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ALLAMA IQBAL OPEN UNIVERSITY, ISLAMABAD

Course: Teaching Strategies (846) • Level: MA/MEd

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Assignment No. 2 (Units 5–9)

Total Marks: 100 • Pass Marks: 40

SOLVED ASSIGNMENT GUIDE

(For Study & Reference)

Note: This guide is prepared for study and reference purposes. Students are advised to read the relevant units of the course book, understand the concepts, and write their assignments in their own words.

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Question 1: The Activity Method for Nursery Class Students (20 Marks)

Do you think the activity method is better than other methods of teaching to teach Nursery class students?

Introduction

The nursery class, serving children of roughly three to five years, is the first step of formal education, and everything about it is special: the pupils cannot yet read or write with ease, cannot sit still or attend for long, and learn chiefly through their senses, their muscles and their

play. The method chosen for such children must therefore fit the child, not the tradition of the older school. The activity method — teaching through carefully planned physical and mental activities in which the child does, makes, handles, moves and explores — is widely recommended for this stage by Froebel, Montessori and Dewey alike. The question asks whether it is better than other methods for nursery teaching. This answer explains the method and the nature of the nursery child, compares the activity method with the alternatives actually available, and then gives a reasoned judgement: yes, for this stage it is the best central method, provided its limits are understood and it is blended with story, rhyme and guided routine.

The Nature of the Nursery Child

Any judgement about method must start from the learner. The nursery child is in what Piaget called the pre-operational stage: his thinking is tied to what he can see, touch and do, and abstract verbal explanation largely passes him by. His span of attention is short — a few minutes on an imposed task, though much longer on self-chosen play. His muscles, especially the small muscles of the hand, are still developing; his language is growing rapidly through use, not through grammar lessons; and socially he is learning, often for the first time, to share, wait, cooperate and separate from home. Play is not his pastime but his work — the natural medium in which his body, senses, language and feelings all develop together. A method that ignores these facts and treats the nursery class as a small Class I is wrong in principle before it begins.

The Activity Method: Meaning and Principles

The activity method is a way of teaching in which learning takes place through the learner's own activity — physical, mental and social — purposefully planned by the teacher and

connected with the objectives of the curriculum. The teacher arranges materials, corners and tasks — sand and water play, blocks, clay, puzzles, picture sorting, gardening, dressing-up and role play, simple construction, rhymes with action, nature walks — and the children learn concepts of size, number, colour, shape, language and social behaviour by doing. Its principles are: learning by doing, learning through the senses, activity matched to the child's stage and interest, freedom within a prepared environment, and the teacher as guide and observer rather than lecturer. Froebel's kindergarten ('children's garden') with its gifts and occupations, and Montessori's didactic apparatus and practical-life exercises, are systematic forms of this same conviction: the young child educates himself through activity, and the adult's art is to prepare the activity well.

Comparison with Other Methods Used at This Stage

The realistic alternatives at nursery level are few. The formal or lecture-and-recitation method, in which the teacher talks, the children repeat in chorus and copy from the board, is still common in our schools because it is cheap and looks orderly; but it demands sitting, listening and writing of precisely the children least able to do them, produces verbalism without understanding, and commonly makes the child's first experience of school one of boredom and fear. The textbook-and-copy method, with early emphasis on writing letters and numbers in exercise books, strains immature hand muscles, confuses reversals of letters with carelessness, and substitutes the appearance of learning for its substance. The story-telling and rhyme method is genuinely valuable at this age — it builds listening, language, imagination and values — but by itself it leaves the child a listener; it is a partner to activity, not a replacement for it.

The play-way method is essentially the activity method in its freest form and shares its merits. The comparison is summarised below.

Table 1: Activity method compared with formal methods at nursery level

Aspect	Activity method	Formal (lecture / copy) method
Fit with the child's nature	Matches activity, senses and play; short changing tasks suit attention	Demands stillness, listening and writing beyond the child's stage
How concepts form	From handling real objects — big/small, more/less are experienced first	From words and symbols the child cannot yet attach to experience
Language development	Talk arises naturally in play, work and sharing	Mainly chorus repetition; little real conversation
Social learning	Sharing, turn-taking, cooperation built into group activity	Individual silent work; social skills incidental
Attitude to school	School experienced as joyful; positive first attitude formed	Risk of boredom, fear and early dislike of school
Teacher's role	Prepares environment, guides, observes each child closely	Talks and checks copies; observes mainly errors
Demands on school	Needs materials, space, trained teacher, smaller groups	Needs little beyond books and a board

