CHAPTER II

A REVIEW OF THE RELATED LITERATURE ON SECOND LANGUAGE TEACHER EDUCATION
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The concept of second language teacher education is central to Jack C Richards’s volume in Beyond Training (1998). According to Richards, describing the scope or what has been called the knowledge base of second language teaching is not a new undertaking. Beginning two decades ago, Strevens (1976), Spolsky (1978) and Kaplan (1980), among others, proposed various models for the relationship between language teaching and the various disciplines that inform it, such as psychology, sociology and linguistics.

Stern’s book Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching (1983) presents a comprehensive summary of the work to date that bears on a general model of language teaching.

In the foreword, in Beyond Training, Richards made these assumptions about teacher education.

The delivery of teacher education programmes and activities was the key to success; Learning to teach was a by-product of good raw-materials—capable trainees and skilled trainers—solid designs in short- and long-term training programmes, and well-structured teacher-training materials.

For Richards, “delivery was thus synonymous with training and training meant teaching people how to do the work of teaching. Underlying the various surface aspects of delivery however lay a rich and complex process of learning to teach”.

With a focus on the learning process, Richards believed that “the shift in focus moved second language teacher education over what content to deliver and how to deliver it, to the more ambiguous questions of how the content of language teaching is learned, and how it can be taught most effectively”.

“To understand how to educate second language teachers, one must examine and ultimately understand not only the processes of teaching but also the thinking of the teacher (Freeman 1995). And one must examine how that thinking is learned. It is this focus on learning to teach that has pushed professional thinking beyond training to an examination of the full complexity of second language teacher education”.

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The focus was on how to educate people to teach second languages, and education was largely synonymous with training. Distinction was drawn between the content, that is, second language, and person of the teacher, on the one hand, and the process, that is education, on the other.

Until the second half of the 1980s, education was essentially defined as training or delivery of whatever we know or thought was important about teaching second languages. The complexities of how that knowledge of teaching might be learned or taught were not a central concern. Although some writers in the field had begun to conceive of a hierarchy of functions of teacher training, development and education (e.g., Freeman 1982; Larsen-Freeman 1983) interest in delineating how people learned to teach was highly widespread. By 1990 the emphasis in the phrase had begun to shift to second language teacher education. The distinction was then drawn between second language, as the content or subject matter, and the processes of teacher education, and within teacher education were included the allied processes of teacher training and teacher development.

Furthermore, the publication of Jack Richards and David Nunan's book *Second Language Teacher Education* (1990) marked a major opening in teacher education in the field, as the authors mentioned in their preface: “The field of teacher education is a relatively underexplored one in both second and foreign language teaching. The literature on teacher education in language teaching is slight compared with issues such as methods and techniques for classroom teaching” (p.xi).

Although this work marked a clear move toward examining teacher education in its own right, the notion that learning to teach might itself be a process worth examining and theorizing about has not yet fully taken hold. The relationship between the teaching of teaching and the learning of teaching was still to be examined.

Understanding teacher education presented one set of issues and understanding teacher learning presented another. And linking the two is indeed, a third area of work. In the past ten years, the work on understanding teacher education, its conditions, designs and processes has grown and indeed has flourished.

In terms of the phrase second language teacher education, decision of the areas of learning to teach has to encompass an examination of the person of the second language teacher, and how she or he thinks, and the process of education, and how she or he learns.
Beyond Training reflects a reorientation away from training as the primary focus of teacher preparation toward one that seeks a more holistic approach to teacher development, builds on the notion of the teacher as a critical and reflective thinker. By a training perspective, Richards meant a technical view of teaching which assumes that teaching can be defined in terms of a specified set of effective teaching practices and competencies, that these can be taught and tested, and that their application is sufficient to produce good second language teaching. Such competencies, or skills, are often identified with procedural or managerial aspects of teaching, such as lesson planning, rules and routines for classroom management, strategies for setting up grouping and seating arrangements, ways of opening and closing lessons, techniques for effective questioning, eliciting, and giving feedback.

NS Prabhu in an in depth discussion on Language Education: Equipping or Enabling? makes a distinction between two views of education, which he calls the 'equipping procedure' and 'enabling procedure', while making an enquiry in exploring the significance of that distinction for both language teaching and the training of language teachers.

An equipping procedure in education equips the learner with the knowledge, skill or pattern of behaviour envisaged as the educational target. It looks at achieving conformity and assesses success in those terms.

An enabling procedure in education is a process of developing the learner's capacity to extend and adapt what is learnt in the face of varied and emerging demands. It provides a broader base for further learning in response to a wider range of specific functions and also provides for divergence and regards ongoing change as part of its achievement.

The concepts of equipping and enabling are distinct and can contribute to pedagogic understanding as well as pedagogic action.

Similar distinctions have been made by Widdowson (1983:6) between 'training' and 'education', regarding training as a procedure of providing learners with a 'restricted competence to enable them to cope with certain clearly defined tasks', in contrast to education which provides learners with a general capacity to cope with undefined eventualities in the future.
While furthering the distinction of the 'equipping' and 'enabling' procedure in education, the author views formal education, the imposition and sanctioning of State syllabuses on predicted learning outcomes as 'equipping', which is in the sense restricted, and not focusing on general and unpredictable learning outcomes.

