and the learners have to fit into the content that is taught. Generally, this means the information and skills to be taught are regarded as sacrosanct or very important. A lot of emphasis is laid on the clarity and careful analyses of content. Both the teacher and the learners cannot alter or become critical of anything to do with the content. An example of a method which subordinates the interests of the teacher and learners to the content is the programmed learning approach.

(d) INTERACTIVE/PARTICIPATIVE METHODS

This fourth category borrows a bit from the three other methods without necessarily laying emphasis unduly on either the learner, content or teacher. These methods are driven by the situational analysis of what is the most appropriate thing for us to learn/do now given the situation of learners and the teacher. They require a participatory understanding of varied domains and factors.

In summary, three types of methods commonly used in instruction are: –

- Teacher-centred methods
- Learner centred methods
- Content focused methods
- Interactive/participative methods

SPECIFIC TEACHING METHODS

We can now consider a number of specific methods which can be drawn from in the course of classroom instruction. It is however, important to note that the choice of any form of methods should not be arbitrary, but needs to be governed by the criteria we have already examined. At the same time each method is not fool-proof, but has its own advantages and disadvantages. That is why I would recommend the use of complementary methods rather than one method.

1. LECTURE METHOD

A lecture is an oral presentation of information by the instructor. It is the method of relaying factual information which includes principles, concepts, ideas and all *THEORETICAL KNOWLEDGE* about a given topic. In a lecture the instructor tells, explains, describes or relates whatever information the trainees are required to learn through listening and understanding. It is therefore teacher-centred. The instructor is very active, doing all the talking. Trainees on the other hand are very inactive, doing all the listening. Despite the popularity of lectures, the lack of active involvement of trainees limits its usefulness as a method of instruction.

The lecture method of instruction is recommended for trainees with very little knowledge or limited background knowledge on the topic. It is also useful for presenting an organised body of new information to the learner. To be effective in promoting learning, the lecture must involve some discussions and, question and answer period to allow trainees to be involved actively.

PREPARATION AND DELIVERY OF A LECTURE

As stated earlier, during the lecture, the trainees merely listen to the instructor. It is therefore very important to consider the attention span of trainees when preparing a lecture. The attention span is the period of time during which the trainees are able to pay full attention to what the instructor is talking about. It is estimated to be 15–25 minutes only. It is difficult to hold the trainees attention for a long period of time and careful preparation of lectures is very necessary.

The instructor should have a clear, logical plan of presentation. He/she should work out the essentials of the topic, organise them according to priorities and logical connections, and establish relationships between the various items. Careful organisation of content helps the trainees to structure and hence, to store or remember it. When developing a theme in a lecture, the instructor should use a variety of approaches. A useful principle in any instruction is to go from the *KNOWN* to *UNKNOWN*; from *SIMPLE* to *COMPLEX*, or from *PARTS* to a *WHOLE*.

Knowing the trainees and addressing their needs and interests is very important. For example, in explaining technical processes the instructor should search for illustrations that will be familiar to the trainees. Unfamiliar technical words should be introduced cautiously. New terminologies should be defined and explained and examples given.

In order to gain and focus the attention of trainees, the instructor should be adequately prepared, fluent in his/her presentation and should use various teaching aids and illustrations such as charts, transparencies, codes and even the real objects during presentation. Question and Answer periods should be included in the lecture.

QUALITIES OF A GOOD LECTURE

1. A good lecture should not be too long as to exceed the trainees attention span (up to 25 minutes).
2. A good lecture should address a single theme.
3. In a good lecture technical terms are carefully explained.
4. Familiar examples and analogies are given.
5. A good lecture establishes fluency in technical content.
6. A good lecture uses illustrations and examples.
7. A good lecture builds on existing knowledge.
8. A good lecture employs a variety of approaches.

2. THE DISCUSSION METHOD

Discussion involves two-way communication between participants. In the classroom situation an instructor and trainees all participate in discussion. During discussion, the instructor spends some time listening while the trainees spend sometimes talking. The discussion is, therefore, a more active learning experience for the

trainees than the lecture.

A discussion is the means by which people share experiences, ideas and attitudes. As it helps to foster trainees involvement in what they are learning, it may contribute to desired attitudinal changes. Discussion may be used in the classroom for the purpose of lesson development, making trainees apply what they have learnt or to monitor trainees learning by way of feedback.

LESSON DEVELOPMENT

In areas in which trainees already have some knowledge or experience, discussion may be used to develop the main points to be covered in a lesson. For example, in safety training many of the procedures and behaviour that should be observed can be established through discussion with trainees. Trainees can draw on their experience of working in workshops contract sites to contribute to the discussion. In discussing some issues, differences of opinion arise. The discussion can help to clarify the different points of view and may assist each trainee to define his or her own opinion. Used in this way, discussion may be more effective in motivating trainees than lectures. Trainees can see that some importance is attached to their contributions.

APPLICATION

Discussion may also be used, following a lecture or demonstration, to help trainees apply what they have learned. The instructor can ask questions, that help trainees to relate concepts and principles to contexts that are familiar to the trainees or in which they will ultimately be needed. For example following a lecture on “types of wood joint”, the instructor may, lead a discussion directing trainees attention to the places or pieces of furniture where each type is found, and the reasons for using one type than the other. Used in this way discussion contributes to the transfer of learning.

FEEDBACK

The discussion method also provides an opportunity to monitor trainees learning. The answers provided by trainees and the questions they ask, reveal the extent and quality of learning taking place. Instructors can use this information to repeat or modify an explanation to improve learning. They can also provide feedback to trainees, thereby helping to reinforce learning that has taken place. Discussion used in this way should follow after other methods of classroom instruction such as lectures, demonstration or practice sessions.

CONDUCTING A DISCUSSION

Discussion sessions can be led by the instructor, or can take place in groups. In either case, the goal is to meet the lesson objectives by allowing the trainees to:–

- a) Relate relevant personal experiences or events which have occurred in the work setting.
- b) Contribute ideas or personal opinions.
- c) Apply what has been learned to familiar situations or solving problems.
- d) Express what had been learned.

Whether the discussion is instructor led or takes place in groups it must be guided by the instructor. It must be focused on the objectives of the lesson: it is the instructors responsibility to see that the objectives are met. If it is not properly guided, a discussion can degenerate into a consideration of inappropriate or unimportant topics adding confusion rather than clarification to the lesson.

3. THE DEMONSTRATION LESSON

“The most effective way to teach an occupational skill is to demonstrate it... one of the two most essential teaching skills is the ability to demonstrate; the other is the ability to explain. Both are vital to the success of either an operation lesson or an information lesson”. Weaver and Cencil in *APPLIED TEACHING TECHNIQUES*.

DEFINITION

Demonstration means any planned performance of an occupation skill, scientific principle or experiment.

TEACHER PREPARATION

1. Rehearse your presentation in advance of the lesson.
2. Anticipate any difficult steps, possible interruptions e.t.c.
3. Obtain all materials, tools, equipment, visual and teaching aids in advance and check their useful condition.
4. Have all materials within reach and conveniently arranged.
5. Time the demonstration NOT to exceed 15 minutes.
6. Remove all extraneous materials; check lighting, visibility, student grouping, and proximity to electric, gas and water outlets.
7. Plan to use a skill or method to advantage; work from simple to complex, one step at a time.

PRESENTATION

1. Make sure all students can see and hear the lesson.
2. Be enthusiastic, professional, effective but not dramatic.
3. Relax; use any mishaps or humour to YOUR advantage.
4. Observe all safety rules and procedures.
5. Keep eye–contact with the class; ask and encourage class questions.
6. Explain WHY and HOW: use the techniques of SHOW and TELL.
7. Use a medial summary to strengthen your explanation.

PRECAUTIONS

1. Avoid interruptions; keep demonstration smooth and continuous.
2. Never demonstrate on a student's material.
3. Work towards one aim.
4. Allow time for possible student participation.

CARRYING OUT A DEMONSTRATION

1. Give a good performance. Remember that the trainees learn by your good example.
2. Explain each step or process as you proceed. Follow your lesson plan.
3. Make sure the trainees see the demonstration from the angle they will perform it themselves.
4. Be sure everyone can see and hear. Maintain eye contact.
5. Emphasise key points, and if possible prepare before hand ask key questions as you go along and allow trainees to ask questions.
6. Observe all safety rules, precautions and procedures; and emphasise them.
7. Use proper instructions, aids such as chalkboard, charts, handouts e.t.c. to support your demonstration.
8. Provide for trainees participation where possible, during and after demonstration.

9. Demonstrate the correct way only. First impressions are important, therefore, make them correct ones.
10. Always summarise the steps and emphasise key points again.

AFTER DEMONSTRATION

1. Return all items used during demonstration to their storage places.
2. Make arrangements to have the trainees practice the skill as soon as possible in a practical class session.
3. Observe and analyse trainee(s) performance and correct mistakes.
4. Offer reinforcement where necessary.
5. Coach weak or slow trainees.
6. Check trainee's completed work for accurate performance and record.
7. Allow sufficient time interval before demonstrating another operation.

