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CONCEPT OF INSTITUTIONAL PEDAGOGY

INTRODUCTION

Institutional Pedagogy is a pedagogic trend born in France in the 1950s. This trend is the result of a fruitful encounter between Institutional Psychotherapy and Célestin Freinet's pedagogy. At this time, the field of mental health was involved in debates about the way patients were taken care of, treated and considered in general. A critical movement was growing all over the world, and some edifying testimonies and critics have since then illustrated this debate. In France, Jean Oury, François Tosquelles and Félix Guattari were involved in the debate. Jean Oury developed a set of alternative practices as a psychiatrist and used the expression 'psychothérapie institutionnelle' coined by Daumezon & Koechlin (1952). Meanwhile, Jean Oury's brother, Fernand, started implementing in his own classroom the methods developed thirty years earlier by Freinet. Fernand Oury worked with Freinet himself, and became one of the leaders of the Parisian office of Freinet's movement, I'ICEM. But if Fernand Oury used Freinet's pedagogic tools, he and his friends of the Parisian office sought to transform these tools and to develop a richer analysis and theorisation of their teaching practices. This resulted in a split in the Freinet Movement and in new connections between psychotherapy and pedagogy: Fernand Oury considered that the analytical work made by Jean Oury or Tosquelles could be useful in his classroom and Jean Oury himself was interested in using Freinet's methods with his patients in La Clinique de La Borde. Finally, during a meeting in 1958, Jean Oury suggested a new name for Fernand's practices: 'Pédagogie Institutionnelle'.

PEDAGOGY

Pedagogy is defined simply as the method, and practice, of teaching. It encompasses:

TEACHING THEORY

• The learning process has been a popular subject for theoretical analysis for decades. While some of those theories never leave the abstract realm.

many of them are put into practice in classrooms on a daily basis.

Teachers synthesize multiple theories, some of them decades-old, in order to improve their students' learning outcomes. The following theories of teaching represent some of the most popular and well-known in the field of education.

Multiple Intelligences

- The theory of multiple intelligences, developed by Howard Gardner, posits
 that humans can possess eight different types of intelligence: musicalrhythmic, visual-spatial, verballinguistic, bodily-kinesthetic, interpersonal,
 intrapersonal, and naturalistic. These eight types of intelligence represent
 the varied ways individuals process information.
- The theory of multiple intelligence transformed the world of learning and pedagogy. Today, many teachers employ curriculums that have been developed around eight types of intelligence. Lessons are designed to include techniques that align with each individual student's learning style.

Bloom's Taxonomy

- Developed in 1956 by Benjamin Bloom, Bloom's Taxonomy is a
 hierarchical model of learning objectives. The model organizes individual
 educational tasks, such as comparing concepts and defining words, into
 six distinct educational categories: knowledge, comprehension,
 application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. The six categories are
 organized in order of complexity.
- Bloom's Taxonomy gives educators a common language to communicate about learning and helps teachers establish clear learning goals for students. However, some critics contend that the taxonomy imposes an artificial sequence on learning and overlooks some crucial classroom concepts, such as behavior management.

Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) and Scaffolding

- Lev Vygotsky developed a number of important pedagogical theories, but two of his most important classroom concepts are the Zone of Proximal Development and scaffolding.
- According to Vygotsky, the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) is the conceptual gap between what a student is and is not able to accomplish independently. Vygotsky suggested that the best way for teachers to support their students is by identifying the Zone of Proximal Development and working with them to accomplish tasks just beyond it. For example, a teacher might choose a challenging short story, just outside of what would be easily digestible for the students, for an in-class reading assignment. The teacher would then provide support and encouragement for the students to hone their reading comprehension skills throughout the lesson.
- The second theory, scaffolding, is the act of adjusting the level of support provided in order to best meet each child's abilities. For example, when teaching a new math concept, a teacher would first walk the student through each step to complete the task. As the student begins to gain an understanding of the concept, the teacher would gradually reduce the support, moving away from step-by-step direction in favor of nudges and reminders until the student could complete the task entirely on her own.

Schema and Constructivism

- Jean Piaget's schema theory suggests new knowledge with students'
 existing knowledge, the students will gain a deeper understanding of the
 new topic. This theory invites teachers to consider what their students
 already know before starting a lesson. This theory plays out in many
 classrooms every day when teachers begin lessons by asking their
 students what they already know about a particular concept.
- Piaget's theory of constructivism, which states that individuals construct meaning through action and experience, plays a major role in schools

today. A constructivist classroom is one in which students learn by doing, rather than by passively absorbing knowledge. Constructivism plays out in many early childhood education programs, where children spend their days engaged in hands-on activities.

Behaviorism

- Behaviorism, a set of theories laid out by B.F. Skinner, suggests that all behavior is a response to an external stimulus. In the classroom, behaviorism is the theory that students' learning and behavior will improve in response to positive reinforcement like rewards, praise, and bonuses.
 The behaviorist theory also asserts that negative reinforcement in other words, punishment will cause a child to stop undesired behavior.
 According to Skinner, these repeated reinforcement techniques can shape behavior and produce improves learning outcomes.
- The theory of behaviorism is frequently criticized for failing to consider students' internal mental states as well as for sometimes creating the appearance of bribery or coercion.

