Chapter 2

Review of Related Literature

2.1 Introduction

Review of related literature provides a broad understanding and overview of the various concepts, theories and ideas associated with the research area. It assists in stringing together the pertinent ideas discussed by the various experts in the field and enlarging the knowledge base of the researcher. It also helps the researcher in identifying the areas which need further exploration i.e. research gaps, so that he/she can contribute to that area via his/her research and fill in those gaps. It facilitates in positioning the researcher’s contribution within the academic discourse on a particular area.

The previous chapter gave an introduction to the study and examined the various aspects like background, objectives, significance, research questions and design of the study. The present chapter attempts to review the literature related to the main concepts associated with the study.

The chapter begins with a section reviewing the concept of teacher education and proceeds to examine the various principles in second language teacher education and the different teacher education models. The section also analyses the concept of teachers as professionals and the various facets of the professional development of teachers. Towards the end, the section scrutinizes various problems in the teacher education scenario.
The next section on curriculum begins with differentiating curriculum and syllabus and moves on to study the relationship between curricula and the three educational value systems, which are classical humanism, reconstructionism and progressivism. The section also looks at the various stages involved in the process of curriculum design.

The third section studies the concepts of curriculum evaluation and renewal and examines the purposes of curriculum evaluation, the types of curriculum evaluation and the various aspects of curriculum evaluation.

The fourth section explores the various factors associated with the English language curriculum at primary level and probes into the various principles of the curriculum design for young learners and analyses the connection between the school curriculum and the teacher training curriculum. The section also studies the various problems and issues in the context of teaching English as L2.

The fifth section analyses the concept of teacher education curriculum and examines the principles of curriculum design for teacher education and the various components of the teacher education curriculum. The section also examines the primary teacher education curriculum in Kerala with special reference to the English curriculum of the D.Ed course in Kerala.

The second last section in the chapter reviews the similar studies in the area. As mentioned in the beginning of this section, the review of similar studies helps in justifying the need for the current study and facilitates in positioning the researcher’s
contribution within the academic discourse in the area of evaluation studies pertaining to the teacher education curriculums. The final section concludes the chapter.

2.2 Teacher Education

Teacher education programmes are mainly designed for the development of teachers. They develop the teaching skills of the student teachers, provide good grounding in the pedagogical theory and also develop the professional skills of the student teachers so that they can be competent enough in their teaching profession.

The explosion in the field of language teaching has led to an increased demand for language teachers. These language teachers have to be effectively prepared so that they can become professionals and face various challenges in the language teaching field. Second language teacher education programmes play a pivotal role in preparing the language teachers, giving them practice and equipping them with various strategies and techniques to cope with various problems associated with language teaching.

2.2.1 The Concept of Teacher Education

The various programmes of teacher education, as mentioned in the beginning of the section 2.2, aim at the holistic development of teachers as professionals. The two categories of teacher education programmes i.e. pre-service and in-service programmes have to complement each other for the holistic development of teachers to happen. Teachers need lifelong training and support so that they can update their skills, knowledge and be more effective in their profession. The process is ever evolving and dynamic in nature.
The curriculum and content of the various teacher education programmes constantly undergo revision and updating so as to keep pace with the recent developments and trends in the field of education. The crux of the entire process of teacher education mainly depends on its curriculum, design, structure, organization and transaction modes. Teacher education curriculum is designed taking into account the needs of the field and it comprises a meaningful blend of theoretical understanding available in other disciplines like psychology, philosophy, sociology, education etc. Teacher education courses are offered at various levels namely pre-primary, primary, secondary, higher secondary and tertiary. This is done mainly because the needs and requirements of students at various levels of education vary. Level and stage specific teacher preparation ensures that the student teachers who are trained meet the requirements of that particular level.

NCTE (2009) in its vision on teacher education mentions its various expectations from a teacher education programme. The council opines that that teacher education programmes should not prepare teachers in isolation. Instead they need to prepare teachers who are responsible towards the society, sensitive towards the problems of the children whom they teach and committed towards social reconstruction. Teachers should view learners as “active participants in their own learning and not as mere recipients of knowledge; need to encourage their capacity to construct knowledge; ensure that learning shifts away from rote methods” (NCTE, 2009, p. 20). They have to act as facilitators in the process of knowledge construction. The curriculum of teacher education programmes need to have components of field experience which will help the trainees to apply their theoretical knowledge in the field and gain a better understanding of the teaching/learning
situation existing in schools and the needs of the learners. They have to be “trained in organizing learner-centred, activity based, participatory learning experiences-play, projects, discussion, dialogue, observation, visits, integrating learning with productive work” (NCTE, 2009, p.20). Teachers should be trained critically to examine and evaluate the curriculum and materials given to them. They also need to be trained as reflective practitioners who can actively engage in the process of reflection and evolve as effective practitioners.

2.2.2 Principles in Second Language Teacher Education

Theories of teaching play a crucial role in shaping the instructional / classroom practices. Posner (1985; cited in Richards, 1998) observes that different theories of teaching lead to different understanding of classroom life. For example, the didactic view of teaching views teacher as a person who transmits knowledge to his/her students. Interactionist view of teaching recognizes the significance of the schema (background knowledge and ideas) of the learners and points out that learners enter the classroom with their own ideas. These ideas which the learners bring into the classroom should interact with the content given in the curriculum (Richards, 1998). Second language teacher education programmes often reflect a particular theory of teaching. But teachers form their own theories about teaching based on their experience and understanding (Richards, 1998).

Teaching skills refer to those dimensions of teaching which are regarded as essential to the repertoire of any teacher. These skills include the teachers’ expertise in selection or design of appropriate learning activities and the presentation of those activities, motivating the students and monitoring their learning, giving feedback to the
learners etc. The design of any teacher education programme must take into account how basic teaching competency will be addressed and which skills will be the focus of the programme at different levels.

Communicative ability and language proficiency of the second language teachers play a major role in determining the effectiveness of teaching. There should be specific activities/components in the second language teacher education curriculum that addresses the general communication skills of teachers. Another important skill which a teacher needs is pedagogical reasoning skills and decision making skill which constitute the essence of teaching. Teachers also should have knowledge of the various societal, community and institutional factors that influence the process of language teaching. Second language teacher education curriculum should prepare the trainees with “the ability to identify and understand the relevant contextual factors in their own teaching situations” (Richards, 1998, p.13).

Teacher preparation practices can be divided into two categories: experiential and awareness-raising. Experiential practices involve the student teacher in actual teaching and it mainly happens through practice teaching where the student teacher is expected to teach actual students in real classroom. This can also occur through simulated practice teaching or peer teaching. Awareness-raising practices are mainly aimed at developing the student teachers’/trainees’ awareness about the various principles underlying second language teaching and the practical techniques and methods/strategies that the teachers can use in their classroom. Teacher preparation programmes usually involves both the kind of practices. Experiential practices are probably more common in pre-service courses while awareness-raising practices predominate in-service courses (Ellis, 1990).
The idea behind the use of awareness-raising practices is that, “the practice of actual classroom teaching can be improved by making teachers aware of the options open to them and the principles by which they can evaluate the alternatives” (Richards and Nunan, 1990, p. 27). Some of the teacher preparation activities that Ellis (1990) lists include video/audio recording of actual lesson, peer teaching, classroom teaching, lesson plans, case studies etc. He also mentions some of the teacher preparation procedures which include lectures, group/pair discussion, workshops, individual work/assignments and demonstrations.

Borman et.al (2009) identify some of the essential components for the teacher preparation programmes:

a) Teacher candidates have to be given training to develop the skills necessary to effectively teach their subject.

b) Teacher trainees must be encouraged and given opportunities to grow professionally and use the knowledge they gain to positively affect classroom practice.

c) The educational theories should be included as the core part of the course and methodology classes.

d) The teacher education programme must offer opportunities to the teacher candidate to model from other teachers and have hands-on experiences.

e) Teacher preparation must move beyond subject matter and pedagogy and must go beyond cognitive learning and foster interpersonal relationships facilitating students’ affective learning.
2.2.3 Teacher Education Models

The developments that have taken place in the field of teaching and teacher training can be classified into three categories namely, (a) the craft model, (b) the applied science model and (c) the reflective model. Each of these models is based on a certain philosophy and has its own definite set of principles.

Craft model viewed teaching as a skill based activity. It is based on the principles laid down by behaviourists. The scope for advanced knowledge is not there in this model. In applied science model, “the trainee teachers were expected to apply the knowledge gained from another source and look for the results such application can produce” (Mohanraj, 2009, p. 392). The trainees were expected to update their knowledge regularly and refine their practice. The model is diagrammatically represented in figure 2.1.

![Diagram of the Modified Applied Science Model](image)

**Figure 2.1: The Modified Applied Science Model** (Mohanraj, 2009, p. 392)

In reflective model, the teacher or the trainee is expected to constantly reflect on his/her practices and to refine/improve the practice. Wallace (1991) gives a detailed
account of the process of reflection in professional education/development. His ideas can be summarized schematically as shown in the figure 2.2.

![Diagram](image)

**Figure 2.2: Reflective Practice Model of Professional Education/Development** (Source: Wallace, 1991, p. 49).

In stage 1 of the model, the trainee enters into the process of reflective practice along with his/her existing conceptual schemata or mental constructs. These constructs are formed through the experience of the trainees. The underlying notion is that the trainees never enter into a professional training situation with a blank mind. For the maximum effectiveness of a professional teacher training programme, it is vital to know the level of the trainee and the background from which they come from.

In stage 2, two key elements namely received knowledge and experiential knowledge are highlighted. These two have a reciprocal relationship. The trainee/in-service teachers may evaluate the inputs that they receive from a course in terms of their own practice. Based on their evaluation, they may decide to modify/change their teaching or they may incorporate the new techniques in their subsequent practice. They will then re-evaluate them in the light of their practice and in this way the reflective
practice moves on. So “reflective cycle is a shorthand way of referring to the continuing process of reflection on ‘received knowledge’ and ‘experiential knowledge’ in the context of professional action” (Wallace, 1991, p. 56). Richards (1998) also mentions the process of reflection happening in the process of teaching and opines that teachers form their own theories about teaching based on their experience and understanding as well as their personal principles and beliefs about good teaching. He calls these as teacher’s ‘implicit theories of teaching’ (Richards, 1998). Teachers filter much of the content of second language teacher education programme through their own belief systems. This leads the teacher to a stage which can be termed as critical reflection, where teaching is guided by teacher’s personal theory and philosophy of teaching. Richards (1998) further says that:

reflective approaches to teacher development start from the assumption that teachers, rather than methods, make a difference; that teachers are engaged in a complex process of planning, decision making, hypothesis testing, experimentation, and reflection; that these processes are often personal and situation-specific and that they should form the focus of teacher education and teacher professional development. (p.3)

Schon (1983; cited in Moon, 1999), in her book The Reflective Practitioner makes reference to two main process of reflection in professional practice: reflection -in- action and reflection- on- action. Reflection -in- action occurs in association with the action and guides the process of action. It is rather momentary and is mostly guided by the idiosyncratic theories developed by the practitioner based on his content (Moon, 1999). Reflection – on – action is the form of reflection that occurs after action and plays a role
of introspection. This helps in learning and in informing future actions and theory building.

Woodward (1991) speaks about different ways of categorising training programme and mentions about a ‘three-tiered model’. Figure 2.3 represents the model.

![The Approach, Method, Tactic Pyramid](image)

**Figure 2.3: The Approach, Method, Tactic Pyramid** (Woodward, 1991, p.145)

By ‘approach’ Woodward means “the belief people hold about teaching, learning and training and the discussion they might have about overall aims, strategies and policies” (1991, p.140). By ‘tactics’ she means “activities, exercises and moment-to-moment decisions made in the training room” (p.140). Method in her perception occurs somewhere between the two as an inter-relation of thoughts and beliefs on one hand and the fine detail of a particular session on the other. The level of method encompasses decision about selection and sequencing of content, objectives, materials and roles. (p.140)

She further talks about the various external parameters of teacher training courses. Parameters are the constituent elements in teacher training. Figure 2.4 represents an overview of training parameters.
Parameters can include tangible things (like number of black boards), intangible things (like what the aims of the course are), people factors (like trainee’s age and experience) and course factors. All these parameters shape the training process.

2.2.4 Teachers as Professionals

Teaching is a profession which enjoys the same status of any other profession like doctors, engineers etc (Mohanraj, 2009). A ‘professional teacher’ is the one who will have a more holistic view of the education enterprise than the novice teacher. They are “not only trained to be intimately involved in the decision-making processes that impact student learning, but also curricular reforms, budget allocations and assessment of outcomes” (Barrow, 2007, p.1). Farrant (1993; cited in Mohanraj, 2009) enlists the qualities expected from professional teachers and mentions that teachers who are professionals should be friendly and sympathetic in nature. They should give importance
for their students’ interests. They should show patience towards slow learners and should not show any kind of favouritism. Hard work and enthusiastic behaviour should be projected in their professional situations. They will have the ability to make their lessons interesting and simple. They will involve their students in the process of active learning.

### 2.2.4.1 Approaches to Professionalism

When we speak of teachers as professionals, we have to mention two types of approaches to professionalism viz., ‘managerial professionalism’ and ‘democratic professionalism’ (Sachs, 2001). In managerial approach, the functioning of a teacher is defined by a very specific set of practices. In other words, the functioning of the teacher would be prescribed by a set of experts (or the management). This approach is similar to top down model where the teachers are expected to conform rather than explore or expand their profession. On the other hand, in democratic approach the teacher frames a democratic environment where the teacher helps students establish their own rules and at the same time encourages them to take responsibility for their own behavior. Students work in collaboration with the teacher and the teacher tries to understand their needs, identify their strengths and motivate them (Larivee, 2002). Democratic teaching styles will enable more dynamic learning environments in which students can think critically and be more responsive towards the process of learning (Larivee, 2002). The central idea in democratic professionalism is the collaborative and cooperative action between the teachers and other stakeholders in an educational setup. Similarly Leung (2009) also discusses two types of professionalism: sponsored and independent. Sponsored professionalism, in principle, is similar to managerial professionalism where the teachers are expected to confirm to the standards of professionalism set by external agencies.
concerned with professional growth. Similarly independent professionalism is analogous to democratic professionalism.

2.2.4.2 Professional Development of Teachers

To meet the challenges of the education field and to equip teachers with required skills and capabilities, the training programmes (both in-service and pre-service) and the educational institutions should take special care on the professional development of teachers. Day (1999) speaks about the professional development of teachers and says that:

Professional development consists of all natural learning experiences and those conscious and planned activities which are intended to be of direct or indirect benefit to the individual, group or school, which contribute, through these, to the quality of education in the classroom. It is the process by which, alone and with others, teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purpose of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues throughout each phase of their teaching lives. (p. 4)

Furlong and Maynard (1995) propose three approaches to the professional development of teachers: (i) apprenticeship model, (ii) competency based model and (iii) reflective model. These approaches are similar to the teacher education models discussed in section 2.2.3 namely the craft model, applied science model and the reflective model.
Osterman and Kottkamp (2004) point out that professional development of teachers is mainly guided by two broad approaches: the traditional approach and the reflective approach. In traditional approach, the instructor or the trainer occupies the main role and the purpose of such programmes is to transmit the knowledge. The reflective practice approach is grounded on constructivist learning theory where learning is the product of active sharing of experiences.