Why the Activity Method Is Better for Nursery Children

The affirmative case rests on five grounds. First, psychological fitness: the method obeys the laws of the child's development instead of fighting them, so learning is easy and teaching is not wasted on discipline for unnatural stillness. Secondly, genuine concept formation: the child who has poured water between jugs, sorted buttons by colour and built towers of ten blocks possesses number, volume and classification in his hands before he meets them in symbols —

the firmest possible foundation for Class I mathematics and language. Thirdly, all-round development: a single well-planned activity develops body, senses, language, intellect and social feeling together, which is exactly the aim of pre-primary education, whereas formal methods address only a narrow verbal slice. Fourthly, individual pacing and observation: in activity settings each child works at his own rate, and the teacher, freed from lecturing, can observe, diagnose difficulties early and help individually. Fifthly, attitude: the activity method makes the child's first school experience happy and secure, and education research and common experience agree that the attitudes formed in the first year colours many years that follow.

Limitations and Conditions — A Balanced View

The method is better, but it is not magic, and an honest answer must state its conditions. It requires a teacher trained in early-childhood education who can plan activities with definite objectives; unplanned activity degenerates into mere play or mere noise, and play without purpose, however happy, is not yet teaching. It requires materials — though most can be improvised cheaply from local objects — space, and a manageable number of children; in a class of sixty with one untrained teacher, formal methods win by default, which is an argument for improving conditions, not for blaming the method. It must also be balanced: nursery children equally need stories and rhymes heard quietly, songs and movement, rest, and gentle routines that build habits and security. The best nursery practice is therefore activity-centred, not activity-only: the day is organised around planned activity and play, enriched by story, rhyme and conversation.

My Judgement

On the evidence of child psychology and of the kindergarten and Montessori traditions, my answer to the question is yes: for nursery class students the activity method is better than the formal methods with which it is usually compared, because it is the only method that begins from what the nursery child actually is — an active, sensing, playing learner — and builds the concepts, language, skills and attitudes of this stage in the order in which nature builds them. Where a school cannot yet provide its full conditions, the practical course is to move as far towards it as circumstances allow: shorter sitting periods, learning corners, one planned activity daily, stories and rhymes with action — rather than to abandon the principle and drill four-year-olds in copying.

Conclusion

To conclude, method must follow the learner. For older students, explanation, text and discussion have their rightful place; for the nursery child, whose mind works through his hands, senses and play, the activity method is not merely one option among equals but the method that fits. Properly planned and balanced with story, rhyme and routine, it gives the child real concepts instead of empty verbalism, all-round development instead of narrow drilling, and a happy beginning instead of an early aversion to school — and on all three counts it deserves to be preferred.

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Question 2: Simulated Teaching — Significance, Nature and Need (20 Marks)

Critically examine the significance, nature, and need of simulated teaching.

Introduction

Teaching is learned by teaching, yet the beginner cannot be allowed to practise his first attempts on real pupils, any more than a trainee pilot makes his first flight with passengers. Simulated teaching answers this dilemma: it places the trainee in an artificial, controlled teaching situation — a role-played classroom of peers acting as pupils — in which he can practise, fail safely, receive feedback and improve before he faces a real class. Developed notably by Donald Cruickshank and colleagues in the 1960s as part of the movement for systematic teacher training, simulation has become a recognised bridge between the theory of teaching methods and the reality of the classroom. This answer examines the nature of simulated teaching, its significance, the need that produced it, and — critically — its limitations.

Nature of Simulated Teaching

Simulated teaching is a role-playing technique in which a student-teacher teaches a short lesson to a small group of fellow trainees who play the roles of pupils of a specified age, ability and temperament, while a supervisor and other trainees observe against a planned observation schedule; the performance is then discussed, and the trainee reteaches to a different 'class'. Its defining characteristics follow from the idea of simulation itself. First, the situation is artificial and simplified: class size, duration and pupil behaviour are reduced and controlled so that one

problem or skill at a time can be isolated. Secondly, roles are assigned and rotated — every trainee is by turns teacher, pupil and observer, and learns from all three positions. Thirdly, problem situations can be deliberately manufactured — the inattentive pupil, the misconception, the unexpected question — including the 'in-basket' and case forms in which a trainee must decide what a teacher should do; real classrooms provide such problems randomly, simulation provides them on demand. Fourthly, feedback is immediate, structured and based on observation data rather than impressions. Simulated teaching thus resembles the flight simulator: not the real thing, deliberately not the real thing, but a designed rehearsal of the real thing's essential demands.