This is extended further to teacher-training, in determining teaching objectives, teaching content and teaching methods (which is an advantage to teacher training as it makes it possible to provide teachers with specific teaching skills and procedures needed to carry out the desired form of pedagogy), which in the author's view, relies on the prediction of classroom needs and the provision of specific techniques for meeting them, and is dictated or interpreted as equipping procedures in training. It looks at a teaching method as a laboratory procedure, guaranteed to yield predicted outcomes as long as it is carried out as specified. Such predetermined objectives and outcomes in training rarely targets and thus ignores unpredictability in any classroom situation as a context of human interaction and the role of teachers' perceptions about teaching and learning, and their interpretation of particular classroom situations based on what maybe called their general pedagogic competence and the level of their professional awareness.

The role of the teacher in any academic and educational system is paramount. In "Teachers in search of new perspectives" in a book entitled Learning: The Treasure Within, a report to UNESCO of the International Commission on Education for the Twenty-first Century (1996), much has been emphasized and demanded on the role of the teachers.

The report specified that "teachers have crucial roles to play in preparing young people not only to face the future with confidence but to build it with a purpose and responsibility. The new challenges facing education - to contribute to development to help people understand and to some extent come to terms with the phenomenon of globalization and to foster social cohesion - must be met from primary and secondary school onwards". The report also mentioned the influence teachers have in the "development of attitudes - positive or negative - to learning". Therefore, it is widely believed that "teachers can awaken curiosity,"
stimulate independence, encourage intellectual rigour and create the conditions for success in formal and continuing education”.

It has also been pointed out in the report that “the importance of the role of the teacher as an agent of change, promoting understanding and tolerance, has never been more obvious than today, it is likely to become even more critical in the twenty-first century. The need for change, from a narrow nationalism to universalism, from ethnic and cultural prejudices to tolerance and from a technologically divided world where high technology is the privilege of the few to a technologically united world, places enormous responsibilities on teachers who participate in the moulding of the characters and minds of the new generation”.

As a consequence, it was felt crucial to improve the quality of education. Yet again, improving the quality of education would greatly depend on “improving the recruitment, training, social status and conditions of work of teachers; they need the proper knowledge and skills, personal characteristics, professional prospects and motivation if they are to meet the expectations placed upon them”.

Hence it was equally realized that “the demand on teachers’ competence, professionalism and dedication impose on them an enormous responsibility”.

The relationship between teacher and learner is believed to be central to the teaching process. Since knowledge can be acquired in a variety of ways, the use of both distance learning and the new technologies in classrooms has proved to be effective. For the vast majority of learners however, particularly those who have not yet mastered the skills of thinking and learning, the teacher still remains an essential catalyst.
The Quality of Teachers

To cope with the rapid increase in the world school population, teachers have been recruited in large numbers. Since the quality of the teachers and their teaching is expected to be high, their importance therefore cannot be overemphasized. It is believed according to the report, that "it is at an early stage of basic education that the principal attitudes toward learning as well as the self image of the learner are formed. The role of the teacher at this stage is crucial. The greater the handicaps the children coming to school have to overcome - in terms of poverty, difficult social environment or physical impairments - the greater the demand of the teacher".

It has been highlighted that to be effective, a teacher "must draw upon a broad range of teaching skills, as well as on the human qualities of empathy, patience and humility, as a complement to authority. When a child's or adult's first teacher is poorly trained and poorly motivated, the very foundations on which all subsequent learning will be built will be unsound".

The Commission feels that "reasserting the importance of teachers in the basic education and improving teachers' qualifications are tasks to which all governments must address themselves. The measures needed to recruit future teachers from among the most motivated students, improve their training and encourage the best among them to take on the most difficult posts need to be determined in relation to the specific circumstances of each country: but such measures must be taken, since, without them it is unlikely that there will be significant improvements in the quality where they are most needed. Thus improving the quality and motivation of teachers must be a priority in all countries".

The Commission further suggested and identified some of the areas in which steps can be taken.

Recruitment: There was a felt need to improve the recruitment basis of the candidates especially candidates from diverse linguistic and cultural backgrounds to enter teaching.

Initial education: It was felt necessary to maintain closer links between universities and teacher training institutions for both future primary and secondary
school teachers. The ultimate goal should be higher education in cooperation with universities, for all teachers, but particularly for secondary teachers.

**In-service training:** Development of in-service programmes to allow frequent access to them by teachers in particular using appropriate communication technologies. Such programmes can at the same time serve to familiarize teachers with developments in information and communication technologies. In-service training is on the whole as effective as pre-service training if not more so in its effect on quality. It can use distant-education techniques thereby saving money and allow teachers to go on working at least part time and it can be an effective instrument for implementing reform or introducing new technologies or methods. In-service training need not take place solely within the education system: time spent in work or study in the economic sector could produce benefits in bringing knowledge and know-how closer together.

**Teacher educators:** Special attention should be paid to the recruitment and upgrading the skills of teacher educators so that they can fully play their roles in the ultimate renewal of educational practice.