Mohanraj (2009) while discussing the factors involved in the professional development of teachers outlines the following activities which support a teacher to develop professionally:

i. forming teacher development groups (TDGs)

ii. taking up action research

iii. improving their competence through open distance learning (ODL)

iv. using ICT based courses for self-development (p.394)

Continuous professional development (CPD) is essential for teachers to develop their content knowledge, fine tune their existing skills and acquire new skills in order to be effective in their teaching profession. By improving their skills and knowledge, teachers would become professionals who can make the most effective curriculum and instructional decisions.

The need for teachers’ continuous professional growth is further emphasized in the ‘post-technocratic’ model (Hargreaves, 1994; cited in Day, 1999) of professional development of teachers. This model proposes that:
teachers are understood to have life-long professional needs and these will be met only if treated as in the case of any learner, in terms of continuity and progression.

for continuity and progression to be realised, teachers’ developmental needs must be assessed on a regular basis

schools devise a plan for development from which also flow needs for professional development if the school’s development plan is to be implemented successfully

professional needs arising from personal sources (e.g appraisal) have to be reconciled with school needs from institutional sources (e.g. development plan). (Day, 1999, p.9)

NCTE (2009) discusses the broad aims of continuing professional development (CPD) programmes for teachers and mentions that professional development programmes helps teachers to reflect on their practice, explore new possibilities and improve their own practice. They also provide updates to the teachers in their subject areas and help in widening the teachers’ knowledge in their respective academic areas. CPD programmes provide a chance to the teachers to reflect on the learners and their educational and social background. They prepare teachers for other roles like curriculum developer, counsellor and so on which are linked to the field of teaching. They also provide platforms to the teachers where they can collaborate with other teachers in the area and share their experiences and gain further insights which can enhance their profession.
Kennedy (2005) identifies and categorizes nine models of continuous professional development. They are as follows:

a) **The Training Model**

The training model of CPD “supports a skills-based, technocratic view of teaching whereby CPD provides teachers with the opportunity to update their skills in order to be able to demonstrate their competence” (p.237). The training is usually given by an expert and the teacher/participant would be placed in a passive role.

b) **The Award-bearing Model**

An award-bearing model of CPD relies on or rather emphasizes on “the completion of award-bearing programmes of study” (Kennedy, 2005, p.238). For their continuous professional development, teachers are expected to complete certain courses which are validated by universities.

c) **The Deficit Model**

In this model, “the professional development can be designed specifically to address a perceived deficit in teacher performance” (Kennedy, 2005, p.239).

d) **The Cascade Model**

“The cascade model involves individual teachers attending training events and then cascading or disseminating the information to colleagues” (Kennedy, 2005, p.240).

e) **The Standards-based Model**

Beyer (2002; cited in Kennedy, 2005) says about the standards-based model: The standards-based model of CPD belittles the notion of teaching as a complex, context-specific political and moral endeavour; rather it represents a desire to create a system of teaching and teacher education that can generate and
empirically validate connections between teacher effectiveness and student learning. (p. 241)

f) **The Coaching/ Mentoring Model**

The defining characteristic of the coaching/mentoring model is the “importance of the one-to-one relationship, generally between two teachers, which is designed to support CPD” (Kennedy, 2005, p.242). The key idea behind this model is the notion that “professional learning can take place within the school context and can be enhanced by sharing dialogues with colleagues” (Kennedy, 2005, p. 242).

g) **The Community of Practice Model**

The community of practice model, in comparison to the coaching/mentoring model, “involves more than two people and would not necessarily rely on confidentiality” (Kennedy, 2005, p.244). Central to this model is the social theory of learning, which recognises that “learning within a community of practice happens as a result of the community and its interactions” (Kennedy, 2005, p.244).

h) **The Action Research Model**

Somekh (cited in Day, 1999; Kennedy, 2005) defines action research as “the study of a social situation, involving the participants themselves as researchers, with a view to improving the quality of action within it” (Kennedy, 2005, p.245). The quality of action denotes the participants’ “understanding of the situation, as well as the practice within the situation” (Kennedy, 2005, p.245).

i) **The Transformative Model**

The transformative model of CPD involves “the combination of a number of processes and conditions- aspects of which are drawn from other models” (Kennedy,
2005, p.246) which were discussed earlier. The main characteristic of this model is “the combination of practices and conditions that support a transformative agenda” (Kennedy, 2005, p.246).

### 2.2.5 Problems in Teacher Education

The field of teacher education has always been subjected to discussion and Commission after Commission has come out with recommendations and suggestions to improve the various teacher education programmes. This section discusses some of the pertinent problems and issues in the area of teacher education.

Ram (1999) points out that pre-service education of teachers has to be thoroughly revamped taking two main requirements into consideration:

a) Teacher education programmes should furnish the trainees with the new value system and new competencies needed for the instruction of today’s youth.

b) The programmes should provide the trainee teachers with the necessary support so that they can transform the schools where they enter and use the new approaches and methods of teaching. The teacher trainees themselves have grown up in the traditional classrooms. So the magnitude, intensity and duration of the input needed to train those trainees in order to equip them with the new value system have to be very strong. For this, the duration of the programme is a major deciding factor. Sufficient training time should be allotted for all the programmes.

This idea of allotting sufficient time for teacher training programmes discussed by Ram (1999) has also been discussed by other experts in the field like Arora (2009) and
Seshadri (2009). She further opines that there should be a deep relationship between the theory and the practice in teacher education. Richards (1990) also expresses similar notion when he talks about the connection between theory and practice in teacher education programmes. Without theory-practice connection, theories become dead and sterile. Teacher education programmes should reorient themselves to equip the trainees with theories that are relevant for their practice as teachers.

Johnson (2009) while mentioning some of the future challenges for second language teacher education says that there is a need for “located” model of teacher education. In other words, the context and activities of an L2 teacher education programme must take into account the social, political, economic and cultural histories that are located in the context where L2 teachers work. Such an approach with help L2 teachers in recognizing how changing socio-political and socio-economic context can impact teaching practices and they can reorient themselves to be better teachers. Rajput and Walia (2001) also put forth a similar kind of opinion. They say that pre-service teacher education programmes in India need to accommodate the range of diversity that occurs within India and should be responsive to the needs of teachers working in a wide range of different situations like rural and tribal areas, urban slum etc. Another issue pointed out by Johnson (2009) is the relationship between professional development of teachers and student learning. Policy makers and other educational stakeholders should understand the fact that professional development of a teacher will lead to greater gains in student achievement. So enough time, support and attention should be given to the profession development of teachers. The issue of the professional development of teachers has been emphasized by experts like Borman et.al (2009), Mohanraj (2009) etc.
Borman et al. (2009) point out that teacher trainees must be given opportunities to grow professionally and use their knowledge to improve their classroom practice. A third challenge in the field of SLTE pointed out by Johnson (2009) is about equipping L2 teachers with “intellectual tools of enquiry” (p. 120). Equipping the teachers with intellectual tools of enquiry will help them to judge what is possible and what is not possible in their teaching contexts and they can explore their own professional identities, systematize their teaching practice and can also reflect on and improve their teaching. Rajput and Walia (2001) while speaking about teacher effectiveness says that “teacher education should lead to better academic performance on the part of teachers, through the regular acquisition of new skills and competencies and through the upgrading of existing ones” (p. 248). In order to enhance the effectiveness of the educational processes, the assessment of teachers’ performance is a major factor. National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE) has identified key areas with regard to “teacher competency, commitment and performance, including contextual, conceptual, content, transactional and management competencies” (Rajput and Walia, 2001, p. 249). So SLTE programmes should take into consideration these factors and should given special emphasis on developing the competencies of the trainees. Richards (1990) speaks on the preparation of effective language teachers and says that:

To prepare effective language teachers, it is necessary to have a theory of effective language teaching – a statement of the general principles that account for effective teaching, including a specification of the key variables in effective language teaching and how they are interrelated. Such a theory is arrived at through the study of the teaching process of second language teacher education,
which is thus dependent upon the following sequence: (a) Describe effective language teaching processes; (b) develop a theory of the nature of effective language teaching; and (c) develop principles for the preparation of language teachers. (p.4)

Another issue which needs to be mentioned is the question of ‘standards’ in second language teacher education. The term ‘standard’ in a teacher education programme can mean two things: content standard and performance standard. Content standards “identify the essential knowledge, skills and disposition that should be taught and learned in an educational programme” (Katz and Snow, 2009, p.66). Performance standards means “the degree or quality of proficiency expected in relation to content standards” (Katz and Snow, 2009, p.66). Teacher education programmes should be designed in such a way as to cater to both the content standards and the performance standards. Cheng (2001; cited in Katz & Snow, 2009) while speaking about the standards in teacher education points out that:

Teachers in an era of rapid change may be required to assume expanded roles and responsibilities, including curriculum developer, new teacher mentor, staff development facilitator or action researcher. Standards, thus, must necessarily consider these expanded roles and the new knowledge, competences and attitudes needed to meet changing professional challenges in all areas, including technology, in the course of a teacher’s career. (p.74)

When we go through the research literature on teacher education in India, we can see that the teacher education system has several areas that need attention and improvement.
Some problems of the teacher education in India are as follows:

a) Rigidity of our teacher education system:

Our teacher education system is so rigid and because of this it is resistant to radical reforms. A common programme of teacher education for teachers at all levels of schooling is still continuing to be a dream. Practicing teachers always complain that they have very less role to play in policy formulation and there is often a lack of synchronization between attempts to reform school education and initiation to achieve teacher education reform (Rajput and Walia, 2001).

b) Insufficient time provided for the various teacher training courses:

Despite the recommendation by many commissions, courses like B. Ed still continue to be of one year duration. It does not give ample time for the trainees to develop their teaching skills. The duration of the teacher education programmes should be increased so as to increase the effectiveness and scope of the programme.

c) Incompetency of the teacher educators:

In many cases the incompetent teacher educators who are not properly trained and who are not aware of the existing problems of school fail to train the teacher trainees effectively. Training programmes for teacher educators have to be chalked out. Qualified and experienced teacher educators with updated knowledge regarding the various issues in the field of education can train the teacher trainees.

d) Traditional curriculum and teaching methods in the teacher education programmes are another problem. Khader (2008; cited in Seshadri, 2009) points out that when there is a change in the course structure and the nature of inputs, a
corresponding shift in training practices is expected. But teacher educators continue to remain good at imparting knowledge centred on conventional approaches. Similarly the teacher education curriculum should undergo constant renewal and updating in order to incorporate the changes in the field. There should be provision for systematic appraisal of the teacher training programme and this in turn should form the basis for the renewal of training curriculum and revision of course material. There has to be proper synchronization between the teacher training curriculum and the school curriculum.

e) Another issue/problem is the lack of dedication of the teachers towards the profession. Studies conducted under district primary education programme (DPEP) and the Sarva Shiksha Abhiyan (SSA) revealed that most of the teachers were seldom enthusiastic about their participation in the in-service education programmes and they perceived teaching as a routine task which they repeat mechanically year after year. They did not engage in self-reflection and construction of new knowledge. This lack of professionalism among teachers is a major hindrance to our education system. Teacher education programmes should try to inculcate professionalism into the trainees through the courses (Arora, 2009).

When we narrow down to the teacher education programmes at the primary level, we can see that the situation demands numerous reforms in the area. NCTE (2009) visualizes the situation existing in the early childhood education (ECE) level and remarks that the ECE situation existing in our country is diverse and there is a need to develop “multiple models of training workforce” (p.81) to cater to the needs of ECE. The
available facilities and arrangements for training teachers for this level are not adequate. There is also a dearth of trained teacher educators in this area. Special training programmes to prepare teacher educators need to be chalked out. One solution to handle this problem is “to develop M.Ed as a teacher educator training programme with specialization in pre-school/elementary/secondary teacher education” (NCTE, 2009, p.81).

DIETs (District Institutes of Education & Training) were established in 1986 with the idea of training teachers. But, unfortunately DIETs could not fully achieve the expectation with which they were set up. NCTE (2009) while pointing out the shortcomings of DIETs says that many DIETS do not have adequate number of faculty and many of them do not possess the required academic qualification or professional experience. Most of them are unaware of the problems in the primary education sector and primary teacher training.

Another problem which needs to be addressed when the second language teacher education programmes are taken into account is the question whether the language training programmes are providing ample training to the teacher trainees/ student teachers to develop their communicative/language competence.

For the teacher to be a successful professional, his/her language skills need to be adequately competent. Works on the issue of language proficiency (Cullen 1994; Murdoch, 1994) of teachers highlights that “a teacher’s confidence is most dependent on his or her own degree of language competence” (Murdoch, 1994, p. 258). Research (e.g. Berry, 1990) in the field of second language teachers’ language competence shows that
ESL/EFL teachers perceive language improvement to be a major component of their professional development.

The examination of the concepts of competence and performance of language teachers prompts us to probe into two major issues:

a) how much of a language does one need to know/ what should be the target language proficiency in order to be able to teach a language effectively

b) how does proficiency in a language interact with/ influence other aspects of the process of teaching. (Bailey, 2006)

Richards (2011) lists out the language – specific competencies expected from a language teacher which helps him/her to function effectively in a language classroom. These include the ability to:

- To comprehend texts accurately
- To provide good language models
- To maintain use of the target language in the classroom
- To maintain fluent use of the target
- To give explanations and instructions in the target language
- To provide examples of words and grammatical structures and give accurate explanations (e.g., of vocabulary and language points)
- To use appropriate classroom language
- To select target language resources (e.g., newspapers, magazines, the Internet)
- To monitor his or her own speech and writing for accuracy
- To give correct feedback on learner language
- To provide input at an appropriate level of difficulty
➢ To provide language enrichment experiences for learners. (p.3)

Lange (1990) and Butler (2007) point out that language proficiency is one essential quality required for all non-native speaking (NNS) language teachers. Richards (1998) and Medgyes (2001) mention about the threshold proficiency level that the second language teachers needs to have reached in the target language in order to be able to function effectively as language teachers.