4. BUZZ GROUPS

Another method of instruction is the buzz group. During a longer session, the plenary group can break into sub-groups to discuss one or two specific questions or issues. The room soon fills with noise as each sub-group 'buzzes' in discussion. If appropriate, after the discussion one member of each group can report its findings back to the plenary. Buzz groups can be in pairs, trios, or more depending on the activity. People turn to their neighbours for a quick buzz, or form larger groups of three or more. This allows almost every one to express an opinion. While they are buzzing, participants are able to exchange ideas and draw on their wide collective experience. It may provide a good opportunity for trainees to reflect on the content of a lecture. A good buzz session will generate many ideas, comments and opinion, the most important of which will be reported back.

Buzzgroups help trainers as they allow you to:

- Draw your breath
- Gauge the mood, by listening to some of the discussions
- Change pace of the session
- Encourage participants to reflect on what they have learnt and how they might apply it in their work.

DISADVANTAGES

The main obstacle using buzz sessions lie in unfamiliarity with their use, the time required, the need for leaders or facilitators within each sub-group, and the need to have tables and chairs arranged for quick and easy discussion.

5. BRAINSTORMING

The purpose of a brainstorming session is to discover new ideas and responses very quickly. It is particularly a good way of getting bright ideas. It differs from the buzz groups discussion in that the focus is on generating as many ideas as possible without judging them. In this technique, all ideas are given equal credence.

Participants are encouraged to let ideas flow freely, building on and improving from previous ideas. No idea, however crazy, should be rejected. These ideas are listed exactly as they are expressed on a board or flipchart, or written on bits of paper. The combination of swiftly generated ideas usually leads to a very animated and energising session. Even the more reserved participants should feel bold enough to contribute. The purpose of listing responses is to collect existing experiences and thoughts.

It is useful to collect answers to questions when you expect much repetition in the responses.

After a brainstorm session, the ideas can be discussed further and evaluated, for example listing the best options in a systematic way. Ideas can be grouped and analysed so that they belong to the group rather than individuals. Unlike a buzz session, a brainstorm session can work well with a large group and usually takes less time. It is best to limit the time for plenary brainstorms, as you might lose the attention of some participants.

6. ROLE PLAYS

In role plays, participants use their own experiences to play a real life situation. When done well, role plays increase the participants self-confidence, give them the opportunity to understand or even feel empathy for other people's viewpoints or roles, and usually end with practical answers, solutions or guidelines.

Role plays are useful for exploring and improving interviewing techniques and examining the complexities and potential conflicts of group meetings. They help participants to consolidate different lessons in one setting and are good energisers.

However, role plays can be time-consuming and their success depends on the willingness of participants to take active part. Some trainees may feel a role play is too exposing, threatening or embarrassing. This reluctance may be overcome at the outset by careful explanation of the objectives and the outcome. Some role plays can generate strong emotions amongst the participants. It is therefore essential that a role play is followed by a thorough debriefing. This provides the opportunity for the trainer and the participants to raise and assess new issues.

INSTRUCTIONAL METHODS AND THEIR APPLICATIONS

METHOD	USES	ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES
<p>THE LECTURE METHOD A formal or semi-formal discourse is which the instructor presents a series of events, facts, or principles, explores a problem or explains relationships</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To orient students. 2. To introduce a subject. 3. To give directions on procedures. 4. To present basic material. 5. To introduce a demonstration, discussion, or performance. 6. To illustrate application of rules, principles, or concepts. 7. To review, clarify, emphasise or summarise. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Saves time. 2. Permits flexibility. 3. Requires less rigid space requirement. 4. Permits adaptability. 5. Permits versatility. 6. Permits better centre over contact and sequence. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Involves one way communication. 2. Poses problems in skill teaching. 3. Encourages student passiveness. 4. Poses difficulty in gauging student reaction. 5. Require highly skilled instructors.
<p>THE DISCUSSION METHOD A method in which group discussion techniques are used to reach instructional objectives.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To develop imaginative solutions to problems. 2. To stimulate thinking and interest and to secure student participation. 3. To emphasise main teaching points. 4. To supplement lectures, reading, or laboratory exercises. 5. To determine how well student understands concepts and principles. 6. To prepare students 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Increase students interest 2. Increases students acceptance and commitments. 3. Utilises student knowledge and experience. 4. Results in more permanent learning because of high degree of student participation. 	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Require highly skilled instructor. 2. Requires preparation by student. 3. Limits content. 4. Consumes time. 5. Restricts size of groups.

	for application of theory of procedure. 7. To summarise, clarify points or review.		
THE PROGRAMMED INSTRUCTION METHOD A method of self-instruction	1. To provide remedial instruction. 2. To provide make-up instruction for late arrivals, absentees, or transients. 3. To maintain previously learned skills which are not performed frequently enough. 4. To provide retraining on equipment and procedures which have become obsolete. 5. To upgrade production. 6. To accelerate capable students. 7. To provide enough common background among students. 8. To provide the review and practice of knowledge and skills.	1. Reduce failure rate. 2. Improves end-of-course proficiency. 3. Saves time. 4. Provides for self instruction.	1. Require local or commercial preparation. 2. Requires lengthy programmer training. 3. Increases expenses. 4. Requires considerable lead time.
THE STUDY ASSIGNMENT METHOD A method in which the instructor assigns reading to books, periodicals, project or research papers or exercises for the practice.	1. To orient students to a topic prior to classroom or Laboratory work. 2. To set the stage for a lecture demonstration or discussion. 3. To provide for or capitalise on individual differences in ability, background, or experience through differentiated assignments. 4. To provide for the review of material covered in class or to give practice. 5. To provide enrichment material.	1. Increase coverage of material. 2. Reduce classroom time. 3. Permits individual attention.	1. Require careful planning and follow up. 2. Poses evaluation problem. 3. Produce non-standard results.
THE TUTORIAL METHOD A method of instruction in which an instructor works directly with an individual student.	1. To reach highly complicated skills operations or operations involving danger or expensive equipment. 2. To provide individualised remedial assistance.	1. Permits adaptive instruction. 2. Stimulates active participation. 3. Promotes safety.	1. Requires highly competent instructor. 2. Demands time and money.
THE SEMINAR METHOD A tutorial arrangement involving	1. To provide general guidance for a group	1. Provides motivation and	1. Requires highly competent instructor.

the instructor and groups, rather than instructor and individual.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> working on an advanced study or research project. 2. To exchange information on techniques and approaches being explored by members of a study or research group. 3. To develop new and imaginative solutions to problems under study by the group. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> report. 2. Stimulates active participation. 3. Permits adaptive instruction. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 2. Poses evaluation problems. 3. Is more costly than most other methods.
<p>THE DEMONSTRATION METHOD</p> <p>A method of instruction where the instructor by actually performing an operation or doing a job shows the students what to do, how to do it, and through explanations brings out why, where, and when it is done.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To teach manipulative operations or procedures. 2. To teach troubleshooting. 3. To illustrate principles. 4. To teach operation or functioning of equipment. 5. To teach teamwork. 6. To set standards of workmanship. 7. To teach safety procedures. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Minimise damage and waste 2. Saves time 3. Can be presented to large groups. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Require careful preparation and rehearsal. 2. Requires special classroom arrangements.
<p>THE DEMONSTRATION METHOD</p> <p>A method of instruction is required to perform under controlled conditions the operations, skills or movement being taught.</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To teach manipulative operations or procedures. 2. To teach operation or functioning of equipment. 3. To teach team skills 4. To teach safety procedures. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Builds confidence. 2. Enable learning evaluation. 3. Reduces damages and waste. 4. Promotes safety. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Requires tools and equipment. 2. Requires large block. 3. Requires more instructors.
<p>THE BUZZ GROUP</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To develop and express imaginative ideas, opinions. 2. Stimulate thinking. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Help trainers to draw breath. 2. Gauge the mood by listening to some discussion. 3. Change pace of discussion. 4. Encourage participants to reflect what was learnt. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Unfamiliarity in use. 2. Time required. 3. Need for group leaders.
<p>BRAINSTORMING</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Discover new ideas, thoughts and responses very quickly. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Leads to a very animated and energising session. 2. More reserved participants feel free to contribute. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 1. It takes time particularly if it is a large group. 2. May consume a lot of material e.g. flipcharts or writing materials. 3. Requires high level facilitation skills.
<p>ROLE PLAYS</p>			

	1. Exploring and improving interviewing techniques and examining complexities and potential conflicts of groups. 2. To consolidate different lessons in one setting.	1. Good energizers. 2. Promotes empathy of trainees for other situation. 3. Encourages creativity in learning.	1. Participants might be reluctant. 2. May not work with trainees who do not know each other well.
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ACTIVITY 12. TEACHING METHODS

Procedure:

The facilitator needs to use demonstration in an extremely sensible manner to bring out what a method is. Furthermore the facilitator can identify some competent participants (particularly those who have taught for long) to have each demonstrate to the rest of the participants their understanding of different methods of teaching. After the demonstration, the facilitator asks the entire group if any other methods commonly used in instruction have been left out. These are also listed in addition to those which have already been demonstrated either by the facilitator or the participants.