Significance of Simulated Teaching

The significance of the technique can be stated under several heads. It provides safe practice: errors that would cost real pupils their learning cost nothing here, and the trainee can experiment, which the responsibility of a real class forbids. It connects theory with practice: principles of questioning, reinforcement, classroom management and lesson structure, learned in lectures, are converted into observable behaviour, exposing the gap between knowing about teaching and being able to teach. It creates analytical awareness — trainees playing 'pupils' feel from inside how monotony bores, how an unclear instruction confuses, how encouragement emboldens; this empathy with the learner is among the most valuable outcomes of any training course and is almost impossible to teach by lecture. It allows systematic feedback and self-confrontation, especially with video, in which the trainee sees his own mannerisms, voice and distribution of attention. And it permits the study and rehearsal of rare but critical incidents — a fight, a disclosure, a collapse of discipline — before they occur in reality.

The Need for Simulated Teaching

The need arises from defects of the traditional pattern of teacher preparation. In conventional practice teaching, the trainee is sent after theory lectures directly into a school, where cooperating teachers vary in quality, classes are large and syllabuses press forward; his supervisor observes a lesson or two at most, feedback is brief and general ('improve your board work'), and bad habits formed in these first unsupervised weeks may persist for a career. Meanwhile the schools reasonably resist handing their pupils' examination chances to raw beginners for extended experiment. Simulation meets this need at three points: it gives every trainee supervised practice before school placement, so that practicum time is spent refining rather than merely surviving; it standardises the training experience, so that all trainees, whatever school they are posted to, have rehearsed the core situations of teaching; and it is economical, requiring no pupils, no transport and no school's permission — important in systems, like ours, where training institutions are many and good practising schools are few. In the specific conditions of distance teacher education, where trainees are serving teachers scattered over the country meeting in short workshops, simulation within the workshop is often the only closely supervised practice available at all.

Critical Examination: Limitations

A critical examination must weigh the technique's real weaknesses. The most fundamental is artificiality: peers playing pupils know the subject, behave better (or, in fun, worse) than real children, and cannot reproduce the genuine unpredictability, fatigue and diversity of a real class of fifty; confidence gained in simulation may therefore be partly false confidence, and skills still

have to be re-won in reality. Secondly, simulation can become a game: trainees perform for marks, exaggerate pupil behaviour, and learn to display techniques theatrically rather than to teach thoughtfully; the technique then trains acting, not teaching. Thirdly, it consumes considerable staff time and requires supervisors skilled in observation and feedback; conducted casually, without schedules or serious debriefing, it degenerates into amateur dramatics. Fourthly, transfer is not automatic: research and experience agree that simulation prepares for practice teaching but does not replace it — it is a bridge, and a trainee who never crosses to sustained real teaching remains unqualified in fact. Finally, some aspects of teaching cannot be simulated at all — building relationships with real pupils over months, knowing their homes and difficulties, bearing real responsibility for their progress.

Conditions for Its Effective Use

These criticisms indicate not rejection but conditions. Simulation works when its purpose is specific (a skill, a type of incident, a phase of a lesson), when roles and problem situations are planned rather than improvised carelessly, when observation uses prepared schedules and feedback is evidence-based and kind, when every trainee rotates through the roles, and when the whole exercise is explicitly linked to the forthcoming real practicum — discussed afterwards in school, where the trainee can test what the simulator taught him. Used so, simulation occupies the correct middle position in training: after theory, before and alongside real practice, complementing micro-teaching (which isolates single skills in miniature lessons) with the rehearsal of whole, problematic classroom situations.

Conclusion

In conclusion, simulated teaching is a role-played rehearsal of teaching in an artificial, controlled and safe setting, significant because it converts theory into behaviour, gives feedback-rich practice without cost to real pupils, builds the trainee's insight into the learner's experience, and lets rare classroom problems be met first in rehearsal. The need for it springs from the abruptness and thin supervision of traditional practice teaching. Its artificiality is a genuine limitation, but a managed one: simulation is not a substitute for the real classroom, it is the preparation that makes the trainee's entry into that classroom safer for his pupils and more profitable for himself.