**Supervision:** Inspection should be an opportunity not only to check on teachers performance but to maintain a dialogue with teachers concerning developments in knowledge, methods and sources of information. Thought should be given to ways of identifying and rewarding good teaching. It is essential to carry out practical, consistent and regular measurements of what pupils have learned. Emphasis needs to be placed on learning outcomes and teachers roles in achieving those outcomes.

**Management:** Reforms in management, aiming to ensure that schools have competent management personnel, can take the pressure of day-to-day management tasks off teachers shoulders and introduce a certain pooling of ideas about the aims and methods of teaching within specific settings. Certain auxiliary services such as those of social workers or educational psychologists are not a luxury and should be made available everywhere.
Participation by people from outside the teaching profession: Parents can be involved in the process of education in various ways as can people who have working experience in vocational subjects.

Conditions of work: Closer attention has to be paid to maintaining teacher motivation in difficult situations. To keep good teachers in the profession, salary and other conditions must be sufficiently attractive compared to other types of employment requiring comparable levels of training. Incentives to keep teachers in remote or particularly deprived areas are clearly a necessity if disadvantaged populations are not to be further disadvantaged by the lack of qualified teachers. Desirable as geographical mobility may be, postings should not be arbitrarily decided by central authorities. Mobility between teaching and other professions, for limited periods, could profitably be encouraged.

Teaching materials: "... materials, in fact, are an essential element within curriculum, and do more than simply lubricate the wheels of learning. At their best they provide concrete models of desirable classroom practice, they act as curriculum models, and at their very best they fulfil a teacher development role. (Nunan 1988)

The quality of good teacher training and teaching is dependent to a large extent on teaching materials, particularly textbooks. Curriculum renewal is a constant process that should involved teachers at the planning and development stages alike. The introduction of technology allows wider distribution of audiovisual materials and the use of information technology to introduce new knowledge, teach skills and evaluate learners progress holds out great promise. Communications technologies properly used, can make learning more effective and, provide an attractive way of accessing knowledge and skills which may not be readily available locally. Technology can help to bridge the gap between industrialized and non-industrialized countries and can assist teachers and learners to attain levels of knowledge and skills that would not otherwise be attainable. Good materials can help inadequately trained teachers both to improve their teaching skills and upgrade their knowledge.

The report further dwelt into “Learning what and how to teach”. It expressed that “the world in general is evolving so rapidly today that teachers, like most other professional groups, now must face the fact that their initial training will
not see them through their lives: they need to update and improve their own knowledge and techniques throughout their lifetime. A careful balance has to be struck between competence in the subject taught and competence in teaching.

In addition, the report felt that teacher training must encourage “a view of teaching that transcends the utilitarian and encourages questioning interaction and the consideration of several alternative hypotheses. One of the main functions of teacher education, both pre-service and in-service, is to equip each teacher with the ethical, intellectual and emotional wherewithal to develop the same range of qualities in their pupils, as society demands”.

Furthermore it was argued that “good quality training entails bringing trainee teachers into contact with experienced teachers as well as with researchers in their particular disciplines. Regular opportunities should be offered for practising teachers to learn through group-work sessions and through in-service courses. The reinforcement of in-service training, offered in as flexible a form as possible, can contribute a great deal to enhancing the skills and motivation of teachers, and improving their status. Given the importance of research into the qualitative improvement of teaching, teacher education should include a stronger component of training for research and linkages between teacher training institutions and universities should be further strengthened”.

Again, since teacher education tends to stand apart from other forms of training by isolating teaching from other professions, the report felt that this “state of affairs should be put right”. It further recommended that “opportunities should be created for teachers to carry out periods of work and co-operative activities outside the classroom so that the school becomes more closely related to the world of work for which the teacher is supposed to be preparing the pupils”. This, according to the report, is “expected to help overcome the problems created by the teachers having to prepare their pupils for the world of work, about which they themselves know little”.

_Favourable conditions for effective teaching:_ It was suggested that “For teachers to do a good job they must not only be trained but must receive adequate support. This implies, in addition to appropriate conditions and resources, a system of evaluation and supervision that helps diagnose difficulties and
overcome them and that uses inspection as a means of recognizing good teachers and encouraging it”.

It was clear that there were no easy answers to the different problems inherent in improving the quality of teachers, the teaching process and teaching content. It was recommended that “teachers deservedly need recognition for their endeavours in terms of their working conditions and status. They must be given the tools to carry out their various roles as well as possible. In return, their pupils and society as a whole are entitled to expect them to discharge their duties with dedication and a strong sense of their responsibilities”.

Byram (2004) while highlighting the basic elements in language teacher education curriculum asserted that language acquisition which is basically skills acquisition “deeply influences language teaching and teacher education”. He further stressed that “learning styles (Duda and Riley, 1990), learning strategies, attitudes, motivation, aptitude and social background play very important roles. Since skills acquisition depends on action, something has to be done with the language, and it has to be done in a meaningful context in order to begin to master it. It is also beneficial to reflect on what teachers’ have done while communicating, whether their actions have been effective or ineffective and why.