GROUP WORK

Depending on the number of methods which have been identified and demonstrated, participants are divided into an equal number corresponding to methods. One way of doing this is to ask the participants to volunteer to be in a specific group depending on their knowledge of a certain method. Then each group is asked to discuss and come up with the advantages and disadvantages of using their method. Participants should be encouraged to discuss this as objectively as possible.

Plenary session:

Each group presents its finding based on the advantages and disadvantages of the methods chosen.

After each presentation, there are questions and critique from the floor.

Facilitator: The facilitator gives summary of highlights regarding the presentations and issues raised briefly. S/he will add on the input given by the groups.

Material: Newsprint, masking tape and felt pens.

10. SCHEME OF WORK PREPARATION

HANDOUT 10. SCHEME OF WORK PREPARATION

**THE DAY ON WHICH ONE STARTS OUT IS NOT THE TIME TO START YOUR PREPARATIONS.–
Nigerian Proverb.**

A scheme of work is “a plan for something”. A teacher’s scheme of work is therefore his plan of action which should enable him/her to organise teaching activities ahead of time. It is a summarised forecast of work which the teacher considers adequate and appropriate for the class to cover within a given period from those topics which are already set in the syllabus.

A well prepared scheme of work should among other things:–

- Give an overview of the total course content.
- Provide for a sequential listing of learning tasks.
- Show a relationship between content and support materials.
- Provide a basis for: long range planning, training and evaluation of the course.

A scheme of work can be made to cover one week, one month, one term or even one year, depending on the duration of a given programme. Most programmes in our educational institutions take between one and four years. Each year is divided into 3 terms with each term lasting 3 months or 13 weeks. In such a case a scheme of work should be made for each term (13 weeks). Ideally schemes of work should be prepared before classes begin.

SOME IMPORTANT CONSIDERATIONS TO BE BORN IN MIND WHEN PREPARING A SCHEME OF WORK:

1. Understanding the syllabus.

The classroom teacher may not necessarily be involved in the initial stages of curriculum development, but (s)he is expected to interpret the curriculum and implement it correctly. This calls for a thorough understanding of the syllabus and the content, in order to achieve the stated objectives. The teacher is expected to act like a policeman or a judge who is called upon to administer the law though he did not make it. It is therefore very important that the teacher be thoroughly conversant with the curriculum in order to implement it successfully.

2. Preceding and succeeding syllabus content

In most cases topics from the syllabus may not be arranged in the order in which they are supposed to be taught. Some topics will require the knowledge of the previous ones while others are quite independent. The teacher should not only identify the essential learning content but also arrange the content in logical teaching order considering the proceeding and succeeding syllabus content.

Syllabus contents of related subject:

The mistake which many teachers make is to scheme for their subject without considering the contents of related subjects. This is very wrong and should be highly discouraged. Quite often the teaching of a given topic, in a given subject may be impeded by lack of skills or knowledge to be acquired in a different subject.

Existing scheme of work for the subject

If a scheme of work is already available for the subject, it would be a waste of effort and time for the teacher to break new ground again. In this case, the teacher can revise the existing scheme to suit his/her students and to bring it up to date.

Reference material and examination

The teacher should be familiar with reference material that is available for effective coverage of the topics in the scheme of work. There is nothing more disturbing than finding out that a topic that is already covered could have been more interesting, enjoyable and even better understood if certain materials or teaching aids that are available in school had been utilised. The type of examination the students are being prepared for should bear in mind that some levels require more revision time than others and therefore, scheme for revision appropriately.

Time estimation

Although there are 13 weeks in one term, it is not usually possible to use all these for effective teaching for a variety of reasons. For purposes of determining how much material can be covered in any given time, it would be misleading to assume that a subject requiring 9 periods per week has 6 x 13 periods available for teaching. The number of effective teaching periods varies according to both predictable and unpredictable interruptions. Effective teaching time must therefore be estimated before topics are selected. The most common interruptions that are likely to disrupt a scheme of work include:

- ★ Public Holidays
- ★ Examinations (should be schemed for) if they are internal
- ★ Revisions (should be schemed for)
- ★ Open days
- ★ Sports days

- ★ Planned school breaks e.g. mid-term break e.t.c.

The teacher/instructor should check with the administration of the school or Youth Polytechnic dates for such events before scheming. Although the new syllabuses under the 8–4–4 framework give time estimation for each topic, these should be taken as guidelines only. Finer adjustments need to be made depending on the time available for teaching.

COMPONENTS OF A SCHEME OF WORK

ORGANISATION:

Refers to the organisation/institution one is working or training in.

TRAINEES LEVEL:

Part 1 refers to the grade level in training e.g. technician. In case of colleges and other institutions, some means of identification are used e.g. K.T.T.C. contribution Tech. part 1.

SUBJECT:

This refers to the subject being schemed which may be theory or practical. This refers to a particular term within a given year. Years may vary from organisation to organisation depending on time of entry.

DATE OF PREPARATION

Refers to the time the scheme of work is completed. This should be before instruction commences.

DATE OF REVISION

Due to overlapping or underplanning experienced during instruction or unforeseen interruptions, it is necessary to revise the scheme of work in order to accommodate the unexpected difficulties. This date should be indicated in the space provided in the form.

SYLLABUS TOPIC

The topics in the syllabus needs to be rearranged in the order in which they are supposed to be taught. This is because some topics are build up e.g. before one learns to multiply he should have done additions, e.t.c. The syllabus topics should then follow that order.

WEEK

Most organisations are specific in time allocation and each week should be spelt out in the week column. The numeral representing the week should be distinctly written centrally in the week column.

Weeks should be separated by a line running across the page especially when the same scheme of work form contains more than one week.

NUMBER OF PERIODS

The subject may have one, two or more periods in one week. Some periods may be single, double or triple. Numbering of the period can take the form either ordinal or cardinal system. Ordinal systems refers to the order in which periods for that subject appear on the timetable. In either system, numbering should be done as reflected on the time table for that subject. A line, beginning from the column of periods should be drawn straight across the page to separate the periods. When two spaced periods are indicated on the timetable in the same day, then there should be two distinct rows for two periods. The numbering process should be repeated for the other weeks.

SUB-TOPIC: LESSON TITLES

This should be clear and definite. The instructor should single out all the sub-topics/lesson titles in a particular syllabus topic. He should then estimate what sub topics/lesson titles will require a single period, double period or triple period, and then scheme accordingly.

OBJECTIVES

Each sub–topic/lesson title should be followed by an objective(s) which is meant to pinpoint the anticipated learning behaviour of the learners. The specific nature of the sub–topic/lesson titles does not permit broad objectives which might not be realised by the end of that period. The objectives must be stated in such a manner that there is a measurable aspect manifested by the end of the lesson e.g. the lesson title ***Simple interest*** might have the objective – “students should be able to calculate simple interest on given principals using methods of (a) direct production, and (b) simple interest formula”. The lesson title conduction of ***heat in metals*** might have the objective – “trainees will be able to classify good and bad conductors of heat after carrying out the experiment, described in the worksheet 4”, e.t.c.

KEY POINTS/METHODS

These are the central ideas which the teacher anticipated to use during the lesson. They are an elaboration of the sub–topic/lesson title. They form the backbone of the lesson. Keypoints should be stated in a specific, precise manner, preferably in form of phrases which conveys the full meaning intended.

Under no circumstances should key points be stated as activities or active in sense.

APPLICATION

(Student activities, assignment, homework, practice).

For any concept learnt, the teacher would like to see his/her learners put it to practical use. In this column the teacher should think of specific activities that the learners will perform while in the class and Nos. 11, 12, 18 for homework, students will answer comprehension questions after reading the passage on page 35 or their class text book e.t.c. Applications must be designed in order to realise and consolidate concretely the objectives of the lesson.

(Tools Equipment, Apparatus, Chalk Board, Chart e.t.c.)

Resource materials for specific content coverage used in scheming are necessary and should be noted down with their relevant pages for ease in reference during lesson planning. References include books, handouts, worksheets, journals, reports, etc. It is necessary for the teacher to indicate the books, their authors and relevant pages. Teaching aids are an integral part of an effective lesson. Aids that the teacher intends to use should be indicated in the scheme of work. Teaching aids are usually in the form of apparatus, equipment, materials and of course the real thing if readily available and appropriate. The teacher should not indicate a teaching aid which will not be available in class.

NOTES

Most student teachers forget to include teaching aids in the scheme of work.

REMARKS

DATE WHEN TAUGHT

Remarks in the scheme of work should be made immediately the lesson is over. The teacher is supposed to indicate whether what was planned for the period has been covered, whether there was over planning or failure of lesson and reasons for either case, e.t.c. remarks suggested are meant to help the teacher in his consequent and future planning.

Remarks such as “excellent” “done”, “OK”, “well done”, “satisfactory”, “taught”, etc. might not be very useful to the teacher. Such remarks as “the lesson was not very well done because of inadequate teaching aids”, or “pupils were able to apply concept learnt in solving problems as evident from supervised practice”, e.t.c. are appropriate. After the remarks, it is necessary to write the date when this lesson was taught.