Question 3: Significance and Steps of Micro-Teaching (20 Marks)

Discuss the significance and steps of micro-teaching.

Introduction

Micro-teaching, developed by Dwight W. Allen and his colleagues at Stanford University in 1963, is one of the most influential innovations in teacher education. It rests on a simple and powerful idea: teaching is a complex performance made of identifiable skills, and a complex performance is best learned the way a musician learns scales or a sportsman learns strokes — one component at a time, on a small scale, with immediate feedback, until the components can be integrated into the whole. Micro-teaching is therefore a scaled-down teaching encounter: a trainee teaches a single concept, using a single teaching skill, to a handful of pupils for a few minutes, is observed and given feedback, replans, and reteaches. This answer defines micro-

teaching and its characteristics, discusses its significance, and describes its steps and cycle, including its established Indian and Pakistani adaptations.

Meaning and Characteristics

Allen and Ryan defined micro-teaching as a system of controlled practice that makes it possible for a teacher to concentrate on a specified teaching behaviour and to practise teaching under controlled conditions. Its characteristics are all reductions of scale in the service of mastery. Class size is reduced to about five to seven pupils (in the peer model, fellow trainees). Lesson duration is reduced to about five to ten minutes. Content is reduced to a single concept or a small unit. And the teaching task is reduced to one skill at a time — the skill of set induction, of questioning, of explaining, of stimulus variation, of reinforcement, of using the blackboard, of closure, and so on — each skill itself analysed into observable component behaviours. Supervision and feedback, by contrast, are expanded: the supervisor, peers and, in the original Stanford model, the videotape give the trainee detailed evidence about exactly the skill he was practising. The cycle then repeats with a fresh group, so that improvement is practised, not merely advised.

Significance of Micro-Teaching

The significance of micro-teaching lies first in its analysability: by decomposing teaching into skills — questioning, explaining, reinforcing, managing participation — it makes the vague advice of traditional supervision ('your lesson lacked life') replaceable by precise, trainable objectives ('your questions were all recall-level and reached only three pupils'). Secondly, it makes practice safe and inexpensive: the trainee's first fumbling attempts fall on a tiny, often

peer, class for five minutes, not on forty pupils for a term. Thirdly, its feedback is immediate, specific and evidence-based, and where video is used the trainee confronts his own performance — a form of learning no verbal report can equal. Fourthly, the teach–reteach cycle embodies the psychology of mastery: the trainee does not merely hear how to improve, he performs the improvement within the hour, which fixes it in behaviour. Fifthly, research from Stanford onwards, summarised by Allen and later reviewers, found measurable gains in the trained skills and in trainees' confidence, and the technique has proved adaptable across countries and subjects — the NCERT in India, for example, standardised a cycle of about thirty-six minutes and a list of skills suited to Indian classrooms, and teacher-training institutions in Pakistan use the same model in B.Ed and M.Ed practicums. Finally, micro-teaching changed the philosophy of training itself: from inspecting the trainee's personality to training his behaviours, from apprenticeship by imitation to deliberate practice — the direction in which all modern professional training has moved.

Table 1: Some core teaching skills practised in micro-teaching

Teaching skill	What it involves	Typical component behaviours
Set induction (introduction)	Securing attention and linking to prior knowledge at the start	Arousing curiosity, using pupils' experience, stating the aim
Questioning	Asking questions that provoke and distribute thinking	Clarity, grading, probing, redirecting, wait-time, distribution
Explaining	Making a concept or procedure clear	Simple language, examples, linking statements, checking understanding
Stimulus variation	Avoiding monotony by varying the stimuli	Movement, gestures, voice variation, media change, interaction change

Reinforcement	Strengthening desirable responses and participation	Verbal praise, gestures, encouragement, using pupils' ideas
Blackboard / board work	Using the board as an instrument of learning	Legibility, organisation, title and summary, appropriate timing
Closure	Ending the lesson so learning is consolidated	Summarising main points, linking to objectives, assigning follow-up

