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### Assignment no. 1

**Q. 1 A teacher's personality traits are important to create and maintain a classroom/learning environment. Why?**

**ANS.**

#### **Personality Traits That Help Teachers and Students Succeed**

Personality traits are a combination of characteristics that are innate to people as individuals as well as characteristics that develop from specific life experiences. The personality traits that make up a person go a long way in determining how successful he is.

There are certain personality traits that help teachers and students succeed. Success

may mean different things for different people. Teachers and students who hold the majority of the following characteristics are almost always successful regardless of how success is defined.

### **Adaptability**

This is the ability to handle a sudden change without making it a distraction.

Students who have this trait can handle sudden adversity without letting academics suffer.

Teachers who have this trait are quickly able to make adjustments that minimize distractions when things do not go according to plan.

### **Conscientiousness**

Conscientiousness involves the capacity to complete a task meticulously with efficiency and of the highest quality.

Conscientious students can produce high-quality work consistently

Conscientious teachers are extremely organized and efficient, and they provide their students with quality lessons or activities daily.

### **Creativeness**

This is the ability to use original thinking to solve a problem.

Students who have this trait can think critically and are adept problem solvers.

Teachers who have this trait are able to use their creativeness to build a classroom that is inviting to students, create lessons that are engaging, and incorporate strategies to individualize lessons for every student.

## **Determination**

A person with determination can fight through adversity without giving up to accomplish a goal.

Students who have this trait are goal orientated, and they do not allow anything to get in the way of accomplishing those goals.

Teachers with determination figure out a way to get their job done. They do not make excuses. They find ways to reach even the most difficult students through trial and error without giving up.

## **Empathy**

Empathy allows a person to relate to another individual even though she may not share similar life experiences or problems.

Students who have this trait can relate to their classmates. They are nonjudgmental. Instead, they are supportive and understanding.

Teachers who have this trait can look beyond the walls of their classroom to assess and meet their students' needs. They recognize that some students live a difficult life outside of school and try to figure out solutions for helping them.

## **Forgiveness**

Forgiveness is the capacity to move beyond a situation in which you were wronged without feeling resentment or holding a grudge.

Students who are forgiving can let things go that could potentially serve as a distraction when they have been wronged by someone else.

Teachers with this trait can work closely with administrators, parents, students, or other teachers who may have created an issue or controversy that was potentially detrimental to the teacher.

## **Genuineness**

People who are genuine demonstrate sincerity through actions and words without hypocrisy.

Students who show genuineness are well-liked and trusted. They have many friends and are often looked upon as leaders in their classroom.

Teachers with this trait are viewed as highly professional. Students and parents buy into what they are selling, and they are often highly regarded by their peers.

### **Graciousness**

Graciousness is the ability to be kind, courteous, and thankful when dealing with any situation.

Students who are gracious are popular among their peers and well-liked by their teachers. People are drawn to their personality. They often go out of their way to help others any time an opportunity arises.

Teachers who have this trait are well respected. They are invested in their school beyond the four walls of their classroom. They volunteer for assignments, help other teachers when needed, and even find ways to assist needy families in the community.

### **Gregariousness**

The ability to socialize with and relate to other people is known as gregariousness.

Students who have this trait work well with other people. They are capable of making a connection with just about anyone. They love people and are often the center of the social universe.

Teachers who have this trait can build strong, trusting relationships with their students and families. They take the time to make real connections that often extend beyond the walls of the school. They can figure out a way to relate to and carry on a conversation with just about any personality type.

## **Q.2 Describe the process of course design and planning.**

**Ans-**

Begin the process early, giving yourself as much time as you can to plan a new course. Successful courses require careful planning and continual revision. Consult with colleagues who have taught the same or similar courses to learn from their strategies and their general impressions of the students who typically take the course. If you are team-teaching, you and your teaching partner(s)

should begin meeting well in advance to discuss course goals, teaching philosophies, course content, teaching methods, and course policies, as well as specific responsibilities for each instructor.

**Define course goals.** Determining the goals for the course will clarify what you want the students to learn and accomplish. Having these course goals in mind will then help you make decisions about which content to include, which teaching methods to use, and what kinds of assignments and exams are appropriate. For a useful introduction to curriculum planning that begins with defining goals for student learning, rather than with course content, see Grant Wiggins and Jay McTighe's *Understanding by Design* (1998). When you define the course goals, focus on student learning. One way to formulate these goals is to determine what students should be learning in terms of content, cognitive development, and personal development. Be as specific as you can and make sure that the goals define learning in ways that can be measured. Consider the following questions:

What do you want your students to remember from your course in 5-10 years?