A Sample Frame for a scheme of work

Subject: _____ **Year** _____ **Term** _____

Name of Instructor: _____ **Date of preparation:** _____ **Date of revision:** _____

Week	Lesson	Unit/ period	Topic	Specific objectives	Content	Methods	Learner's activities	Teaching/ learning aids	References	Remarks

ACTIVITY 13. SCHEME OF WORK – Time: A maximum of 2 hours is advisable

Procedure: Buzz groups of twos or threes are formed. These groups have to discuss the following questions and later on share with the larger group.

- 1) What is a scheme of work?
- 2) What purposes does it serve?
- 3) What are the main components of a scheme of work?
- 4) When and how is a scheme of work made?

Discussion: The discussions amongst buzz groups take place and are later on shared. The facilitator enables participants to focus on each question at a time. After the sharing from buzz groups, additions may be made by the facilitator in the form of an input. This may also involve presentation of a standard format of a scheme of work.

Materials: Newsprint, felt pens and masking tape. Any available schemes of work in an area of interest may be photocopied and given to participants.

11. LESSON PLANNING

HANDOUT 11. LESSON PLANNING

1. DEFINITION OF A LESSON

A lesson is a single activity or a series of activities designed by the instructor so as to achieve one or more instructional objectives determined, or desired in promoting positive change in the learner. A lesson is thus a period of instruction or contact between the instructor and the learners which is totally devoted to a prior identified, specified and single limited title, skill, content or idea. A lesson may be 40 minutes or even one hour or two or three hours. It may be a theoretical a practical one.

2. LESSON PLANNING

Lesson planning is an activity which the instructor performs before the actual lesson takes place. This important preparation involves:–

- (a) Identification of learning as well as teaching objectives, activities and tasks to be undertaken by both the learners and the instructor.
- (b) Sequencing of these activities and tasks.
- (c) Determining appropriate instruction aids, methods and references.
- (d) Deciding the proper organisation and or management of the learning resource available,

environment and activities.

(e) Determining evaluation process i.e. how the learner shall be deemed to have acquired the desired chance of behaviour or mastery of content and/or skills.

N.B. Lesson planning is a different activity from lesson notes–making. Lesson notes making simply means preparation of notes which are considered relevant to the lesson title. However, both are important components of a successful lesson.

3. COMPONENTS OF A LESSON PLAN

(a) LESSON TITLE

The title is a simple, clear and specific statement which tells in very certain terms what is going to be taught happening during the course of the whole lesson.

(b) OBJECTIVE

An objective is a statement by the instructor identifying the specific purpose for the particular lesson. It describes in clear simple and specific terms the intended changes in behaviour or skill mastery.

A useful objective must:–

- (i) Identify expected change.
- (ii) Defines important conditions under which the change is to occur.
- (iii) Spells out criteria for measuring the change.
- (iv) Is realistic enough to permit actual learning experiences.

USEFULNESS OF OBJECTIVES

Clearly stated objectives help the instructor to:–

- (i) Pin–point materials, tools, equipment, teaching aids, references, introduction/motivation techniques, teaching methods, media of communication, application, evaluation and conclusion of the lesson.
- (ii) Anticipate the type of learning behaviour of learners.
- (iii) Diagnose learning weakness and plan remedial work.

An effective aid is used at the right time and for a purpose.

Teaching aids include:–

Charts, maps, diagrams, boards, models e.t.c.

(c) EQUIPMENT

These are tools, apparatus, machines which the instructor uses to demonstrate a skill or process. Learners may use the same during the lesson to practice a skill.

(d) REFERENCES

These are resources from which the instructor as well as the learners obtain or extract the content to be taught or learnt. They include text books, library books, dictionaries, newspapers, periodicals e.t.c.

(e) PRESENTATION

- (i) Introduction

Introduction refers to the initial activities that the instructor or the learners do or involve themselves in to prepare themselves for the “the just about to

place – learning/teaching activity”. It has the role of motivation or evoking the learners’ interest and curiosity so that (s)he can be ready to learn a new skill.

An introduction can be:–

- A review of the previous lesson.
- Presentation of simpler materials or incidences that are known to the learner but directly or indirectly related to the title of the lesson.
- A simple statement showing what the lesson is about.
- A presentation of a picture, map, diagram, chart or specimen.

N.B. At planning stage, the instructor asks:

- What is the best way of presenting this lesson?
- How often have I used this method?

(ii) A good introduction should last about 5 minutes.

(f) THE BODY:

This is the main part of the whole lesson. In it, the instructor indicates:–

- The main learning tasks to be undertaken during the lesson.
- The main points of the lesson.
- Teaching/learning methods, or step she/he is going to use in order to achieve his instructional objectives.

(g) SUMMARY

This is a brief review over of the lesson whereby the instructor stresses the key lesson points which led to the skill mastery. He/she may go over the sequence of doing the skill or through questions and answers involving the learners. Towards the end of the lesson, an assignment may be given so that learners can read or do exercises.

(h) REMARKS OR SELF-EVALUATION

After the lesson, the instructor must think of how he conducted the whole lesson focusing on strengths and weaknesses, e.g. did I achieve the objectives? Were my teaching aids effective? Did my methods work? Was the assignment appropriate?

A SAMPLE FRAME FOR A LESSON PLAN

Subject	Date	Class	Number of trainees	Period	Time

Unit and Topic: _____

Specific objectives: _____

Content: _____

Methodology: _____

Learner's Activities: _____

Teaching/Learning Aids: _____

References: _____

Remarks: _____

SAMPLE FRAME FOR LESSON DEVELOPMENT

Step	Duration (in minutes)	Teacher's activities	Learner's activities
Introduction			
1			
2			
3			
4			
5			
6			
7			
8			
Summary			

ACTIVITY 14. LESSON PLAN – TIME: Up to 2 hours or more

Procedure: Individual brainstorm is employed. The facilitator asks in the plenary session guiding questions to help the group focus on two important concepts:-

- a) Planning,
- b) Lesson plan,

Alternatively participants can form buzz groups of 2 each. Some guiding content be:-

- (i) What is planning?
- (ii) Why do we have to plan?
- (iii) Who needs plans?
- (iv) What is a lesson plan?
- (v) What purposes does it serve?
- (vi) What are the sources of a lesson plan?
- (vii) What are the key components of a lesson plan?

Plenary discussion and review

These questions are discussed and reviewed thoroughly. As much time as possible should be allocated for participants to raise questions. These questions need to be dealt with exhaustively. The facilitator summarizes the key issues arising from a discussion of these questions.

Materials: Newsprint, masking tape, felt pens.

12. USING QUESTIONS TO INSTRUCT

From trying often, the monkey learns to jump from the tree.– Cameroon proverb.

To question well is to teach well. In a classroom, the instructor uses *Interrogative as well as declarative* statements. The former should be used more often than the later.

There are two main categories of questions:

1. **Fact finding questions**
2. **Thought provoking questions (application)**

1. FACT FINDING QUESTIONS:

These involve mainly memory. They deal with recall of facts, names of parts, stating of formula e.t.c.

CHARACTERISTICS OF MEMORY QUESTIONS

1. They usually require a short answer.
2. They sometimes promote guessing.
3. They often have but one correct answer.
4. They usually require little reflection or thought.
5. They are often based on memory rather than knowledge and understanding.

For example:

1. How many volts are there in a dry cell?
2. What is the abrasive tool used to polish steel?
3. What is the formula for converting centigrade to Fahrenheit?

2. THOUGHT PROVOKING QUESTIONS

These involve problem solving and they test knowledge and understanding, e.g. judgement, analysis, organisation and insight into a subject. They generally begin with *WHY, HOW, EXPLAIN*, e.t.c.

For example:

1. Why is wool a warmer material than cotton?

Why does an eight cylinder engine run smoother than a four cylinder engine?

Why building codes have been developed?

N.B. Practically all questions, whether fact–recalling or thought provoking, include one of these key words: What, When, Where, How, Why.

WHY USE QUESTIONS?

1. To provoke and stimulate thought.
2. To give student an opportunity to express himself.
3. To provoke and stimulate further discussion and participation.
4. To serve as a guide to reasoning.
5. To help the teacher in checking his student's progress.
6. Aid the teacher in determining their progress.
7. Assist the student in determining his own progress.

8. Arouse curiosity, thereby motivating further interest.
9. Cause a student to use previous knowledge in learning new things.
10. To create interest in the subject under discussion (to motivate)
11. For the purpose of testing at the end of a lesson whether the instructor has put across what he as teaching.
12. For the purpose of claiming the attention of inattentive trainee.
13. For the purpose of summarising so that the main points are reviewed.
14. To focus attention on major parts.

N.B. Why should a question be asked, What question, of Whom the question is to be asked should be clear in the instructors mind before (s)he throws a question to a student.

CHARACTERISTICS OF GOOD QUESTIONS

Questions should be:

1. Be phrased in the language of the trainee.
2. Be grammatically correct
3. Be stated in simple, straight forward English.
4. Contain only one idea if asked orally, i.e. avoid double questions.
5. Never suggest the answer in the question.
6. Have a definite response not one that will invite a general personal opinion or attitude.
7. Be concise and precise.

USING QUESTIONS DURING THE LESSON PRESENTATION:

- MOTIVATION:** To arouse curiosity.
 To focus attention on an aim.
 To create interest.
 To recall past experiences.
 To recall facts.
 To direct thought.

