Chapter 3

Theoretical Underpinnings

3.1 Introduction

The previous chapter reviewed the related literature and examined the major concepts like teacher education, curriculum, English language curriculum at primary level, teacher education curriculum and curriculum evaluation which are linked with the present study. In the light of the reviewed literature, the current chapter tries to establish the theoretical framework for the present study.

This chapter begins by examining the general models of L2 learning. Following that, the major theories of teacher education and teacher development are studied. In the third part, the chapter examines the theory of Andragogy and states the various principles associated with adult learning. Towards the end, the chapter reviews the concept of evaluation of the teacher education curriculum and reviews some of the prominent models of curriculum evaluation which gave insights to the researcher to develop his model of curriculum evaluation. At the end of each section, the implications for the current study have been discussed briefly.

3.2 General Models of L2 Learning

The following sub- sections examine some of the important models and approaches of learning language which are discussed in Cook (2008). They include
Universal Grammar Model, processing models, and Socio-Educational Model, the Interaction Approach, socio-cultural theory and multi-competence L2 user approach.

3.2.1 Universal Grammar Model

Chomsky was the first person to talk about the Universal Grammar (UG) model. This model claims that we have a grammar in our mind and that consists of the universal principles of language which helps us to know why a sentence is right or wrong. It helps us to understand the parameters of languages. As the principles and parameters are built into the human mind, learners do not need to learn it. They need to learn only the parameter setting which helps them to understand the differences in order of sentences across the languages. And to set the value of the parameters, they need to be exposed to samples of languages. This exposure may be called the input.

A child applies the principles to the input he gets and sets right value for each parameter while learning first language. In UG model of language learning, all that is important for a child is language input. This language input becomes evidence on which the learners base their knowledge of language. Positive evidences or the actual sentences that learners hear show them the rules of language i.e. pattern of S V O in a sentence. So, it is clear that input in the shape of structured interaction is the driving force in First Language Acquisition in UG model. Negative evidences can also be used to know what does not occur in second language provided the grammar of learners’ first language and second language should be alike. So far as second language classroom is concerned, correction of learners’ grammatical errors happens frequently and they get grammatical explanations as another source of evidence, which does not occur in first language.
acquisition. Parents never get worried about the grammatical mistakes in the first language of their child. Rather, they give importance to meaning.

UG model says that every learner has universal grammar in his/her mind. So, this grammar teaching should not be done in classrooms. A teacher should focus on those aspects of language which are not acquired automatically by the learners. Thus, a teacher has very little to do in L2 classroom and that is to give data which can be used to set value of parameters.

Many SLA researchers regard UG model as powerful account of second language learning as it brings to light important phenomena like pro-drop parameter that has close relevance to L2 learning.

Chomsky revised the basis of the UG model and named it Minimalist program. According to this, all language learning is now reduced to the learning of the properties of vocabulary.

3.2.2 Processing Models

These models of language learning say that it is not sufficient to have sheer universal grammar in mind. It is important to know how language is used. So, it is clear that these models oppose the UG model. These models see language in terms of dynamic processing and communication rather than as a static knowledge. Brian MacWhinney’s Competition Model (cited in Cook, 2008) is one of these models which say that speaker’s communication has to be achieved through four aspects of language like word order, vocabulary, word forms, and intonation. These aspects of language compete with each
other for the same space in the mind. So, this is called competition model. This model deals with some performance processes and it is related to behaviorist tradition which claims that language learning comes from outside rather than from inside the mind. It believes in input from others, interaction and correction.

Under this category comes the Connectionism theory by Rumelhart and McClelland (1986; cited in Cook, 2008), which sees learning as establishing large number of connections in the mind. It says that language learning does not happen in step by step manner; rather many things are processed simultaneously.

Another important model under this category is the information-processing model by McLaughlin (cited in Cook, 2008) which claims that learning starts from controlled processes and becomes automatic gradually. Learning driving is the best example of this model.

All models and theories under processing models give completely opposite assumption to UG model saying that language is learnt by the same general principles of learning as everything else. Emphasis on practice as the key to L2 learning is the main teaching application of these approaches.

### 3.2.3 Socio-Educational Model

Yet another complex view of L2 learning is the socio-educational model by Robert Gardener (1985, 2007; cited in Cook, 2008). This model explains how the individual factors and general feature of society interact in L2 learning. The main claim of the model is that L2 learning usually takes place in a social situation or society where
people interact with each other and the language has its function within that society.

Gardner opines that motivation and ability are two main ingredients for the success of the learners in learning language. Motivation includes two chief factors like attitudes to the learning situation and integrativeness-how the learner regards the culture of the second language. And ability means how good the learner in acquiring the second language is. Gardner has developed an instrument Attitude Motivation Test Battery (AMTB) to measure the above mentioned factors of L2 learning.

As per the socio-educational models, crucial factors of learning L2 are how the learner regards the speakers of a second language, how highly s/he values L2 learning in the classroom, and the ability of the learner to learn a language. These models mainly apply to language teaching for social and local goals.

### 3.2.4 The Interaction Approach

As per the belief of the interaction approach, conversation with other people is the key to acquiring a language. In 1960s, research showed that direct correction is very rare in child-mother conversation; still the child acquires the language. So, emphasis on grammar correction is less important than interaction. This approach also says that only input is not sufficient, the learner has to interact with the situation to learn the language. Mike Long (1996; cited in Cook, 2008) said that SLA depends upon profiting from conversation which makes concessions to the learner through the process of topic clarification and repair. This view of Long became the interaction hypothesis.

Negotiation of meaning is the central concept of the interaction approach. To do this, they make use of tricks/moves like repetition, confirmation, clarification requests,
comprehension checks etc. Along with these common conversational moves, teaching involves some other moves like recast and direct correction. These are specific to teaching situation.

The drawback of the interaction approach is that there is still very little proof of the importance of the interaction in second language learning. Still it is not clear how crucial it is compared to all other factors in the complexities of second language learning even if it is known that interaction is very important for learning. The interaction approach to teaching has been seen as encouraging the teachers to interact with the students in the classroom.

**3.2.5 Socio-Cultural Theory**

Socio-cultural theory has been an influential model since 1990s. This theory emphasizes the importance of interaction from a different perspective. It is inspired by Vygotsky who perceives a potential gap between the child’s actual developmental stage when measured individually, and their stage when measured by tasks involving cooperation with other people. This gap is called *Zone of Proximal Development* (ZPD) by Vygotsky. He defines it as the distance between actual developmental level of an individual in independent problem solving and potential development as determined through problem solving under somebody’s guidance or cooperation. Here, he wants to say that this gap is bridged by assistance from others. This social assistance is called scaffolding here. This theory makes it clear that a child’s language acquisition is scaffolded by the helpful adult who provides continuous support to the child’s internalization of the language. This process is called *Language Acquisition Support*
System (LASS). This concept stands against Chomsky’s Language Acquisition Device (LAD). LASS has some teaching implications in structured situations in the classroom in which the learners co-operate with the teacher or fellow learners.