In addition, it is important to note that “learning vocabulary, pronunciation and functional grammar is invaluable for teacher and learner alike”. However, this will not ensure a fluent command of the language. To achieve fluency, “language has to be used meaningfully, in situations where problem-solving and compensatory strategies are required”. This “language awareness, i.e. the explicit knowledge about language and its learning and communicative use, is the hallmark of the teacher’s professionalism. On the basis of such awareness, teachers know that to help their learners acquire a second or foreign language, their methodology will have to focus on the performance by the learner of meaningful tasks in a communicative classroom where group work, pair work and individual work are deployed according to the nature of the tasks and in which there is ample time for reflection on learning and on communicative issues, by the teacher as well as the students”. (Ibid. p.605)
The psycholinguistic, linguistic, sociolinguistic and psychological insights as well as pedagogical knowledge and skills were believed to be the essence of the language teacher's professionalism.

In an essay ‘What Do Beginning Teachers Need To Know?’ David G Imig and Scott R Imig in the Journal of Teacher Education expressed the need to “… prepare teachers for the disparate conditions found on the educational landscape”. The authors shared some concerns in the international (American) schooling system where “public policy decisions, economic conditions, and the teaching profession itself have created two systems of schooling. One system values professionalism of teachers and believes education is broad in its definition. The other system offers a myopic focus on test scores and defines teaching as nothing more than content delivery. Schools of education must become agents of change by preparing teachers steeped in the realities of modern schools but aware of the power of an individual teacher to impart change”. (p 286).

Linda- Darling Hammond in an article ‘Constructing 21st Century Teacher Education’ in the Journal of Teacher Education, conveys that “…teachers need the skills to construct and manage classroom activities efficiently, communicate well, use technology, and reflect on their practice to learn from and improve it continually”.

The author goes on to articulate that the “…Standards of learning are now higher than they have ever been before, as citizens and workers need greater knowledge and skill to survive and succeed. Education is increasingly important to the success of both individuals and nations, and growing evidence demonstrates that among all educational resources -teachers’ abilities are especially crucial contributors to students learning”. (p 300).

In teacher education, the most prominent question that arises is ‘what’ knowledge for teaching do the teachers need. To emphasize on the core concepts and skills that should be represented in a common curriculum for teacher education, the National Academy of Education Committee on Teacher Education adopted a framework that is organized on three intersecting areas of knowledge found in many statements of standards for teaching.
• Knowledge of learners and how they learn and develop within social contexts, including knowledge of language development.

• Understanding of curriculum content and goals, including the subject matter and skills to be taught in light of disciplinary demands, student needs and the social purposes of education; and

• Understanding of and skills for teaching including content pedagogical knowledge and knowledge for teaching diverse learners, as these are informed by an understanding of assessment and of how to construct and manage a productive classroom.

In this context, teaching was seen as a profession with certain moral and technical expectations especially the expectation that teachers working collaboratively will acquire, use, and continue to develop shared knowledge on behalf of students. Like the work of other professions, teaching is believed to be in the “service of the students, which creates the expectation that teachers will all be able to come to understand how students learn and what various students need if they are to learn more effectively- and that they will incorporate this into their teaching and curriculum construction”.

Darling-Hammond asserted that “teachers cannot achieve ambitious goals by barreling from one lesson to the next without understanding how to construct a purposeful curriculum. Connecting what is to be learned to the learners themselves requires curriculum work even when teachers have access to a range of texts and materials. Teachers must be continually evaluated and reshaped based on whether it advances learning, rather than carried out largely by curriculum packages, scripts, and pacing schedules. This means that teachers need highly refined knowledge and skills for assessing pupil learning, and they need a wide repertoire of practice- along with the knowledge to know when to use different strategies for different purposes.” This has been represented in the illustrated diagram below.
PREPARING TEACHERS FOR A CHANGING WORLD
TEACHING AS A PROFESSION

Knowledge of learners & their development in social contexts
- Learning
- Human Development
- Language

Knowledge of Subject Matter & Curriculum Goals
- Educational Goals & purposes for skills, content, subject matter

Knowledge of Teaching
- Content Plus Content Pedagogy
- Teaching diverse learners
- Assessment
- Classroom Management

A Framework for Understanding Teaching and Learning
Source: Darling-Hammond & Bransford (2005, p.1)
The language teaching profession, like all of education, is faced with accountability issues that call for improved teacher development as a means of improving student learning. This renewed interest in the improvement of teaching seems to stem from the long overdue realization that, given good teaching, chances are learners will learn more.

The Coleman Report (1966) claimed that the greatest factors impacting a learner’s learning are those over which the institution has no control, such as family, economic status and social relations. The same report mentioned the role of teaching, claiming that, given the research results, the impact of teaching on learning was so low that it was not a variable worth considering. Based on such conclusions, efforts to improve education in recent decades have focused mainly on overcoming the exogenous factors pinpointed by the report, and have ignored the teaching quality.1

However, new research and procedures seem to indicate that teaching quality is not a minor variable at all, and that the better the teaching, the more likely quality teaching will occur (Walberg and Paik 2000; Marzano, Pickering, and Pollock 2001).

The outcome of the report thus indicated an emphasis on the need for professional development.