- PRESENTATION:** To stimulate thought.
 To develop concepts.
 To develop insight.
 To help explain why.

- APPLICATION:** To develop use of knowledge.
 To promote understanding.
 To make immediate use of things learned.

QUESTIONING TECHNIQUES

1. ADDRESS THE QUESTION TO THE CLASS, HESITATE, THEN CALL ON A SPECIFIC STUDENT

This stimulates the whole class who will benefit by thinking of an answer and checking their answer against the one given. This will not happen if a specific student's name is called first.

2. SCATTER QUESTIONS OVER THE ENTIRE CLASS

This will prevent mental loafing on the students and encourage each one to think of the answer. However, avoid any consistent, regular procedure, regular questioning e.g. by row, alphabetical order e.t.c.

3. ALLOW REASONABLE INTERVAL OF THE TIME FOR ANSWERING

The instructor should not cut the student short, especially the one who needs encouragement. Allowing too much time on the other hand wastes time for the students and embarrasses the one who is trying to get an answer.

4. POSE QUESTIONS WITHIN THE ABILITY OF THE STUDENTS TO WHOM THE QUESTION IS ADDRESSED

A difficult question should not be asked of a student who is capable of answering it. Any easy question to a bright student will appear pointless.

5. ASK QUESTIONS OF THE INATTENTIVE

This brings the day-dreamer back to the class without embarrassing him.

6. REQUIRE STUDENTS TO GIVE COMPLETE ANSWERS

The instructor should avoid adding essential to the students answers. Instead, he should call on another student to "help". He should avoid repeating answers given by students as this will lead to the students listening to the teacher instead of the student given the answer.

7. ENCOURAGE STUDENTS TO ASK QUESTIONS

Help the student formulate his questions properly e.g. in good English. A good question shows an individual student's curiosity and interest in the subject.

8. DO NOT PERMIT FREQUENT GROUP RESPONSES

This gives the teacher better control of the class and corrects the errors that students might make in their responses.

9. DO NOT ASK QUESTIONS WHICH CAN BE ANSWERED BY GUESSING

An answer that is guessed, even if correct, is of no diagnostic value to the teacher, and is of questionable learning value to the student. It encourages poor learning and study habits and wastes time.

10. MATCH QUESTIONS TO INDIVIDUAL STUDENTS

Individual differences should be reflected in the questions. The difficult questions should go to the advanced student. Learn to use the key words of questioning. They are: WHY, WHICH, WHERE, WHAT, WHEN.

11. SPREAD THE QUESTIONS THROUGHOUT THE PRESENTATION

This will help keep the students interested and motivated throughout the lesson.

12. GIVE CREDIT, WHENEVER IT IS DUE. NEVER RIDICULE

This encourages student's to learn through question and answer. Never belittle a student's response.

13. AVOID ONE WORD ANSWERS WHEREVER POSSIBLE

Questions should provoke and stimulate questions in students wherever possible. One word answers do not do this very effectively.

WHEN TO QUESTION

When is the right time to question? It is when the teacher feels that the answer is within the ability of the student and when the student will learn better by thinking out the answer himself than by the teacher giving it to him. Questions may be asked at the start of the lesson to create interest and arouse curiosity, in the development of a thought or concept hence presenting a principle and demonstrating a skill to check the progress of a lesson; or to summarise a lesson.

EXAMPLES OF POOR QUESTIONS

1. Questions starting with the trainee's name:

(Munyua, what is the name of this tool?)

2. Double barrelled questions:

(Is this french seam and is it used on velvet?)

3. Involved question:

(Explain the circumstances of a single situation from which conclusions may be drawn that will enable us to appreciate the importance of questioning in the overall teaching process)

4. Incomplete question:

(The topic we have discussed today is called the art of what?)

5. Obvious questions:

(Effective questioning requires skill doesn't it?)

6. Vague question:

(What do you think about questioning?)

7. Questions that invite smart replies:

(Do you think I'm stupid?)

QUESTIONING TECHNIQUES

The use of questions:

- ◆ Questions are a key tool for leading discussions. They can be used to:
- ◆ Involve all members of the group
- ◆ Draw out quiet, sad, or hesitant trainees.
- ◆ Keep people aware and thinking.
- ◆ Stop private conversation or prevent domination by one member.
- ◆ Draw out members' experiences.
- ◆ Check on the trainees' understanding of the subject matter.

There are two basic types of questions:

Mainly:

The **general question** which addresses the group as a whole.

The **direct question** which is addressed to an individual by name.

(1) The General Question

- ◆ It stimulates thinking by all trainees of the group.

- ◆ Every member of the group has to think whereas by naming the person who is to answer before asking the question all the trainees can mentally loaf or idle away as the question does not pertain to them.
- ◆ It is best to lead off a topic with general questions and to use more general questions.

(2) The Direct Question

- ◆ When addressed to an individual by name it must be used carefully to avoid embarrassment when the person cannot answer.
- ◆ Use direct questions to draw upon the experience of those most knowledgeable.
- ◆ Direct questions can also be used to bring shy members into the discussion, but the question should be one which he/she is able to answer.
- ◆ It can be used to break up private conversations or to interrupt a discussion monopolizer by asking someone else to comment. A useful technique is to phrase the question as a general question first, then pause to allow participants to think, then name the individual who should answer.

(3) The pick-up question

- ◆ Is another form of the direct question – it is used to refer back to a contribution which was passed over in the heat of the discussion
- ◆ It sometimes happens when a participant who speaks quietly is interrupted by a more vocal trainee. You should make a mental note at the time and move back to the point later, while every question is either a general or a direct question, questions, can be further divided into a number of categories.

(4) An OPEN Question

- ◆ It is expressed in broad terms and is open to a wide variety of answers.
- ◆ It usually begins with who, what, when, where, how, why. (“Who should be responsible for acting in this type of situation?”, “Why is it important that the agency should have a shared definition of strategy?”, “What are the advantages of regular staff meetings?”)

When trainees ask you questions, it is often effective to redirect the question back to the group. The redirected question keeps the trainees active and prevents a dialogue between the discussion, “who would like to answer it?”

Use open redirected questions frequently, but avoid closed questions because they do not provide active thinking or stimulate further discussion.

SOME GENERAL TIPS FOR USING QUESTIONS

- ◆ Questions should be brief, clear and simply worded.
- ◆ Distribute direct questions randomly, do not use fixed order such as clockwise around the room.
- ◆ Distribute questions evenly among the trainees.
- ◆ Questions should cover one point or compound points.
- ◆ Questions should relate to the ability and experience of the person to whom they are addressed.

- ◆ After asking a question, give the trainees time to think before expecting an answer.

WISDOM DOES NOT COME OVERNIGHT. Somalia proverb.

SUMMARY:

QUESTIONING TECHNIQUES

- Spread throughout presentation.
- Ask, pause and select.
- Spread throughout trainee (group).
- Encourage full answers.
- Give credit, never ridicule.
- Ask clear, challenging questions.

WHY ASK QUESTIONS?

- Focus attention on major points.
- Stimulate memory by speaking.
- Promote discussion.
- Create change of pace.
- Provoke and direct participation.
- Evaluate effectiveness of the presentation.

A GOOD QUESTIONING PROCEDURE

1. Ask questions.
2. Pause .. so that all think of an answer.
3. Call on one student by name.
4. Listen to student's answer.
5. Emphasise correct answer.

ACTIVITY 15. USING QUESTIONS TO INSTRUCT – Time: Approximately 50 minutes.

Procedure: Demonstration by the facilitator using some samples of questions, which should be prepared in advance and done in the plenary.

Alternatively you can organise in advance a role play of 2 in one. In one role play an interviewer is asking a respondent what would constitute bad interviewing by using leading questions, technical items, inappropriate as well as double barreled questions. In the second sequel of the same interview, the interviewer asks exactly the opposite questions i.e. open-ended, simple and appropriate questions.

Discussion: After the above scenario, the following guiding questions should be used to generate discussion.

- (1) What did you see happening in the two role plays?
- (2) Does it happen in real life? Give examples.
- (3) What are the root causes of such situations in a training environment?
- (4) What are the effects of using inappropriate questions?
- (5) What can we do as instructors to improve our questioning techniques?

Materials required: Newsprint, felt pens, masking tape and plain papers.

13. INSTRUCTIONAL AIDS

HANDOUT 13. INSTRUCTIONAL AIDS

The word instructional aid refers to any material or device used to assist the instructor in:

- Preparation of the lesson(s)
- Presentation (teaching) of the lesson(s)
- Facilitates trainees' learning

Importance of Instructional Aids

Instructional aids assist to reinforce and supplement the instructor's communication during the presentation of the lesson. This is done by:

- clarifying the concept or idea
- making the communication channel more explicit
- helping the learners to develop a good conceptual understanding of the content or skill taught. For example an idea which would be difficult (abstract) can easily be simplified when an instructional aid is used to present it. Therefore learners are able to relate an idea to their common reality or environment with the use of aids.