**3.2.6 Multi-competence L2 User Approach**

Multi-competence means the knowledge of more than one language in the same mind (Cook 2008). Almost all the models of learning have regarded the L2 learning as inefficient as the learners seldom reach the level comparable to the L1 child. As per those models nobody can be a native speaker of another language other than mother tongue. But these views seem to have neglected the fact that goal of second language acquisition is bilingualism. Here comes the relevance of multi-competence which refers to the overall knowledge of first language and the L2 interlanguage. This model develops the implications of this for second language acquisition. This model gives us some facts regarding second language acquisition and those are the main essences of the model. The fact is that L2 users’ knowledge of the second language is not the same as that of native speakers. Many people strive hard in vain to speak like natives. The second notion this model puts forth is that there is a difference between the knowledge of L1 that an L2 user possess and the knowledge of the same language that a monolingual native speaker possess. This view argues that second language has some effect on the learner’s first language. The third fact is that L2 users think in different ways when compared to monolinguals. So, it can be concluded that learning of another language changes people in many ways. (Cook 2008)
As L2 users we do not just pass for native speakers, but express the unique status as people who can function with two cultures. Here multi competence approach states that achievement of the L2 learners should be the goal of second language teaching. Attempts should be made to make systematic use of first language in second language classroom.

3.2.7 Implications for the Current Study

The current second language teacher education curriculum in the primary teacher training programmes takes a constructivist view towards education and views second language teachers as facilitators and co-constructors of the knowledge who provide language support to the students and scaffold them in the process of language acquisition. A second language classroom is expected to provide input rich environment for the learners to develop and acquire language. Teachers are expected to be competent enough in the language and good communicators so that they can interact effectively with the learners and assist the learners in the process of language acquisition. Second language teachers have to use variety of authentic materials in the language classroom which would provide adequate exposure to the learners in the target language.

Kerala curriculum framework 2007 (which is modelled on NCF 2005) recommends communicative approach to be followed in the primary classes and cognitive interactionist approach to be followed in the upper primary classes. The English curriculum of the D.Ed course has to take the recommendations of the KCF into consideration and design the curriculum to make the trainees familiar with the various principles of the communicative and cognitive interactionist approaches and how to make
use of these approaches in their classrooms. The curriculum also has to provide opportunities to the trainees to develop their own competency in the language. NCF 2005 and NCFTE 2009 have emphasized the language competency of second language teachers. NCFTE 2009 has recommended components in the teacher training curriculum that focuses on developing the language proficiency level of the student teachers. This language proficiency development component is expected to give training to the trainees in “using the language in different contexts, meta-linguists awareness with a focus on listening, speaking, reading, comprehension and writing for varying contexts” (NCTE, 2009, p.36).

The researcher, in the present evaluative study of the revised English curriculum of the D.Ed course, has tried to analyse whether the revised curriculum has followed the guidelines given in NCFTE 2009, NCF 2005 and KCF 2007 regarding the second language teacher education curriculum. The researcher, as a part of his evaluative study:

- analyses the approach followed in the teacher training classes and studies whether the curriculum is giving training to the trainees in using communicative and cognitive interactionist approaches in their classes
- examines whether the curriculum has included language proficiency development components for the trainees
- analyses whether the trainees are given exposure and training in using various authentic materials in their language classroom

Various questions which collect the feedback of the trainees and teacher educators regarding the inclusion of adequate components to develop the LSRW skills of the
trainees, the training given to them in using language in different contexts and the exposure given to them in the use of authentic materials in the classroom have been included in the research tools.

### 3.3 Theories of Teacher Education and Teacher Development

The various theories related to teacher education and development have their roots situated in different anthropological, philosophical and psychological traditions. This section examines the various theories from which teacher education practices in various periods of their development derived their major principles. The intention behind this section is to locate the theory that defines the current practice in teacher training and relate it to the teacher training scenario (especially at primary level) in India and Kerala.

#### 3.3.1 Behaviourism

Behaviourism is a philosophy upon which the science of the experimental analysis of behaviour is based. It questions the idea of ‘free will’ and notes that there is no independent decision/behaviour that is made by an individual as a result of his/her free thinking. All the behaviour shown by a particular individual is the result of/determined by his or her environment (Good and Brophy, 1990). The stimulus that the individual receives results in behaviours. This philosophy believes that learning “takes place when external stimuli beneficial to the person reinforce behaviours” (Roberts, 1998, p.13). In the process of curriculum design, following this philosophy, a target behaviour is sub-divided into discrete sub-behaviours which the learners are expected to master step by step (Roberts, 1998).
3.3.1.1 Behaviourism and Teacher Education

As per the behaviourist thought, teaching is viewed as a set of skills to be mastered. Teaching is conceived as a craft according to this view. The implication of this view for teacher training can be summarized as follows:

a) Teaching is a set of skills or discrete elements that should be memorized or practiced.

b) The trainee is a passive absorber of the skills used by the master teacher/trainer.

c) Learning happens when trainees practice and reproduce (without errors) what they have learned from the master trainer.

d) Teaching is a craft just like any other craft and it can be mastered through practice.

The teacher preparation programmes of the 1950’s and 60’s were dominated by this view and they characterized teachers as operative or employee. The teachers were expected to follow the requirement of a centralized or authoritarian system which considered that knowledge about teaching should be transmitted from above and from outside experts (Dewey, 1938; cited in Roberts, 1998 & Day, 1999). The applied science model (Wallace, 1991) is grounded on the principle of behaviourism. The classical microteaching of 1960’s and 1970’s competency–based teacher education model followed the principles of behaviourism.

3.3.1.2 Criticism against Behaviourist Teacher Education Models

The teacher education practices based on behaviourist theory ignores the experiences and knowledge of individuals as well as the socio-cultural context of school
settings. Roberts (1998) mentions the limitations of the teacher education models situated on behaviourist theory:

- training to enact behaviours fail to address the appropriate use of these behaviours: skill lies in knowing when and with which students to use a ‘behaviour’ such as peer correction or mime; training should therefore complement skill practice with the analysis of classroom situations and choices teachers make;
- exposure to single model of teaching perpetuates the fiction that there is one best way to teach, prevents exposure to alternative teaching strategies and the exploration of the conditions under which these alternatives might be appropriate;
- behavioural imitation fails to develop planning and self-evaluation skills
- model-based training ignores individual differences in student-teachers’ beliefs, values and experiences;
- The craft knowledge of the master teacher is built from his past experience and it may become obsolete if the goals of language instruction change;
- Model-based training is inflexible: it only equips teachers for the conditions assumed by the initial training; if circumstances of curriculum objectives change and the ITE routines cease to be appropriate, teachers may lack the tools to cope with new teaching demands;
- modelled teaching behaviours may not transfer to culturally different settings because their meaning is not the same (e.g. strong eye-contact between
teacher and pupil may signal attention in one culture but defiance in another).