Steps of Micro-Teaching

The procedure is conducted in a definite sequence of steps. Step 1, Orientation: the trainees are given the theoretical background — the meaning of micro-teaching, its rationale, the cycle and the skill currently in focus, whose components are discussed until every trainee can recognise them. Step 2, Viewing a model: the supervisor (or a video) demonstrates the skill in a short model lesson, and the trainees observe it against the skill's observation schedule, so that the standard of performance is seen, not merely described. Step 3, Planning: the trainee prepares a micro-lesson plan for one concept, designed deliberately to exercise the selected skill, and discusses it with the supervisor. Step 4, Teach: the trainee teaches the micro-lesson to the small group while the supervisor and peers observe on prepared schedules (and the lesson is recorded where facilities allow). Step 5, Feedback: immediately afterwards, the observers give structured feedback — strengths first, then specific points for improvement tied to the skill's components — and the trainee views his recording where available. Step 6, Re-plan: the trainee revises the lesson plan in the light of the feedback. Step 7, Re-teach: he teaches the replanned lesson to a fresh small group, again under observation. Step 8, Re-feedback: the second performance is reviewed and compared with the first, and the improvement is noted.

The cycle — teach, feedback, re-plan, re-teach, re-feedback — is then repeated for each skill in turn, and finally the trained skills are integrated in full-length lessons during practice teaching. In the Indian model the complete cycle takes about thirty-six minutes: teach 6, feedback 6, re-plan 12, re-teach 6 and re-feedback 6 minutes.

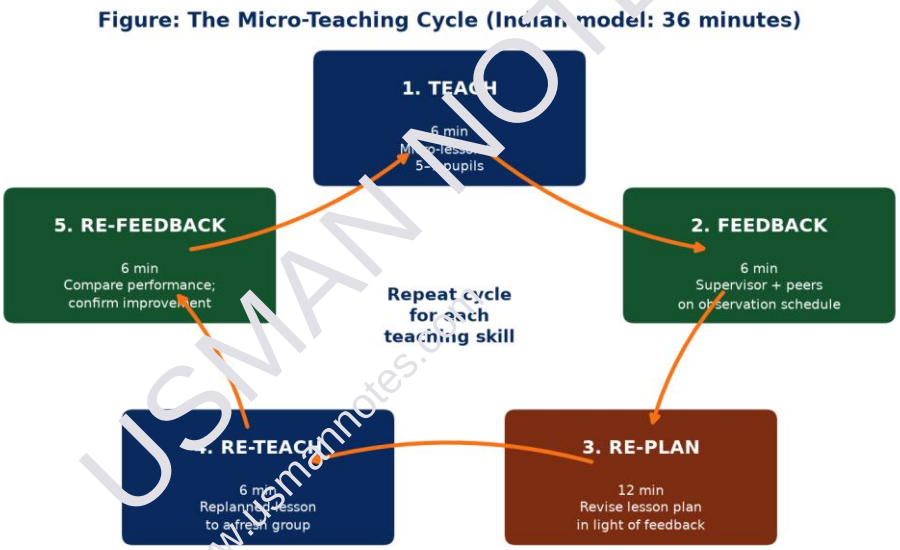


Figure 1: The micro-teaching cycle — teach, feedback, re-plan, re-teach, re-feedback — repeated for each teaching skill until the skill is mastered, after which skills are integrated in real lessons.

Limitations, Critically Noted

Micro-teaching has limits which a balanced account must record. Skills practised in isolation do not automatically combine into artful teaching; a trainee may collect all the skills and still teach woodenly if the integration phase is neglected. The miniature setting — five friendly peers for six minutes — omits classroom management, mixed ability and fatigue, the very difficulties of real teaching. Excessive concentration on observable behaviours can also narrow the trainee's

idea of teaching to technique, at the expense of subject depth, judgement and care for learners. These are reasons to position micro-teaching correctly — as the first, laboratory stage of training, to be followed by simulation and by full supervised practice — not reasons to discard a technique whose essential insight, that complex professional skill grows by analysed, feedback-guided practice, has been vindicated wherever it has been seriously tried.

Conclusion

To conclude, micro-teaching is significant because it made teacher training scientific in a practical sense: it analysed teaching into skills, reduced practice to a safe and manageable scale, and built improvement on immediate feedback and re-performance rather than on advice and hope. Its steps — orientation, model observation, planning, teaching, feedback, re-planning, re-teaching and re-feedback — form a disciplined cycle that generations of trainees have used to acquire questioning, explaining, reinforcement and the other core skills of the classroom. Used as the foundation stage it was designed to be, it remains one of the surest instruments for turning a graduate into a teacher.