Types of instructional aids

There are many types of instructional aids. Each instructional aid, however, may have inherent advantages and disadvantages (or limitations). Essentially types of instructional aids are determined by:

- The instructor/teacher. The instructor's ability either to create (improvise) and use aids or select from the readily made and suitably available aids is crucial. This squarely depends on the instructor's prowess, ability or experience.
- Objective of the lesson. By virtue of the objective(s) of a lesson, the use of certain instructional aids may be more desirable or otherwise. For example if a lesson involves the demonstration of a particular skill, then the use of demonstrational aids becomes inevitable.
- Nature of subject matter. The subject matter or content to be taught will underline the type of aids (if any) to be used. For example, if the material is considered comparatively difficult or abstract, then instructional aids have to be carefully selected and used.

Generally, instructional aids can be grouped in four main categories:

(a) Visual aids

These appeal to sight. They include the blackboard, posters, charts, displays, models, pictures etc.

(b) Auditory aids

These type of instructional aids appeal to learners sense of hearing. They include radio and many types of audio recording.

(c) Audio–Visual Aids

Audio Visual aids appeal to both hearing and seeing. They include sound motion pictures, slides on sound and television.

(d) Stimulation devices

These are the actual representation of the real objects or process, but reduced in size. They include devices built to stimulate the action or function of the real device. Their purpose is to develop the 'feel' of the actual functioning of the real objects.

Characteristics of good instructional aids

Instructional aids are essential to effective instruction. The instructor should know how to prepare and use instructional aids and should recognise their value in fostering good instruction. The greatest value of instructional aids lies in:

- ◆ Their appeal to trainees senses and perceptions
- ◆ Their ability to attract and hold trainees attention and interest.
- ◆ The ability in developing understanding of the material to be learned
- ◆ Helps the trainees to learn faster and save instructional time
- ◆ Helps trainees to understand the relationships between different concepts or ideas.

A good instructional aid should promote certain desirable results. It should stimulate interest, command attention, be easily understood and promote a positive reaction on the part of the trainee. An instructional aid should be complete, have some explanation in the form of a label, and finally be as simple as possible.

Preparation of instructional aids

There are several sources of instructional aids. While there are commercially available instructional aids, the instructor is also a very important source. Most of the commercially produced instructional aids are very scarce and often unaffordable. For the instructor to achieve set objectives effectively and efficiently, s/he will have to design, construct and use desired instructional aids. This practice is called **Improvisation**.

As an instructor, one may notice a particular instructional problem which may be solved by use of some type of aid. Most well designed and constructed instructional aids are relatively simple. Plan, lay-out and proportion are important features of an effective instructional aid. Use of colour whenever possible will serve to appeal to the senses and also define certain parts and show their relationships.

If the designed instructional aid is an object, the instructor should select the material to be used. Material to be used should be those which are locally available and cheap in terms of cost. On the other hand, if the instructional aid is a model, materials and their costs should be estimated and costed. The instructor should use tools and equipment available in the institution and should involve the trainees in the construction of aids as far as it is possible. This practice helps trainees to acquire "hands-on" experience when they later become instructors in their own right. Visual aids combined with verbal explanations are very effective.

The chalkboard being the commonest visual aid, when used properly can be quite effective. The instructor requires to plan the use of a chalkboard with imagination and creativity. With a little drawing ability, the chalkboard can be a good aid. The following tips could improve the use of the chalkboard:

- Plan all the chalkboard illustrations before the lesson begins
- Draw complicated diagrams before the lesson starts
- Use different colour of chalk to highlight important points
- All writings on the chalkboard should be simple, clear and distinct.

For permanent reference visual aids; large pictures, diagrams, posters and charts are the practice forms of instructional aids.

The following are some tips for preparing visual aids:

- Omit all the unnecessary details
- Use simple and easy to read letters for writings
- Ensure technical symbols are correct.

USES

Instructional aids used properly help the instructor communicate effectively by adding realism and substance to ideas, descriptions, and explanations that are used in the course of instruction.

To use instructional aids effectively, the timing or introduction of the aid in the lesson is an important factor.

The instructor should use appropriate procedures and techniques when employing instructional aids.

Though there are many different types of aids, selection and use of instructional aids should be chosen carefully and used correctly during instruction.

Summary of factors which may influence choice of teaching aids. The following are some of the common factors which may influence the choice of teaching aids:

- The nature of audience
 - (a) Size of class
 - (b) Level of understanding
 - (c) Age of learners
 - (d) Aptitude
 - (e) Experience
- The nature of changes desired in the audience such as:
 - (a) Learning a new skill
 - (b) Gaining information
 - (c) Bringing about change in attitude
- Nature of subject being taught
- Relative cost in terms of
 - Time
 - Money
 - Energy
- The ability of the teachers to handle the aid.

It must however be emphasised that teaching aids cannot solve all problems of teaching.

They can make the teaching and learning more effective. Above all teaching aids require a lot of skill and proper attitude on the part of the teacher not only in their construction, but also their use.

Besides, the decision whether to use some aids or not in a classroom may be determined by the prevailing situation. This may have nothing to do with either the teacher or the learners. For example, the use of audio–visual aids like television sets, slides or overhead projector require the availability of electric power. So in a situation where there is no electricity, their use is rendered impossible.

INSTRUCTIONAL AIDS

THE BLACKBOARD		
ADVANTAGES	DISADVANTAGES	HOW TO USE THE BLACKBOARD
Cheap. Easily found. Transportable (some). Can be prepared in advance.	– Often neglected and in poor condition. – No memory–once you have rubbed something out its gone. – Dusty, and the trainer needs to turn away from audience to write.	1. Plan in your notes what is going to be written down. 2. Compile a running picture of the total coverage of the board. 3. Do not draw a good drawing and then doodle over it. 4. Resist temptation to fill up every bit of space–one idea at a time. 5. If often takes a lot of good audience time if you have to write a lot of things out ‘before their very eyes’. Can you write or draw in advance? 6. Check your lettering by standing at the back of the room before the group arrives. 7. Check coloured chalk too. Purple is inevitably

		invisible. Orange is not much better. 8. The correct place for a board if you are right handed is on your left hand side. 9. The correct place stand is to the side of the board so that when you write on it you can swing your hips. This minimizes the problem about losing eye contact. 10. Do not talk while you are writing on the board if you can help it.
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THE FLIPCHART

Advantages	Disadvantages	How to use the flip chart
<p>Easy to transport.</p> <p>Has a memory. You can prepare lots of things in advance and refer to them when you want to.</p>	<p>Can run out of paper.</p> <p>All the problems with eye contact that you get with a blackboard if you don't prepare in advance</p> <p>Paper and markers might be too costly.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. It is used in much the same way as a blackboard but you can use marker pens or crayons 2. You can present a little information at a time and move onto a new page. 3. You can refer back to what has been said. If you want to refer back often to one page you can put a marker on it like a piece of sticky paper which you can use as a handle. 4. You can make notes in light pencil on the paper of the flip chart page. This means your notes are right next to what you will be writing. The audience will not see them and it does not matter if they do. 5. You can prepare drawings or information in advance but remember that it will have to be fixed on the chart in the vertical position (called portrait) and that your desk in your office is nearly horizontal (called landscape). Be sure that you get the paper fixed carefully in position before you start to train and make sure that it will flip over without falling off, tearing etc. 6. If you move on to a new point in your development and you no longer need the flip chart page that you are using, turn it over and get rid of it. Otherwise it will be very distracting. 7. Anticipate when you are going to run out of paper before you actually do.

THE OVERHEAD PROJECTOR

Advantages	Disadvantages	How to use the overhead projector
<p>Can be used in normal day light. No need to darken the room.</p> <p>Can keep eye-contact with the audience either sitting or standing.</p> <p>Can be used to project transparent copies of real documents in original detail.</p> <p>Transparencies- Can be prepared or drawn in advance, are small and easily transported Good with colours</p>	<p>Relatively expensive.</p> <p>Bulky.</p> <p>Bulbs blow at inconvenient times.</p> <p>Tends to gather dirt and dust.</p> <p>Requires a minimum projection distance onto a screen or else blurring occurs.</p> <p>Not appropriate in areas without electricity or irregular electricity.</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. If you are sitting, the top of the projector should be at the same level as your table top and your right hand side (if you are right handed.) 2. If you are standing the projector should sit on the table. This makes the top just about at writing height. Make sure the projector bulk does not obscure anyone's' sight. 3. Make sure you know how it switches on and how to change the bulb before your audience arrives. 4. You buy transparent acetate either cut in boxes or in rolls. You can use either permanent pens or water washable. Water washable are essential if you want to use the acetates again but if your hand is sweaty you will need it use the permanent ones. 5. If you cannot get acetate you can use

		<p>glass, but you have to wash it each time.</p> <p>6. When you change a transparency over switch the machine off and switch it on again when the new transparency is in place.</p> <p>7. Do not use an overhead projector if you have a hangover or other reasons for trembly hands.</p> <p>8. If you want to point to something point to the transparency not the screen otherwise you block out the light.</p> <p>9. People see illuminated visuals better than unilluminated ones and therefore will tend to remember them better.</p> <p>10. When you write on a transparency use capitals and as a check try reading the transparency held fully at arms – length away from you. If you can read it easily – so will your audience after it is projected.</p> <p>11. You can frame your transparency in a cardboard frame which is made to fit the projector. You fix the acetate in with masking tape. Then you can write notes in the margin of the frame.</p>
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Adopted from: Practical training, by Jonathan Coates

14. ASSESSMENT

HANDOUT 14. ASSESSMENT

DEFINITION

1. Assessment is the process by which the quality of an individual's work is measured or judged.
2. It is a way to measure the instructor's and trainees' performance. In schools, assessment of the learning process is usually done by teachers on the basis of impressions gained as they observe their students or work or results of tests given periodically.