(pp. 16-17)

### 3.3.2 Humanistic Theory

The advocates of humanistic theory believed that feelings and emotions play a pivotal role in the process of language learning. The theory emphasized free will and creativity as major agents that determines and enhances the learning process. It supports the autonomy of the learners and believes that motivation to learn is intrinsic.

#### 3.3.2.1. Humanistic Theory and Teacher Education

In teacher education, humanistic theory opposes the behaviouristic model and stresses that learners are autonomous and learning must be internally determined. Roberts (1998) says that humanistic theory “views positive teacher-learner relationships as necessarily co-operative, with the teacher serving to facilitate development and not to control it as if s/he were a master puppeteer” (p.20). He reviews the opinions of experts in the field (Day et. al., 1987; Cline et. al., 1990; Elliott, 1991; Turney et. al., 1982; Smyth, 1987; Diamond, 1988; Easen, 1985; Rudduck, 1988; all cited in Roberts, 1998) of humanistic theory and points out the following features which have emerged in initial teacher education as a result of the humanistic view:

- recognition of the need to respected teacher’s personal autonomy when system-wide change is introduced in the curriculum
- adaptation of counseling models to intervention with experienced teachers
- partnership relationships between supervisors and student teachers in ITE
• the notion of ITE as process of self-realization
• a recognition of the emotional dimension to personal change and therefore of teachers’ needs for support. (p.20)

In teacher education curriculums, the humanistic perspective recommends and highlights “the need for skills which enable self-directed development” (Roberts, 1998, p.20) of the student teachers. This view promotes teacher self-help groups and self-directed learning among teachers as solutions to tackle the lack of in-service teacher education programmes.

3.3.3 Constructivism

Constructivism is a view of learning that suggests that learners create their own knowledge based on their previous experience and their social interaction. Williams and Burden (1997) mention about the core principles of constructivism and says that people “will make their own sense of the ideas and theories with which they are presented in ways that are personal to them ….. each individual constructs his or her own reality” (p.2). Similar views can be seen discussed in Cobb & Bowers (1999), Geary (1995), Bruning et. al., (2004); all cited in Schunk (2012). Some central assumptions behind constructivism are:

➤ Constructivism highlights the interaction of persons and situations in the acquisition and refinement of skills and knowledge (Cobb & Bowers, 1999; cited in Schunk, 2012, p. 231)

➤ People are active learners and they construct the knowledge for themselves (Geary, 1995; cited in Schunk, 2012, p. 231)
Teachers should not teach in the traditional sense of delivering instruction to a group of students. Rather, they should structure situations such that learners become actively involved with content through manipulation of materials and social interaction. (Schunk, 2012, p. 231)

The goal of constructivism is to produce disequilibrium and cognitive conflict in the learner so that successful accommodation can take place. Roberts (1998) discusses the learning cycle under a constructivist view.

- A learner filters new information based on his or her expectations and the prior knowledge of the world.
- A new meaning is constructed based on the input/new information that the learner received.
- The meaning which the learner has constructed is matched with previous internal representation which is present in learners mind.
- If the new meaning matches with the internal representation already available with the learner, the learner maintains the meaning presently constructed and this process is known as assimilation.
- In case there is a mismatch between the new information and the internal representation already available with the learner, then learner revises his/her representation of the world to incorporate the new information. This process is termed as accommodation.

So constructivism proposes that learners are always engaged in the process of constructing and testing their own representations based on the inputs they receive and they engage in either assimilation or accommodation.
3.3.3.1 The 5E Model of Constructivism

The 5E model is an education model whose basic philosophy is rooted on the principles of constructivism. The 5E’s in this model denoted engage, explore, explain, elaborate and evaluate. The 5E model is now recommended by all the modern curriculum frameworks and it can be used with learners belonging to all age groups including adult learners. In the ‘engage’ phase of this model, the learners are initiated into the materials and the teacher tries to make connection between the past and the present learning experiences of the learners through an entry level activity. Probing questions are posed before the learners to engage them with the concepts and the learners are mentally engaged. In the explore phase, learners explore their environment and make meanings from the materials provided to them. Teamwork is used as an effective strategy at this phase to share and build the knowledge base of the learners. In the ‘explain’ phase, the learners are given chance to define and explain the concepts they have explored.

Teachers, in this phase, scaffold the learners and provide information to connect the missing links in learners’ explanation and also introduce formal terms, definitions, explanation of concepts, etc. In the ‘elaborate’ phase, the learners are given opportunities to practice skills and behaviours so that their conceptual understanding is reinforced. In the ‘evaluate’ phase, the learners are encouraged to assess their understanding of the concepts and the teachers evaluate the learners to assess their understanding. The results obtained from this phase provide information regarding the need to modify the instruction or to provide additional support to the learners.
3.3.3.2 Constructivism and Teacher Education

Many authors (ex. Kaufman, 1996; Kroll and LaBosky, 1996) have stressed the significance of constructivist approaches in the teacher training setup that engage the trainee teachers in collaborative activity, interdisciplinary exploration, reflection, experiential learning and self-examination. Poplin (1993) explains three principles of constructivism in the context of education which is also applicable in the context of teacher education:

a) Learners engage in the process of meaningful social interaction and they construct their own knowledge. Wright (2000) considers ‘talk’ as the fuel of teacher development and teacher trainees have to engage in meaningful interaction which will in turn help in their development.

b) Learners transform new experiences through what they already know. Trainee teachers filter the new knowledge that they get through their prior knowledge and experience.

c) Learning is self-regulated and thereby self-preserving. True learning occurs only when one wants to learn.

Richardson (1997; cited in Yost, Sentner & Forlenza – Bailey, 2000) refers to two basic interpretation of the constructivist theory: Piagetian psychological constructivism and social cognition. Piagetian psychological constructivism says that teacher trainees bring notions about teaching to their teacher education which need to be adjusted or altered completely through specific tasks that pose dilemmas (cognitive conflicts) for them. Social cognition consists of two approaches: situated cognition and socio cultural cognition. Theories of situated cognition (Brown, Collins, & Duguid, 1989) view
learning as contextualized. Learning and instruction should represent the context in which the learning is to be applied. Socio-cultural cognition says that individuals interact with the social environment and this interaction transforms knowledge in the context of the social environment. The interaction initiates change both in the individual as well as in the environment. The focus of constructivism is thus on meaningful and integrated learning. This approach to language teacher education as Roberts (1998) mentions is the one defined as *person-centred* as opposed to the *knowledge-centred* approach.

Sawyer (2006) mentions that teacher trainees need deep conceptual understanding of complex concepts and the ability to work with them creatively. This will in turn help to generate new ideas, new theories and new knowledge. Teacher trainees need to critically evaluate what they read and to form their own ideas and express them clearly.

The implication of the constructivist view in an initial teacher education programme is summarized by Roberts (1998). He says that the teacher education programmes following a constructivist view:

- would anticipate the student teachers diverse expectations from the training programme
- would accept that the personal theories that each student teachers bring to the training class have to be considered
- would justify “space in the curriculum to develop self-awareness and also to explore each students’ interpretations of input and their own classroom experiences” (p. 26)
- acknowledge the fact that “student-teachers’ thinking is likely to be influenced by knowledge of learners’ perspectives” (Kagan, 1992; cited in Roberts, 1998, p. 26)
would suggest mentoring for novice teachers so that they would benefit from the experiences and thinking of experienced teachers and enrich their own thinking.