Question 4: Importance of the Management of the Teaching–Learning Process for Teachers (20 Marks)

What is the importance of the management of the teaching-learning process for teachers?

Introduction

A teacher may know his subject thoroughly and still fail in the classroom, because knowledge alone does not organise forty learners, forty minutes, a syllabus, a register, a set of books and a term's examinations into learning. Between subject knowledge and learning outcomes stands management. The management of the teaching–learning process means the deliberate planning, organising, directing and controlling of everything that happens before, during and after instruction, so that time, learners, content and resources are combined to achieve the objectives of education with the least waste and the greatest effect. Management thinkers such as Fayol and Koontz described management through its functions — planning, organising, leading and controlling — and each function has its exact classroom counterpart. This answer explains the management functions as they apply to teaching and then discusses why their competent performance is important, indeed indispensable, for the teacher.

What Managing the Teaching–Learning Process Involves

Planning comes first: the teacher plans for the year, the term, the unit and the lesson — objectives in behavioural terms, sequence of content established by task analysis, strategies and media selected, assignments and tests scheduled — so that teaching proceeds by design rather than by daily improvisation. Organising follows: he organises learners (seating, groups, monitors, duties), materials (books, aids, specimens, technology ready before the bell), time (a realistic timetable within the period — introduction, development, practice, summary), and records (attendance, progress, portfolios). Directing or leading is the live conduct of the process: motivating, explaining, questioning, maintaining a climate of order with goodwill —

discipline understood as the condition for work rather than as punishment — and guiding individual learners. Controlling closes the loop: continuous and terminal evaluation checks whether objectives are being achieved; the information feeds back into re-planning, remedial teaching and reporting to parents and the school. To these four the classroom adds a fifth, ever-present management task: managing the environment — the physical setting, routines, safety and the emotional climate of the room.

Table 1: Management functions and their classroom form

Management function	In the teaching–learning process	What goes wrong without it
Planning	Year / unit / lesson plans; objectives; scheme of work; test calendar	aimless coverage; syllabus unfinished or rushed; unaligned tests
Organising	Seating, groups, materials, aids, timetable, records and routines	Time lost daily; disorder; materials missing when needed
Leading / directing	Motivation, instruction, questioning, discipline with goodwill, guidance	Inattention, indiscipline, passive and fearful learners
Controlling	Formative checks, tests, feedback, remedial action, reporting	Failure discovered only at the final examination, when it is too late
Environment management	Physical setting, routines, safety, emotional climate	Noise, anxiety and disorder consume the time meant for learning

1. It Converts Objectives into Achieved Results

The first importance of management is that it is the mechanism by which intentions become outcomes. Objectives, however beautifully stated in the curriculum, achieve nothing by themselves; they are achieved when someone plans the route, marshals the resources, keeps

the process on course and verifies arrival. Two teachers with the same syllabus and the same class produce markedly different results chiefly because one manages the process and the other merely performs in it. Management is therefore not an administrative extra added to teaching; it is the part of teaching that makes the rest effective.

2. It Saves Time and Resources — the Teacher's Scarcest Assets

Instructional time is the most precious and least renewable resource in education: a period lost to searching for the register, arranging seats after the bell or repeating unplanned instructions is gone for ever, and studies of school effectiveness consistently show that engaged learning time predicts achievement. The managing teacher protects time ruthlessly — routines are automatic, materials are ready, transitions are swift, and every minute of the period has a function — and he stretches scarce material resources by planning their use, sharing and improvising. In the conditions of Pakistani schools, with large classes and limited facilities, this economy is not a refinement but the difference between covering the syllabus with understanding and leaving it half-taught.

3. It Creates the Order and Climate in Which Learning Is Possible

Learning requires attention, and attention requires a managed environment. Clear routines, fair and consistent expectations, orderly movement and work habits, and a climate that is firm without being fearful — these are management products, and they prevent most discipline problems rather than punishing them afterwards. The well-managed classroom is also a psychologically safe one, in which learners dare to answer, err and ask; so classroom management is simultaneously a condition of discipline, of motivation and of the affective aims

of education. The teacher who cannot manage the process spends his energy on control battles and has none left for teaching.