How should taking your course change students?

What skills should students gain in this course?

How does this course relate to other courses in the discipline? How, then, might you define the course goals accordingly (e.g., for an introductory, fundamental, or advanced course in the discipline)?

In addition, you should learn about the students who typically take the course (their level of preparation, their majors or academic interests, etc.) in order to think about how your course will help this group of students build their knowledge and understanding of the topic.

Benjamin Bloom's *Taxonomy of Educational Objectives* (1956) provides a helpful framework for identifying the observable and measurable skills you would like your students to learn. Bloom identified six types of cognitive processes and ordered these according to the increasing level of complexity involved: knowledge, comprehension, application, analysis, synthesis, and evaluation. This page provides resources for using Bloom's *Taxonomy* to help write learning goals.

Below is an example of a list of course goals, as developed for a General Chemistry course. (At Washington University, General Chemistry is a

foundational course for several scientific disciplines; it attracts mainly first-year students who were in the top one percent of their high-school classes and whose academic interests represent a variety of disciplines.)

### **General Chemistry: Course Goals**

Teach chemistry topics that must be covered to help students prepare for other courses and for standardized exams.

Teach study skills that students need to succeed in university-level science courses; these skills are distinct from those required to succeed in high-school science courses. For example, teach students how to study effectively in a group.

Teach students problem-solving and critical-thinking skills. Demonstrate how chemistry is used in other fields and in everyday situations.

Teach students the beauty of chemistry.

Determine course content. Select the major topics and determine the order in which you will teach them.

Select the main topics to be covered. To obtain an initial list of course topics, look in current textbooks or the current literature (for a special-topics course).

Determine whether there is a consensus concerning the necessary topics by obtaining previous course syllabi and discussing potential topics with colleagues.

Refine your list by considering your course goals and the characteristics of your students. At the same time, use the desired content to refine the course goals.

Pare down and refine your initial list of topics. Instructors often plan initially to teach more material than they can cover in the allotted time.

Determine the structure of the course; arrange the topics in a logical order. Developing a rationale that guides the structure of the course can help you explain the material more clearly to the students. In other words, you can discuss how and why you have organized the material in a particular way, helping them to see, for example, how one topic builds on, illustrates, or offers a different perspective on another. Articulating the rationale behind the course structure also increases and maintains the students' interest in the course content. Determining the course structure can help you decide which texts are most appropriate.

You can choose to organize the topics in a variety of ways, whether chronological, topical, conceptual, survey-oriented, or process-oriented. Think about how the structure of the course will contribute to student learning. Ask questions such as the following:

Can I organize the topics according to a theme or storyline?

Do I need to teach certain skills initially and then discuss applications?

Do I want to introduce a particular theory before illustrating it with specific examples or problems?

Develop teaching methods and tools. Once you have determined the course goals and content, think about how you will present the content. Select and develop teaching methods and tools that are 1) appropriate for the size of the class and 2) consistent with the course goals. Consider the following questions and suggestions: What is your teaching style? How will you apply or adapt your style to suit the course goals, the size of the class, and the types of students who are likely to enroll? Which types of teaching methods will best fulfill your course goals?

When deciding whether or not you will use technology in your teaching, identify specific goals that technology will help you reach. Plan carefully to determine how you will integrate technology with more traditional teaching tools, such as the chalkboard.

Whenever possible, use a variety of approaches, taking into account that students use a diverse range of learning preferences.

Plan to use teaching methods that will require and measure active student learning.

Determine how you will evaluate student learning: Plan assignments and exams. The evaluation must go hand-in-hand with course goals. For example, if one course goal is to improve problem-solving skills, the exam should not contain only questions that ask students to recall facts; it should contain questions that ask students to solve specific and well-chosen problems. By the same token, homework and class activities leading up to the exam must include some questions that require problem-solving skills. Consider the following questions:

Do assignments reflect and help achieve course goals? For example, are the papers required for the course an appropriate genre and length? How much time will you give students to complete these papers?

Do exams and quizzes reflect course goals? Do they measure the extent to which students are achieving the learning objectives you have set out for the course?

Will the students have an opportunity to acquire and practice the skills that are required for exams and major assignments?