When we analyse the teacher education scenario of India, we can see the national level documents (National Curriculum Framework, 2005; National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education, 2009; The Position Paper, 2005 by National Focus Group; Kerala Curriculum Framework, 2007) highlighting the importance of improving the language skills of the trainee teachers. NCERT (2005a), points out:

All teachers who teach English should have basic proficiency in English. All teachers should have the skills to teach English in ways appropriate to their situation and levels based on some knowledge of how languages are learnt. A variety of materials should be available to provide an input-rich curriculum, which focuses on meaning. (pp. 39-40)

NCERT (2005a) identifies some of the major problems in the methodology followed by the second language teachers and mentions that most of the teachers lack basic pedagogic skills like explaining, asking appropriate questions, understanding of the process of learning etc and most of them tend to focus only on the errors that the learners make. Teachers in the new language pedagogy (especially the primary level teachers) are expected to provide the necessary scaffolding to the learners so that they can acquire new
knowledge through group activities. The teachers at this level need to be good communicators so that they can provide enough language input to the learners. The various teacher training programmes have to introduce teachers to how to use student talk in the classroom as a resource to improve the communication skills of the students.

SCERT (2007) says that language teachers:

- Should demonstrate keen interest in reading and developing knowledge. They also should engage in cultivating reading habits in children
- Should be capable of interacting with the learners effectively
- Should be capable of clarifying the doubts raised by the learners and kindle the spirit of enquiry in them
- Should have the ability to ask thought provoking questions and lead the learners in the process of learning
- Should be creative and possess the ability to provide constructive suggestions on the work of the learner
- Develop a critical perspective of the world around them and also equip the learners to do the same. (p. 42)

The position paper (2005) by National Focus Group on Teaching of English reiterates the views presented in NCF 2005 and advocates for the need for an input rich communicational environment as a pre-requisite for language learning. The document underlines the value of the comprehensible input provided by the second language teacher in a language classroom and mentions that the success of any classroom activity or innovations depends on the teacher’s resources in the language. The document points
out that the issue of language proficiency of teachers is not considered seriously in most of the teacher training programmes. In many parts of our country (especially rural areas), the second language teacher and the classroom remain as the only source of language input to the learners. Considering this situation, there is an immediate need to address the issue of teachers’ language proficiency (NCERT, 2005b).

NCTE (2009) also recognizes the significance of language proficiency and communication skills of teachers and mentions that a language teacher performs different language functions in a second language classroom like narrating, explaining, translating, instructing etc. The appropriate and context specific use of language by the teacher through explanations of various concepts, constructs and examples in the classroom paves the way for knowledge creation among the learners. So this underscores the need for teachers to be proficient in the language. National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (2009) recommends a course that focuses on developing the proficiency level of the teacher trainees to be made part of the training programme.

As far as the language training curriculums of the various teacher education programmes (in countries like India) are concerned, they need to be evaluated regularly and language proficiency training components have to be added to them based on the needs of the teachers at each level. This can really aid in producing competent teachers.

Since the current study is an evaluative study of the curriculum primary teacher training programme in Kerala, this section enabled the researcher to develop a broader understanding of the concept of teacher education and understand the various principles involved in second language teacher education. The section also discussed the various
problems associated with the teacher education scenario and referred to the various recommendations given in KCF 2007 and NCFTE 2009 regarding the need for language proficiency training component in the teacher education curriculum. The review presented in this section provided insights to the researcher which assisted him while formulating research questions and developing the various items in the research tools used in the study. The researcher, as a part of this research, has tried to figure out whether the new D.Ed English curriculum meets the needs of the primary teacher trainees and whether the curriculum has incorporated the suggestions given in NCFTE 2009 and KCF 2007. The researcher has also tried to identify the various problems faced by the D.Ed trainees during the process of the curriculum transaction.

After reviewing the concept of teacher education in general and second language teacher education in particular, the researcher will now attempt to review the next major concept associated with the current study i.e. curriculum.

2.3 Curriculum

This section begins by examining the definitions of curriculum and the difference between curriculum and syllabus offered by experts like Allen (1984; cited in Nunan, 1988); Tanner and Tanner, 1995; Nunan, 1988; Richards, 2001 and Reid, 1993. The section also analyses curriculum development in relation to the educational value systems namely classical humanism, reconstructionism and progressivism. The section also discusses the approaches to curriculum development and various stages of curriculum design.
2.3.1 Curriculum and Syllabus: Definitional Consideration

Curriculum is a broad term that is still equated with syllabus by many. Allen (1984; cited in Nunan 1988) tries to differentiate between curriculum and syllabus and opines that the curriculum is a broader concept, and it “involves consideration of the whole complex of philosophical, social and administrative factors, which contribute to the planning of an educational programme” (p.6). Syllabus on the other hand is a subsection of curriculum, which specifies the units and lessons to be taught. Nunan (1988) mentioning about what encompasses a curriculum points out that “curriculum is concerned with the planning, implementation, evaluation, management and administration of education programmes” (p.8). He further says that “syllabus, on the other hand, focuses more narrowly on the selection and grading of content” (p.8). Tanner and Tanner (1995) define curriculum as a “plan or programme of all experiences which the learner encounters under the direction of a school” (p.158). Richards (2001) offers similar opinion while differentiating between curriculum and syllabus. He says:

Syllabi, which prescribe the content to be covered by a given course, form only a small part of the total school programme. Curriculum is a far broader concept. Curriculum is all those activities in which children engage under the auspices of the school. This includes not only what pupils learn, but how they learn it, how teachers help them learn, using what supporting materials, styles and methods of assessment, and in what kind of facilities. (p. 39)
Reid (1993) also views syllabus as a part of the curriculum and considers syllabus as an “operational document that translates the philosophy of the curriculum goals into course content. Each syllabus for a single course provides direction for the teachers in planning the class and for the students in setting their personal objectives” (p.79).

From the above definitions, it is clear that syllabus is a part of the curriculum. Curriculum is broader than a mere plan. It consists of aspects like goals, objectives, content, processes, resources and means of evaluation.

2.3.2 Curricula and the Educational Value Systems

Skilbeck (1982; cited in Clark, 1987) was the first person to discuss ‘value systems’ underlying educational traditions (Clark, 1987; White, 1988). These value systems are: Classical Humanism, Reconstructionism and Progressivism. These value systems can be associated with the two approaches to curriculum development: the product approach and the process approach. When we examine the principles of both the product and the process approach, we can know that how these approaches to curriculum development are linked to the educational value systems.

2.3.2.1 Approaches to Curriculum Development

The following sub-sections examine the major principles on which the product and the process approaches are based.

2.3.2.1.1 Product Approach

Ralph Tyler was the major proponent of the product approach. In product approach, the objectives for a programme are set by the experts, a plan is drawn up,
applied and the outcomes i.e. the products are measured. This approach is quite technical in nature. The approach lays much emphasis on the content to be taught. The contents are designed on the basis of certain aims and objectives. The teacher, in this approach, takes the role of a knowledge dispenser who provides the students whatever knowledge is given to him/her in the form of contents. There is no role or space for the learners’ nor the teachers’ creativity and imagination in the curriculum. Tyler’s theory was based on four fundamental questions:

1. What educational purposes should the school seek to attain?
2. What educational experiences can be provided that are likely to attain these purposes?
3. How can these educational experiences be effectively organized?
4. How can we determine whether these purposes are being attained? (Tyler, 1949, p. 1)

Taba (1962) explains how these concerns pointed out by Tyler can be addressed through neatly organized steps (structure of the ends- means curriculum):

Step 1: Diagnosis of needs
Step 2: Formulation of objectives
Step 3: Selection of content
Step 4: Organization of content
Step 5: Selection of learning experiences
Step 6: Organization of learning experiences
Step 7: Determination of what to evaluate and the ways of doing it. (p.12)
2.3.2.1.2 Process Approach

The process approach, whose major proponent was Lawrence Stenhouse, holds the view that curriculum is not a product to attain; rather it is what actually happens in the classroom and emerges out of the classroom process. Stenhouse (1975) says, “A curriculum is an attempt to communicate the essential principles and features of an educational proposal in such a form that it is open to critical scrutiny and capable of effective translation into practice” (p.142). In this approach, the language classroom is a place where constant interaction takes place among learners, and teachers and the curriculum is evolved. Stenhouse (1975) opines that each classroom should be a laboratory and each teacher should be an experimenter. In the process approach, the curriculum presents the teachers with ideas or proposals which they test out in the actual classrooms, as they teach. The curriculum plan in the process approach is just a recommendation and not a prescription. And curriculum is grounded in teacher’s actual practice.

In the next sub sections we can analyse how the educational value systems are associated with the product and process approaches.

2.3.2.2 Classical Humanism

Littlewood (1992, p.14) describes classical humanism and says:

In this tradition the main purpose of education is to transmit valued knowledge and culture to an elite section of the next generation, and, in so doing, to develop their general intellectual abilities. The curriculum is determined mainly by the
valued subject content which exists outside the learners and should be transmitted to them.

Similar to the product approach, classical humanism is content driven. Knowledge is seen as a set of revealed truths and the learners have to consciously master the underlying rules and regularities of these truths (Clark, 1987). Subject driven approach is followed in classical humanism. It lays emphasis on the teacher-centred education. Teacher is seen as someone possessing knowledge which is passed on from generation to generation. The role of teacher is to pass on this knowledge to students and the students are supposed to master it by memorizing and reproducing. There is no place for any creativity and imagination and the learners are like mere objects on which the teaching process is acted upon.

Classical humanism is not open-ended and experimental. Teachers under this value system do not have the freedom to try out different approaches. The learners are streamed into homogenous groups in terms of ability or achievement. Mixed ability classes are not supported. The contents are sequenced into various elements of knowledge and these elements are sequenced from simple to complex. The product approach also stresses on the selection of the contents based on the objectives set out by experts. The objectives are clearly spelt out so that the teachers could describe the kind of behaviour which the students are expected to acquire. Classical humanism stresses on conscious rule learning and demands the students to memorize and reproduce exactly what is taught to them so that the knowledge which is passed on to them is preserved as it is. Application of these rules in new contexts is done in a controlled manner so that there won’t be any change to the pre-existing rules. The top-down model of education is
followed in classical humanism. The university interests and the inspectorate who produce reports and policy documents have a major role in curriculum renewal in classical humanism. Similarly in product approach also the curriculum renewal is done by the so called experts.

2.3.2.3 Reconstructionism

The reconstructionist curriculum is objectives-driven and founded on the behavioural outcomes. So as in product approach, reconstructionism expects the learners to fulfill certain behavioural objectives. Skilbeck’s (1982) analysis of reconstructionism indicates that it is an essentially optimistic ideology which believes that man can improve himself and his environment. The philosophy of reconstructionism is opposed to the two-tier system of education created by humanism. This led to the establishment of comprehensive schooling, mixed ability classes, and a common core curriculum for all. Social change through education is the intended outcome of reconstructionism (Clark, 1987). The main characteristics of reconstructionism are:

- Effecting social change through education planned to bring it about
- The equal valuing of all citizens
- Reaching a consensus on goals to be achieved followed by rigorous planning of the means to bring them about
- Comprehensive schooling with a common core curriculum and mixed-ability classes
- Promoting intra-national and international understanding through effective communication. (Clark 1987, p.15)
The objectives (under this value system) are derived from an analysis of the objective behavioural needs of the learner. Mastery learning is the basic strategy used for coping with the individual differences. The syllabus under this value system proceeds through a graded manner in which the ‘most useful’ of ‘most learnable’ items are taught first. The teacher is like a model to be followed and he/she takes the role of an organizer and manager of learning experiences predetermined in advance. Common classroom activities consist of habit forming drills, deliberate learning and practice of phrases of maximum use. In the curriculum renewal, the style which is followed is top-down. Research development and diffusion form of curriculum renewal is followed where the agent for change is outside the classroom. As in product approach, here also, the ‘experts’ are the ones who plays a crucial role in curriculum renewal. They decide new policies and select a set of materials embodying a new syllabus and are handed down for school to implement. The teacher training programmes are designed to assist teachers to adopt a new curriculum package, or to implement a new policy (Clark, 1987).

The assessment under this value system is criterion-referenced. The learners’ performance is compared against a predetermined criterion rather than comparing with other learners. Both formative and summative kind of evaluation is done. External evaluation is done to determine whether pre-specific goals have been achieved or not (Clark, 1987).

Reconstructionism, which is associated with the product approach to curriculum development, has given rise to a number of other approaches to language learning like audio-visual, situational, functional-notional approach etc.
2.3.2.4 Progressivism

Progressivism in curriculum design is represented by the process approach and it aims at a learner-centered approach to education. The classical humanist approach emphasizes on content and the reconstructionist approach emphasizes on the objectives. But the progressivist approach emphasizes methodology and the need for principles to govern teaching/learning process.

Clark (1987) mentions the main features of progressivism

- Individual growth from within through interaction with a favourable environment.
- A speculative view of knowledge.
- Learning through experience.
- Natural learning processes and stages of development.
- Sensitivity to the interests, rhythms, and styles of learning of individual learners.
- The learner as a whole person.
- The social nature of the learner and the development of healthy relationships with others in the classroom community.
- The promotion of learner responsibility and of learning how to learn. (p.51)

Progressivists view learner “as a whole person and not just a disembodied intellect or as a skilled performer” (Clark, 1987, p.49). For them, education is always learner-centered or learning-centered. Learners’ needs, interests and developmental processes are given prominence in this model. Progressivism claims that the mental process for learning
would be activated when learners engage in communicative activity. Errors are accepted as a part of learning (Clark, 1987).

The style of curriculum renewal in progressivism is bottom-up school-based curriculum renewal. The teachers are the agents for change inside the classroom. They have the responsibility for renewing the curriculum. In the in-service workshops, teachers come together to analyse their own problems, search for and discuss possible solutions and experiment with them in classroom (Clark, 1987).

2.3.3 Stages of Curriculum Design

Curriculum development is a process that involves more than one stage. The literature in the area (Richards, 2001; Brown, 1995; Nation and Macalister, 2010 etc.) bears testimony to the curriculum design models that have frameworks which are broken down into sub-processes. For Richards (2001), curriculum development includes:

the range of planning and implementation processes involved in developing or renewing a curriculum. These processes focus on needs analysis, situational analysis, planning learning outcomes, course organisation, selecting and preparing teaching materials, providing for effective teaching, and evaluation. (p.41)

Similarly, Graves (1996) provides a framework for the process of course design. His framework includes seven components which encapsulate the framework of course design:

1. Needs assessment: What are the students’ needs? How can I assess them so that I can address them?
2. Determining goals and objectives: what are the purposes and intended outcomes of the course? What will the students need to do or learn to achieve these goals?

3. Conceptualizing content: What will be the backbone of what I teach? What will I include in my syllabus?

4. Selecting and developing materials and activities: How and with what will I teach the course? What is my role? What are the students’ roles?

5. Organization of the content and activities: How will I organize the content and activities? What system will I develop?