Spiral Curriculum

• In the theory of the spiral curriculum, Jerome Bruner contends that children are capable of comprehending surprisingly challenging topics and issues, provided that they are presented in an age-appropriate manner. Bruner suggests that teachers revisit topics annually (hence the spiral image), adding complexity and nuance every year. Achieving a spiral curriculum requires an institutional approach to education, in which the teachers at a school coordinate their curriculums and set long-term, multi-year learning goals for their students.

When people talk about the pedagogy of teaching, they will be referring to the way teachers deliver the content of the curriculum to a class.

When a teacher plans a lesson, they will consider different ways to deliver the content. That decision will be made based on their own teaching preferences, their experience, and the context that they teach in.

How does setting change the pedagogical approach?

Differences in the age of the pupils and the content being delivered can influence the pedagogical practices a teacher will choose to use.

Teachers will use research from many different academic disciplines to inform their decisions, alongside their experience teaching those age groups. For example, a teacher in EYFS may reference cognitive development research and their experience of the success of adult-directed play.

The justifications behind the decisions will become the pedagogical principles, and every teacher will develop their own pedagogical principles over time.

What are the pedagogical approaches?

The different pedagogical approaches could be broken down into four categories: behaviourism, constructivism, social constructivism, and liberationist.

1. Behaviourism

A behaviourist pedagogy uses the theory of behaviourism to inform its approach. A behaviourist pedagogical approach would say learning is teacher centred. It would advocate the use of direct instruction, and lecture-based lessons.

What does a behaviourism pedagogical approach look like in a classroom?

The theory of Behaviourism in a classroom setting came from pedagogical research by Thorndike (1911), Pavlov (1927) and Skinner (1957). Behaviourist pedagogy is the theory that the teacher should be the sole authority figure, and leads the lesson. Knowledge should be delivered in a curriculum where each subject is taught discretely (as opposed to topic-based learning, for example).

In a lesson using a behaviourist pedagogical approach, you could expect to see a mixture of lecturing, modelling and demonstration, rote learning, and choral repetition. All of these activities are 'visible' and structured, as well as being led by the teacher. However, during the course of the lesson, the shift may come where the student is the centre of the activity, and demonstrates their learning.

Behaviourism is also sometimes described as a traditional teaching style.

2. Constructivism

Constructivism is a theory that people learn through experiences and reflection.

A

Constructivist pedagogy puts the child at the centre of the learning, and is sometimes called 'invisible pedagogy'. A constructivist approach would incorporate project work, inquiry-based learning, and might adopt a Montessori or Steiner method.

What does a constructivism pedagogical approach look like in a classroom?

Constructivism is based on the pedagogical research of Piaget (1896-1890). Piaget wrote extensively about 'schemas', an idea that learners come ready to learn, and the teacher must build activities to facilitate their learning. Younger children work things through physically, whereas older children tackle symbolic and abstract ideas.

A lesson might include individualization, a slower pace, hidden outcomes, the mantle of the expert, and less teacher talk. Some adopters of this pedagogy would also place emphasis on being outdoors, and engaging with nature.

Constructivism is also sometimes described as a progressive teaching style.

3. Social constructivism

A Social constructivism pedagogy could be considered to be a blend of two priorities: teacher guided, and student centred. Cognitive psychologist, Lev

Vygotsky developed social constructivism, building on the work of Piaget, but argued against the ideas of Piaget that learning could only happen in its social context, and believed that learning was a collaborative process between student and teacher.

What would a social constructivism approach look like in a lesson?

The teacher would use group work elements, but would use smaller group sizes, and limit the choice in topics. The teacher might also use teacher modelling, questioning, and a mixture of individual, pair, and whole class instruction.

4. Liberationism

Liberationism is a critical pedagogy developed by the Brazilian educator, Paulo Freire. Freire was the Director of the Department of Education, and developed an approach of teaching where he was able to teach illiterate adults to read in just 45 days. Freire focussed on removing the two barriers to learning: poverty and hunger. Freire was then imprisoned following a military coup. Once he was released, he wrote a book called 'Pedagogy of the Oppressed' where Freire wrote about the dehumanization of students in schools, and argued for cooperation and unity. A liberationist approach is one where the student voice is placed at the centre, and a democracy is put into the classroom. Value is placed on having the teacher as a learner, and the class discovering subjects together.

What would a social constructivist approach look like in a lesson?

The teacher might use examples of literature that contain non-standard constructions, such as hip-hop, or graffiti. Students may take on the role of the teacher, and decide upon the topic of the lesson. The teacher should provide space and opportunity for the students to showcase their learning, and this can take the form of a performance, speech, or dance.

What is the history of pedagogy?

The role of 'teacher' can be traced back to Ancient Greece, with Socrates in the 5th Century BC as the keystone of what we now consider to be modern education.

The role of the teacher has developed from the days in Ancient Greece when the slaves would accompany the children to school whilst their masters worked, and the profession of educator grew from there.

Schools appeared in England as early as 597 AD, and it is generally believed that the first school in England was King's School in Canterbury, Kent. Like many of the first schools, King's School had links to the church, and today operates as a public school.

The content of the curriculum could be split into two sections: Trivium and Quadrivium. Trivium: grammar, rhetoric, logic. Quadrivium: arithmetic, astronomy, geometry, music.