3.3.3.3 Social Constructivist Approach

Social constructivist approach, whose basic philosophy is rooted in cognitive psychology and social psychology, recognises personal development and social dimensions as inseparable. This approach considers that teacher development involves not only the processes of reflection but also the need for theory, new ideas and skills in order to help teachers become more effective in their work. The approach also regards that each person’s development occurs within a social context and through social interactions (Roberts 1998). Williams and Burden (1997) point out that “learners make their own sense of the world, but they do so within a social context, and through social interaction” (p.28).

Social constructivist approach recognizes the “interdependence of the personal and social dimensions of teacher development” (Roberts, 1998, p.44) and acknowledges that a teacher’s professional life and development are dependent on factors like structure of the education system, the approach of the management, the curriculum and the flexibility it offers, availability of professional development opportunities etc (Bell and Gilbert, 1996).

Roberts (1998) points out that the social constructivist approach towards language teacher education has the following implications:
(a) The teachers have to determine the relationship that their profession has with the social conditions. The social world that every teacher is a part of provides the base for the development of teachers. Bell and Gilbert (1996; cited in Roberts, 1998, p.45) opine that “learning by teachers in teacher development situations is occurring within wider social and political contexts. They need to be assessed, not ignored”.

(b) Social constructivist approach emphasizes the value of collaborative and task-focused talk as one of the key factors in teacher learning. Such a talk “offers opportunities to clarify one’s own meanings and offers social relationships that support changing views of self as a teacher” (Roberts, 1998, p.45).

(c) The social constructivist perspective in teacher education also suggests that “teacher learning is best promoted by cycles of related activities which integrate the dimensions of teacher learning” (Roberts, 1998, p.46). Language teacher education needs to offer various activity types to the trainees like classroom observations, teaching practice sessions, reflective writing exercises, activities which will help in raising their self-awareness, current beliefs and knowledge etc.

3.3.4 Implications for the Current Study

The current teacher education programmes view education as a process where learners construct their own meaning and not as a mechanical activity. The view that teachers are transmitters of knowledge is dismissed by the modern approaches towards teacher education. Teacher education programmes at present emphasizes on the social constructivist approach and views teachers as facilitators, co-constructors of knowledge and reflective practitioners. NCTE (2009) says:
Education is not a mechanical activity of information transmission and teachers are not information dispensers. Teachers need to be looked at as crucial mediating agents through whom curriculum is transacted and knowledge is co-constructed along with learners. Textbooks by themselves do not help in developing knowledge and understanding. Learning is not confined to the four walls of the classroom. For this to happen, there is a need to connect knowledge to life outside the school and enrich the curriculum by making it less textbook-centered. (p.4)

The same views can be also seen expressed in National Curriculum Framework, 2005. For the teachers to play the role of facilitator and co-constructor they have to be “equipped with an adequate understanding of curriculum, subject-content and pedagogy, on the one hand, and the community and school structures and management, on the other” (NCTE, 2009,p.3). NCTE (2009) also envisions teacher education as a holistic enterprise aimed at the total development of the teacher.

The researcher kept the above mentioned aspects (in connection with the D.Ed English curriculum) in his mind while designing the various items in the tools for the evaluative study. The study analyses whether the curriculum follows the social constructivist approach and the studies the implementation of the curriculum in various teacher training institutions.

3.4 Andragogy

Andragogy as opposed to pedagogy focuses on the ways adults learn. There is a primary difference not only in learning perspectives, but also in the ways of teaching adult learners. There is no doubt that adult learners come with huge personal experience
to the classroom, which make them unique as young learners do not possess that much of exposure to the world. Therefore, it is pertinent to understand the learning styles, and motivation factors of adult learners along with teaching methodology to be adopted.

3.4.1 The Concept of Andragogy

Andragogy is ‘the art and science of helping adults learn’ (Knowles, 1980, p.43). It was first explored by a German high school teacher Alexander Kepp in 1833 in his famous book ‘Platon’s Erziehnungslerhre’. He highlighted on “andragogik” (andragogy) where learning was done through self-reflection and educating one’s character. Knowles developed the ‘Andragogical model of learning’ and it continues to be of importance in the area of adult education. According to Knowles, the basic difference in learning between adult learners and young learners rests in the self-directed learning. Adult learners take responsibilities of their own learning.

Knowles (1990) describes six assumptions underlying the concept of adult learning:

1. The need to know – Adults need to know why they need to learn something before undertaking to learn it.
2. The learner’s self-concept – Adults have a self-concept of being responsible for their own decisions, for their own lives. Once they have arrived at that self concept they develop a deep psychological need to be seen by others and treated by others as being capable of self-direction.
3. The role of the learner’s experience – Adults come into educational activity with both a greater volume and a different quality of experience from youths.
4. Readiness to learn – Adults become ready to learn those things they need to know and be able to do in order to cope effectively with their real-life situation.

5. Orientation to learning – In contrast to children’s and youths’ subject-centered orientation to learning (at least in school), adults are life-centered (or task centered or problem-centered) in their orientation to learning.

6. Motivation – While adults are responsive to some external motivators (better jobs, promotions, higher salaries, and the like), the most potent motivators are internal pressures (the desire for increased job satisfaction, self-esteem, quality of life and the like). (pp.57-63)

These assumptions on andragogy can be directly linked with teaching and training principles. As the learning styles of adult learners vary from the ways young learners learn, the principles of teaching will also change accordingly.

### 3.4.2 Principles of Andragogy

According to Knowles et al. (2005) the six assumptions or principles of andragogy can be used as framework for curriculum and materials development for adult learners. The framework adopts two dimensions such as goals and purposes of learning and individual and situational differences. The framework is shown in figure 3.1 and it highlights the differences in the way adult learners learn and children learn. The number of factors placed outside the rings may affect the six principles of andragogy. The outer rings include institutional growth, subject matter difference, situational differences, social
growth, individual growth, and individual learners’ differences. All these factors directly and indirectly influence adult learning process.

Figure 3.1: Andragogy in Practice Model (Knowles et al., 2005, p.4)

There is no doubt that the principles of andragogy have been developed keeping adult learners into consideration. Knowles et. al (2005) highlight how andragogy works better keeping all the factors. The following words of Knowles highlight this issue.

Andragogy works best in practice when it is adapted to fit the uniqueness of the learners and the learning situation. We see this not as a weakness of the
principles, but as a strength. Their strength is that these core principles apply to all adult learning situations, as long they are considered in concert with other factors that are present in the situation. (Knowles, et. al., 2005, p.3).

It is evident from the above extract that Knowles believes that learners and learning situations are the two most significant aspects. Further, the connection between the principles and factors given in the above figure is very significant in developing adults’ model of learning.