6. Evaluation: How will I assess what my students have learned? How will I assess the effectiveness of the course?

7. Consideration of resources and constraints: What are the givens of my situation? (p.13)

Brown (1995) discusses a framework for language curriculum design. The model that he proposed includes six stages and is given in figure 2.5.

Figure 2.5: Brown’s (1995, p.20) Framework of Language Curriculum Design
Nation and Macalister (2010) present a similar framework like that of Graves (1996) for curriculum development and they identify the various stages involved in the process:

- Environment Analysis/ situational analysis
- Needs Analysis,
- Following Principles,
- Goals, Content and Sequencing,
- Format and Presentation,
- Monitoring and Assessment, and
- Evaluation

2.3.3.1 Environment Analysis/ Situational Analysis

Environment or the content plays a pivotal role in the implementation of a curriculum and is one among the key factors which determines whether the programme would be a success. Richards (2001) states, “The contexts for language programs are diverse and the particular variables that come into play in a specific situation are often the key determinants of the success of a programme” (p. 90). Curriculum developers need to have a good understanding of the contextual issues before making decisions about a course.

2.3.3.2 Needs Analysis

One of the most common assumptions behind the development/ design of any curriculum is that the curriculum is based on an analysis of learner’s needs. The various procedures which are used to collect information about the learners needs are known as needs analysis. Brown (1995) defines the process of needs analysis and says that needs
analysis consists of “the activities involved in gathering information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum that will meet the learning needs of a particular group of students” (p. 35).

Richards (2001) points out the various purposes of needs analysis in language teaching and says that needs analysis can be used:

- to find out what language skills a learner needs in order to perform a particular role, such as sales manager, tour guide, or university student
- to help determine if an existing course adequately addresses the needs of potential students
- to determine which students from a group are most in need of training in particular language skills
- to identify a change of direction that people in a reference group feel is important
- to identify a gap between what students are able to do and what they need to be able to do
- to collect information about a particular problem learners are experiencing

(p. 52)

2.3.3.3 Following Principles

The process of curriculum design should be grounded upon the principles derived from various language learning and teaching researches. Nation and Macalister (2010) stress that “… a sensible basis to guide teaching and to help in the design of courses rests on following principles” (p. 37) derived from the findings of various studies. They present a list of twenty principles based on research and theory in the fields of second
language learning, first language learning and theories if general education. They have divided the twenty principles into three major sections of a curriculum: content and sequencing, format and presentation and monitoring and assessment.

(a) Content and Sequencing

In this section, there are eight main principles of curriculum design that Nation and Macalister discuss. The first principle discusses the principle of frequency. According to this principle, the language items that occur frequently in the language should get the best possible coverage in the course. This will ensure that the learners’ efforts are best rewarded. The second principle is that of strategies and autonomy. According to Nation and Macalister, a language course should help learners in learning how to learn the language (strategies) which then could lead them to be independent language learners (autonomy) who are effective. The third principle which they referred to as spaced retrieval discusses the need for learners to have many well-timed, repeated opportunities to retrieve and pay attention to language items in a variety of context. The fourth principle, language system, is about the language course’s focus which should be on the features that can be generalized. Keep moving forward, the fifth principle, discusses the import of the course moving forward covering useful language items, skills and strategies. Nation and Macalister stress the need for favorable sequencing of language items and the identifying the right moment for the learners to learn them in their sixth principle called teachability. The seventh principle – learning burden – underscores the need for the course to help learners make the most effective use of their existing knowledge. The eighth and final principle in this section discusses the benefits of
sequencing the language items so that they have a positive effect on learning and avoid interference.

(b) Format and Presentation

Nation and Macalister discuss ten principles under this section. The first principle, motivation, emphasizes the need for the learners to be interested and excited about language learning and value the experience. The second principle lays out a rough framework for the course in terms of “meaning-focused input, language-focused learning, meaning-focused output and fluency activities” (Nation and Macalister, 2010, p.39). The comprehensible input principle, which is the third one, is about having substantial amount of interesting comprehensible listening and reading activities. The fourth principle is about fluency and discusses the need to provide activities in the course with which the learners can use the already learned language in both receptive and productive contexts. Under the fifth principle of output, Nation and Macalister exhort the course book writers to push the learners to both speak and write language over a range of discourse varieties. The sixth principle of deliberate learning insists that the course should contain “language-focused learning on the sound system, spelling, vocabulary, grammar and discourse areas” (Nation and Macalister, 2010, p.39). In the seventh principle, time on task, Nation and Macalister opine that maximum time as possible is to be spent in using the second language. Depth of processing, the eighth principle, emphasizes the need for the learners to process the language items both deeply as well as thoughtfully as possible. In the ninth principle of integrative motivation, Nation and Macalister discuss the importance of inculcating “the most favourable attitudes to the language, to users of the language, to the teacher’s skill in teaching the language and to their chance of success in
learning the language” (Nation and Macalister, 2010, p.39). The tenth and final principle in this section is about learning style. According to this principle, learners should have the opportunity to “work with the learning material in ways that most suit their individual learning style” (Nation and Macalister, 2010, p.39).

(c) Monitoring and Assessment

In the last and final section which discusses the principles of curriculum design, Nation and Macalister present two more principles. According to the first principle of ongoing needs and environment analysis, “the selection, ordering, presentation and assessment of the material in a language course should be based on a continuing careful consideration of the learners and their needs, the teaching conditions, and the time and resources available” (Nation and Macalister, 2010, p.39). The second principle of feedback harks on the significance of feedback which the learners should receive that “will allow them to improve the quality of their language use” (Nation and Macalister, 2010, p.39).

2.3.3.4 Setting Goals and Objectives

Once the analysis of the context and needs are completed, the next stage in the process of curriculum design is setting the goals and objectives of the programme. Graves (2000) provides an analogy which makes the term ‘goals’ and ‘objectives’ easily comprehensible. He says, “if the analogy of a journey were to be used, the destination is the goal, the journey is the course and the objectives are the different points which are passed through on the way to the destination” (p.75). According to Richards (2001) goals, which can also be termed as aims, refer to “a description of the general purposes of the
course” (p.120). Objectives refer to “a more specific and concrete description of purposes” (p.120). Through the various objectives, the goals of a programme are further sub-divided/broken down into learnable and teachable units.

2.3.3.5 Organizing and Sequencing the Content for the Course

Choosing the content for the course is one of the most basic issues in course design. The course designers can rely on the information collected during the needs analysis stage and the additional ideas from other sources like available literature, review of similar courses etc. for planning about the content of the course. Richards (2001) while speaking about the selection of the course content says:

Decisions about the course content reflect the planners’ assumptions about the nature of language, language use and language learning, what the most essential elements or units of language are, and how these can be organized as an efficient basis for second language learning. (p. 148)

He further says about the approach to content selection and mentions that, “The choice of a particular approach to content selection will depend on subject-matter knowledge, the learners’ proficiency levels, current views on second language learning and teaching, conventional wisdom and convenience” (p.148). He also points out two pertinent questions that need to be addressed in the process of distribution or sequencing of the content throughout the course:

- What range of content will be covered?
- To what extend should each topic be studied? (p.149)
2.3.3.6 Presentation of Materials

Once the sequencing and organizing of the content is accomplished, provisions need to be made for the presentation of materials. In other words, provisions should be made for providing effective means of teaching. According to Richards (2001), there are a number of factors which need to be taken into account in order to achieve and maintain the professional standards of teaching in any language programme. They are institution factors, teacher factors, teaching factors and learning factors.

2.3.3.7 Monitoring, Assessment and Evaluation

Any language programme needs to be constantly monitored, assessed and evaluated to check whether the programme meets learners’ needs, whether the objectives and goals are fulfilled, whether the materials are effective etc. Many strategies like proficiency tests, achievement tests etc. can be conducted to assess the progress of learners. Weir and Roberts (1994) opine that “the purpose of evaluation is to collect information systematically in order to indicate the worth or merit of a programme or project” (p.4).

Section 2.3 gave an overview of the concept of curriculum to the researcher. The researcher could also examine the various stages of curriculum design through this section. The next section focuses on the concept of evaluation of curriculum and examines the purposes, types and the various aspects of evaluation.

2.4 Curriculum Evaluation and Renewal

When we study the literature pertaining to evaluation, we can observe that different experts have given different definitions of and views on evaluation. Stufflebeam (1971) defines the process of educational evaluation and says that “educational
evaluation is the process of delineating, obtaining and providing useful information for judging decision alternatives” (p.43). Brown (1989) explains the concept of evaluation and says that evaluation is “the systematic collection and analysis of all relevant information necessary to promote the improvement of a curriculum and assess its effectiveness within the context of the particular institutions involved” (p.223). Similarly Richards (2001) points out that curriculum evaluation:

focuses on collecting information about different aspects of a language programme in order to understand how the programme works, and how successfully it works, enabling different kinds of decisions to be made about the programme, such as whether the programme responds to learners’ needs, whether further teacher training is required for teachers working in the programme, or whether students are learning sufficiently from it. (p.286)

From the definitions given by the experts, we can infer that any curriculum has to undergo evaluation process to test its effectiveness so that necessary changes can be made to the curriculum. The process of curriculum renewal is interlinked with the process of curriculum evaluation. Clark (1987) identifies the following components of the process of curriculum renewal:

- The review of principles to guide the language teaching/learning process in the light of the applied linguistic theory and classroom experience.
- The reworking of syllabuses embodying aims, objectives, content, and a broad methodology.
- The review of classroom teaching/learning strategies
The choice, adaptation, and creation of resources embodying appropriate learning experiences.

The review of assessment designed to monitor, record, report, and provide feedback on learner progress.

The review of classroom schemes of work relating all of the above together.

The review and creation of strategies designed to assist teachers to evaluate classroom practices and to improve them.

The identification of areas for research to determine possible ways forward in any of the above areas.

The review or devising of in-service education designed to assist teachers to widen their conceptual and pragmatic base in particular areas, and to find solutions to their own classroom problems. (pp. xii-xiii)

The following sub-sections examine the purposes of curriculum evaluation, the types of evaluation and the various aspects of curriculum evaluation.

2.4.1 Purposes of Curriculum Evaluation

Weir and Roberts (1994) mention the two major purposes for language programme evaluation: programme accountability and programme development. Richards (2001) cites Weir and Roberts (1994) and offers the difference between accountability-oriented evaluation and development-oriented evaluation. He says:

Accountability-oriented evaluation usually examines the effects of a programme or project at significant end points of an educational cycle and is usually conducted for the benefit of an external audience or decision maker.
Development-oriented evaluation, by contrast, is designed to improve the quality of a program as it is being implemented. It may involve staff who are involved in the program as well as others who are not and may have a teacher-development focus. (p.288)

2.4.2 Types of Evaluation

The three different types of evaluation are formative, illuminative and summative.

2.4.2.1 Formative Evaluation

Formative evaluation is carried out as a part of the process of programme development in order to find out whether the programme is working well, what needs to be improved or what problems needs to be addressed. It is mainly concerned with the ongoing development and improvement of the programme. Richards (2001) points out the typical questions that relate to formative evaluation:

- Has enough time been spent on particular objectives?
- Have the placement tests placed students at the right level in the program?
- How well is the textbook being received?
- Is the methodology used by the teachers appropriate?
- Are teachers or students having difficulties with any aspect of the course?
- Are students enjoying the program? If not, what can be done to improve their motivation?
- Are students getting sufficient practice work? Should the workload be increased or decreased?
- Is the pacing of the material adequate? (p.288)
Formative evaluation helps in addressing the problems that have been identified (while the programme is still in progress) and helps to improve the delivery of the programme.

2.4.2.2 Illuminative Evaluation

Illuminative evaluation is a kind of evaluation that “seeks to find out how different aspects of the program work or are being implemented. It seeks to provide a deeper understanding of the processes of teaching and learning that occur in the program, without necessarily seeking to change the course in any way as a result” (Richards 2001, p. 289). Classroom action research or teacher enquiry can be regarded as examples of this kind of evaluation. The questions that can relate to this kind of evaluation are:

- How do students carry out group-work tasks? Do all students participate equally in them?
- What type of error correction strategies do teachers use?
- What kinds of decisions do teachers employ while teaching?
- How do teachers use lesson plans when teaching?
- What type of teacher-student interaction patterns typically occur in classes?
- What reading strategies do students use with different kinds of texts?
- How do students understand the teacher’s intentions during a lesson?
- Which students in a class are most or least active? (Richards 2001, pp. 289-290)

2.4.2.3 Summative Evaluation

Summative evaluation is usually done at the completion of a programme. It is concerned with determining whether the programme was effective, whether it could achieve its aims, whether the course was received well by the students, whether the
materials used in the programme was effective, whether the objectives were fulfilled, whether the allotted time was sufficient whether the approaches and methods used were appropriate and the testing was adequate. It also analyses the various problems encountered by the students during the course. (Richards 2001)

2.4.3 Aspects of Evaluation

Weir and Roberts (1994) examine the different aspects of evaluation which are summarized below in the form of questions.

a) Why should we evaluate or what is the purpose of evaluation?

Evaluation of a language programme can provide:

1. Evidence which can inform theoretical disputes about directions to be followed in language teaching or in teacher education, and

2. Context-sensitive information on implementation: for example, to indicate whether particular approaches or techniques are suitable under given conditions; whether they meet the claims made for them; whether certain textbooks or materials are appropriate or inappropriate, effective or not for various contexts, purposes and groups of learners. (Weir and Roberts, 1994, p.11)

Evaluation can provide information regarding the strengths and weaknesses of a programme and the ways to improve the programme. Apart from this, evaluation can “provide stakeholders with a description as possible of all implementation factors and how the interaction of these factors contributed to the programme’s degree of success” (Weir and Roberts, 1994, p.14).
b) **When should we evaluate?**

The types of evaluation were discussed in section 2.4.2. Evaluation can be formative or summative. Weir and Roberts (1994) opine that for the evaluation to be effective, both the formative and summative aspects of evaluation need to be integrated i.e. the end products of the programme needs to be studied (summative evaluation) in connection with the processes and activities during the implementation phase of the programme (formative evaluation).

c) **What should be the duration of evaluation?**

The duration of evaluation mostly depends on the kind of evaluation that the evaluator undertakes and the purpose/objective behind the evaluation. Weir and Roberts (1994) opine that “if evaluation is to be valid and reliable, and to have credibility with an outside audience and with insider staff, it needs to cover a representative period or periods” (p.17).

d) **What should be evaluated?**

This aspect of the evaluation process indicates the selection of the various components to be evaluated or making decisions about the focus of the process of evaluation.