Lessons took the form of a lecture, with a teacher leading the students whilst they read, explaining the texts. Then the students were given questions that they argued through the answers amongst themselves, then with opponents a little senior, before they finally engaged with the masters who had taught them.

How did the first schools approach pedagogy?

By 1780, the church responded to the need to educate the illiterate, and Ragged Schools, Parish

Schools and Church schools educated those who didn't have the money to send their children to the fee paying schools.

Ragged schools started with large classes of 30-40 students, and were taught to read from the

Bible, often orally, as they couldn't be trusted with books. The church schools tended to use the

'Lancaster Method' where the brightest student taught what they had learnt to his fellow students, each of whom then passed it on, and continued until everyone had been taught.

In 1846, the church and the government started the first teacher training colleges, and graduates were given a certificate of teaching. There was a Committee of Council of Education, and they issued grants to day schools.

Five principles of pedagogy

- motivation;
- exposition;
- direction of activity;
- criticism:
- inviting imitation.

These principles may of course overlap and/or be sub-divided into sub-principles.

Motivation

Motivation is what J Bruner was talking about when he says that "teaching is the canny art of intellectual temptation". All of the other principles, if applied, will also contribute to motivation by delivering an effective and engaging instructional process—but there is a sense in which motivation needs to be prior to the "delivery" of instruction. Motivation is likely to be dependent on the personality of the teacher and his or her ability to develop a good relationship with the student, understanding the student's current world view, interests and experience, and framing the learning to be achieved in a way that makes sense to the student.

This is what people mean when they talk about teaching being "relevant"— although this formulation is not satisfactory because the purpose of teaching is to move the student beyond the limited outlook of ignorant childhood, raising expectations and revealing the much greater possibilities offered by the world

outside their existing experience. Relevance to the student's existing experience is a good starting point but not a good outcome of education.

The dependence of inspiration on the relationship with the teacher means that computers have only a supportive role to play in this field.

Exposition

Exposition ("chalk and talk") gets a bad rap. It is transmissive, casts the student in a passive role, and can often be dull. On the other hand, it is relatively cheap and easy to provide, if well done it can be motivating, it gives the teacher an opportunity to establish his or her presence and personality, it can summarise and articulate the key facts, principles and learning objectives. If well done and done at the right time and the right way, it can be an important ingredient in a wider mix—and for all the criticism that is made of it, it is still used heavily by all instructional processes.

Good exposition requires an ability at public performance combined with good subject knowledge, good preparation and often good supporting props.

Exposition is easy to do badly: hard to do well. It is not essential that exposition is managed solely by the classroom teacher: online video delivered by e.g. the Khan Academy may provide a useful supplement to classroom exposition, especially as online video can be accessed anytime, anywhere and is likely to be of much higher quality than classroom exposition. That at least is the vision of the flipped classroom.

Direction of activity

As "we learn by doing", so good instruction must rely heavily on activity. Pete Bell dislikes the term "direction", considering it too "command and control"—so let me break this down into its constituent parts so we can at least agree what it is we are talking about.

Learning activity design

The design of activities that deliver particular learning objectives in an engaging way is a skilled business, particularly when the medium through which learning activities are delivered becomes digital (the production of serious games, simulations and creative tools is no trivial matter). At the moment, this process is largely performed (normally not very well) by front line classroom teachers. It is a central argument of Education's coming revolution that this process needs to be systematised and centralised: digital learning activities produced by specialist designers need to become a commodity that can be bought or shared and automatically integrated with learning management software.

Learning activity delivery

Once a learning activity has been designed, the activity needs to be delivered. In the non-digital, physical world, the delivery of learning activity can be summarised by the term "facilitation". In the digital world, delivery can largely be automated. In practice, a good instructional process will represent a blending of both types of activity.

Learning activity selection and sequencing

The selection of learning activities is a critical role of the teacher and needs to be directed by several further sub-principles. The selection of activities (or "progression management" as I have called it in In the beginning was the conversation) is highly suitable for automation by dedicated software systems.

Analysing the structure of the learning objectives

Clearly, learning activities should be relevant to the current learning objectives, which ultimately are *not* set by the teacher. What the teaching process does

require, however, is the disaggregation of those top-level objectives into smaller prerequisite steps, that will guide the student through the learning in a logical sequence. If you want to teach long division, you need to ensure that the student is proficient at addition and subtraction first.

It is often said that you do not really understand a topic until you have to teach it. This is at least partly because to teach something well, you need to analyse the essential structure of the knowledge being taught.

This analysis is required for course design can be done by a course designer, who does not in turn need to be the same person who designed the constituent learning activities or the same person as the classroom teacher.

Responding to the conceptual state of the student

This may often go under the catch-phrase of adaptive learning. Not only does the teacher need at the beginning of the course to select learning activities that are appropriate to his or her students, but the teacher also needs constantly to monitor the extent of learning achieved by students at each stage of the course, selecting activities that respond to the learning and maybe misconceptions picked up at previous stages of the course. As argued (with reference to Dylan Wiliam) in In the beginning was the conversation, progression management is often a better response to student misconception that negative feedback.