4. It Enables Attention to Individual Differences

A class is not one learner multiplied by forty; it is forty different entry behaviours, rates and difficulties. Only a managed process can respond to that fact: grouping arrangements that can be varied, assignments at graded levels, records that show each learner's progress, remedial loops for those who fall behind and extension work for those who race ahead. Without planning, organisation and records 'individual attention' remains a slogan the teacher utters while teaching the whole class identically; with them, it becomes a set of concrete, scheduled actions.

5. It Makes Evaluation, Feedback and Accountability Possible

The controlling function supplies the information on which all improvement depends. Managed evaluation — planned formative checks, recorded results, analysed errors — tells the teacher what to reteach, tells the learner where he stands while correction is still possible, and tells parents and the institution, with evidence, what has been achieved. It also constitutes the teacher's professional accountability: the managed teacher can show his plans, his records and his results, and discuss his work objectively with supervisors, whereas the unmanaged teacher can offer only impressions. In an era of learning-outcome reporting and school inspection, this documented professionalism increasingly defines the competent teacher.

6. It Reduces the Teacher's Own Stress and Builds His Growth

Finally, management matters to the teacher himself. The unplanned teacher lives from bell to bell, improvising under pressure, carrying unfinished work and unresolved disorder home in his mind. The managing teacher's foresight removes most emergencies before they occur; his records and routines carry part of the load that memory alone would bear; and the feedback from his own controlling function shows him, term by term, where his teaching is strengthening — the raw material of professional growth and of job satisfaction. Management, in short, protects the teacher as well as the taught.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the management of the teaching–learning process — planning, organising, leading, controlling and managing the classroom environment — is important for teachers because it is the machinery that turns objectives into achievement, husband's the scarce resources of time and material, creates the orderly and safe climate learning requires, makes genuine attention to individual differences practicable, supplies the evidence for feedback, remediation and accountability, and sustains the teacher's own effectiveness and growth. Subject knowledge tells the teacher what to teach; management determines whether anyone learns it.

Question 5: John Dewey's Approach to Lesson Planning — Differentiation from the Herbartian Approach (20 Marks)

Differentiate between John Dewey's approach to lesson planning.

A Note on the Question

The question, as printed, asks for the differentiation of John Dewey's approach to lesson planning. In the course book this differentiation is drawn against the traditional approach against which Dewey was reacting — the Herbartian approach of formal steps, which dominated lesson planning before Dewey and still dominates much classroom practice. This answer therefore presents Dewey's approach fully and differentiates it, point by point, from Herbart's approach; it also notes the form Dewey's approach took in the project method of his follower Kilpatrick and in unit planning, since these are the practical planning forms Dewey's philosophy produced.

Introduction

A lesson plan is a philosophy in miniature: behind every plan stands an answer to the questions what education is, how learning happens and who the lesson belongs to. The two great rival answers in modern pedagogy are those of Johann Friedrich Herbart (1776–1841) and John Dewey (1859–1952). Herbart, the German philosopher who first tried to make pedagogy a science, planned the lesson around the subject matter and the teacher's presentation of it, in formal steps designed to build new ideas systematically upon the learner's existing stock of ideas (apperception). Dewey, the American philosopher of pragmatism and progressive education, planned the lesson around the learner's experience and activity: learning, for Dewey, is the reconstruction of experience through doing and reflecting, and the unit of planning is not a portion of a textbook but a genuine problem or purposeful activity arising

from the child's life. The difference between the two plans is therefore not a difference of format but of educational faith.

Herbart's Approach in Brief

Herbart's followers (Ziller and Rein) formalised his teaching into the famous five formal steps: (1) Preparation — recalling relevant previous ideas and arousing interest and stating the aim; (2) Presentation — presenting the new material clearly, in parts; (3) Association (or Comparison) — connecting the new ideas with the old and comparing them; (4) Generalisation (or System) — drawing out the rule, definition or principle and arranging it in the system of knowledge; (5) Application — using the new knowledge in exercises and new situations. The Herbartian plan is logical, orderly and teacher-directed: it guarantees systematic coverage of content, gives the beginner teacher a safe scaffold, and remains the unacknowledged skeleton of most daily lesson plans. Its centre of gravity, however, is the subject: the learner receives, associates and applies what the teacher presents, and interest is treated as something to be manufactured at step one rather than as the engine of the whole lesson.