Select text(s) and other materials. If you are using texts, decide whether the course goals will be best met by using a published text or a course reader that compiles material published elsewhere (and unpublished material, if applicable). Take into account the cost of all materials. Consider placing some of the material on reserve at the library so that students can borrow, photocopy, or download the material themselves. Order texts early and call the bookstore about a month before the course starts to ask if the texts have arrived.

If you are compiling a course reader, consider copyright issues (see the University's guidelines on copyright and fair use). If you need to obtain permission to reprint or otherwise use published material, allow at least 3 months to complete the process. Keep in mind that some publishers now offer faculty the option of creating custom readers, for which the publisher has already obtained the necessary permissions. You can also use commercial copyright clearance services.

Before the semester begins, order text(s) and other materials, including films, videos, or software; contact guest speakers; and arrange field trips. If you plan to use instructional technology or multimedia equipment, ensure that you will have the necessary equipment, software, and training. Reserve a classroom that has all the necessary components. Classroom reservations are handled by the Office of the University Registrar (OUR), formerly the Office of Student Records. Typically, requests to register classrooms for a course are forwarded to OUR by departmental administrative assistants. To learn about the process in your department, ask the department chair or administrative assistant. Contact The Teaching Center at 935-6810 to schedule training on how to use the classroom multimedia or to arrange for additional, licensed software to be installed on the classroom PC. If you would like to reserve a classroom to practice using the multimedia before the semester starts, or when classes are not in session, please contact Jeanine Gibson in the Office of Student Records by email, or by phone at 935-4145.

Define course policies. Determine how you will grade all required work, including all assignments, papers, exams, and, if applicable, class participation. Decide ahead of time how you will deal with such issues as tardiness, attendance problems, work turned in late, and requests for extensions or the rescheduling of



exams. Learn the Policy on Academic Integrity and develop strategies for preventing and responding to plagiarism and cheating. Include all course policies on the syllabus and plan to review them with students on the first day of class.

Develop the course schedule. The tendency is nearly always to try to accomplish too much during each class period. Allow time for active learning to occur during class and for students to complete major assignments and prepare for exams. When preparing the schedule, consult the relevant academic calendars, and keep in mind major religious holidays and significant campus events (for example, Homecoming and Thurtene Carnival).

Write the course syllabus. At a minimum, the syllabus should contain the following: course title, time, and location; prerequisites; required texts and other materials; course topics; major assignments and exams; course policies on grading, academic integrity, attendance, and late work; and contact information for instructor and assistants to instruction (if applicable).

Refine the Course Design. Course planning is a continual process, as illustrated by the diagram below. Each of the steps is necessarily undertaken with the others in mind, and each will necessarily undergo revision each time you teach a particular course.

### **Q.3 What strategies a teacher can use in the classroom to motivate students?**

**Ans.**

#### **Strategies to Motivate Students in the Classroom**

Children, those with and without special needs, often suffer from a lack of motivation when it comes to learning. This lack of motivation can impact the students in the classroom in many ways. Developing strategies to address the student's lack of motivation is vital to school success. Motivation comes in two forms: intrinsic motivation and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsically motivated students are naturally motivated to do their work. Extrinsically motivated students are motivated by external rewards

#### **The following are some ideas for motivating students:**

Build relationships with your students. You will be able to better understand their learning needs and, therefore, tailor your instruction when you know more about your students. Showing a personal interest in your students will also inspire their trust in you and make it more likely that they will be open to learning new material without the fear of failure.

Use examples as often as possible. Many students want to see a finished product so that they fully understand what is expected of them. This will help them to be more confident as they learn new concepts thus increasing their motivation to learn.

When possible, hand over control to the student. If students have control they are much more likely to be committed to the lesson. Offer students choices of how the material will be presented and what type of activities they would like to engage in for reinforcement of the lessons. Ask the students for input regarding the methods by which they learn best. This will help you to offer differentiated instruction to the students that require different methodologies. It also helps the students to know that you care about them and are willing to do your part in their success.

Use all types of technology available to you. We are living in the age of technology and students are learning to use it at very early ages. Lessons presented to students via computers, Smartboards, Ipads etc will help even the most distractible student attend because they view these devices as something fun and “cool” as opposed to learning from books alone.