Repetition and review

Memory (both knowing that and knowing how) tends to degrade. Learning activities therefore need to be repeated regularly at first in order to ensure that the learning is laid down in long-term and not just short-term memory. The intervals of review can become increasingly infrequent as the learning is mastered.

Variation

Much learning in formal systems consists of the mastery of abstract principles. An abstract principle that is studied only in abstract terms is never really understood at all, as the essence of the abstract is the ability to apply it to a range of different concrete contexts.

Similarly, if an abstract principle is only studied in a single context, it is likely that the student will learn only about the context in which the principle is learnt and not about the abstract principle. It is therefore important that the teacher selects activities that illustrate the same principle in a range of different contexts, so the student can practice the ability to recognize and apply the abstract principle in unfamiliar contexts.

Incremental increase in difficulty

It may be demotivating to fail too often—yet ignoring failure is likely to be harmful as it will entrench the undesirable behaviours that led to failure. One way to resolve this paradox is to reduce the chance of failure by sequencing activities so that the difficulty increases in small increments, maximizing the chance of success at each stage. This was the approach taken by B F Skinner with machine learning. At the same time, having to progress at a snail's pace through material that the student finds easy can also be highly demotivating, so this needs to be combined with the adaptive principle.

There are many ways in which activities may be made incrementally more difficult:

- intrinsically (e.g., by providing longer numbers for a sum in maths);
- by withdrawing help or scaffolding;
- increasing the number of stages of a problem that must be navigated;

- by creating more "open ended" activities (e.g. at higher levels on Bloom's taxonomy);
- by unexpected timing (e.g. introducing an old topic out of the blue);
- by deeper contextualisation of an abstract principle (e.g. use of unfamiliar language).

Criticism

Some will be uncomfortable with this word—but it is the right one. Criticism should be constructive of course and there are times when criticism may be withheld, to be replaced by progression management or an expectation that the student will work it out for themselves. Ultimately, however, criticism is an essential part of the conversational loop (see again In the beginning was the conversation). It is a key part of the teacher's tool-set and students should learning to accept criticism in the constructive sense that it ought to be offered.

Component parts of criticism are:

- evaluation:
- correction;
- contextual repetition of exposition;
- target setting.

At higher levels, the expert evaluation required will be beyond the capacity of computers and will therefore be a primary function of the subject expert. At lower levels (e.g. routine marking of simple problems), offering instantaneous assessment and feedback are functions to which computer systems are well adapted.

Inviting imitation

Humans are mimics. Children and teenagers are naturally programmed to find role models and copy them. Ideally, a child will choose to admire a teacher and seek to imitate them. Children will also imitate each other and the degree to

which this sort of imitation will be beneficial will depend on the extent to which the peer culture is constructive.

The criterion on which a teacher is likely to be selected as a role model will in large part be dependent on personality—and this is a tough call for teachers who may be expert at their subject and diligent in marking work, if they are not at the same time seen to be quite as cool as the latest celebrity on big brother.

Teachers can support each other in this respect. The willingness of children to look favourably on their teachers as role models may be influenced by the general culture of the school. Where learning is not respected, it may be almost impossible for a teacher to be a potential role model as well as being passionate about their subject. I suggest the following sub-principles which can help promote beneficial imitation:

- fostering a peer culture in which learning is valued;
- the appointment of charismatic teachers in senior position (e.g. Head Teacher, Leading Subject Teachers);
- the fostering of team-teaching whereby senior teachers can support junior teachers, and junior teachers can, by working alongside senior teachers, learn the tricks of the trade;
- developing good relationships with students;
- teacher acting as collaborator (or "guide on the side"), illustrating for the benefit of students ways in which problems can be addressed, which the student can then imitate;
- good discipline, where rival, negative peer role models are challenged early;
- personalization of learning and effective use of praise.

As the last of these points illustrate, there is a relationship between effective motivational strategies and selection of role models: a highly motivational teacher is also likely to be adopted as a role model.

As much of this is a matter of personality, it may be argued that technology has little part of play. However, technology can help in a number of ways, including the management of personalization and the reporting of learning outcomes to encourage the teacher in giving timely praise.

I would argue that the opportunities for video conferencing and remote tutoring can also help. This can help replace isolated classroom teachers with teaching teams led by "leading teachers" – people who combine compelling charisma with strong subject knowledge, able to champion the cause and help with the difficult task of offering a compelling alternative (and complementary) set of motivations to the modern entertainment industry. Such leading teachers would need to be supported by junior teachers and machine instruction, capable of addressing the bread-and-butter management of learning, reporting and aggregating learning outcome data in forms that are available to the whole teaching team.

Another advantage of the leading teacher concept will be that, being ultimately responsible for large numbers of students, it will be possible to pay leading teachers significantly more than can be afforded for classroom teachers, who are limited by the 30-in-a-classroom productivity ceiling. This will help attract high calibre entrants to the profession and keep them "in the classroom".

5 Pedagogical Approaches in Teaching

Teachers primary concern are the learners. They have to teach in order for their students to learn something. They use some tools in teaching such as books, visuals, and any other suitable materials. However, teaching is not as easy as that because they also have to be aware of the 5 Pedagogical Approaches which can enhance the process of learning.