The search for a comprehensive approach to professional development became more urgent. Over the past 20 years, the teaching profession has seen a multitude of approaches to teacher development, but few have survived and yielded the expected results, and even fewer have managed to survive the initial enthusiasm for innovation. Fullan (1991: 197) warns that the “greatest problem faced by school districts and schools is not resistance to innovation, but the fragmentation, overload and incoherence resulting from the uncritical acceptance of too many different innovations.”

Darling-Hammond in ‘Assessing teacher education’2, stressed on the need for “productive strategies for evaluating outcomes” of teacher education. This

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1 Options for Teacher Professional Development – Gabriel H Díaz-Muggioli, April 2003/English Teaching Forum

she says is important for the improvement and even for the survival of teacher education. The expert from Stanford University described a set of research and assessment strategies used to evaluate programme outcomes in the Stanford Teacher Education Program (STEP) for the period of programme redesign.

In order to clarify doubts "about whether and how preparation influences teachers’ effectiveness, especially their ability to "increase student learning in measurable ways", a survey was developed. The survey targeted graduates to "track perceptions of preparedness across multiple dimensions of teaching and provide data about beliefs and practices and information about their career paths".

The author acknowledged limitations to self-reported data, particularly the fact that candidates’ feelings of preparedness may not reflect their actual practices or their success with students. However, this limitation was cleared as research finds significant correlations between these perceptions and teachers’ sense of self-efficacy as well as their retention in teaching (Darling-Hammond, Chung, & Frelow, 2002).

The article reported that "teachers who felt most prepared were most likely to adjust teaching based on student progress and learning styles, to use research in making decisions, and to have students set some of their own learning goals and assess their own work". It further added that "graduates who feel better prepared are significantly more likely to feel highly efficacious to believe they are making a difference and can have more effect on student learning than peers, home environment, or other factors".

To evaluate programme outcomes, a structured "Teacher Survey Factors" questionnaire was used to find out data on what candidates' feel they have learned in the programme.

Responses on a five-point scale to "how well do you think your teacher preparation prepared you to..." have been included in the items.

These items in the survey are determined by several factors. These include firstly, the design of curriculum and instruction, which finds out how well the training programme prepared teachers to organize subject matter for student learning, plan instruction and design learning experiences for all students. Secondly, it
examined the teacher-training programme’s preparedness in engaging and supporting diverse learners in terms of their behaviour, understanding, learning styles and problems. Thirdly, in assessing student learning it looks at how well the programme uses assessment to guide learning and teaching. The fourth factor deals with creating and maintaining effective environments for student learning and lastly, the survey looks at how well the programme enables the candidate to develop as a professional educator.

Through the redesigned of the Stanford Teacher Education Program (STEP), they were able to address a range of concerns that are perennial in teacher education. These included

- A lack of common vision across the program
- Unequal quality of clinical placements and supervision
- A fragmented curriculum with inconsistent faculty participation and inadequate attention to practical concerns such as classroom management, technology use and literacy development
- Limited use of effective pedagogical strategies and modelling in courses
- Little articulation between courses and clinical work; and
- Little connection between theory and practice.

Some of the programme’s framework is grounded in a view of teachers as reflective practitioners and strategic decision makers who understand the processes of learning and development— including language acquisition and development— and who can use teaching strategies to enable diverse learners to master challenging content.

Examining the beliefs and knowledge in education in general, Byram (2004) proposes some general statements that can be made about beliefs in general.

- Beliefs are evaluative, but factual. They often include anecdotal material, have different degrees of strength and unclear boundaries.
- They may be descriptive, prescriptive and have a cognitive component representing knowledge as an affective and behavioural component.
- They are mental constructs of experience often condensed into concepts that guide behaviour.
They are not observed or measured but inferred from what people say, intend or do.
They make an assertion about some matter of fact or principle or law. They involve people manipulating knowledge for a particular purpose.
They persist when they are no longer accurate representations of reality.
They vary along a central-peripheral dimension (the more central, the more they will resist the change).
The earlier they are incorporated into the belief structure, the more difficult they are to alter.

Distinctions have been drawn between teachers' educational beliefs and belief systems in general. Included in the educational beliefs are: teachers' beliefs about their role in affecting student performance, the nature of knowledge, causes of teacher/student performance, self-concept, self-efficiency and beliefs about specific subjects or disciplines (reading, instruction, whole language for instance). (p.611)

To further strengthen the issues about the teachers' knowledge and beliefs, Johnstone (2004), in *Language Teacher Education*, states that "if a reflective approach is to be beneficial, teachers must be able to reflect not only on what they and their students are doing but also on what they think they know, understand, believe and see. Language teacher education clearly has an important role in encouraging teachers to explore and refine their own belief systems". (p.662)

In relation to the thought-processes and overall psychology of teachers and trainees, Richards in "Exploring Teachers' Beliefs and the Processes of change" put forth the point that 'the nature of teacher change is crucial to the field of Second language teacher education'. It is with this motive and objective of gearing towards change that those who want to teach or join the teaching profession have to put their minds to.

The expert further stressed that 'since most of what we do in teacher education seeks to initiate change of one sort or another it is important to try to better understand the nature of change and how it comes about'. This 'change' is complex and multifaceted.
Bailey (1992) and Jackson (1992) pointed out that “change can refer to many things including knowledge, beliefs, attitudes, understanding, self-awareness, and teaching practices”.