Provide specific praise to students for little things and big things. Display their work around the classroom and mention it to classroom visitors. Tell the students how proud you are of them when they learn a new concept that you know they had difficulty understanding. Recognize when one student does something kind for another student. Recognize the class when they have followed the classroom rules for a day or week. Send POSITIVE notes home to the parents and make sure that the student knows that you are doing so.

Set up a token or points system. Many students require external rewards for motivation. There are those that may think of this as “bribery” and thus, undesirable. The reality of it is that we all work for external rewards; we just call it a paycheck. Also, rewards give students something tangible to remind them of an accomplishment.

Show your creativity. The use of games as a reinforcer for learned material is fun for the students, especially if there is a prize at the end for the winners. Using visual aids such as colorful charts, diagrams and videos can be motivating. Create a classroom that is exciting by using posters, seasonal themes and displays of student work.

Establish Routines. Many students need to know what to expect when they walk into a classroom. This provides them comfort and a sense of control. When students feel comfortable and in control, they are much more motivated and open to learning.

Be Expressive and Smile. Greet the students with a smile everyday and tell them that you are glad to see them. When you appear happy and motivated then your students will respond in kind.

**Q.4 What is meant by inductive reasoning, provide examples regarding applicatoin of this method in classroom setting?**

**Ans-**

**Inductive Reasoning-**

Inductive reasoning, or inductive logic, is a type of reasoning that involves drawing a general conclusion from a set of specific observations. Some people think of inductive reasoning as “bottom-up” logic, because it involves widening specific premises out into broader generalizations

**What Is an Example of Inductive Reasoning?**

Here is a basic form of inductive reasoning, with a premise based on concrete data and a generalized conclusion:

1. All the swans I have seen are white. (Premise)
2. Therefore all swans are white. (Conclusion)

In this example, the conclusion is actually wrong—there are also black swans. This is what’s called a “weak” argument. However, it’s easy to make the conclusion stronger, by making it more probable:

1. All the swans I have seen are white. (Premise)
2. Therefore most swans are probably white. (Conclusion)

**3 Ways Inductive Reasoning Is Used**

Inductive reasoning is used in a number of different ways, each serving a different purpose:

1. We use inductive reasoning in **everyday life** to build our understanding of the world.
2. Inductive reasoning also underpins the **scientific method**: scientists gather data through observation and experiment, make hypotheses based on that data, and then test those theories further. That middle step—making hypotheses—is an inductive inference, and they wouldn’t get very far without it.

3. Finally, despite the potential for weak conclusions, an inductive argument is also the main type of reasoning in **academic life**.

## 6 Types of Inductive Reasoning

There are a few key types of inductive reasoning.

1. **Generalized**. This is the simple example given above, with the white swans. It uses premises about a sample set to draw conclusions about a whole population.

2. **Statistical**. This form uses statistics based on a large and random sample set, and its quantifiable nature makes the conclusions stronger. For example: “95% of the swans I’ve seen on my global travels are white, therefore 95% of the world’s swans are white.”

3. **Bayesian**. This is a method of adapting statistical reasoning to take into account new or additional data. For instance, location data might allow a more precise estimate of the percentage of white swans.

4. **Analogical**. This form notes that on the basis of shared properties between two groups, they are also likely to share some further property. For example: “Swans look like geese and geese lay eggs, therefore swans also lay eggs.”

5. **Predictive**. This type of reasoning draws a conclusion about the future based on a past sample. For instance: “There have always been swans on the lake in past summers, therefore there will be swans this summer.”

6. **Causal inference**. This type of reasoning includes a causal link between the premise and the conclusion. For instance: “There have always been swans on the lake in summer, therefore the start of summer will bring swans onto the lake.”

## What Is the Difference Between Inductive Reasoning and Deductive Reasoning?

Inductive reasoning is one of the two main types of reasoning that people base their beliefs on. The other is deductive reasoning, or what’s sometimes known as a syllogism.

An example of deductive reasoning is:

“All birds have feathers and swans are birds. Therefore swans have feathers.”

Logicians often prefer a deductive argument, because it produces rock-solid conclusions. However, this form of thinking is only useful in some, limited circumstances. Usually, it involves the opposite of generalizing, as it starts with

general principles and works progressively towards a specific conclusion. It is sometimes known as a “top-down” argument, in contrast to the “bottom-up” approach of inductive reasoning.

Instead of being weak or strong, deductive reasoning produces either a valid argument or an invalid one, based on whether the premises necessitate the conclusion.