The Five 5 Pedagogical Approaches in Teaching are:

- 1. Constructivism or the Constructivist Approach
- 2. Collaborative Approach
- 3. Inquiry-Based Approach
- 4. Integrative Approach
- 5. Reflective Approach

Constructivism or Constructivist Approach

Constructivist teaching is based on constructivist learning theory. It based on the belief that learning occurs as learners are actively involved in a process of meaning and knowledge construction as opposed to passively receiving information. Learners are the makers of meaning and knowledge.

Collaborative Approach

Collaborative learning is a situation in which two or more people learn or attempt to learn something together. Unlike individual learning, people engaged in collaborative learning capitalize on one another's resources and skills (asking one another for information, evaluating one another's ideas, monitoring one another's work, etc.). More specifically, collaborative learning is based on the model that knowledge can be created within a population where members actively interact by sharing experiences and take on asymmetry roles.

Inquiry-Based Approach

Inquiry-based learning (also enquiry-based learning in British English) is a form of active learning that starts by posing questions, problems or scenarios—rather than simply presenting established facts or portraying a smooth path to knowledge. The process is often assisted by a facilitator. Inquirers will identify and research issues and questions to develop their knowledge or solutions. Inquiry-based learning includes problem-based learning, and is generally used in small scale investigations and projects, as well as research. The inquiry-based instruction is principally very closely related to the development and practice of thinking skills.

Integrative Approach

Integrative learning is a learning theory describing a movement toward integrated lessons helping students make connections across curricula. This higher education concept is distinct from the elementary and high school "integrated curriculum" movement. Integrated studies involve bringing together traditionally separate subjects so that students can grasp a more authentic understanding. Interdisciplinary curricula has been shown by several studies to support students' engagement and learning. Specifically integrating science with reading comprehension and writing lessons has been shown to improve students' understanding in both science and English language arts.

Reflective Approach

Reflective teaching is a process where teachers think over their teaching practices, analyzing how something was taught and how the practice might be improved or changed for better learning outcomes. Some points of consideration in the reflection process might be what is currently being done, why it's being done and how well students are learning. You can use reflection as a way to simply learn more about your own practice, improve a certain practice (small groups and cooperative learning, for example) or to focus on a problem student are having. Let's discuss some methods of reflective teaching now.

ANDRAGOGY (ADULT LEARNING THEORY)

Andragogy, also known as adult learning theory, was proposed by Malcom Shepard Knowles in 1968. Previously, much research and attention had been given to the concept of pedagogy teaching children. Knowles recognized that there are many differences in the ways that adults learn as opposed to children. His thoughts surrounding andragogy sought to capitalize on the unique learning styles and strengths of adult learners.

Knowles' Five Assumptions of Adult Learners

Knowles theory of andragogy identified five assumptions that teachers should make about adult learners.

- **Self-Concept** Because adults are at a mature developmental stage, they have a more secure self-concept than children. This allows them to take part in directing their own learning.
- Past Learning Experience Adults have a vast array of experiences to draw on as they learn, as opposed to children who are in the process of gaining new experiences.
- Readiness to Learn Many adults have reached a point in which they see
 the value of education and are ready to be serious about and focused
 on learning.
- Practical Reasons to Learn Adults are looking for practical, problemcentered approaches to learning. Many adults return to continuing education for specific practical reasons, such as entering a new field.
- Driven by Internal Motivation While many children are driven by external motivators – such as punishment if they get bad grades or rewards if they get good grades – adults are more internally motivated.

Four Principles of Andragogy

Based on these assumptions about adult learners, Knowles discussed four principles that educators should consider when teaching adults.

- Since adults are self-directed, they should have a say in the content and process of their learning.
- Because adults have so much experience to draw from, their learning should focus on adding to what they have already learned in the past.
- Since adults are looking for practical learning, content should focus on issues related to their work or personal life.
- Additionally, learning should be centered on solving problems instead of memorizing content.

Current Applications

In later years, Knowles would recognize that some points in his theory did not apply to all adults. In addition, some of what he wrote about education could also apply to children. He began to see learning on a spectrum between teacher-directed and student-directed. In his later work, he emphasized how each situation should be assessed on an individual basis to determine how much self-direction would be helpful for students.

Andragogy has received critique over the years, as some of its assumptions have not been empirically proven.

However, many researchers believe that the self-directed approach to learning discussed by Knowles is applicable in a number of settings.

For example, online learning can benefit from Knowle's discussion of selfdirective learning, as students often receive less supervision from teachers in an online environment.

Other researchers have used andragogy to consider how lectures can become more effective modes of learning through more actively engaging adult

students. For example, teachers can use Socratic dialogue, small group discussions, and student-led teaching to make lectures more self-directive and engaging

PEDAGOGY VS. ANDRAGOGY

It's not all Greek to us: When we're talking about eLearning, the words "pedagogy" and

"andragogy" are often thrown around. Both of Greek origin, pedagogy literally translates to paidi (child) and ago (guide). Andragogy, on the other hand, means andras (man) and ago (guide). While both words refer to learning strategies, they each have their own distinct philosophies. By understanding the difference between pedagogy vs andragogy, you'll have a clearer idea of how and why your subjects learn best.