Richards (2001) cites Sanders (1992) and Weir and Roberts (1994) and mentions the different aspects of a language programme on which evaluation may focus. He points out that the evaluation could focus on the design of the curriculum, the syllabus and content of the programme, the processes that occur in the classroom, the instructional materials used during curricular transaction, perceptions of the teachers and students about the programme, the kind of assessments included in the programme and the
adequacy of the training that the teachers received. Apart from these aspects, the
evaluation of a language programme can also monitor and evaluate aspects like the
motivation of the learners, infrastructural and administrative facilities offered by the
institution, the environment in which learning happens, the opportunities available for
staff development and the decisions made by the school staff and others which result in
the benefits to the learners.

e) **Who should do the process of evaluation?**

Earlier, it was assumed that external specialists were the right people to carry out
ELT project evaluation because they have many years of experience in the field and
possessed the expertise to conduct an evaluation.

Outsiders were preferred for the process of evaluation with the belief that they
“have no vested interest and are more objective than insiders and so provide a more
credible evaluation report” (Weir and Roberts, 1994, p.23). But this leads us to the
question whether outsiders can evaluate a programme credibly and effectively without
the cooperation/ collaboration of the inside staff and without properly understanding the
complexities involved in the programme. Weir and Roberts (1994) point out that “what
we need in evaluation is an acceptable mix of outsider and insider perspectives and
contributions” (p.23).

f) **How should evaluation be carried out?**

This aspect in evaluation deals with the methodology and design of the process of
programme evaluation. The evaluator has to decide about what type of evaluation to be
adopted, what evaluation tools need to be employed for data collection and the ways to
analyse the data.
In summative evaluation, which is conducted at the end of a programme, tests, interviews, questionnaires, observation etc can be used as tools to assess the effectiveness of the programme.

Formative evaluation mostly depend on the information obtained from policy documents, narratives on classroom processes, critical incidents, learners and teachers’ opinionnaires, interviews etc.

Before the actual evaluation process begins, the evaluator has to define the context of his/her study; specify the data collection sources, the approaches used for collecting data, the type of data and the tools that would be used to collect data.

This section (i.e. 2.4) gave insights to the researcher about the purposes, types and aspects of evaluation. It assisted in developing his evaluation model and prompted him about the various aspects to be considered while undertaking the evaluation process.

The next section studies the various aspects of the English curriculum at primary level. The primary school curriculum and the primary teacher training curriculum have to be in consonance with each other. The principles of the primary English language curriculum forms a base while designing the D.Ed English curriculum. So the researcher thought it necessary to include a review of the various aspects related to English curriculum at primary level as a part of this chapter.

2.5 English Language Curriculum at Primary Level

National Curriculum Framework (2005) advocates an integrated approach to the teaching of different skills of language. It points out that children appear to learn much better in holistic situations and rich and comprehensible input is an important factor for acquisition of all different skills of language. The inputs can include textbooks, learner-
chosen texts, media support etc. The document mentions the goals for a second language curriculum: “attainment of a basic proficiency, such as is acquired in natural language learning, and the development of language into an instrument for abstract thought and knowledge acquisition through (for example) literacy” (NCERT, 2005a, p. 39).

The document further brings in the concept of language across curriculum and says:

> English must be seen in relation to other subjects; a language across the curriculum is of particular relevance to primary education, and later all teaching is in a sense language teaching. This perspective will bridge the gap between ‘English as subject’ and ‘English as medium’. We should in this way move towards a common school system that does not make a distinction between “teaching as a language” and “using a language as a medium of instruction.” (NCERT, 2005a, p.39)

NCERT’s position paper on Teaching of English (2005) shares the similar ideas that were pointed out in NCF 2005. The paper says that the aim of teaching English at the initial levels is to “build familiarity with the language (through primarily spoken or spoken-and –written input) in meaningful situations so that the child builds up a working knowledge of the language” (NCERT, 2005b, p.6). The document advocates a shift from mastery learning to regular exposure to a variety of meaningful language inputs (input rich environment) and points out the necessity of providing comprehensible input to the learners. The document further mentions about the kind of activities to be carried out in primary level classes.
One route to early modified production in the classroom could be through the “pseudo-production” of comprehended input, such as the learning of rhymes and poems, of language routines and formulae for classroom management, greetings, requests, etc. The need for pseudo-production perhaps motivates the current rote-learning approach. By recognizing and giving it its legitimate place in the curriculum, true production might be later attempted.

Drama and the enacting of plays is a traditional route to such pseudo-production in authentic, comprehended context. Beginning with action rhymes, simple plays, or skits, theatre as a genuine class activity can promote the child’s engagement with language and its performance. At later stages, this can develop into the study of rhetoric. (NCERT, 2005b, pp.6-7)


at the primary level, development of basic skills in language learning i.e.,
listening, speaking, reading and writing should be continued. But the emphasis at the level is to be on the use of varied modes of discourses through the basic skills. Learning experience should be targeted to provide the learner sufficient scope for the integration of the basic skills in language acquisition process. (p.20)

The document further says that “simple discourses like conversation, rhymes, descriptions, stories can be worked out at this level” (cited in SCERT, 2009, *English Sourcebook Standard IV*, p.20).
At the upper primary level, KCF (2007) expects the learners to construct more varieties of discourses, both orally and in the written form. It expects that the discourses constructed at this level should be linguistically at a higher level. The following discourses (cited in SCERT, 2009, *English Sourcebook Standard IV*) are targeted:

**Stories**

Learners are expected to listen to different stories and identify the differences in “styles and messages” (p.20) of the stories. They are also expected to construct their own simple stories on the basis of clues given in the textbook and narrate those stories using proper expressions.

**Descriptions**

Learners are expected to describe things, places and people after reading or listening to similar descriptions. They have to prepare small write ups, using simple sentences, which describe people, places and things.

**Dialogues**

Learners are expected to identify the language forms and functions by listening to a variety of conversations and prepare conversations which are suited for different contexts. They can enact those situations through role plays.

**Poems**

Learners are expected to read and listen to simple poems and understand the feelings, thoughts, and images expressed in the poem. They can attempt to write a few lines following the same structure of the poems that they read.
Narratives

Learners are expected to read and listen to different narratives and figure out the features of those narratives. They are also expected to prepare and present narratives using proper elements of non-verbal communication such as gestures, voice modulation etc.

Letters

Learners are expected to identify the features of various types of letters and prepare letters for different occasions.

Reports

Learners are expected to identify the features of various types of reports and prepare reports on various instances like school activities, celebrations etc.

Diaries

Learners are expected to compare samples of diary writing and learn how to write diaries on day to day events.

Apart from the discourses mentioned above, the learners are expected to maintain a collection of various discourses, collect different stories, poems etc, prepare puzzles, language games, jokes, posters, notices etc. They are also expected to carry out minor project works which would encompass identifying the research issue(s), deciding on the methodology and tools for data collection, describing and analysing the data, arriving at findings and conclusions and preparing the final report based on the findings and conclusions.
2.5.1 Principles of Curriculum Design for Young Learners

NCERT (2005a) mentions the goals for a second language curriculum and points out that second language curriculum “should aim at attainment of a basic proficiency, such as is acquired in natural language learning, and the development of language into an instrument for abstract thought and knowledge acquisition through literacy” (p.39).

Kerala Curriculum Framework 2007 enlists 13 basic principles (cited in SCERT, 2009, *English Sourcebook Standard IV*) of learning a language. It is based on these principles that the language curriculum is designed:

1. A child has an innate language system. Language learning is a natural growth of this innate language system.
2. Language learning is non-conscious process. This is radically different from the conscious learning of linguistic facts.
3. Language learning doesn’t take place through imitation or mechanical repetition. Instead, there should be an insightful formulation of hypothesis.
4. Language is not a totality of linguistic skills. There should be an internal linguistic competence for the expression of these skills.
5. Language learning is not a linear development. It is a cyclical process.
6. Language learning takes place from whole to parts and not from parts to whole.
7. Static texts, which are filled up with linguistic facts and which do not communicate with children, do not have a role in language learning.
8. The child should get meaningful and need based language experience which influence their emotional orbit.

9. The quality of language experience received is more important than its quantity.

10. Language doesn’t exist as isolated sentences or words. It exists as meaningful discourses. Hence it should be ensured that the linguistic experiences and expression of children should be at the discourse level.

11. The discourse models to be focused upon in each class should be ascertained. The variety as well as the linguistic and stylistic spiriting of discourses at the higher levels should be ensured.

12. It is not desirable to collect learner errors as and when they are made suitable editing processes have to be adopted to correct the stylistic, syntactic, morphological and thematic errors made by the learners.

13. Opportunities should be provided for expressing and sharing the free thought of the learners. (pp. 15-16)

KCF 2007 speaks specifically regarding the language curriculum at primary level (cited in SCERT, 2009, *English Sourcebook Standard IV*) and says that for the language curriculum at primary level:

1. An integrated approach should be adopted.

2. Learners should construct simple discourses like dialogue, poems, rhymes, description and narration

3. Writing should start only in class III and IV.
4. English language learning can be started from class I onwards. However there should not be any conscious efforts to teach English letters, words or sentences.

5. The method of code switching can be used to provide the experiences of various discourses to our learners.

6. Exams at the lower primary level should be avoided.

7. At the upper primary level, oral and written forms of narrative poems, descriptions, conversations, riddles, short stories, notices, letters, reports, posters and diary may be attempted. (p.16)

Similarly Ellis (2005; cited in Duibhir & Cummin, 2012) enlists 10 principles of instructed language learning:

1. Instruction needs to ensure that learners develop both a rich repertoire of formulaic expressions and a rule-based competence.

2. Instruction needs to ensure that learners focus predominantly on meaning.

3. Instruction needs to ensure that learners also focus on form.

4. Instruction needs to be predominantly directed at developing implicit knowledge of the L2 while not neglecting explicit knowledge.

5. Instruction needs to take account of the learner’s ‘built-in syllabus’.

6. Successful instructed language learning required extensive L2 input.

7. Successful instructed learning also requires opportunities for output.

8. The opportunity to interact in the L2 is central to developing L2 proficiency.

9. Instruction needs to take account of individual differences in learners.
10. In assessing learners’ L2 proficiency it is important to examine free as well as controlled production. (pp.41-56)

The following sub sections examine the various concepts like content based instruction, integration and its features, and activity based learning which play a key role in the designing of the curriculum for the young learners.

2.5.1.1 Content Based Instruction

Content based instruction (CBI) is relatively a new phenomenon in the language teaching field. Richards and Rodgers (2001) define CBI as “an approach to second language teaching in which teaching is organized around the content or information that students will acquire, rather than around a linguistic or other type of syllabus” (p.204). They quote the definition given by Krahnke:

It is the teaching of content or information in the language being learned with little or no direct or explicit effort to teach the language itself separately from the content being taught. (Krahnke, 1987, cited in Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 204)

Content-Based Instruction is based on the following two central principles:

- People learn a second language more successfully when they use the language as a means of acquiring information, rather than as an end in itself.
- Content-Based Instruction better reflects learners’ needs for learning a second language. (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p.207)
CBI courses aim at making the learner autonomous so that the learners come to “understand their own learning process and….take charge of their own learning from the very start” (Stryker and Leaver 1993, p.286).

Stoller and Grabe (1997; cited in Richards & Rogers, 2014) provides a list of activity types that can be used in a CBI setting. They include: “language skills improvement, vocabulary building, discourse organization communicative interaction, study skills, synthesis of content materials and grammar” (p.126).

2.5.1.2. Integration and its Features

The concept of integration develops from the idea that young children see the world as a connective whole rather than in isolated segments. In order to facilitate learning in a better way, the idea of integration was introduced in elementary school curriculum which supports planning and instruction that makes connection across the subject areas.

Alberta Education (2007) in its paper on primary programs framework describes curriculum integration as:

An approach to teaching and learning that is based on both philosophy and practicality. It can generally be defined as a curriculum approach that purposefully draws together knowledge, skills, attitudes and values from within or across subject areas to develop a more powerful understanding of key ideas. Curriculum integration occurs when components of the curriculum are connected and related in meaningful ways by both the students and teachers. (p.2)
Integration recommends the use of a ‘theme’ as focus and develop the learning activities around the theme. The theme would be connected to the real life of the learners and they would be engaged in meaningful activities which would aid them in their holistic development. An example of integration can be using the concept of nature to teach language, environmental science, mathematics and drawing to primary level learners. A picture of natural scenery can be shown to the learners. It can be accompanied by a simple poem which describes the picture. The teacher can read out the poem and ask the learners to count the number of trees, flowers etc in the picture and ask them to colour the picture. She/he can also collect learners’ responses regarding the plants and trees in their homes, pose simple questions regarding the need to preserve trees and give them insights on the role played by the trees to reduce pollution. So in a classroom which follows integrated learning, themes/concepts like ‘nature’ can be explored to facilitate the simultaneous development of multiple skills of the learners like language skills, arithmetical skills, drawing skills etc by engaging them in meaningful activities relevant to their life.

Alberta Education (2007) points out the benefits of curriculum integration:

- Allowing for flexibility: Through curriculum integration, teachers can plan for the development of key skills and understandings that transcend individual strands and subjects.
- Building on prior knowledge and experiences: Choosing meaningful connections among subject areas helps students build on their diverse prior knowledge and experiences, supports their holistic view of the world and ensures more meaningful learning.
• Unifying the students’ learning: Curriculum integration enables students to develop a unified view of the curriculum to broaden the context of their learning beyond single subject areas.

• Reflecting the real world: When curriculum is organized in a holistic way, it better reflects the real world and the way children learn at home and in the community.

• Matching the way students think: Brain research supports the theory that younger students take in many things and process and organize them at one time. Teaching ideas holistically, rather than in fragmented pieces, better reflects how young students’ brain process information. (p.2)

Russel-Bowie (2009) discusses three models of curriculum integration. They are:

- service connections
- symmetric correlations and
- syntegration

a) Service connection

“Service connections within subject areas occur when concepts and outcomes are learned and reinforced in one subject by using material or resources from another subject with no specific outcomes from the servicing subject” (Russel-Bowie, 2009, p.5). For Example: Learning to sing the alphabet song which helps the learners to memorize alphabet without any specific musical outcomes can be an example of this kind of curricular integration. Similarly counting songs to learn mathematics is another example.
b) Symmetric Correlations

Symmetric Correlations “centre around common or shared resources, materials or ideas being used within two or more subjects to achieve authentic outcomes in both subjects. This is a more symmetrical approach than the previous model of service correlations as both subjects benefit mutually from the learning experiences” (Russel-Bowie, 2009, p.6).

c) Syntegration

Syntegration is a type of integration in which the teacher uses a particular theme or concept and develops activities around that theme to teach different subjects. The example that was discussed in the beginning of this section where the teacher using the concept of nature to teach English, Mathematics, Environmental Science and Drawing can be denoted as an example of syntegration. Russel-Bowie (2009) points out that syntegration occurs when teachers plan purposefully to use broad themes or concepts that move across subjects so that the theme or concept is explored in a meaningful way by and within different subjects. Each subject’s indicators and outcomes remain discrete and authentic, and the integrity of each subject is maintained. Syntegration also achieves outcomes that transcend those in each subject such as the development of generic skills, for example, observation, research, problem solving, and team work. Through syntegration, a higher level of learning and critical thinking are developed as children are encouraged to apply, compare, analyse, synthesise and evaluate ideas across the subjects. (p.8)
The process of syntegration can be diagrammatically represented as in figure 2.6.