Tight (2002) distinguishes adult forms of learning and child education while stating:

The main distinctions between adult forms of learning and child education may then be seen to lie in the extent to which the former involves negotiation, recognition of experience and a greater degree of partnership between learners and teacher, trainer, facilitator or whatever. (p.29)

It is evident that teaching adult learners involves using the learners’ experiences and negotiating learning. Further, the relationship between teacher and learner varies from teaching adult learners and children. A distinction between andragogy and pedagogy is necessary to find out how they differ in specific points.

- In pedagogy learners are generally homogeneous. It means they belong to approximately same age and socioeconomic backgrounds. However, andragogy involves teaching learners who may be from diversified backgrounds and educational level.
• Adult learners come to the classroom with huge experience which should be used in the classroom for their language learning. On the other hand, children do not possess rich experience as compared to adult learners

• While children are motivated to learn, it is more of ‘extrinsic’ motivation. On the other hand, adult learners are expected to be motivated intrinsically. They are mostly aware of their future needs of learning.

The six principles based on Knowles’ principles of andragogy, which can be used before developing syllabus for adult learners, are discussed below.

**Principle 1: Learner’s Need to Know**

Adults prefer to relate learning from their experience. As adults learners they are also aware of their needs. As adults they possess more responsibility than young learners regarding their learning. Thus adult learners need to know what they are learning and its implications.

**Principle 2: Learner’s Self-Concept**

Knowles (1989) believes that adult learners progressively go towards self-learning. While planning for any course or programme for adult learners, it is highly necessary to keep in mind that adult learners prefer to learn by themselves. In other words Self-Directed Learning (SLD) is one of the principles applicable for developing adult learning curriculum. The role of a teacher is to provide appropriate environment for the learners to ‘discover’ learning and become ‘autonomous’.
Principle 3: Learner’s Prior Experience

There is no doubt that adult learners bring huge experience to the classroom. While designing curriculum these aspects should be taken into consideration. Many researchers have emphasized the unique experience of adult learners which they bring to the classroom.

In the andragogical tradition, experience is at the centre of knowledge production and acquisition. Using experience becomes not simply a pedagogical device but more significantly an affirmation of the ontological and ethical status of adults, in particular, the mark of their radical difference from children. (Usher, Bryant and Johnson, 1997, p.95)

It is evident from the above quote how experience marks a significant difference point from adult learners and young learners. It is not only the mere accumulation of experience that always matter, the ways learners make meaning of their experience matters the most.

Principle 4: Readiness to Learn

Learners’ developmental goal is the fourth principle of Knowles’ andragogical model. As per Knowles et. al (2005) readiness to learn occurs when adults experience a need to learn in order to overcome some problems or issues in their life. Knowles et. al (2005) believes that there are many possible ways to inculcate readiness through “exposure to models of superior performance, career counselling, simulation exercises and other techniques” (p. 67).
Principle 5: Orientation to Learning

The fifth principle deals with adult learners’ orientation to learning. It implies connecting adult learners’ instruction to the real world. Adult learners prefer tasks and activities which have got connection to the world outside.

Knowles et al. (2005) states:

In contrast to children’s and youths’ subject-centered orientation to learning (at least in school), adults are life-centered (or task-centered or problem-centered) in their orientation to learning. Adults are motivated to learn to the extent that they perceive that learning will help them perform tasks or deal with problems that they confront in their life situations. (p.67)

This implies a necessity for the implication of theory to practice. The learning strategies should be based on keeping the specific group of learners into consideration. As adult learners believe on the ‘utilitarian’ aspect of learning, where they can use their learning immediately, the content and methodology have to be designed and implemented accordingly.

Principle 6: Motivation to Learn

Motivation is the key factor in learning. Adults are motivated to learn when they find reasons to their learning. The motivation can be intrinsic or extrinsic. Knowles (1990) opines that when compared to the extrinsic motivators, adults respond better to internal motivators like self-esteem, quality of life etc.
3.4.3 Andragogical Principles in Training Programme

As adults do not learn the way young children do, an effective training programme for adults should take care of the features of adult learning principles. Therefore, it is highly necessary and significant for the trainers to undertake needs analysis of the adult learners to find out their needs, interests and wants.

Focusing on learners’ experience should be one of the key factors before designing any programme for adult learners. Trainers should provide enough scope so that trainees could feel free to share their experience and take decisions on ‘what’ and ‘how’ to be taught. In other words, the experience of adult learners should be respected while making any classroom decisions. Activities and tasks can also be developed using learners’ problems and issues into account. Therefore, an effective training programme is where there is an ‘emerging’ syllabus and scope for modifications. Seminars and workshops could be strategies to be used apart from other teaching strategies where trainees would avail more opportunities to participate actively and creatively. Burkill and Eaton (2011) share some guidelines for putting the theory of Andragogy into practice:

- Share the session learning objectives with the learners and then, when appropriate, negotiate how they might achieve them. This involves the learners in the design process where they accept a share of the responsibility for planning, implementing and evaluating the course. This is an example of what Knowles means when he talks about adult learners being increasingly self-directed and not so dependent on the teacher.
• Devise activities that utilize the learners’ existing knowledge, skills and understanding as they bring to each lesson a wealth of different experiences. This is an example of using the learners as a rich resource for learning.

• Devise differentiated activities that are meaningful to the learners and where they are encouraged to provide peer support to facilitate the learning of others by reflecting upon their own experiences. This encourages the learners’ readiness to learn through activities developed from life tasks and problems.

• Activities should be devised with an emphasis on tackling problems and developing skills based on the learners’ present integrated practice. This makes the orientation to learning more task or problem-centred rather than subject-centred.

• As the course progresses, activities are devised where the learners take more responsibility for their learning and become less dependent on the teacher. This helps them to accept that learning is an internal process and not something the teacher ‘does’ to them. The motivation to learn is intrinsic rather than extrinsic. (pp 25-16)

Kolb’s (1984) experiential learning is closely related to the principles of andragogy. According to him learning is “the process whereby knowledge is created through transformation of experience” (p. 38). Experiential learning believes in the principles of using learners’ experience into account in the process of teaching and learning. Kolb (1984) proposes four stages in the cyclical process of learning. These include concrete experience, observation and reflection, formation of abstract concepts and generalization and testing implications of new concepts in new situations.
The trainees who join the various teacher training courses (including the D.Ed course) are adults and so the principles of andragogy are also applicable in their training programmes. In the process of evaluating the D.Ed English curriculum, the various principles of andragogy were also kept as a point of reference to assess the effectiveness of the programme.

3.5 Evaluation of the Teacher Education Curriculum

Section 2.4 in the previous chapter examined the process of curriculum evaluation and renewal and established the fact that curriculum evaluation is an integral part of the curriculum renewal process. Similarly section 2.5.2 analyzed the interlink between school curriculum and the teacher training curriculum and referred to NCTE (2009) pointing out that there is a need for a consonance between the teacher education curriculum and the curriculum framework for school education. NCTE (2009) further mentions that “the expectations of the school system from a teacher change from time to time, responding to the broader social, economic and political changes taking place in the society” (p.2).