At a glance, andragogy refers to the methods and approaches used in adult education and is directed towards self-actualization, gaining experience, and problem-solving. In contrast, pedagogy is an education method in which the learner is dependent on the teacher for guidance, evaluation, and acquisition of knowledge. The problem? Someone applying pedagogical theory to a classroom full of professionals might find that their efforts read as child's play.

What are the differences between Pedagogy and Andragogy?

Pedagogical Andragogical

Learner is dependent on the teacher.

Teacher is the one who evaluates

progress and assumes full responsibility for
what is taught and its efficacy.

Learner is depending on self. The method requires self-evaluation and direction and self takes responsibility for the process.

Learner comes to the table with little life experience. Child-like learning comes with a blank slate and the educator is one of the most influential figures, as peers likely have the same lack of experience.

Learner uses life experience as a foundation. Instructors build on existing knowledge and require an understanding of diverse backgrounds. Adults learn from the instructor, but also from one another.

Students advance once they have completed the necessary steps. Child learners are told what they need to do to master a topic in order to move onto the next one.

Learning is triggered by any number of life experiences and not necessarily led by a designated instructor. Learners don't advance to another topic, but rather fill knowledge gaps as where needed.

Learning is prescribed by an instructor and sequenced in a way that makes logical sense.

Topics are broken down into content units.

Learning is prescribed by self. Learners see a problem or knowledge gap and organize topics around life/work solutions.

Learners are motivated by external sources, such as parents and teachers. The topic is completed by a pass or fail grade.

Learners are motivated by intrinsic means: self-esteem, quality of life, problem-solving, and the quest for recognition. Topics are completed by mastery.

Knowles' Theory

Before 1950, pretty much everything we knew about learning methods was centered around the way kids operated. After all, traditional schooling was pretty much how and where education took place. Finally, adult educator and researcher Malcolm Knowles adopted the term "andragogy" to refer to the unique motivators adult learners used. While children required more extrinsic motivation and relied on instructor-led methods, Knowles noticed that adults were self-directed and relied heavily on their past life experiences when they approached learning opportunities.

Knowles defined a theory about adult learners that helped educators receive better insight into how/why adult learners *learn*, including:

- Adults are self-directed
- Adults use their past experiences as learning resources
- Adults are motivated to learn in relation to their social roles
- Adults prefer to learn solutions that can be applied in realistic situations
- Adults rely on intrinsic motivations

Adult Learning

It may seem like semantics, but understanding the differences between pedagogy and andragogy could make a big difference between lackluster learning and ready, engaged adults. This doesn't mean that children and adults always learn differently (both, for example, have a positive response to animation). The fact is, adults come to the table with different motivators. They know what has worked in the past or have habits that affect the way they learn and receive new information. Because of this, approaching new topics with a traditional pedagogical strategy could leave them disengaged and uninterested.

Andragogy inspires instructors to do a better job connecting learning experiences to what adult learners already know. Allowing for personal opinion, better pacing, and knowledge checks and re-checks, help adults leverage what they already know against the new topics they are presented with. Think of it as one of the fringe benefits of teaching adults: Andragogy leaves room for a lifetime of learning.

COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT THEORY (Jean Piaget)

Jean Piaget, a Swiss psychologist was particularly concerned with the way thinking develops in children from birth till they become young adults. To understand the nature of this development, Piaget carefully observed the behaviour of his own three kids. He used to present problems to them, observe responses slightly after the situations and again observe their responses. Piaget called this method of exploring development clinical interview.

Piaget believed that humans also adapt to their physical and social environments in which they live. The process of adaptation begins since birth. Piaget saw this adaptation in terms of two basic processes: Assimilation and Accommodation.

Assimilation. It refers to the process by which new objects and events are grasped or incorporated within the scope of existing schemes or structures.

Accommodation. It is the process through which the existing schemes or structure is modified to meet the resistance to straightforward grasping or assimilation of a new object or event.

According to Piaget there are 4 basic elements in development:

- 1. Maturation.
- 2. Experience.
- 3. Social transmission (learning through language, schooling or teaching by parents)
 - 4. Equilibrium.

The important concept of Piaget's theory of cognitive development is the fixed progression from one stage to another. Piaget viewed cognitive growth as a progressive change. Growth varies from person to person. Piaget assumed that it follows a fixed sequence.

Stages of cognitive development.

Piaget has identified 4 sequential stages through which every individual progresses in cognitive development. Each stage has an age span with distinctive learning capabilities. This would be helpful in framing curriculum. And understanding of this development sequence is indispensable for parents as well as for teachers because these influences a great deal during infancy, childhood and adolescence. The 4 developmental stages are discussed below

1. Sensori-Motor Stage. This stage begins at birth and lasts till the child is about 2 years old. It is called Sensori-Motor Stage, because children's thinking involves seeing, hearing, moving, touching, testing and so on. This stage marks a transitional stage for a person from a biological to a psychological being. In the first few weeks of life the

baby's behaviour consists simply of reflex responses, such as sucking, stepping and grasping.

Later the reflex disappears and the baby chooses what and when to grasp.

During this period the infants attain the **concept of object permenance**. This refers to the understanding that objects and events continue to exist even when they cannot directly be seen, heard or touched. Till this kind of understanding is achieved, an object that is out of sight remains out of mind and therefore, becomes non-existent.