![Diagram of Syntegration](image)

**Figure 2.6: Syntegration** (Source: Russel-Bowie, 2009, p.7)

Syntegration can help the children to break down the barriers between different subjects and encourage children to extend their thinking when children explore learning experiences across the subjects they can see their learning as authentic and meaningful.


### 2.5.1.3 Activity-based Learning

Learning is an active process and it is true in the case of language learning. With the increase demand to make learners ‘autonomous’ and inculcate the skills of ‘learning how to learn’, there is a need to involve them in the process of teaching through different
meaningful activities, as learners would learn better and faster once they are actively involved in the pedagogic activities.

Activity-based learning is inherent in the preaching of Socrates and later on among progressive educators like John Dewey (Dodge, 1998). Dodge believes that learning is naturally an active process, where students learn better when they are put in situations to read, speak, listen and think. The activity involvement of the learners in the process of learning makes learners take responsibilities of their learning. The concept of activity-based learning is based on the constructivist educational theory and child-centered pedagogy. Activity-based learning may be defined as the method of instruction, where activities relevant and appropriate to the learners are used to make them involve in the process of teaching and learning (Sudam and Higgins, 1977).

Active learning is closely associated with activity-based learning, where learners get an opportunity to ‘discover’ and learn by themselves. In this process learners generate their ‘own meaning’ by closely interacting in the process of learning.

According to educationalist Moyles (2007; cited in Hayes, 2006) there are eight-point approaches to promote active learning. They are as follows:

1. An entering strategy, consisting of starting point and introduction.
2. An exploration mode, where pupil engage with task supported by adequate resources
3. Consideration of content in respect of the subject, processes and skills that the children are intended to learn
4. Clarification about ownership and responsibility, especially the presence or absence of adult supervision.

5. Adult intervention, interaction, and level of support of children’s learning.


7. Opportunities for children to reflect on their learning.

8. Justification for work completed and its outcomes. (p.65)

It can be found from the above approaches that, learners are in the centre of the educational process, where the primary focus is to give them opportunities to reflect, discover and learn. Activity-based approach also believes in the similar processes.

In a classroom following the activity-based approach, the general classroom environment remains active, as learners are expected to interact among their peers. Thus, children play a significant role in the activity-based approach as they tend to take responsibilities of their learning. Further, teacher also plays a significant role, not a dominant role. Teachers provide instructions, monitor the process of learning, give feedback and encourage the learners to participate in the activities. As the learners are given opportunities to actively involve in pedagogy, it provides an environment for them to be creative and innovative.

2.5.2 School Curriculum and the Teacher Training Curriculum

School Curriculum and the teacher training curriculum should go hand in hand. Whenever there is a change made in the school curriculum, its implications are to be found in the teacher training curriculum also.
Teacher’s competence and skills play a major role in learner achievement. NCF 2005 places different demands and expectations on the teacher, which is to be addressed in the various teacher education programmes. If the recommendations made by the national level documents like NCF 2005, to improve and innovate the school education scenario, have to be fulfilled, then corresponding changes must be made in the teacher training curriculum also so that the teacher trainees will be equipped with the necessary skills and competencies to meet the demands. NCTE (2009) points out:

The length of academic preparation, the level and quality of subject matter knowledge, the repertoire of pedagogic skills the teacher possess to meet the needs of diverse learning situations, the degree of commitment to the profession, sensitivity to contemporary issues and problems as also to learners and the level of motivation critically influence the quality of curriculum transaction in the classrooms and thereby pupil learning and the larger process of social transformation. (pp.1-2)

NCTE (2009) emphasizes on the congruence between school curriculum and teacher training curriculum and advocates for a teacher training curriculum that is in proper consonance with all the changes and demands that have arisen in the school context.

It is the duty of the teacher education system (through its initial and continuing professional development programmes) to supply professionally competent teachers who are capable of administrating the nation’s schools.
The revised D.Ed English curriculum of Kerala (on which the current study is based) which came into effect from June 2013 was formulated with the idea that it should be in congruence with the principles and approaches followed in primary school English curriculum.

### 2.5.3 Problems and Issues in the Context of Teaching English as L2

One of the major problems in the context of teaching English as L2 is the dearth of competent L2 teachers. The lack of adequate number of trained teachers who are professionals is a problem that has been pointed out time and again in the national level documents related to school education and teacher education. Most of our teachers do not update themselves and they remain ignorant of the new approaches and methods that have been introduced in the field of L2 learning/teaching. They mostly follow the outdated methods of teaching. Another problem is the lack of well-written text books. Textbooks/materials should be prepared according to the needs and level of learners. Lack of facilities is yet another problem which many of our schools face. The schools are terribly ill-equipped in terms of necessary teaching aids-audio and video.

Mohanraj, J. (2007) while discussing the teaching of English at the primary level points out certain pertinent issues:

- *in primary education, whether the increase in languages goes simultaneously with proportionate decrease in content load;*
- *do the textbooks prepared meet the new demands;*
- *whether the textbooks/workbooks designed to cater to all sections of learners including those from the tribal communities;*
- whether the private schools are following the norms set by the governments;
- whether the teachers sent for in-service training actually are teachers of English
- whether the teachers at the primary level have adequate competence in English
- whether carefully prepared handbooks are given to them
- whether teachers make use of the training later in their teaching.

(Paper presented at EYL seminar, June 2007)

Mother tongue influence and the regional dialect of teachers and students can interfere with the proper pronunciation of words. Teachers have to be extremely careful while they teach pronunciation in the ESL classroom. Culture related difficulties can also cause problems in the teaching of English. The most important problem of all is the inadequate language competency of the teachers. The issue of competence and performance of language teachers was discussed earlier in section 2.2.5.1. Teachers’ sense of self efficacy is positively correlated with the language proficiency he/she holds. A teacher who has low proficiency will not be confident enough to teach and it can adversely affect his / her classroom instructional strategies and practices.

The next section is on the concept of teacher education curriculum and it presents a birds-eye view of the various components of the teacher education curriculum, principles of curriculum design for teacher education and also examines the present primary teacher education curriculum of Kerala.


2.6 Teacher Education Curriculum

In the professional preparation of teachers, teacher education curriculum plays a crucial role. The training and the exposure that the student teachers receive from a well structured teacher education curriculum develops their attitudes, enhances their skills and expertise and makes them competent teachers. NCTE (2009) points out that the teacher education curriculum and the school curriculum needs to be in consonance and the improvement of school education needs to the primary goal of any teacher education curriculum. Teachers need to be professionally trained to meet the growing needs of the future generation. (The connection between the school curriculum and the teacher training curriculum was earlier discussed in section 2.5.2).

2.6.1 Principles of Curriculum Design for Teacher Education

A teacher education curriculum should be well crafted so that it will aid in the “development of a total teacher” (NCTE, 2009, p.23). The curriculum should develop the student teachers’ “knowledge and understanding, repertoire of skills, positive attitudes, habits and the capacity to reflect” (NCTE, 2009, p.23). The teacher education curriculum has to provide appropriate opportunities to the student teachers to:

- Observe and engage with children, communicate with and relate to children
- Understand the self and others, one’s beliefs, assumptions, emotions and aspirations; develop the capacity for self analysis, self evaluation, adaptability, flexibility, creativity and innovation.
• Develop habits and the capacity for self-directed learning, have time to think, reflect, assimilate and articulate new ideas; be self-critical and to work collaboratively in groups.

• Engage with subject content, examine disciplinary knowledge and social realities, relate subject matter with the social milieu of learners and develop critical thinking.

• Develop professional skills in pedagogy, observation, documentation, analysis and interpretation, drama, craft, story-telling and reflective inquiry.

(NCTE 2009, pp.23-24)

The council further advocates that the above mentioned opportunities can be provided to the student teachers via a “carefully crafted curriculum design that draws upon theoretical and empirical knowledge as well as student teachers’ experiential knowledge” (NCTE, 2009, p.24).

Renshaw (1973) points out some basic principles of a teacher education curriculum. He says that a teacher education curriculum should:

➢ have clearly defined goals and objectives so that it can achieve the desired learning outcomes.

➢ be flexible enough to meet the demands of the teaching professions and the needs of the students.

➢ have a proper balance between the theoretical knowledge and practical experience.

➢ be designed according to the level of the training programme.
➢ be developed in such a way as to benefit both the pre-service and in-service teachers.

➢ accommodate professional knowledge to meet the demand of the ever-changing world.

➢ be designed in such a way that the theoretical and professional knowledge should be prevalent throughout the course which can be represented through practical action.

➢ Incorporate the use of various scientific methods, such as observation, case study, action research, experimentation etc.

Aggarwal (2004) also identifies some basic principles which can be common to most of the educational curriculums:

- Conservation of culture
- Principle of future orientation, creativity and activity
- Principle of preparation for life
- Principle of child-centred education, maturity, and individual differences
- Principle of horizontal and vertical articulation
- Principle of linking with life and balancing of activities and subjects
- Principle of flexibility, leisure and productivity
- Principle of nationalism, democracy. Socialism and secularism
- Principle if internationalism. (pp. 195-196)

The above mentioned principles need to be integrated into the curriculums (school as well as teacher education) for the success of an educational system.
2.6.2 Components of Teacher Education Curriculum

NCTE (2009) conceives the layout of teacher education curriculum as comprising three broad curricular areas:

A) Foundations of Education which includes learner studies, contemporary studies and Educational studies

B) Curriculum and pedagogy which includes curriculum studies and pedagogic studies

C) School internship programme which will lead to the development of professional capacities, teacher sensibilities and skills in the student teachers.

These areas constitute the common core curriculum for teacher education programmes across various stages like pre-school, elementary, secondary and senior secondary. The nature form, intensity and the quality of learning experiences to be provided under these core components will vary depending upon the stage of teacher preparation. For example, at the primary level, the teacher education curriculum needs to focus on the developmental stages of a child. The curriculum should concentrate on “psychological development, process of thinking and learning, socialization process and the construct of childhood” (NCTE, 2009, p. 25). Similarly, the teacher education curriculum at secondary level should focus on “issues related to adolescence along with an understanding of children’s development in a continuum” (NCTE, 2009, p.25).

Figure 2.7 represents the main curricular areas along with potential courses.
NCTE (2009) further mentions the idea behind such a framework and states that:

The attempt is to organize the entire teacher education curriculum as an organic, integrated whole. The contours of each of these curricular areas indicate the kind of learning experiences they offer and the opportunities they provide for the beginning teacher to develop professional knowledge, capacities, sensibilities and skills. These are described in generic terms; they are not to be treated as prescriptive syllabi or course titles. They constitute the basic ideas/themes on which the curricula and courses are to be built to suit particular contexts. (p. 25)

The next section examines the various components of the primary teacher education curriculum in Kerala.
2.6.3 Primary Teacher Education Curriculum in Kerala

NCTE (2009) speaks about the teacher education programmes at early childhood education (ECE) and states that:

Teacher education programmes in ECE should develop in the trainee concepts, competencies, attitudes and skills related to implementation of developmentally appropriate curriculum based on child-centered and play and activity based approach: cognitive and language development, health and nutrition, social, emotional development, physical and psychomotor development, aesthetic development, creativity and play, programme planning and school organization, community mobilization and participation. These requirements call for a teacher educator who has a sound educational philosophy of ECE, besides specialized content and methodology skills pertaining to the above areas. (p. 81)

The D.Ed curriculum of Kerala which was revised in 2013 was formulated based on the recommendations given in NCFTE 2009. As per the Elementary Teacher Education Curriculum (2013) developed by SCERT, Kerala, three broad areas are considered in the curriculum:

Area 1: Foundations of Education

Area 2: Curriculum and Pedagogy

Area 3: School Internship

Figures 2.8, 2.9 and 2.10 (source: Elementary Teacher Education Curriculum 2013, pp. 11-13) show the structure of the curriculum of D. Ed programme in Kerala.
Figure 2.8: Curricular Area I: Foundations of Education

Figure 2.9: Curricular Area II: Curriculum and Pedagogy

Figure 2.10: Curricular Area III: School Experience Programme
2.6.3.1 English Curriculum of the Primary Teacher Education Programme in Kerala

The English language curriculum of the primary teacher education programme has to develop in trainees, an awareness about the scientific assumption on language and language acquisition. Apart from this the curriculum should concentrate on developing the language proficiency and communication skills of the trainees; meta-linguistic awareness; skills of speaking, listening reading and writing in varying context (NCFTE, 2009).

The English curriculum of the Elementary Teacher Education programme (D. Ed) in Kerala (refer appendix IX) is divided into 4 semesters. The paper in semester I is titled as ‘Proficiency in English Language’. It is divided into two units:

**Unit1**: Nature of language (which deals with first language, second language, language thought, multilingualism).

**Unit2**: Learner Proficiency and language competency (Listening and comprehending different texts, Teacher Talk, Reading, Improving unity skills)

A total of 85 hours (4 hours in a week) is allotted as the time for teaching English in semester one. There is no term end examination for English in semester one. Learners are assessed (out of 20 marks) based on the continuous evaluation (CE) of their classroom performance, reflective journal and assignments.

The paper in semester II is titled ‘English Language Teaching: Theory and Practice’. It is divided into two units:
**Unit 1:** An overview of principles and methods in language teaching (behavioristic and cognitive approaches to language learning, multiple intelligence, SLA theories).

**Unit 2:** Classroom process and Teaching – Learning strategies (pedagogic analysis, strategies for making learning more authentic and effective, addressing issues of learners with special educational needs, strategies for collaborative learning, developing teaching manual.

A total of 90 hours (6 hours in a week) is allotted as the time for teaching English in semester II. Learners have term end exam for English in this semester. Learners are assessed (out of 80 marks) based on the continuous evaluation (CE- 20 marks) of their classroom performance, reflective journal and assignments and their performance in the semester end exam (60 marks).

The paper in semester III is titled ‘**Pedagogy of English Language**’. It is also divided into two units.

**Unit 1:** Planning effective classroom transaction (designing classroom strategies, micro level planning of lessons, using school and classroom as a resource)

**Unit 2:** Assessment for effective learning (examination, evaluation and assessment, portfolio assessment, term-end assessment)

A total of 50 hours (3 hours in a week) is allotted as the time for teaching English in semester three. There is no term end examination for English in semester three. Like semester I, learners in semester three are also assessed (out of 20 marks) based on the
continuous evaluation (CE) of their classroom performance, reflective journal and assignments.