There are many ways an instructor would use to measure what the trainees have learned. They would include:-

- Tests
- Exams –final, annual, terminal
- Interviews – oral
- Exercises – Homework/Assignments.

All these activities are instruments for measuring educational performance.

TYPES OF ASSESSMENT

1. OBJECTIVE ASSESSMENT

This is a form of assessment which gives the real picture of the trainees' performance without distortion, interference, through partiality or prejudice from the instructor or person marking his/her work. The best instruments for objective assessment are objective questions.

2. SUBJECTIVE ASSESSMENT

This is the form employed where objective assessment cannot be applied. The qualities assessed/measured cannot be related to a fixed scale. It has to form opinions, impressions, feelings and personal values and the individuals performance, e.g. honesty, industry e.t.c.

3. CONTINUOUS ASSESSMENT

When measuring is done as an on-going practice it is called continuous assessment. This is not a one time assessment like the final exams. You keep on measuring the trainee throughout the term, year, e.t.c.

This continuous assessment provides more information and it is more reliable than term or annual exams.

Exams would show what a trainee did on one day. Continuous assessment builds a picture of the trainees over a long period.:

PURPOSE OF ASSESSMENT

When people want to have information on what is happening in any given Teaching/Learning situation, they would use words like, assess, check, example, inspect, measure, prove, test, evaluate e.t.c.

In education/training situations we use the same words (vocabulary) when we want to know what is happening in the learning situation.

Assessment is done therefore for the following reasons:-

- ◆ To test how much has been learned.
- ◆ To expose weaknesses/strengths in the learning process.
- ◆ To monitor the teaching methods – just vary methods.
- ◆ To maintain the required standards.
- ◆ To motivate the instructor and the trainees.
- ◆ To measure specific skills.
- ◆ To measure different abilities.
- ◆ To classify trainees according to their abilities.
- ◆ To prepare the trainees for the particular and suitable course.
- ◆ Selection e.g. Trade Test, further training, higher courses
- ◆ Reflect the effectiveness of the teacher's performance (feedback)

TRAINEE

You will notice therefore that assessment gives factual information about the trainees ability and performance. It enables meaningful comparisons and planning, for further training (up-grading remedial)

INSTRUCTOR

The assessment also provides the teacher with feedback on his/her own teaching. It is a mirror for the teacher to see himself/herself and his/her trainees:- where there are **weaknesses** – to be corrected. Where there is a **strength** – to be encouraged.

N.B There is little value in assessing/evaluating the trainees if the instructor does not use the result or the assessment to:-

- 1. Change his teaching methods if necessary.***
- 2. Plan remedial work to help the weak trainees.***
- 3. Plan how to move ahead if the results show that the trainees have learned the skills and are ready to move on.***
- 4. Advise, encourage, counsel the trainee, parent, manager e.t.c. for yet better results.***

How do you use the assessment results yourself?

When the trainees know that the instructor is fair and concerned with their learning, and (s)he is accurate and realistic in assessment, they will be motivated to learn, they will be co-operative.

METHODS OF ASSESSMENT

The most common forms of assessment used in Education/Training situations to measure learning/teaching performance are:-

1. Examinations – Terminals, annual (written and practical)
2. Tests
3. Assignments/Homework
4. Exercises
5. Interview – Oral
6. Self-Assessment
7. Continuous assessment.

TRAINEES ASSESSMENT RECORD

It is necessary for the instructor to keep an assessment record for every trainee in his/her trade for the following reasons:-

1. To monitor the trainee's progress and be able to feel he/she is developing.
2. To give a clear ***picture*** on whether the trainees have learned the skills taught so far.
3. To indicate areas for remedial or special attention.
4. To prepare and determine whether the trainee is ready for the end-examination (or final)

ACTIVITY 16. ASSESSMENT – Time: 50 minutes

Procedures: Participants are asked to form groups of 4–5 people.

Each group is supposed to discuss and come up with a checklist of things. They would focus upon two broad areas i.e.

- (a) How to assess teacher/instructor effectiveness.
- (b) How to assess learners' receptiveness.

Clustering: The facilitator groups the factors in both (a) and (b). After compiling the checklists, those which are similar are grouped together. These checklists should form a basis of further discussions. At the same time these should provide an entry point for introducing the whole topic of assessment.

Materials: Word cards, masking tape and newsprint.

15. MICRO-TEACHING

HANDOUT 15. MICRO-TEACHING

Micro-teaching is a training system designed to improve teaching skills of teacher/instructor trainees. It is a scaled down (micro) version of actual teaching in which a teacher/instructor trainee teaches a group of colleagues for a time less than the normal lesson time allocated in an actual teaching situation.

RATIONALE

The aim of micro-teaching is to give the trainee instructor an opportunity to prepare and present lessons (both theory or demonstration) in order to apply the skills taught and learned. On completing the micro-teaching, the trainee-instructor will be able to:

- Prepare and apply lesson plans effectively during lesson presentation
- Apply the skills taught
- Demonstrate and practice a variety of teaching techniques

Key Factors to observe:

Micro-teaching is based on the theory that teaching consists of a number of basic factors or skills such as:

- Communication
- Explaining
- Organising
- Questioning techniques
- Motivation of learners
- Problem solving and decision making etc.

Each of these factors can be improved upon by analysis and practice in much the same way athletes carry out their training. During micro-teaching the skills acquired by instructor-trainees are practised during lesson presentation.

Preparation for Micro-teaching

Micro-teaching preparation and actual practice needs to proceed systematically in a step-by-step fashion.

Step 1

The instructor trainee prepares a small lesson often in the light of previous lectures, discussions etc. to do with some aspects of learning and teaching.

Step 2

A few specific skills are concentrated on e.g. questioning techniques, explaining (exposition) etc. during the lesson.

STEP 3

Class size (consisting of fellow trainee instructors) should be between 5 and 10 at most. This number is far below the group of 20 to 35 trainees found in a normal class.

STEP 4

The time limit is by far less than the normal 30 to 40 minutes in a regular lesson. This would take between 7 and 12 minutes.

STEP 5

The instructor trainee teaches what s/he has prepared to a group of colleagues.

STEP 6

Feedback session. After the trainee has taught the lesson, s/he is given a feedback. Feedback is given by his/her colleagues as well as the trainer. The feedback should be balanced and should focus on both the positive aspects as well as the perceived weakness. It is done with a view to improving rather than destroying the morale of the teacher-trainee.

STEP 7

Deciding to re-teach the lesson. In the light of the feedback and the overall critique, the teacher-trainee prepares to re-teach the lesson. S/he replans the lesson and gets another opportunity to teach a group similar to the first one taught.

After every stage of the micro-teaching performance is reviewed and discussed, focusing attention on only one or two teaching skills, such as questioning techniques, motivation of class, class control etc. at a time.

ADVANTAGES OF MICRO-TEACHING

Micro-teaching has several advantages, such as:

- Enables separate skills to be practised and perfected
- Provides an opportunity for immediate feedback and further practise.
- Provides a less threatening class environment, and hence no big problem of class control.
- Constructive criticisms are made by peers and the trainer in a friendly atmosphere.
- There is room for practising the skills and making improvement.

ACTIVITY 17. MICRO-TEACHING

After the facilitators input on lesson planning and responding to all questions of participants, then micro-teaching follows.

Participants are divided into cells of 5 at maximum. Each participant in a group of 5 prepares a mini-lesson plan of between 5–7 minutes to teach his/her colleagues in the group. The lesson content should focus on an issue that one is very conversant with. This means that micro-teaching will be going on simultaneously in several groups at the same time. The overall purpose is to sharpen the participants ability in marking and implementing/translating lesson plans into real teaching situations.

Plenary Session

Back in the plenary the facilitator can conduct wrap-up discussions on lesson plans using the following guiding questions:–

- (1) What went right during your micro-teaching sessions?
- (2) What difficulties did you face?
- (3) How can such difficulties be overcome?

The facilitator summarizes the key issues arising from a discussion of these questions.

Materials: Newsprint, scissors, Masking tape, colored papers, felt pens, portable chalkboards and chalk, word cards, pencils and pens.

PART III

16. TEACHING METHODOLOGY COURSE EVALUATION

HANDOUT 16. TEACHING METHODOLOGY COURSE EVALUATION

After Youth Polytechnic instructors have attended a Teaching Methodology course it is advisable to carry out evaluations at different levels:

1. Reaction level

This is where course participants react to the training. They form their opinions and attitudes about the trainer, methods of presentation, the usefulness and the interest of the course, touching on their own enjoyment and involvement. This is done through evaluation forms provided by course organisers at the end of the course. (Find sample attached)

2. Learning level

Course participants are supposed to acquire knowledge, skills and attitudes from the training session. These acquired skills should manifest themselves in a changed behavior over a period of time.