Several assumptions about the nature of teacher change underlie current approaches to teacher professional development.

- Teachers’ beliefs play a central role in the process of teacher development;
- Changes in teachers’ practices are the result of changes in teachers’ beliefs;
- The notion of teacher change is multidimensional and is triggered both by personal factors as well as by the professional contexts on which teachers work.

These pointers above reflect a Bottom-up view of teacher change and not a Top-Down model which is often seen in traditional models of innovation, where change is viewed as the transmission of information from educators or policy makers to teachers (Darling-Hammond 1990).

Richards study was prompted by an interest in the kinds of beliefs teachers describe in relation to their practice and how they conceptualized their own process of teacher development. It therefore sought to clarify

- What core beliefs do language teachers hold about the processes of teaching and learning?
- How do teachers/trainees see their teaching as having changed over time?
- What were the sources of change?

The study of teachers’ beliefs forms part of the process of understanding how teachers conceptualize their work. In order to understand how teachers approach their work, it is important to understand the beliefs and principles they operate from. Constructivist theories of teacher development see the construction of personal theories of teaching as a central task for teachers. Such teachers are often resistant to change and serve as a core reference point for teachers as they process new information and theories (Golombek 1998, Roberts 1998).

Clark and Peterson (1986) proposed that
Resilient or 'core' teachers' beliefs are formed on the basis of teachers own schooling as young students while observing teachers who taught them. Subsequent teacher education appears not to disturb these early beliefs, not least, perhaps, because it rarely addresses them.

If teachers actually try out a new innovation which does not initially conform to their prior beliefs or principles and the innovation proves helpful or successful, then accommodation of an alternative belief or principle is more possible than in any other circumstance.

For the novice teacher, classroom experience and day-to-day interaction with colleagues has the potential to influence particular relationships among beliefs and principles, and, over time, consolidate the individual's permutation of them. Nevertheless it seems that greater experience does not lead to greater adaptability in our beliefs, and thereby, the abandonment of strongly held pedagogic principles. Quite the contrary on fact, the more experience we have, the more reliant on our “core” principles we have become and the less conscious we are doing so.

Professional development which engages teachers in a direct exploration of their beliefs and principles may provide the opportunity for greater self-awareness through reflection and critical questioning as starting points for later adaptation. The teachers' conceptualizations of, for example, language, learning, and teaching are situated within that person's wider belief system concerning such issues as human nature, culture, education, society and so on.

Researchers like Bailey (1992) and Golombek (1998) affirm the notion that changes in teachers' beliefs precede changes in their teaching practices. Similarly Hampton (1994) notes those teachers' beliefs or "personal constructs" determine how they approach their teaching. These beliefs may be quite general or very specific. Teachers' beliefs strongly affect the materials and activities they chose for the classroom.

Hampton believes that some of these core beliefs are changeable, but others are 'impermeable and difficult or impossible to change' (p.129)
Breen (1992) describes the core beliefs of a group of teachers who participated in a language learning experience and who reported on the practices they thought facilitated the learning of language (English). These are summarized in terms of nine principles.

1. Selectively focus on the form of the language
2. Selectively focus on vocabulary or meaning,
3. Enable learners to use the language Be appropriate,
4. Address learners’ mental processing capabilities,
5. Take account of learners’ affective involvement
6. Directly address learners’ needs or interests
7. Monitor learner progress and provide feedback
8. Facilitate learner responsibility or autonomy
9. Manage the lesson and the group.

Examining English language teachers’ beliefs, then, should therefore help to clarify how teachers change their approaches to teaching and learning over time.

Change is regarded as a major dimension of teachers’ professional lives. Both pre-service and in-service teacher education is normally dependent on the need to provide opportunities for thoughtful, positive change.

Pennington (1990) describes positive change as central to the professional life of a teacher. She comments that “a distinguishing characteristic of the notion of teaching as a profession is the centrality of career growth as an ongoing goal”.

Bailey (1992) examined 16 separate changes reported by 61 teachers.

- Teacher-centred classes were made more student-centred
- Use of more varied, authentic materials
- Focus on accuracy changes to communicative competence
- Lessen the explicit teaching of rules in grammar instruction
- Change in attitude
- Use of group work began, improved
- Increased use of tasks and student-generated projects
- Changes in procedures for teaching children

Approaches and methods play a crucial role in the development of a teacher’s skill and proficiency. However it is seen that mainstream approaches and methods help to gain a large amount of experience and practice from which much can be learned.

Approaches and methods can be studied and mastered
- To learn how to use different methods and approaches
- To understand some of the issues and controversies that characterize the history of language teaching
- To participate in language learning experiences based on different approaches and methods
- To appreciate how theory and practice can be linked from a variety of perspectives.