The paper in semester IV is titled ‘Teacher Professional Development’ which also contains two main units:

**Unit 1:** Language elements for effective communication

**Unit 2:** Continuing professional development.

A total of 120 hours (9 hours in a week) is allotted as the time for teaching English in semester IV. Learners have term end exam for English in this semester. Learners are assessed (out of 80 marks) based on the continuous evaluation (CE- 20 marks) of their classroom performance, reflective journal and assignments and their performance in the semester end exam (60 marks).

**2.7 Review of the Similar Studies in the Area**

As stated in the introduction to this chapter, review of similar studies assists the researcher to examine and get an overview of the similar studies done by others researchers/experts in the area. This will help the researcher in identifying the research gaps in the area where he/she is pursuing the research. It also helps the researcher to familiarize himself/herself with the procedures and research tools adopted by the previous researchers and get insights about the various problems encountered by them. The review can also aid in avoiding duplication. The researchers, through the review of similar studies, can compare the findings of their study with that of the others in the area and position their research in context.
After exploring the similar kind of studies that happened in the area of evaluation of the teacher education programme/curriculum, the researcher identified thirteen studies from eight different countries which are classified as follows:

A. Studies at international level
B. Studies at national level
C. Studies at state/local level

2.7.1 Studies at International Level

In this section, seven studies conducted at international level have been reviewed. The studies were selected from six countries belonging to four different continents. The list of the studies and the countries where they were conducted is given in table 2.1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Continent</th>
<th>Country (s)</th>
<th>Study (s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Europe</td>
<td>Greece</td>
<td>Karatsiori (2015)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asia</td>
<td>Cambodia</td>
<td>Sovann &amp; Chomdokmai (2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Turkey</td>
<td>Coskun &amp; Daloglu (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Demir (2015)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hong Kong</td>
<td>Peacock (2009)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Africa</td>
<td>Uganda</td>
<td>Otaala. J. et.al. (2013)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.1: Studies at International Level
Sovann and Chomdokmai (2012) conducted a study in Cambodia. The purpose of the study was to evaluate the effectiveness of the Cambodian English Language Pre-service Teacher Training Programme at the National Institute of Education (NIE). The study also aimed at proposing guidelines to improve the pre-service teacher training programme. The study modeled upon Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick’s (2006) four-level model of training evaluation. The study collected both quantitative and qualitative data. The quantitative data were collected from 89 teacher trainees and the tools used for data collection were an English standardized test, a teaching knowledge test (TKT) and self-administered questionnaire. The quantitative data collected were analyzed using descriptive statistics. The qualitative data were collected from 5 teacher trainees and 2 administrators. Semi-structured interviews were used for this purpose and the data collected were analyzed using content analysis.

The major findings of the study were:

a) Cambodian English language pre-service teacher training programme was effective to some extent. The trainees’ reaction toward the program was at neutral level.

b) The trainees’ knowledge and skill were at an average level.

c) The programme could change the attitude of the trainees positively and could slightly improve their learning level.

d) The Cambodian upper primary schools gained some benefits from the programme. (Sovann and Chomdokmai, 2012)
The study suggested four dimensions to be considered while planning the training programme in the following years:

1) Improving learning environment
2) Upgrading training resources
3) Improving training curriculum
4) Enhancing program management. (Sovann and Chomdokmai, 2012, p. 9)

Another study was conducted by Karatsiori (2015) which examined the EFL student teachers’ perception of their initial teacher education and the ways in which the programme contributed to their future professional life. The study was conducted among 112 student teachers who were in their fourth year of studies for a bachelor degree in the Aristotle University of Thessaloniki, Greece. The study modeled/based itself on the European Profile for Language Teacher Education: A Frame of Reference (Kelly et. al. 2004; cited in Karatsiori, 2015), which identifies 40 items as necessary elements in foreign language teacher education.

The major finding of the study was the student teachers’ perception that the academic curriculum of their teacher education programme should focus more on school-based teaching practice. The study also pointed out that the curriculum should lay emphasis on active learning and promote communication with other universities and research institutes (Karatsiori, 2015).

Otaala. J. et. al. (2013) conducted a study in Kyambogo University, Uganda. The objective behind the study was to examine the “effectiveness of Kyambogo University teacher-education curriculum on secondary school teacher performance in Uganda”
The main research tools used for data collection included questionnaires, focus group discussion, lesson observations and interviews. The sample for the study included Kyambogo University lecturers, university students, secondary school teachers and students.

The main findings of the study were:

a) Most lecturers in university and secondary school teachers use teacher-centred methods.

b) The lecturers and the school teachers gave more prominence to ‘theoretical teaching’.

c) Teachers attributed their use of teacher – centred methods to the training that they received and also the pressure of the examinations that demanded theoretical teaching. (Otaala. J. et. al., 2013)

The study gave suggestions to enhance the effectiveness of the Kyambogo University Secondary Teacher education programme which included:

- the need for university curriculum review
- reformation of the examination system
- conducting pedagogical courses for university lecturers and
- involving experienced teachers in supervising students on their school practice teaching sessions. (Otaala. J. et. al., 2013)

Darling-Hammond (2006) conducted a study to assess the usefulness of multiple measures for evaluating the programme outcomes of the Stanford Teacher Education
Programme (STEP). She identified three categories where the study can be conducted to ascertain the usefulness of various research and assessment strategies:

A. Evaluating student teachers’ learning that occurs through the various courses and pedagogy in the STEP programme

In this category surveys and interviews were used as tools.

(i) Surveys were conducted with two groups:

a) Teachers who graduated from STEP programme: The survey collected their perceptions regarding the preparation they received from STEP and how useful it was in their profession. They expressed a very positive opinion about the programme and expressed that the training that they received in STEP was effective.

b) The employers: The employers of the institutions where the graduates from the STEP programme were working expressed their perceptions on the effectiveness of the candidates who completed STEP. Employers also were positive about the skills of the STEP graduates and the effectiveness of the programme in preparing the teachers.

(ii) Interviews were conducted with two groups:

a) the student teachers STEP

b) the graduates of STEP

Interviews explored the student teachers’ perceptions on what they learn in STEP and the utility of it. Similarly the interviews with the graduates collected their perception regarding the training they received from STEP and how well they applied this knowledge in their profession (theory-practice connection). 23 graduates of the STEP who were working in different schools were interviewed. They graduates pointed out five areas in which the STEP training they received helped them:
(a) increased effectiveness working with struggling students; (b) greater sophistication in curriculum planning, particularly in identifying and matching long-term objectives and assessment; (c) greater appreciation for collaborative teaching and ability to nurture collegial support; (d) structured opportunities for feedback and reflection on teaching practice; and (e) development of theoretical frameworks to support teaching skills and vision. (Darling-Hammond, 2006, p.127)

B. Assessing the teaching performance of individuals as pre-service candidates and as novice teachers

In this category, pre-tests, post-tests, samples of students’ works, and longitudinal observations of student teachers’ teaching practice were used as tools.

(i) Pre-tests and post-tests of teaching knowledge:

Tests for Teaching Knowledge (TTK) were used to gauge the learning of the student teachers in the beginning and end of the programme. The findings from the tests and its analysis revealed that tests needed further refinement to enhance its validity as a tool.

(ii) Samples of student teachers’ works

Samples of student teachers’ works consisted of final self assessment essays, interviews with instructors and interview with student teachers. The analysis of student teachers’ works revealed that there was a successive development in their knowledge and thinking about teaching. It was also found that:
certain aspects of the course pedagogy were important in helping student teachers learn to think like a teacher, including reading theoretical works in conjunction with writing cases; sharing cases with peer readers; receiving specific, theoretically grounded, concrete feedback from instructors; and revising the case several times in response to feedback about important elements of the context and teaching as well as potential theoretical explanations for what occurred. (Darling-Hammond, 2006, p.128)

(iii) Longitudinal observations of the teaching practice

Longitudinal observations of the teaching practice of student teachers were made based on the ‘California Standards for the Teaching Profession’ rubrics. The rubrics used in the observations were found to be useful in assessing the student teachers’ performance.

C. Assessing the outcomes of teacher performance

For analyzing the effect of teacher performance on their students, the researcher took the help of Performance Assessment for California Teachers (PACT) scores, which evaluated the performance of 400 elementary teacher education graduates who completed STEP. The PACT assessment revealed certain areas (like special education, technology integrated teaching etc) where the graduates were not adequately prepared.

Darling-Hammond (2006) concludes her study by pointing out that even though the various tools used in the study had their own limitations, each tool used in the study was found to “contribute different insights to an assessment of candidates’ progress and programme outcomes” (p.135). A combination of a variety of measures/tools needs to be
adopted and the data collected needs to be triangulated in order to assess the effectiveness of a programme from multiple angles.

Even though the focus of Darling-Hammond’s study was not directly on programme evaluation, she, in the process of assessing the usefulness of multiple measures for evaluating the programme outcomes of the STEP, indirectly evaluated the STEP programme and tested its effectiveness.

Peacock (2009) conducted a study to evaluate a foreign language teacher education programme. For the study, he used a new framework which he developed after reviewing the principles of programme evaluation and foreign language teacher (FLT) education (a detailed description of the framework developed by Peacock, 2009 can be seen in the next chapter). The procedure that Peacock (2009) developed for his study “focuses on programme strengths and weaknesses and how far the programme meets the needs of students” (p. 259). His research sample consisted of 166 third year trainee teachers, 8 programme teachers, the programme coordinators and alumni. The research tools that he used for his study included interviews, questionnaire, student essays and analysis of programme materials. The findings of the research were categorized into the strengths of the training programme and the short comings of the programme. The study revealed that the “programme had many strengths, including the teaching of pedagogic skills and promoting reflection and self-evaluation” (Peacock, 2009, p. 259). The short comings of the FLT programme “should increase the amount of practice teaching and increase input in certain areas such as knowledge of teaching within the local socio-cultural context and classroom management” (Peacock, 2009, p. 259).
The next two studies reviewed here (Coskun & Daloglu, 2010; Demir, 2015) have used Peacock’s (2009) model as the basis for their studies.

Coskun & Daloglu (2010) used Peacock’s model for evaluating an English language teacher education programme in a Turkish university context. There were two main objectives behind the study:

- To emphasize on the importance/need for programme evaluation for teacher education programmes
- To identify components of the English teacher education programme that needed improvement. (Coskun & Daloglu, 2010)

The study based itself on the data collected from teachers and the fourth year student teachers of the new teacher education programme which was initiated by the Higher Education Council (HEC). The tools used for data collection included questionnaires, interviews and the analysis of the course content. The data collected were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. The main findings of the study were:

- The teachers and student teachers were having similar views about some programme components. But they were having different opinion regarding the balance among linguistic and pedagogic competences in the programme.
- Teachers pointed out that the programme does not suffice to enhance student teachers’ linguistic competence. Student teachers were of the opinion that the pedagogic side of the programme needs improvement. (Coskun & Daloglu, 2010)

Similarly Demir (2015) conducted a study to explore the beliefs of EFL student teachers and their trainers on the effectiveness of the pre-service English teacher
education programme at a state university in Turkey. The data collection instruments used in the study was modeled on Peacock’s (2009) evaluation model. Data were collected from 8 teacher trainers and 57 EFL student teachers using questionnaires and semi-structured interviews. The analysis of the data collected by the research tools indicated that “the most problematic areas in the programme are its inability to meet student teachers’ needs, its irrelevance to their needs, and its failure to give adequate training in English” (Demir, 2015, p. 157). Apart from this, the interviews with the teacher trainers pointed out that the training programme and its curriculum were outdated and it required “updating by increasing the number of basic skills courses and addressing the issues regarding the practice” (p. 157). The teacher trainers also pointed out the ineffectiveness of the programme in preparing student teachers to function effectively in English as a foreign language context. The study also made suggestion to improve the training programme.

### 2.7.2 Studies at National Level

In this section, four studies conducted at national level have been reviewed. The list of the studies is given in table 2.2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>State</th>
<th>Study (s)</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Assam</td>
<td>Bordoloi (1989); Roy (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andhra Pradesh</td>
<td>Venkanna (2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Himachal Pradesh</td>
<td>Sharma (2013)</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2.2: Studies at National Level**
Bordoloi (1989) conducted a study to investigate the various aspects of the curriculum of teacher education at the lower primary level and also the various programmes of in-service training given to the primary level teachers. The context of the study was Assam. The research tools used for data collection included questionnaires, interviews and observation. The population for the study included principals of training colleges, heads of co-operating schools, experts of universities, teacher trainees and teacher educators. The major findings of the study included:

- The teacher training curriculum, even though practical in outlook, was theoretical in practice. The curriculum was not realistic and task-oriented. Some glaring inadequacies were noticed in the implementation part of the curriculum.
- There was a backlog of untrained teachers in Assam.
- The conditions (esp. infrastructure) of many training institutes were not satisfactory.
- The quality of the entrants to the teacher training institutes was not satisfactory.
- The economic condition of the teacher educators is not satisfactory and competent people are not attracted to the training institutions.
- Supervision during practice teaching sessions needs much improvement.
- Organization of practice teaching was not scientific.
- The curriculum was too heavy to be completed in one academic year.
- Examination system was the most neglected aspect in the total training programme.
- There was inadequate provision for in-service training of the teacher educators.

(Bordoloi, 1989)
The major recommendations made by the study are the following:

- Completion of higher secondary course to be considered as the minimum qualification level to be prescribed for admission into the training programme.
- Clearing the backlog of untrained teachers in various schools.
- Expansion of the training facilities.
- Revision of the training curriculum.
- Change of methodology used in the training classrooms.
- Improved organization and supervision of teaching practice. (Bordoloi, 1989)

Similarly Roy (2010) conducted a study to evaluate the teacher education programmes at primary level in Assam. The following were the objectives of the study:

a) To study the growth and development of teacher education programmes in Assam at primary level

b) To study the infrastructure facilities of teacher training institutes like BTCs/DIETs/Normal schools

c) To study the curricula of teacher education at primary level.

d) i) To study the various strategies and innovation undertaken at different teacher training institution like BTCs/DIETs/Normal schools

ii) To study the various strategies and innovation undertaken by SCERT/DPEP/SSA and non government agencies for qualitative improvement of teacher education and its implementation aspects.
e) To identify the strengths, weaknesses and current issues in Teacher Education/Teacher Training programmes and thereby to identify the changes required to revamp the system. (Roy, 2010, pp. 31 – 32).