Hence teacher training programmes should take special care to prepare teachers in “relation to the needs and demands arising in the school context, to engage with questions of school knowledge, the learner and the learning process” (p.2).

As a part of effective teacher preparation, the policy makers and the curriculum designers of the teacher education curriculum at all levels should constantly engage in the process of evaluation of the teacher education curriculums (at regular intervals) to ascertain whether the curriculums are meeting the needs of the learners and the education system.
This study is based on the following two premises:

- It is necessary for all the “teacher-training programmes to have a system for regular internal evaluation” (Peacock, 2009, p.259).
- Very few researches have happened in the field of teacher education (especially in the field of primary teacher education). “The field of teacher education remains under-researched” (Peacock, 2009, p.260).

The following section examines evaluation theory and some of the prominent models of curriculum evaluation which can be used for evaluating teacher education curriculums.

### 3.5.1. Evaluation Theory

Smith (2008; cited in Mertens & Wilson, 2012) describing evaluation theory states that evaluation theory is that aspect which reflects “our thinking about how and why we engage in evaluation. Is the purpose of evaluation validation, accountability, monitoring or improvement and development?” (p. 37). Scriven (1998; cited in Mertens and Wilson, 2012) opines that a good evaluation theory should provide the criteria which differentiate between evaluation and other types of investigations like data analysis or prediction. Stufflebeam and Shinkfield (2007) mention that evaluation theory should have six components. They are:

- Overall coherence, core concepts, tested hypotheses on how evaluation procedures produce desired outcomes, workable procedures, ethical requirements, and a general framework for guiding program evaluation practice and conducting research on program evaluation. (pp. 63 – 64)
Even though many theorists in the field of evaluation have developed many approaches that provide guidance for the process of evaluation, there are no validated theories as such to guide the process of evaluation (Mertens & Wilson, 2012).

Stufflebeam and Shinkfield (2007) opine that the evaluation profession has far to go in developing overarching, validated theories to guide the study and practice of program evaluation. The program evaluation literature’s references to program evaluation theories are numerous, but these references are often pretentious. They usually denote as theories conceptual approaches or evaluation models that lack the comprehensiveness and validation required of sound theories.

(p. 68)

Alkin (2004; cited in Mertens & Wilson, 2012) also agrees with Stufflebeam and Shinkfield (2007) and points out that “many descriptions of evaluation theory would be better labeled as evaluation approaches or models because they do not strictly meet the test of being theories” (p. 39). Models can be thought of as “a set of rules, prescription, and prohibitions and guiding frameworks that specify what a good or proper evaluation is and how it should be done” (Alkin, 2004; cited in Mertens & Wilson, 2012, p. 39).

3.5.1.1 An Overview of Programme Evaluation Approaches

When we analyse the history of programme evaluation, we can see that objective–based evaluations occupy the initial position. Ralf Tyler was the key figure in this approach towards programme evaluation and he influenced many developments such as objective–referenced testing, achievement test construction, co-operative test development, etc (Madaus & Stufflebeam, 1989).
Objective–based evaluation mainly focused on analyzing whether the learners have met their goals and whether the instructional programme was successful. Kiely and Rea–Dickins (2005) point out that the major feature of Tylerian framework is “the specification of objectives in terms of learning outcomes and their measurements” (p. 20). The learning outcomes and their measurements decided whether the programme should be revised or rejected.

The four stages of Tyler’s model are: “(1) setting the objectives to be attained (2) determining the types of learning experiences to be provided (3) deciding how these should be organized and (4) determining the ways in which the achievement of objectives would be measured” (Bellon & Handler, 1982, p. 3).

This evaluation model was prescriptive in nature and entirely summative as it heavily relied on the measurement of the learners’ achievements and outcomes of the programme. It ignored the process and the emphasis was on product.

Another approach in programme evaluation is consumer–oriented evaluation which focuses on “meeting consumer needs and societal ideals more than achieving the developers’ objectives for a given program” (Guerra–Lopez, 2008, p. 40). Scriven (1967; cited in Chen, 2009) made a major contribution to this evaluation approach by describing the distinction between formative evaluation and summative evaluation. He proposed that formative evaluation would aid in refining a curriculum and summative evaluation would enable the administrators to decide whether the curriculum is better than the available alternatives so that the educational system can justify the expenses incurred in adopting
The strengths of a consumer-orientated approach are thought to be that it makes evaluation of products a service and it advances the knowledge of consumers about the criteria most appropriate for use in selecting educational materials or services. They thus become more aware of the products. The weaknesses of this approach are that it does not appear to necessarily help practitioners do a better job and it requires credible and competent evaluations. It can thus increase the cost of products because of the time and money spent on product testing. (p. 35 – 36)

The discrepancy model of evaluation, whose major exponent is Provus (1971; cited in Chen, 2009) helps in developing a self-evaluation framework to evaluate a particular educational programme and also contributes towards establishing a systematic approach for the improvement of the programme. The four basic phases of this model are: “(1) establishing the objectives; (2) collecting evidence of compliance with the standards; (3) identifying any discrepancies between pre-established objectives and what was accomplished and (4) identifying and starting corrective actions” (Chen, 2009, p. 36)

Another approach in the field of evaluation is goal–free evaluation developed by Scriven (1974; cited in Chen, 2009) where the evaluator would be unaware of the programmes predetermined goals. The main job of the evaluator would be to assess the effects of a programme without considering the objectives of the programme. This kind of evaluation can provide significant supplementary information (including unexpected
information) and gives feedback to the clients whether the objectives of the programme and its outcomes match with each other (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007).

Apart from these approaches, there are other approaches in the field of programme evaluation like responsive/client–centred evaluation which assumes that programme intention/objectives would undergo changes overtime and in order to discover, investigate and address important issues, there should be continuous communication between the evaluator and the stakeholders (Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, 2007). The following sections analyse some of the prominent models of programme evaluation.

3.5.1.2 Models of Curriculum Evaluation

The current study tries to undertake an exploratory evaluation of the revised English curriculum of the primary teacher training programme (D.Ed) in Kerala. The curriculum was revised in 2013 in tune with the recommendations given in Kerala Curriculum Framework 2007 (KCF 2007) and National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education 2009. The objectives of the evaluation were mentioned in chapter one. The researcher sought the help of some of the prominent models of curriculum evaluation to develop the framework for his study which are reviewed in the following sub-sections.