A second major accomplishment in the Sensori-Motor period is learning to reverse actions. E.g., we give a toy to a child that has ten detachable parts. We detach all parts. Through trial and error, the child gradually learns to attach all the parts of the toy.

- 2. Pre-Operational Stage (2 to 7 Years). This stage is called Pre-Operational because the children have not yet mastered the ability to perform mental operations. Children's thinking during this stage is governed by what is seen rather than by logical principles. Following are the accomplishments of Pre-Operational Stage:
 - a. **Semantic function.** During this stage the child develops the ability to think using symbols and signs. Symbols represent something or someone else; for example, a doll may symbolize a baby, child or an adult.
 - **b. Egocentrism.** This stage is characterized by egocentrism. Children believe that their way of thinking is the only way to think.
 - **c. Decentering.** A pre-operational child has difficulty in seeing more than one dimension or aspects of situation. It is called decentering.
 - **d. Animism.** Children tend to refer to inanimate objects as if they have life-like qualities and are capable of actions.
 - e. Seriation. They lack the ability of classification or grouping objects into categories.
 - **f. Conservation.** It refers to the understanding that certain properties of an object remain the same despite a change in their appearance.
- 3. Concrete Operational Stage (7 to 11 years). At this stage a child is concerned with the integration of stability of his cognitive systems. He learns to add, subtract, multiply and

- divide. He is in a position to classify concrete objects. In short, children develop the abilities of rational thinking but their thinking is tied to concrete objects.
- 4. Formal Operational Stage (11 & above). This type is characterised by the emergence of logical thinking and reasoning. Other important cognitive attainments during this period are: the ability to think about the hypothetical possibilities and to solve problems through logical deductions and in a systematic manner.

Educational Implications.

Piaget's concept of development process of understanding working of the child's mind can be helpful to those who are involved in teaching and other educational practices. He says that children pass through number of stages before the age of 14 years and a lot of care should be taken in child's training and development.

Most of the teachers are now in agreement with him that it is waste of time to take those things to children which cannot be experienced through sense organs. When the children form many direct experiences then only they are in a position to understand the abstract ideas and concept. Piaget does not like to looking at education, therefore, the teacher must always make an effort to orient education around the child.

The most important function of school is to provide good stimulating environment within the school for the proper development of their mental abilities. The school should provide good library opportunities for free discussions and community services. The needs of adolescents should be given proper place on the school curriculum.

Adolescents should be given opportunity for the development of their creative abilities through music, dance, art and crafts. They should be provided guidance as regarded their individual educational and vocational problems.

Q. Define emotions?

R. The word 'emotion' has been derived from the Latin word 'emovere' which means to 'stir-up', 'to agitate', or 'to excite'. Thus emotion is the stirred up state of mind.

Each experience of man has three processes – cognitive, affective and conative.

Thinking is cognition, feeling is affection and acting is conation. We think, we feel and we act.

Feeling is called affective state of mind and also emotion.

Woodworth. "Emotion is moved or stirred up state of feeling that is the way it appears to the individual himself. It is a disturbed muscular and glandular activity that is the way it appears to an external observer".

Crow and Crow. "An emotion is an affective experience that accompanies generalized inner adjustment, mental and physiological stirred up states in the individual and that shows itself in his overt behaviour".

Mc Dougall. "Emotion is a mode of experience that accompanies the working of an instinctive act".

Q. What changes take place during the arousal of emotions?

R.

- 1. There is an increase in heart beat because there is increase in blood circulation during emotional experience.
- 2. There is marked change in the blood pressure of the person. It may rise of fall down.
- 3. There is also marked change in respiration. It is fast or slow.
- 4. In emotions like anger, fear, anxiety etc, gastrointestinal changes takes place and digestion is affected.
- 5. Facial expressions undergo change.
- 6. Muscles become tense.

Q. What are the characteristics of the emotions?

R.

 Affection play a key role in emotions. Every experience has three modes – cognition, affection and conation. It is the affection mode of mind that dominates the emotion.

- 2. Emotions accompany instincts. Emotions occur when associated with some instinct or biological drive.
- **3. Emotions have hedonic tone.** Emotions are accompanied by pleasure or pleasantness. But they give us pain also.
- **4. Universal acceptance.** Emotions are found in everybody. There are no exceptions. They are found in young and old.
- **5. Varying intensity.** The expression of emotion and its intensity may vary from person to person on the basis of levels of education, training and intelligence.
- **6. Emotions have wide range of degree.** Emotions are aroused at all stages of mental development. An emotion can last for a very short moment but it can persist for a long time also.
- **7. Emotions and reasoning do not go together.** During emotional outbursts, thinking and reasoning power are decreased.

Q. Explain emotion of fear? What are its causes and effects? How can it be removed?

R. Fear. Fear is one of the basic emotions found in an individual. It accompanies the instinct of escape and appears at a very early age during infancy. Fear as an emotion is not bad because it has its own value and is essential to some extent.
Causes of fear. Fear is aroused when there are events with which the individual is unable to cope. Parental fears, threats from adults, imaginative stories contribute to the development of fear in children. His response is that of shrinking or retreating from such fear provoking situation. Generally the children express their fear by body signs of trembling, running or crying.