The study employed a survey method for data collection and used questionnaires, interviews, observation schedule and content analysis of teacher education curriculum at primary level as tools. 18 DIETs, 19 Training colleges (BTCs) and 7 normal schools from different districts of Assam were selected for the study and the principles, teacher educators and student teachers of these teacher training institutes were treated as sample for the study. The major findings made by the study can be summarized as follows:

- Most of the DIETs and district resource centres in Assam are not well equipped for training pre-service and in-service teachers. The training institutes have shortage of faculty members.
- Availability of other infrastructural facilities like proper classrooms, laboratory, language lab, science lab, etc. was also problematic in many training institutes.
- None of the teacher training institutes were found to be fully compliant with the norms given by NCTE regarding the availability of staff and other infrastructural facilities.
- Many teacher educators were not having the minimum required qualification.
- Even though majority of the trainees had a positive opinion about the curriculum, most of them were not satisfied with the materials provided in their training institutes. (Roy, 2010)
The study concluded that teacher educators must get requisite training and exposure that are required to train student teachers effectively. The teacher educators need to use innovative teaching strategies to make their classes more interesting. The teacher educators also need to be exposed to various professional development programmes which would aid them in updating their skills.

Venkanna (2010) conducted a study to evaluate the revised B.Ed (English) curriculum of Andhra Pradesh. The study critically evaluated the various components of the B.Ed English curriculum like aim and objectives, textbook and materials, methodology, need for training assessment and evaluation. The researcher used questionnaires (both for teacher educators and trainees) as the tools for the study. 100 teacher trainees and 10 teacher educators from different colleges of education in Andhra Pradesh formed the sample for the study. The major findings of the study are:

- The syllabus suggested is learner as well as teacher-friendly.
- The training procedures suggested in the revised syllabus are innovative and improve the proper ways of teaching English language skills in the student-teachers.
- The objectives suggested are adequate and cater to the present needs of the student teachers.
- Internal assessment should be part of the programme for the effective implementation of the syllabus. (Venkanna, 2010, p. 120).

The study recommended that the student teachers who opt for English as method I should be offered English as method II so that they can develop clear awareness about the
language and its pedagogy. The study also recommended that projects on communication skills and pronunciation should be included as a part of the syllabus.

Sharma (2013) conducted a study to evaluate the content of the curriculum of secondary teachers’ pre-service training programme and to analyse the curriculum transaction procedures. The context of the study was Himachal Pradesh. For the study, the researcher employed content analysis (for evaluating the contents of curriculum), descriptive survey method and Flander’s interaction analysis technique of classroom observation. The teacher educators from selected 34 colleges of education formed the sample of the study.

The study revealed that there were too many inadequacies in the curriculum framework of the secondary teachers’ pre-service training programme and its transactional procedures.

2.7.3 Studies at State/Local Level

In this section two studies (Mustafa, 2007 and George, 2008) that were conducted in the context of Kerala are reviewed.

Musthafa (2007) conducted a critical study of the pre-primary teacher education in Kerala. The study was conducted in selected 31 pre-primary teacher training institutes in Kerala. The researcher used questionnaires (for heads, teachers and student teachers of pre-primary training institutes and also for pre-school teachers) and observation schedule as tools for his study. The data collected from the tools were interpreted qualitatively. Some of the major findings of the study were:
There existed no governmental regulation or monitoring on the entire pre-primary teacher training institutes of Kerala.

The training institutes lack proper infrastructure like land, teachers, resources in the library, etc.

The planning, organization and transaction of the curriculum were not satisfactory.

The student teachers of the various pre-primary teacher training institutes were not satisfied with the curricular and co-curricular activities in their institutes.

The total scenario of pre-primary teacher training needed a complete revamping.

(Musthafa, 2007)

The study recommended a complete revamping of the training programme in terms of infrastructure, human resource, curriculum, etc. and advocated for strict governmental monitoring and control over the training institutes.

George (2008) conducted a study to evaluate the functioning of elementary teacher education programme in Kerala by analyzing its strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats (SWOT).

The study adopted survey method and the sample consisted of 38 teacher training institutes selected from five districts of Kerala. 150 teacher educators, 910 student teachers and principals of 38 TTIs participated in the study. The researcher used various tools like document analysis, checklist to study facilities in TTIs, questionnaires for teacher educators and student teachers, interview schedule for principals, Likert type attitude scale for teacher educators and Teaching Aptitude Test Battery (TATB) to study
the teaching aptitude of student teachers. Various statistical measure like percentage, mean, median, mode, standard deviation, t-test, chi-square test, etc were employed to analyse the data.

The following are some of the major conclusions about the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities and threats of elementary teacher education programme in Kerala made by the study:

- The availability of infrastructural facilities was quite satisfactory in many TTIs.
- The practice teaching facilities provided to the trainees were quite satisfactory in majority of the TTIs.
- Majority of the elementary teacher educators lacked professional quality.
- The curriculum was adequate to develop understanding about the theoretical and psychological based of education in the trainees and also to enable trainees to plan educational activities.
- The curriculum enables teacher trainees to acquire teaching competencies and made them familiar with various instructional methods and strategies.
- The curriculum needed improvement in the area of integrating IT. (George, 2008)

Apart from this, the study also analyzed the other aspects of curriculum like curriculum transaction, practice teaching, evaluation strategy, etc. in detail. The study made suggestion like improving the infrastructural facilities in TTIs, enhancing the professional quality of teacher educators, providing necessary resource materials for curriculum transaction, etc.
2.7.4 A Critique of the Similar Studies

When the thirteen studies reviewed in the preceding sections are analyzed, it can be observed that six studies (Sovann & Chomdokmai, 2012; Peacock, 2009; Coskun & Daloglu, 2010; Roy, 2010; Musthafa, 2007; George, 2008) focused on evaluating teacher education programme as a whole and studying its effectiveness. Two studies (Karatsiori, 2015; Demir, 2015) focused on collecting the perceptions and beliefs of the teacher trainees and trainers regarding the effectiveness of the initial teacher education programme. Four studies (Otaala. J. et.al., 2013; Bordoloi, 1989; Venkanna, 2010; Sharma, 2013) focused on assessing the effectiveness of the teacher education curriculum. The focus of one study (Darling-Hammond, 2006) was on testing the effectiveness of the various measures used for evaluating a teacher education programme.

All the thirteen studies employed a mixed method research design where both quantitative and qualitative methods were adopted for data collection and analysis. Questionnaires, interviews and classroom observation were found to be the most common tools used for data collection across the studies. Some other measures used in the studies were Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT) (Sovann & Chomdokmai, 2012; Darling-Hammond, 2006), Flander’s Interaction Analysis (Sharma, 2013), Teaching Aptitude Test Battery (TATB) (George, 2008), and Performance Assessment for California Teachers (PACT) (Darling-Hammond, 2006). Most of the studies collected data from the student teachers and their teacher trainers/educators. Other studies (Sovann & Chomdokmai, 2012; Otaala. J. et.al., 2013, Peacock, 2009; Bordoloi, 1989; Musthafa, 2007) included administrators, practicing school teachers and alumni also as a part of the sample.
Most studies conducted internationally were modelled upon evaluation models designed by experts. For example Sovann & Chomdokmai (2012) used Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick’s (2006) Four Level Model of Training Evaluation. Similarly, Karatsiori’s (2015) study based itself on European Profile for Language Teacher Education: A Frame of Reference. Coskun & Daloglu (2010) and Demir (2015) modelled their studies on Peacock’s (2009) model for evaluation of foreign language teacher education programmes. The studies that were conducted nationally were not following any evaluation model as such. All of them developed their own frameworks for evaluation.

Apart from the study by Darling-Hammond (2006), all the other studies identified multiple problems with the teacher education programme/curriculum they evaluated. Those studies recommended the improvement, revision, upgradation and reformation of the problematic areas/ components which they identified in the teacher education programme/ curriculum. The study by Darling-Hammond (2006) showed quite positive results about the Stanford Teacher Education Programme except a few areas that needed improvement.

The most common suggestions made by the studies could be summarized as follows:

- Teacher education programme/curriculum should give more attention to teaching practice (Karatsiori, 2015; Otaala, J.et.al., 2013; Peacock, 2009; Bordolo, 1989; George, 2008).
➢ Improving the learning environment and upgrading the training resources (Sovann & Chomdokmai, 2012; Otaala, J. et.al., 2013; Roy, 2010; Bordoloi, 1989; Musthafa, 2007)

➢ Upgrading the training curriculum (Demir, 2015; Coskun & Daloglu, 2010; Otaala, J.et.al., 2013; Sovann & Chomdokmai, 2012; Bordoloi, 1989, Sharma, 2013; Musthafa, 2007; George, 2008).

➢ Reforming the system of internal assessment and examination (Otaala, J.et.al., 2013; Bordoloi, 1989; Venkanna, 2010)

➢ Training teacher educators/trainers (George, 2008; Musthafa, 2007; Roy, 2010; Bordoloi, 1989; Otaala. J.et.al., 2013)

Apart from these, the studies also recommended changes in aspects like methodology followed by the teacher educators (Otaala. J.et.al., 2013; Bordoloi, 1989), integrating information technology in the training curriculum (George, 2008; Darling-Hammond, 2006), improving training materials (George, 2008; Musthafa, 2007) etc. The critique of the studies can also be presented in a tabular form as in table 2.3.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspects</th>
<th>Details</th>
<th>Studies</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• 7 international level studies from six different countries.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>• Greece, Cambodia, Turkey, Hong Kong, Uganda, United States of America.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Focus of the studies</td>
<td>Tools</td>
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<tr>
<td>Evaluation of the teacher education programme as a whole</td>
<td>Questionnaires, interviews and classroom observation used as the most common tools across the studies. Some other measures used:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Collecting the perceptions/beliefs of teacher trainees and trainers regarding the effectiveness of the programme</td>
<td>- Teaching Knowledge Test (TKT)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Assessing the effectiveness of teacher education curriculum</td>
<td>- Flander’s Interaction Analysis</td>
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<tr>
<td>Testing the effectiveness of various measures used for evaluating a teacher education programme</td>
<td>- Teaching Aptitude Test Battery (TATB)</td>
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<td>- Performance Assessment for California Teachers (PACT)</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature of the Research Procedure</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>All the thirteen studies employed mixed method research design</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both qualitative and quantitative methods adopted for data collection and data analysis</td>
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<tr>
<th>Focus of the studies</th>
<th>Tools</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Two state level/local studies from Kerala.</td>
<td>Mustafa, 2007; George, 2008.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Performance Assessment for California Teachers (PACT)</td>
<td>Darling-Hammond, 2006</td>
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<tr>
<td>Evaluation Models followed by the Studies</td>
<td>Most of the studies conducted internationally were using evaluations models. Examples are given below.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>European Profile for Language Teacher Education: A Frame of Reference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The studies conducted nationally developed their own frameworks for evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nature of the findings</td>
<td>Twelve out of thirteen studies identified multiple problems with the teacher education programme/curriculum they evaluated. They recommended the improvement, revision, upgradation and reformation of the problematic areas/components.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Nature of Participants
- Most of the studies collected data from student teachers and their teacher educators/trainers.
- Few other studies included administrators, practicing school teachers and alumni as their sample.

### Evaluation Models followed by the Studies
- **Kirkpatrick and Kirkpatrick’s (2006) Four Level Model of Training Evaluation**
- **European Profile for Language Teacher Education: A Frame of Reference**
- **Peacock’s (2009) Model**
- **Peacock’s (2009) Model**
- **Peacock’s (2009) Model**
- The studies conducted nationally developed their own frameworks for evaluation.

### Nature of the findings
- Twelve out of thirteen studies identified multiple problems with the teacher education programme/curriculum they evaluated. They recommended the improvement, revision, upgradation and reformation of the problematic areas/components.
The study by Darling-Hammond (2006) showed quite positive results about the Stanford Teacher Education Programme.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major Suggestions</th>
<th>Karatsiori, 2015; Otaala, J.et.al., 2013; Peacock, 2009; Bordoloi, 1989; George, 2008.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teacher education programme/curriculum should give more attention to teaching practice</td>
<td>Sovann &amp;Chomdokmai, 2012; Otaala, J. et.al., 2013; Roy, 2010; Bordoloi, 1989; Musthafa, 2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Upgrading the training curriculum</td>
<td>Otaala. J.et.al., 2013; Bordoloi, 1989; Venkanna, 2010.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reforming the system of internal assessment and examination</td>
<td>George, 2008; Musthafa, 2007; Roy, 2010; Bordoloi, 1989; Otaala. J.et.al., 2013.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Changes in the methodology followed by the teacher educators</td>
<td>George, 2008; Darling-Hammond, 2006.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrating information technology in the training curriculum</td>
<td>George, 2008; Musthafa, 2007.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improving training materials</td>
<td>George, 2008; Musthafa, 2007.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2.3: A Critique of the Similar Studies

2.7.5 Implications for the Present Study

The importance of second language teacher education curriculum and the need to develop the language competence of second language teachers (especially the teachers at primary level) have been emphasized in documents like NCERT’s Position Paper on
Teaching of English 2005, NCF 2005, and KCF 2007. The recent National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education 2009 also underscores the significance of training second language teachers and developing their language competence. The revision of the previous TTC English curriculum and the introduction of the new D.Ed English curriculum based on the guidelines given in NCFTE 2009 and KCF 2007 can be seen as a major step in enhancing the effectiveness of the professional preparation of second language primary teachers. The current study undertakes a thorough evaluation of the new D.Ed English curriculum from multiple angles and analyses its implementation and scope for improvement.

The review of the similar studies presented in the preceding sections assisted the researcher in the following ways:

a) To get an overview of the similar studies that have happened in the area throughout the world in general and specifically in the context of Kerala.

b) To understand the research methodology adopted by those studies and the research tools they have employed to collect data.

c) To identify research gap and position the current study in context.

The review facilitated the researcher to familiarize himself with the various ways of conducting an evaluative study and gave him an idea about the various aspects to be focused in an evaluative study. The researcher could not identify any particular evaluation model that would suit his context. In order to develop the framework for evaluation, he decided to follow a mixed approach where he would take aspects from three prominent evaluation models: Stufflebeam’s CIPP Model, Kirkpatrick’s Four Levels of Evaluation and Peacock’s Model. The suggestions and recommendations given
in Kerala Curriculum Framework 2007 and National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education 2009 are kept as point of reference in the designing of the research tools. For the study, the researcher decided to adopt a mixed method framework using quantitative and qualitative methods for data collection and analysis.

After reviewing the similar studies especially in Kerala context, the researcher noted that no evaluation studies pertaining specifically to the evaluation of the D.Ed English curriculum and studying its effectiveness have happened in Kerala. As stated in chapter one, section 1.3, SCERT Kerala has invited research studies/data pertaining to the implementation and effectiveness of the new D.Ed curriculum. This study would be the first of its kind, which would specifically evaluate the D.Ed English curriculum and identify the gaps between the curriculum objectives and its implementation.

2.8 Conclusion

This chapter attempted to present a review of the literature which is related to the main concepts associated with the study. The chapter started by reviewing the concept of teacher education. It was followed by examining the concepts of curriculum, curriculum evaluation and curriculum renewal. The chapter also reviewed the literature pertaining to the areas of teacher education curriculum and English language curriculum at primary level. Towards the end, the chapter reviewed similar studies in the area.