### **Q.5 Summarize the main points bearing on the role of research project**

**Ans-**

Research articles use a standard format to clearly communicate information about an experiment. A research article usually has seven major sections: Title, Abstract, Introduction, Method, Results, Discussion, and References. Determine your focus. The first thing you should do is to decide why you need to summarize the article. If the purpose of the summary is to take notes to later remind yourself about the article you may want to write a longer summary. However, if the purpose of summarizing the article is to include it in a paper you are writing, the summary should focus on how the article relates specifically to your paper. Reading the Article Allow enough time. Before you can write about the research, you have to understand it. This can often take a lot longer than most people realize. Only when you can clearly explain the study in your own words to someone who hasn't read the article are you ready to write about it. Scan the article first. If you try to read a new article from start to finish, you'll get bogged down in detail. Instead, use your knowledge of APA format to find the main points. Briefly look at each section to identify:

- the research question and reason for the study (stated in the Introduction)
- the hypothesis or hypotheses tested (Introduction)
- how the hypothesis was tested (Method)
- the findings (Results, including tables and figures)
- how the findings were interpreted (Discussion)

Underline key sentences or write the key point (e.g., hypothesis, design) of each paragraph in the margin.

Although the abstract can help you to identify the main points, you cannot rely on it exclusively, because it contains very condensed information. Remember to focus on the parts of the article that are most relevant. Read for depth, read interactively. After you have highlighted the main points, read each section several times. As you read, ask yourself these questions:

- How does the design of the study address the research questions?
- How convincing are the results? Are any of the results surprising?
- What does this study contribute toward

answering the original question? • What aspects of the original question remain unanswered? Plagiarism. Plagiarism is always a risk when summarizing someone else's work. To avoid it: • Take notes in your own words. Using short notes or summarizing key points in your own words forces you to rewrite the ideas into your own words later. • If you find yourself sticking closely to the original language and making only minor changes to the wording, then you probably don't understand the study Writing the Summary Like an abstract in a published research article, the purpose of an article summary is to give the reader a brief overview of the study. To write a good summary, identify what information is important and condense that information for your reader. The better you understand a subject, the easier it is to explain it thoroughly and briefly. Write a first draft. Use the same order as in the article itself. Adjust the length accordingly depending on the content of your particular article and how you will be using the summary. • State the research question and explain why it is interesting. • State the hypotheses tested. • Briefly describe the methods (design, participants, materials, procedure, what was manipulated [independent variables], what was measured [dependent variables], how data were analyzed. • Describe the results. Were they significant? • Explain the key implications of the results. Avoid overstating the importance of the findings. • The results, and the interpretation of the results, should relate directly to the hypothesis. For the first draft, focus on content, not length (it will probably be too long). Condense later as needed.

Try writing about the hypotheses, methods and results first, then about the introduction and discussion last. If you have trouble on one section, leave it for a while and try another. If you are summarizing an article to include in a paper you are writing it may be sufficient to describe only the results if you give the reader context to understand those results. For example: "Smith (2004) found that participants in the motivation group scored higher than those in the control group, confirming that motivational factors play a role in impression formation". This summary not only tells the results but also gives some information on what variables were examined and the outcome of interest. In this case it is very important to introduce the study in a way that the brief summary makes sense in the larger context Edit for completeness and accuracy. Add information for completeness where necessary. More commonly, if you understand the article, you will need to cut redundant or less important information. Stay focused on the research question, be concise, and avoid generalities. Edit for style. Write to an

intelligent, interested, naive, and slightly lazy audience (e.g., yourself, your classmates). Expect your readers to be interested, but don't make them struggle to understand you. Include all the important details; don't assume that they are already understood.

- Eliminate wordiness, including most adverbs ("very", "clearly"). "The results clearly showed that there was no difference between the groups" can be shortened to "There was no significant difference between the groups".
- Use specific, concrete language. Use precise language and cite specific examples to support assertions. Avoid vague references (e.g. "this illustrates" should be "this result illustrates").
- Use scientifically accurate language. For example, you cannot "prove" hypotheses (especially with just one study). You "support" or "fail to find support for" them.
- Rely primarily on paraphrasing, not direct quotes. Direct quotes are seldom used in scientific writing. Instead, paraphrase what you have read. To give due credit for information that you paraphrase, cite the author's last name and the year of the study (Smith, 1982).
- Re-read what you have written. Ask others to read it to catch things that you've missed