3.5.1.2.1 Context, Input, Process, Product Model (CIPP Model)

CIPP model was introduced by Daniel L. Stufflebeam. The acronym CIPP stands for context, input, process and product. This evaluation model, when applied to an educational setting, tries to assess whether a particular programme/educational effort has brought any positive change in that educational setting (ex: School, College, University
or any other training Organization). CIPP model has gained much popularity because of its objectivist orientation towards evaluation. During the evaluation process aiming at investigating the worth of a programme, the framework which the model follows tries to control bias, prejudice and conflict of interest. It also attempts to obtain data/information from multiple sources so as to improve the validity and reliability of the information collected. The four components of CIPP model are discussed below:

(a) **Context Evaluation:**

Context evaluation is the most basic kind of evaluation which studies the environment of the programme and provides the rationale for the objectives of evaluation. In this type of evaluation, the evaluator defines the environment in which the curriculum is implemented and assesses the needs, problems, assets and opportunities within the particular environment. Zhang, et. al. (2011) cite Stufflebeam & Shinkfield, (2007) and explain the objective behind context evaluation:

The objective of context evaluation is to define the relevant context, identify the target population and assess its needs, identify opportunities for addressing the needs, diagnose problems underlying the needs and judge whether project goals are sufficiently responsive to the assessed needs. (p. 64)

In context evaluation, needs refers to the things that are necessary to fulfill a certain purpose; problems refers to the barriers that have to be overcome for obtaining the targeted needs; assets are the expertise and services that are helpful in meeting the needs and opportunities denotes the supports and funds that can be helpful in solving problems associated with the programme (Stufflebeam et.al., 2000).
The various methods used for context evaluation include system analyses, reviewing documents, surveys, interviews, hearing, diagnostic tests, etc (Dalkey & Helmer, 1963; cited in Zhang et. al., 2011).

(b) Input Evaluation

The purpose of Input Evaluation is to provide information regarding how to utilize resources in order to achieve programme goals. It identifies how a project should be done and determines the procedural design and educational strategies that will aid in achieving the desired goals. The main orientation of input evaluation is to:

- identify and assess current system capabilities, to search out and critically examine potentially relevant approaches, and to recommend alternative project strategies. The result of the input evaluation step is a project designed to meet the identified needs. (Zhang, et. al., 2011, p. 64)

The various methods used to carry out input evaluation includes, “inventorying and analyzing available human and material resources, proposed budgets and schedules, and recommended solution strategies and procedural designs” (Zhang, et. al., 2011, p. 65).

(c) Process evaluation

Process evaluation monitors the process of implementing a project. Stufflebeam (2000) describes process evaluation and states that “a process evaluation is an ongoing check on the plan’s implementation, plus documentation of the process, including changes in the plan as well as key omissions and/or poor execution of certain procedures”
(p. 294). Process evaluation analyses the process of implementing a project and identifies the defects in the implementation phase and provides further decisions to improve the programme.

The techniques used in process evaluation include observation, participant interviews, reviewing pertinent documents, focus groups, etc.

(d) Product evaluation

Product evaluation identifies whether the curriculum/project was able to accomplish its objectives and assesses the outcomes of the project. Zhang et. al. (2011) point out that the primary purpose of product evaluation is “to measure, interpret and judge a project’s outcomes by assessing their merit, worth, significance, and probity” (p.66). The techniques that can be used in product evaluation includes logs and diaries of outcomes, interviews of beneficiaries, case studies, hearings, focus groups, achievement tests, rating scales etc (Zhang, et. al., 2011).

Stufflebeam et. al. (2000) mention that the following points can be considered while designing an evaluation programme:

Outline for Documenting Evaluation Design

Review of the Change

- Definition of the object of the evaluation
- Identification of the client intended users, and other right-to-know audiences
- Purpose(s) of the evaluation (i.e., programme improvement, accountability, dissemination, and/or understanding)
• Type of evaluation (e.g., context, input, process, or product)

• Values and criteria (i.e., basic societal values, merit and worth, CIPP criteria, institutional values)

*Plan for Obtaining Information*

• The general strategy (e.g. survey, case study, advocacy teams, or field experiment)

• Working assumptions to guide measurement, analysis, and interpretation

• Collection of information (i.e., sampling, instrumentation, data collection procedures and instruments and permissions from data sources)

• Organization of information (i.e., coding, filling, and retrieving)

• Analysis of information (both qualitative and quantitative)

• Interpretation of findings (i.e., interpretative standards, processing judgments, developing conclusions)

*Plan for Reporting the Results*

• Drafting of reports

• Prerelease reviews and finalization of reports

• Dissemination of reports

• Provision for follow-up activities to promote the evaluation’s impact

*Plan for Administering the Study*

• Summary of the evaluation schedule

• Plan for meeting staff and resource requirements
• Provision for meta-evaluation
• Provision for periodic updates of the evaluation design budget. (p. 313)

To conclude, it can be said that Stufflebeam’s CIPP model of evaluation relies on both formative and summative evaluation to assess whether the curriculum/programme was effective or not. It can be diagrammatically represented as in figure 3.2.

**CIPP MODEL**

![CIPP Model Diagram](image)

**Figure 3.2: The Formative and Summative Aspects of CIPP Model**

3.5.1.2.2. Kirkpatrick’s Four Levels of Evaluation

Donald Kirkpatrick developed the four-level training evaluation model in 1959 and has been widely used to evaluate traditional instructor-led training programmes. The model underwent updating in 1975 and 1994. The four levels discussed in the model are:

1. **Reaction**

   This level focuses on measuring the participants’ or trainees’ opinions about the training programme, the processes involved in the programme, materials, its presentation
etc. This level is important as it gives an idea about how well the training was received by the trainees and the need to improve the training programme for future trainees. In this level, for collecting information, various tools like trainee satisfaction surveys or questionnaires, observation of training session, interview with the trainees etc can be used.

(2) Learning

Level two, i.e., learning, focuses on measuring the degree to which learning actually took place. In other words, this level tries to measure the increase in the knowledge level of the trainees as a result of their participation in the training programme. Every training programme would have a set of objectives to begin with. The degree to which learning has taken place would be measured depending on these objectives. For this, the trainees would be tested in the beginning of the programme to assess their current knowledge, skill level and attitudes. Once the training is concluded, the trainees are tested again to assess their improvement.

(3) Behavior

This level focuses on assessing how far the trainees have changed their behaviour as a result of the training they received. Before assessing the trainees change in behaviour, the results from the other two levels (reaction and learning) are to be considered. Then only the actual change in the behaviour of the learners can be measured properly.
(4) Results

This level analyses the final results of the training and examines the impact of the training on the performance of the organization.

Kirkpatrick’s model evaluation demands a linear progression from level one to level four. Information collected at each level will help the evaluator to move on to the next level. In other words, the model assumes that all levels are linked with each other.

3.5.1.2.3 Peacock’s Model

Peacock (2009) proposed a “new procedure for the evaluation of EFL teacher-training programmes based on principles of programme evaluation and foreign-language-teacher (FLT) education” (p. 259). The procedure which he proposed focuses on assessing the programme strengths and weaknesses and the extent to which the programme meets the needs of the students teachers. His research was based on two premises. The first premise underlines the need for all the teacher-training programmes to have a system for regular internal evaluation (Rea-Dickins and Germaine, 1998; Richards, 1990; Wallace, 1991; Reid, 1996; Lynch, 2003; all cited in Peacock, 2009). The second premise points out the fact that the field of teacher education remains under-researched (Freeman, 1996; Freeman and Johnson, 1998; cited in Peacock, 2009).