3. The job behaviour level

This is the level at which participants apply what was learned in the job situation. The instructor is supposed to show a change in performance and behaviour through the preparation of lesson plans, teaching aids, teaching of trainees and the keeping of records.

4. The functional level (efficiency)

The participants changed behaviour should in turn effect the whole functioning of Youth Polytechnic training positively.

The four levels should be seen as a chain. The chain can be broken down and each link examined. The participant may react correctly to level I, but fail to learn level II. S/he may learn level II, but fail to apply the learning on the job level III. S/he may change the behaviour on the job, but this may have no effect on the functioning of the Youth Polytechnic as a whole.

Suggestions:

1. Managers should start “supervising” the teaching in their YP. The word supervision is used in a way not implying “policing”. Supervision is done in a friendly way with the view to helping the instructor teach effectively. In order for this supervisory role to be executed effectively, there is need to follow a guideline. Assessments to check whether syllabi are being followed, lesson plans made, trainees tested need to be done regularly. (Find guideline attached)

2. Independent evaluators should, after some time, visit the instructors and evaluate what has been implemented and what not and why not.

Evaluators should get involved in the instructors teaching situation so that they can obtain a large amount of unsystematic information about what job behaviour they exhibit.

The evaluation should point out the weaknesses and the strengths. It should also point out how weaknesses could be overcome.

Adopted from training handout by J. Mwema.

16. a) COURSE PARTICIPANTS EVALUATION FORMS

HANDOUT 16. a) COURSE PARTICIPANTS EVALUATION FORM

This evaluation form is provided by course organisers to course participants at the end of this teaching methodology course. This is where participants react to the training, trainers, content, accommodation etc.

COURSE TITLE:

DATES:

DISTRICT:

TRAINING CENTRE:

1. Was the course held at a convenient time?

2. Was the training course up to your expectations?

Please tick ✓

NOT AT ALL ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ PERFECTLY

3. Did the training programme satisfy the objectives of the course?

Please tick ✓

NOT AT ALL ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ PERFECTLY

4. Which sections of the programme were the most useful?

5. Which sections of the programme were the least useful?

6. Was the course efficiently conducted and animated?

Please tick ✓

NOT AT ALL ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ PERFECTLY

7. Will this course be of any use to you in your work?

Please tick ✓

NOT AT ALL ① ② ③ ④ ⑤ ⑥ PERFECTLY

PARTICIPANTS COURSE EVALUATION

16. b) INSTRUCTORS TEACHING PRACTICE ASSESSMENT BY MANAGER

HANDOUT 16. b) INSTRUCTORS TEACHING PRACTICE ASSESSMENT BY MANAGER

It is envisaged that Youth Polytechnic managers are expected to take a much more active role in supervising instructional activities of respective instructors. In order for this supervisory role to be executed effectively, there is need to follow a guideline. The overall impression, rating and assessment of the manager would also have to be taken into account when planning subsequent teaching methodology refresher courses for instructors.

Another prerequisite is that youth polytechnic managers themselves would be sufficiently conversant with teaching methodology in order to supervise instructors. Besides teaching methodology, managers would also need to be well versed in educational administration, curriculum development and planning.

This information is of benefit to those who evaluate instructors performance in their institutions after they have attended this teaching methodology course.

A. Lesson preparation

1. Lesson planning/notes

The instructor should have a well-prepared lesson plan, with an outline of what the instructor intends to be learnt, set out.

The format will vary from subject to subject, and topic to topic, but the following details should be included:

- a) Aims/Objectives
- b) The main areas of content to be learnt
- c) A clear indication of student/teacher activities for achieving the objectives

2. Clarity of aim/objectives

Every lesson must have a purpose in terms of skill, techniques, fact or attitudes the students are expected to acquire. The objectives should be specific and observable/testable and should be related to general aims in the scheme of work.

B. Presentation of the lesson

3. Introduction

There must be a definite introduction to the lesson, which should be brief (3–5 minutes). It may consist of revising previous work and linking it to the new topic, or introducing the topic itself. An introduction should make clear what the teacher wants the student to learn. It must be relevant to the topic, and stimulating enough to arouse the interest and curiosity of the learners.:

4. Appropriateness/Effectiveness of teaching techniques

The instructor may use various techniques to enable students to understand the material being introduced. For example s/he may use questioning techniques, pair/group work, class discussion, pictures, films, experiments and so on. The instructor should use a variety of techniques, and they should be suitable to the subject matter and students concerned. They must also be effective in terms of aiding the students to understand the content of the lesson.

5. Instructional Language/Voice preparation

The instructor should use language appropriate to the level of the students vocabulary in any particular class. It should be grammatically accurate, since the instructor is acting as a model to the students. S/he should be

able to give instructions in a comprehensible manner, and know how to rephrase questions. The teacher should also vary the voice, as well as projecting it clearly throughout the lesson.

6. Construction and use of visual aids

Any charts, maps, models, objects, diagrams, illustrations that the teacher uses, must be related to the contents of the lesson. They must be well made/produced and effective in helping students to understand the subject matter involved.

Blackboard work must be easy to read, well organised, and be a natural complement to the lesson.

7. Classroom organisation/Control

The teacher should organise the work in such a way that students know what they are supposed to do. S/he should demonstrate, control and discipline where necessary, and run the lesson efficiently. Movement of students for groupwork, experiments, outside activities should be carried out with minimum fuss.

8. Instructor/Trainee relationship

The teacher should demonstrate cheerfulness, enthusiasm in his/her subject and patience with the students, so that a harmonious, relaxed relationship is built up in the classroom. S/he should be firm but fair in all dealings with the students.

9. Student activity

The trainee should be involved and active throughout the lesson. Questioning should be spread around the class so that as many students participate as possible. Students should be encouraged to think rather than just recall, and be able to show they follow the subject matter. The instructor should provide through group work, discussions, experiments etc. a means of active student involvement.

10. Content and Knowledge of Material

The instructor should demonstrate a good grasp of the material s/he is presenting, and an ability to put it over at the right level to the students. The content should be sufficient for the lesson without cramming too much into the period.

11. Lesson conclusion/Achievement of objectives

By the end of the lesson, it should be possible to see that the objectives in the lesson plan have been achieved. There should be a definite ending to the lesson, perhaps in the form of questions, summary, revision, consolidation, and the giving of an assignment. At all events, the conclusion should be orderly, and not merely dictated by the end of the period bell.

C. General Impression

12. Schemes of work, records of student

Progress and self-Evaluation

The teacher should indicate in his/her schemes of work files or books, that there is control and direction in the work. There should be evidence of thorough forward planning, critical self-evaluation of lesson taught, and appropriate records of students' progress – mark sheets, comments etc. The record of work completed should be sufficiently detailed and up to date.

INSTRUCTOR ASSESSMENT REPORT

INSTRUCTOR'S NAME: _____

YOUTH POLYTECHNIC: _____

DATE: _____ **TRADE/CRAFT:** _____

FORMAL EDUCATION: _____ **GRADE:** _____

	EX	VG	G	F	U
Aptitude for instructing					
Quality of lesson plans					
Quality of schemes of work					
Suitability of Teaching Aids					
Confidence of instructor					
Discipline and class control					
Instructor's Self Expression					
REQUISITE SKILLS Explanation					
Questioning					
Chalkboard Format					
Demonstrations					
General organisation					
Creativity and originality					
TOTAL					

KEY:

- EX = Excellent = Score 4
- VG = Very Good = Score 3
- G = Good = Score 2
- F = Fair = Score 1
- U = Unsatisfactory = Score 0

Manager's Comments:

16. c) EXTERNAL TEACHING METHODOLOGY COURSE EVALUATION

HANDOUT 16. c) EXTERNAL TEACHING METHODOLOGY EVALUATION

It is suggested, that external evaluators should visit the instructors who attended this teaching methodology course a couple of months later. External evaluators shall get involved in the instructors teaching situation, in order to obtain a large amount of information about what job behaviour they exhibit. They shall assess whether the skills, which were learned were implemented, and if not why not. They shall also ascertain if there are still persistent problems and weaknesses which need to be addressed.

EXTERNAL TEACHING METHODOLOGY EVALUATION

YOUTH POLYTECHNIC INSTRUCTORS OBSERVATIONS

District: _____ Questionnaire
No. _____

4. Did your instructors' new skills have a positive influence on the Youth Polytechnic as a whole? Explain,

5. Do you think that your instructors need more training in some of the aspects of teaching methodology? If so, in what areas?

6. Have you as a manager attended any teaching methodology training?

7. Do you as the manager carry out regular follow-ups?

If yes, how often?

If no, why not

6. Any other comments? _____

CLASSROOM TEACHING OBSERVATION

Name of YP:		Name of Instructor:		No of trainees in attendance:	
	Lesson Plans	Schemes of work	Methods used	Trainee evaluations/ assessment	Trainee records
Very good					
Good					
Fair					
Poor					
Describe					
Persisting problems					
Suggestions for improvement					

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