Effects of fear. Under the influence of fear there occur physiological and psychological changes. Face turns pale, a person shivers, heart beats quickly, rate of respiration increase and the mouth gets dried up. the blood pressure of a person rise or fall down. Muscles become tense and anxieties increase. It retards sound physical and mental growth.

- First of all, the illogical fears of the children should be removed by giving them complete insight into and complete knowledge of the objects or situations which create fear in them.
- 2. The child's attention is drawn to the interesting features of the feared object.
- 3. Thirdly, the fear of children can be removed by the method of 'disuse'.
- 4. Teacher should be sympathetic.
- 5. Avoid use of corporal punishment in the school.

Value of fear. From educational point of view, fear has a value also because it prevents an individual from taking foolish ventures.

- 1. It teaches children to respect teachers.
- 2. It teaches children to respect school rules and maintains discipline.
- 3. Students learn out of fear.
- 4. They do home task out of fear.

Q. Explain emotion of anger? What are its causes? How can it be controlled?

- **R.** Anger. Anger is a common emotion found among children. It accompanies the instinct of combat. It may be in the form of extreme rage or resentment or at times it may be expressed in the milder forms of irritation or annoyance. **Causes.**
 - 1. Blocking of the activities in progress lead to angry out-bursts.
 - 2. Difficult assignments, uninteresting lesson and tiresome jobs also give rise to the emotion of anger.
 - 3. Favouritism on the part of some teachers and parents for selected few, interference with set of habits, physical illness, fatigue and hunger are other cause.
 - 4. Conflicts with authority also arouse anger. Value of anger.
 - 1. Under the influence of anger, children frequently expresses their thoughts, wishes and criticize others. In this way we can understand their grievances because it provides us an insight into the working of their minds.

- Anger arouses individuals to work. It improves them to face difficult situations.How to control anger.
- 1. It is wise for teachers and parents to avoid anger arousing situations.
- 2. Better environment should be created for the child both at home and school so that anger provoking situations are avoided.
- 3. Provocation in any form to the child should be minimized to the possible limits.
- 4. The child should be praised for the good work in which he is proficient.

Q. Define affection? What are its good and bad effects? Write its educational importance?

R. Affection. Affection is important emotion, which plays a vital role in child's life. As soon as child is born in a family, he gets the closeness of his mother as well as from other members. This closeness shown towards him by others develops in him some emotional attachments. These emotional attachments take the shape of affection. Under the influence of affection, the child experiences happiness, satisfaction and pleasure. Due to affection, sometimes the feelings of tolerance or self-sacrifice are also observed in him.

The experiences of affection are expressed in various forms. The child begins to cry at the separation of his parents. He expresses his affection by embracing and kissing. But the expression of affection mostly depends on the norms of society.

Effects of affection. There are two types of effects of affection, which are mentioned below:

Good effects.

- 1. Source of strength. An individual can perform unusual work under the influence of affection. This proves a motivating force for achieving the goal.
- 2. A source of social adjustment. The emotion of affection creates close ties with one another and thus the child begins to feel the need of presence of others.

- **3.** A source of well adjusted life. From the very childhood he learns the ways and means to adjust himself with others. Affection paves the way for this.
- **4. Avoid frustrations.** The individual who enjoys the affection of their parents and other lead a better and happier life.
- **5.** It develops the sense of service. The emotion of affection compels child to render his valuable service to others.

Bad effects. Love and affection have damaging effects also. The excessive love of parents and teachers develops the habit of spoon-feeding among children. They lack self-dependency in them. Similarly, the children, who do not enjoy the affection of their parents and others, become frustrated and as such they develop many ill tendencies in them. They also develop negative attitude towards their own worth. Even a slight criticism develops in them an intense anxiety.

Educational implications. The emotion of love and affection has a key role to play in the field of education. It is advised by educationists, that teachers should adopt the following means while teaching.

- 1. The teachers should develop in themselves a sympathetic attitude towards his students.
- 2. The teachers should pay special attention towards those children who are deprived of love and affection of their homes.
- 3. The teachers should try to utilize the emotions of love and affection for constructive purpose.
- 4. The teachers should try to avoid punishment as far as possible. He should deal with love and affection. Q. **Define jealousy?**
- R. Jealousy is a universal emotion and is closely related to the emotion of anger. It is a normal response to actual, supposed or threatened loss of affection a state in which a jealous person feels insecure. It is a matter of common experience that with the arrival of a new child, the first child usually becomes jealous because he feels that his parental affection of which he was the sole recipient is shared. He feels himself in a state of competition with another child.

According to Watson, "Jealousy is a socially oriented emotional response compounded of anger, fear and love. It is called forth by those situations where the child anticipates loss of affection"

In the state of jealousy the child reverts to infantile behaviour such as bed-wetting, thumb sucking, refusal to eat, pretending to be ill etc. He may also hit the new born baby.

Jealousy, when becomes intense is very harmful. Hence it is the duty of parents and teachers to take appropriate measures to control this tendency in children.

Controlling jealousy:

- 1. They should locate the cause of such behaviour and treat it accordingly.
- 2. Parents and teachers should distribute their attention equally.
- 3. Teacher should help the child to solve his problem.
- 4. Mother should prepare the child regarding the arrival of another child in the family.

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