Peacock (2009) mentions the method that he used to design the procedure for the study.

The method was to review the literature on programme evaluation and the recommended content and procedures of FLT education programmes, then design
a procedure that uses recognized methods of programme evaluation to assess programmes in terms of how far they match those recommendations. (p.259)

Peacock (2009) reviewed the available literature pertaining to the content and procedures of FLT education programmes and also the literature pertaining to programme evaluation (Wallace, 1991; Wedell 1992; Cots and Arno 2005; Crandall 1993; Lynch, 2003; Bartolome, 1994; Weir and Roberts, 1994; Freeman and Johnson, 1998; Roberts, 1998 etc. cited in Peacock, 2009) and formulated fifteen research questions which are given below:

Does the programme:

1) …have a clearly stated philosophy?
2) …reflect programme philosophy?
3) …promote trainee flexibility in using different teaching approaches for different situations?
4) …promote the ability to use, and to adapt, foreign-language-teaching materials?
5) …balance received versus experiential knowledge?
6) …incorporate and encourage trainee reflection on the experiences and values they have when they enter the programme? In particular, does it encourage trainee reflection on their ‘apprenticeship of observation’?
7) …promote the skill of reflection and self-evaluation as a teacher?
8) …promote future reflective practice?
9) …promote the ‘long-term, developmental nature of learning to teach’ – does it promote post-qualification teacher growth and development?

10) …have good linkage among courses, avoiding overlaps?

11) Is the programme up-to-date?

12) …balance teacher-and student-centred learning?

13) …prepare EFL teachers to function in the socio-cultural context in which they will work?

14) Do students believe the programme meets their needs, is relevant to their needs, and adequately prepares them for classroom teaching?

15) …incorporate and balance linguistic, pedagogic, and managerial competence to an appropriate degree? Linguistic competence here means L2 proficiency. Pedagogic competence refers to teaching skills plus knowledge of language and second language acquisition. (pp. 262 – 263)

He summarizes the evaluation procedure that he adopted in five steps:

- Review the literature and produces a set of questions.
- Establish appropriate sources of data in your setting.
- Choose and design data collection methods and instruments.
- Collect and analyse each set of data against your questions.
- Construct an account by relating each interpretation to the others. (p. 262)

The data collection methods which Peacock (2009) designed as a part of the framework includes both qualitative and quantitative methods. The following are the six data-collection methods which he designed as a part of the framework:
(a) **Student interviews**: which contains questions concentrating on the strengths and weaknesses of the programme and the suggestions for improvement.

(b) **Student Questionnaires**: The questionnaires mainly concentrate on collecting opinions of the student teachers on the 15 research questions discussed earlier in this section.

(c) **Teacher interviews**: collects the opinions and comments of teachers on the strengths and weaknesses of the programme and suggestion to improve the programme. The interviews carry the same 15 research question which Peacock designed as the part of his study.

(d) **Student essays**: 100-150 words essay from student teachers asking their feedback whether their training programme reflect the philosophy on which it is designed.

(e) **Evaluation of course materials**: Evaluating the training course “in terms of balance between (i) linguistic competence/L2 proficiency, (ii) pedagogic competence and (iii) managerial competence” (Peacock, 2009. p. 265).

(f) **Alumni questionnaires**: Collects information regarding the problems they face in their profession and suggestions to improve the training programme.

Peacock (2009) suggests multiple instruments for data collection with the intention of triangulating the data and thereby ascertaining its reliability and validity.

In order to test and validate the framework which he designed, Peacock later used framework to evaluate a TEFL programme in Hong Kong and test its effectiveness. The study was done with one hundred and sixty-six (n=166) third year teacher trainees, eight programme teachers, the coordinators of the programme and a few alumni. Peacock
(2009) suggests that the procedure can be used/adopted for evaluating teacher training programmes in similar context.

3.5.2 Developing a Framework for the Current Study

There is no model which can be termed as the best model for evaluation. Different models of evaluation work in different contexts. Popham (1975) opined that comparing different evaluation approaches to select the best model is actually a futile exercise. The evaluator(s) depending upon the context has to choose/adapt/modify a particular evaluation model or design a new model using a mixed method approach.

An “evaluation design should start from a blank slate at each new undertaking, addressing the countless decision to be made in each situation” (Cronbach, 1982; cited in Chen, 2009, p. 47).

Guerra-Lopez (2008) has suggested some reflective questions to be considered before formulating a model for evaluation:

- What are the characteristics of the evaluation task?
- What is the object of evaluation (the evaluand)?
- At what stage of conception (planning, design, development, implementation, maintenance, evaluation) is the evaluand?
- What are the limitations and constraints of the evaluation?
- Which evaluation models best lend themselves to address these characteristics?
- What are the pros and cons of each model with regard to the evaluation task?
Is blending these approaches to create a unique model for this situation more feasible and responsive to the evaluation task than using one of them as it stands? (p. 44)

The main objective of the present research is to conduct an exploratory evaluative study of the revised D.Ed English curriculum in Kerala and to study its implementation in the various teacher training institutes. The revised curriculum was introduced in June, 2013 and the first batch of teacher trainees completed the D.Ed course (under the revised curriculum) in May, 2015 and those final year trainees were awaiting their results, when the fieldwork and data collection was being undertaken by the researcher for the current study.

There were some issues which the researcher had to consider before deciding on a particular model of evaluation to be used for his study:

- The revised curriculum was introduced recently and only one batch had come out. Everything about the revised curriculum was still new.
- There were no alumni available (who were working as teachers) who were trained in the revised D.Ed curriculum. So the researcher could not collect any alumni responses.
- No other studies were available on the curriculum under consideration.

After considering all the issues associated with the context and studying the feasible options, the researcher decided to opt for a mixed method evaluation approach taking aspects from the models of evaluation discussed in section 3.5.1.2. Peacock’s (2009) five
step evaluation procedure was followed by designing the evaluation procedure for the current study. The procedure is mentioned below.

- Reviewing the literature and forming research questions
- Analyzing and fixing the appropriate sources of data as per the context
- Designing the various data collection methods and instruments
- Collecting the data and analyzing the data against the research questions formulated earlier
- Triangulating the data collected from various instruments and “constructing an account by relating each interpretation to the others” (p.262).

The frameworks discussed in CIPP model, Kirkpatrick’s four levels of evaluation, Peacock’s (2009) model were referred while designing the tools for the study and in the analysis of data. The setting of the study, sampling technique, procedures used for designing the data collection instruments and the methodology used for data collection have been described in detail in the next chapter.

3.6 Conclusion

The current chapter tried to establish the theoretical framework for the present study. The chapter started by reviewing the general models of L2 learning. In the second part the chapter examined the various theories related to teacher education and teacher development. Following that the concept of Andragogy and the various principles of andragogy were analyzed. Towards the end the chapter looked at the concept of evaluation of the teacher education curriculum and also examined the major models of curriculum evaluation.