Teachers should be able to use approaches and methods flexibly and creatively based on their own experience. Training in the techniques and procedures is important for novice teachers as it prepares and helps them to face the learners with confidence. But as the teacher gains experience, he should be able to develop a personal method of teaching suited to his students need and one that uniquely reflects his own beliefs, values, principles and experiences. This adjustment and modification to the approaches and methods makes the teacher adaptable to the realities of the classroom. Following his personal approach, the teacher keeps in mind his role in the classroom, the difficulties the learners face, nature of effective teaching, successful learning activities and structure of an effective lesson.
All classroom practices reflect teachers’ principles and beliefs and difference in their beliefs explain explicitly why teachers conduct their classes in different ways.

Ravi Sheorey in *Learning and Teaching English in India* (2006) extensively writes about the beliefs of Indian students and college teachers about English language learning. In his book he explored the Indian Students’ Theories of Learning English as a Second language. He found that “..Students bring to the language classroom a variety of attitudes, experiences and strategies as well as a variety of beliefs or, what Hosenfeld (1978) aptly terms “mini theories” and Sigel (1990) defines as “mental constructions of experience.””(p.27)

Sheorey in his book, argued that ‘some students may believe, for example, that one cannot possibly master a second language without studying its grammar or acquiring as large a vocabulary as possible; others may believe that language learning means simply learning to translate from one’s native language; still others may believe that one cannot comprehend written materials in English unless one reads every word slowly and carefully. (p.27)

The author further maintained that “...while students’ beliefs about language learning are likely to affect the way they go about learning a second language, teachers’ beliefs about language learning are sure to guide the way they teach which, in turn, will affect student learning.’ (p.52)

Wenden (1999) thinks that these beliefs are part of second language learners’ consciously -or unconsciously- acquired knowledge base about learning in general and language learning in particular and that they constitute one of the variables which significantly influence second language acquisition. (p.28)

Sheorey further argues that ‘such thinking is consistent with research findings in cognitive psychology (e.g., Bandura, 1986; Nespor, 1987), which point to the critical role beliefs play in learning new tasks and in guiding behaviour in general. With regard to beliefs about language learning specifically, Richards and Lockhart (1994, pp.52-55) suggest that second language learners have very clear-cut opinions about the language they are learning and cite the following examples of learner beliefs:

*English is more difficult to learn than other languages*
You need to know a lot of idioms to be good in speaking English.

It is not useful to try and remember grammar rules.

You need to practice every day to improve your English.

Such student beliefs, says Horwitz (1987, p.119), “have varying degrees of validity and numerous origins...[such as] students’ previous experiences as language learners [or their cultural backgrounds]” (p. 119).

Whatever the origins of the beliefs students have, research indicates that beliefs play an important role in second language achievement. For example, Ehrman and Oxford (1995) report a strong correlation between believing that one can learn languages well and proficiency in both speaking and reading, and Wen and Johnson (1997, p. 40), who found a strong relationship between beliefs, strategies, and English achievement among their Chinese subjects, suggest that “teachers and material writers need to be aware of, and sensitive to, students’ pre-existing assumptions about the language learning process.”(p.28)

Prof. Verma in his lecture titled ‘The teaching of English in India: Focus on Functions and Objectives’ (1994) indentified the importance of the three concepts of English’, ‘teaching’, and ‘functions’.

He notes that English is used by a majority of English –based bilinguals and multilinguals in the Indian socio-cultural setting as an intranational associate official language, an intranational associate link language, an international link language, a supplementary language...and as a language which is being constantly moulded and shaped to express, expound and interpret the Indian tradition: that is our perception of culture, civilization, religion, science and our way of thinking and feeling presenting a fascinating picture of ‘English and the major languages of India in contact’ followed by the surfacing of contrastive features leading on to the convergence of ideas and ideals, experiences and ideologies typical of India and the Western world. This has led to an intense creative interaction between the major Indian languages and English in the multilingual, multicultural, multiethnic, and multireligious setting of India generating new Englishes.

‘Teaching’ means a set of processes and strategies designed to facilitate human resource development. Teaching is a process of creating a learner friendly
environment encouraging learners to externalize their built-in system—capturing and system-using ability. One of the salient features of this approach is that teachers are learners and learners are teachers. Teaching cannot and should not be viewed as a process of pumping knowledge from full vessels into empty vessels. Knowledge does not mean just information derived from books. Learning ...is a process of growth, of maturation triggered by a network of interactions between the complex system of the human mind and the physical and social world. Learners are active participants in teaching-learning activities. Teaching—learning activities help learners and teachers draw out their built-in generative power, experience the joy of adventure and discovery and strengthen whatever creative impulse they may possess.

The message for teachers as learners is that “knowledge emerges only through invention and reinvention, through the restless, impatient, continuing, hopeful inquiry men pursue in the world, and with each other” (Freire, p 46). They should remember that “knowledge is produced in response to questions, and new knowledge results from the asking of new questions about old questions”.