Dewey's Approach in Brief

Dewey's planning begins from the child's present experience, interests and problems. The teacher's planning task is to select and arrange an environment — materials, occupations, problems — within which purposeful activity will carry the learner from a felt difficulty, through enquiry, to resolution and growth; his famous Laboratory School in Chicago organised the curriculum around occupations (cooking, weaving, carpentry, gardening) through which the knowledge of the subjects was acquired as it was needed. Kilpatrick systematised this into the

project method, whose planning steps are: (1) Creating the situation — the teacher provides an environment rich in suggestions from which a genuine problem or project emerges; (2) Choosing the project — the learners, guided democratically, select and define their purpose; (3) Planning — the learners, with the teacher's help, plan the work, divide responsibilities and foresee difficulties; (4) Executing — the project is carried out in real activity, the teacher guiding, supplying knowledge as the need for it is felt; (5) Evaluating — the learners judge the work against their purpose; and (6) Recording — a full account is kept. Morrison's unit approach is a related development: planning by meaningful wholes (units) mastered through exploration, presentation, assimilation, organisation and recitation. In all Deweyan forms the plan is flexible and provisional — a working hypothesis for the teacher, revised as the learners' activity unfolds — rather than a script to be executed verbatim.

Table 1: Herbart's approach and Dewey's approach to lesson planning differentiated

Point of difference	Herbartian approach	Dewey's approach
Philosophical basis	Idealism; education as forming the mind through ideas (apperception)	Pragmatism; education as growth and reconstruction of experience
Centre of the plan	Subject matter and its logical order	The child, his experience, interests and problems
Unit of planning	The single lesson on a portion of content	The project / unit of purposeful activity, often spanning days
Teacher's role	Presenter, instructor, central authority	Guide, fellow-worker, arranger of the environment
Learner's role	Receiver who associates new ideas with old	Active doer, planner and investigator
Source of interest	Created artificially in the preparation step	Natural — the activity is the learner's own purpose

Steps	Preparation, Presentation, Association, Generalisation, Application	Situation, Choosing, Planning, Executing, Evaluating, Recording (project form)
Place of knowledge	End in itself; mastery of organised subject matter	Instrumental — acquired as needed to solve the problem in hand
Flexibility	Fixed formal steps; plan followed strictly	Flexible; plan is a tentative guide revised during activity
Discipline	External, maintained by the teacher	Self-discipline arising from shared purposeful work
Evaluation	Testing of knowledge reproduced and applied	Judging the work against its purpose; growth of the learner
Chief merit	Systematic, economical coverage; clear scaffold for beginners	Meaningful, motivated, integrated and durable learning
Chief weakness	Mechanical, teacher-dominated, neglects activity and experience	Difficult to cover a fixed syllabus; demands time, material and a highly skilled teacher

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Discussion: What the Differentiation Means in Practice

Three practical consequences follow from the table. First, the two approaches distribute control differently: in a Herbartian classroom the decisions — what, when, how fast — are made by the teacher before the lesson and embodied in the plan, while in a Deweyan classroom many decisions are made with and by the learners during the activity, and the teacher's plan is correspondingly a plan of situations, materials and possible lines of help rather than of his own utterances. Secondly, they treat the curriculum differently: Herbart's plan serves a prescribed syllabus efficiently and is therefore favoured by examination systems; Dewey's plan serves experience and growth, integrates subjects naturally around the activity, but makes uniform coverage and standardised testing difficult — the standing tension between

progressive method and bureaucratic schooling. Thirdly, they demand different teachers: the Herbartian steps can be learned quickly and give the novice security, while Dewey's approach requires deep knowledge of children, command of resources and the judgement to guide without dictating — which is why Dewey himself warned that progressive education is harder, not easier, than traditional teaching. Modern practice, sensibly, borrows from both: systematic presentation where content must be efficiently built, Deweyan projects and problems where experience, motivation and application matter most, and Morrison's units as a middle form.

Conclusion

To conclude, Dewey's approach to lesson planning differs from Herbart's in philosophy, centre, unit, roles, steps and spirit. Herbart plans the teacher's orderly presentation of subject matter through five formal steps, aiming at a systematically furnished mind; Dewey plans the learner's purposeful activity within a prepared environment, aiming at growth through the reconstruction of experience, and his planning takes practical shape in Kilpatrick's project steps and in unit planning. Neither has abolished the other: the Herbartian plan remains the efficient instrument of systematic instruction, and Dewey's remains the standing reminder that a lesson is learned only when it is lived.

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