The author further examines the third concept ‘functions’ which he refers to two interrelated notions—a functional approach to the teaching of English in India and the networking of three sub concepts ‘status’, ‘roles’ and ‘functions’ in the context of teaching and learning English and the major Indian languages. All the major languages of India have the status of ‘national language’. Hindi has in addition, the status of official language and English as ‘associate official language’ at the national level. It is the multilingual setting that assigns roles to the languages in contact. Each role represents a cluster of functions: English has been assigned the role of a second language. The major function which was assigned to English as the primary medium of instruction and examination—has been taken over by the Indian languages. English however continues to function as: a language of wider communication (national & international); a reference language or library language; a language of upward socio-economic mobility and development; a language of all—India services, workshops, seminars, and conferences; a language of legal and banking systems; and as the associate medium of instruction. English functions as a ‘service language’, promotes intellectual and cultural awareness of the contemporary world we live in, and provides the ‘information content’ necessary for modernization of our country and also of our languages.
"A functional approach to language" according to MK Halliday (1973, p7) means ...investigating how language is used; trying to find out what are the purposes that language serves for us, and how we are able to achieve these purposes through speaking and listening, reading and writing”.

In India, “the teaching of English as a secondary language, is the process of creating English using bilinguals ...and the problems involved and the principles underlying this process are different from those relating to the teaching of English to native speakers of English “(Catford, 1964, p138). The point that we must realize is that the Anglo- American perception of ‘speech acts’, ‘functions’ and ‘authenticity’ are far removed from our multilingual setting. We must redefine these notions on the context of our socio-cultural and linguistic setting.

In order to make the teaching and learning of English as a second language in India meaningful and goal-oriented we should find answers to the following questions:

i. Who are the users of English?
ii. Do all of them need the same degree of competence in English?
iii. Are all the learners who come to the tertiary level prepared to receive instructions in English?
iv. Can and should we say that we have two sets of unrelated courses – literature courses and language courses?
v. Should we have a variety of need-based courses?
vi. What are the motivations for learning a second or foreign language?
vii. What are the regulators of language choice and language ordering in a multilingual country?
viii. Why do particular individuals in particular contexts want to learn English?
ix. How do they go about learning it?

Prof Verma further conveyed that ‘learners must acquire three kinds of communicative competence; interactional competence, the ability to interact appropriately with individuals and institutions; discoursal competence, the ability to form and interpret texts and also the ability to understand, appreciate and make use of strategies offered by ‘intertextuality’; linguistic competence, the ability to explore and exploit the phonological, syntactic and lexico-semantic resources of language to
encode and decode messages and experiences and also the ability to make linguistically and socio-culturally motivated choices and put them together.

In order to help our learners acquire different levels and types of competence in English we must recognize our syllabuses, keeping in view the roles and functions assigned to English and the needs of learners, bring out new types of teaching and testing materials (in print, audio and video) in order to help learners change their linguistic gears according to the roles they play, introduce methods of teaching that are learner-friendly, and organize a variety of teacher-development programmes designed to make the teachers in service familiar with the philosophy underlying the approach and show how these materials are to be presented. What we must keep in mind is that exposure to a rich variety of linguistic and socio-cultural material with its focus on what to say when and how is of paramount importance in second language learning for learning English in India is a process of how to mean in Indian setting.

The debate on literature and language indicated that the author is ‘not in favour of drawing an artificial line marking off literature from language, for language draws its life-giving nourishment from literature and literature uses language as its vehicle’. The way is therefore open for a realistic consideration of the role of literature in language teaching and the role of language in literature teaching. The questions to be answered are what kind of literature do our learners need at different levels? How should literature be taught at the Pass, Honours, MPhil and PhD levels? The reading of literary texts in the original can be an exhilarating and exciting experience and a powerful stimulus to further efforts provided learners have the linguistic competence to capture ‘the real thing’ which always lies deeply embedded in layers of language. Their exposure to some of the best pieces of prose and poetry can help them explore the limitless abundance of language.

It may be useful to explore the possibility of organizing new programmes in English with the concept of a ‘core course’ or ‘foundation course’ at different levels reinforced by inter-related, need-based courses such as English for Science and Technology, English for Special Purposes, English for Academic purposes, English for Office purposes, and English for announcers, interpreters and reporters.

The departments of English at colleges and universities have to be prepared to respond to the demands of the general public: to organize courses in English for communication at different levels including courses in Spoken and Written English, Courses in English for late-developers -for those who decide to learn functional
English after the age of twenty. The course fee can help the department generate resources which can be used for developmental purposes— for enriching their library, for setting up a resource centre equipped with teaching tools and reading materials. Most importantly, there should be expertise in teaching with well-qualified and trained teachers of English for specific programmes to foster development in different English courses/programmes.

Another crucial observation by the author was that 'the ultimate objective of a programme should be to help learners acquire not only context-governed and syllabus-bound competence in English but to attain that level of sociolinguistic competence which will enable them to use it with confidence in a variety of situations.

The overall review has made significant revelations about the various studies that have been undertaken by experts and researchers in the field of education, particularly second language teacher education. Much has been emphasized about the importance of the quality of the teacher, the role of the teacher and the importance of examining teacher training outcomes besides others. Similarly, the concept of 'belief' which is included in the vocabulary of understanding the teacher's and learner's teaching and learning process, has been clearly highlighted in this review.

Based on the findings of similar and related studies undertaken in the international and national teacher education scenario, the investigator thus consider it significant to carry out a similar study and to look at these aspects of the teacher training programmes within the region of the East Khasi Hills district. It is hoped that the findings can bring about a better understanding of the English Language teaching situation in the region in particular and the state of Meghalaya and North East India in general.
Works Cited


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