CHAPTER - I

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It is frequently lamented that the teacher education programme lack a formulated set of aims and purposes, consist of a collection of unrelated coursework and disconnected field work, and as a result, end up haphazardly training rather than thoughtfully educating prospective teachers. Mission statements of Schools of Education are rarely followed. The institutional aims and purposes remain formal. The situation is not promising. At times it seems that there is an inexorable institutional logic which resists purposeful direction and that the aims of teacher education have to be given adequate thought by the participants. At other times it seems that state authorities and national accrediting agencies seriously constrain teacher educator's efforts. In short, it appears that forces both within and external to institutions of education tends to subvert the process. Our aims are designed to give further direction to the professional educational process and provide a basis for the subsequent reform of teacher education in a
manner consistent with a social reconstructionist reform agenda. It will encourage teacher educators and prospective teachers to examine, clarify and further articulate their own educational views and beliefs and to examine and scrutinize the school context of schooling and teacher education.

1.0.0.0 THE AIMS OF TEACHER EDUCATION

In last few years it is evident that the reflective stance in teacher education has become so widely employed by so many practitioners and theoreticians that the term now lacks what, for us, has always been a very conscious social and political orientation. We want to renew the social reform in respect of school and teacher training programme, so that they can adjust teaching to educational needs of all students in classroom, sensitising individual needs and learning styles of students on their own or a team cooperatively. The National policy on Education - 1986 summarised the situation succinctly and called for "overhauling teacher education" (MHRD, 1986 a, 1986 b). The Ramamurthy Committee also suggested drastic reforms in teacher education aiming to enable prospective teachers to develop an adequate social and educational orientation (CR for NPE, 1990). Teachers should be responsible for new educational decisions and actions.
within the classroom. It is important that prospective teachers begin to consider what will count as a good reason for effective educational action.

We sense that teacher education ought to aim directly at developing teachers who are able to identify and articulate their purposes, who can choose appropriate instructional strategies or appropriate means, who know and understand the content to be taught, who understand the social experiences and cognitive orientations of their students, and who can be counted on for giving good reasons for their actions. These justifications should take into account the activity of teaching, the larger communities of educators, and a greater understanding of the social and political context of schooling. A framework can be elaborated which would give a more substantial basis than anything now articulated and previously depended. Recently, Margret Buchmann (1986) and J.B. Macmillan (1987) have attempted to articulate a basis for discerning better from worse and good from bad educational rationale. In a fairly immediate sense the teaching role obligates teachers to take an interest in student learning and to convey worthwhile knowledge.
The view of students as learners underlines the distinctive obligations of teachers and role orientation in teaching. By definition, means taking an interest in student learning. Thus, in so far as teachers are not social workers, career guides, or simply adults who care for children, their work centers on the curriculum and presupposes knowledge of subject matter (Buchmann 1986, p. 531). In a more removed sense Buchmann argues that the teaching role obligates teachers to respect the constraints imposed by the structures of disciplines. Teachers are not free to use whatever methods, content, or organizational procedures they might feel appropriate. The structures of the disciplines constrain what is an appropriate mode of teaching-learning. In fact, an understanding of the role of teacher and the activity of teaching is conceptually dependent on particular communities/ traditions. Therefore, it seems that if teacher education is to aim at the formulation of good reasons for educational action, then teacher educators should enable prospective teachers to articulate good reasons based on and formulated with an understanding of teaching and the roles of teaching as defined by the varied and established educational traditions.
THE CHALLENGE

If we found a society in which teaching lies was viewed as acceptable, we would have some basis for criticizing that society's educational practices (Macmillan 1987). Teaching is also an activity in which just relations should predominate. If a teacher acts highly toward a student because of him or some other external distraction that would seem to constitute breach of the educational relationship. The sense of breach would come from our belief that the activity of teaching and the relationships entailed by that activity would require fair and just relations between participants. While most of us would recognize that the activity of teaching entails trusting, honest, and fair relations, there are many choices that a teacher must make that are not so "easily" resolved. That is the activity of teaching provides only a very minimal basis for assessing and giving direction to educational choices. The activity of teaching as such simply doesn't take into account patient contextual features of teaching. As noted above the activity of teaching seems to entail relations of justice. But in a teaching situation where knowledge is being conveyed, it is not always clear what justice (as fairness to others) requires. For example, when students are
grouped by "assessed ability does justice require" the teacher to spend more instructional time with the 'lower' groups and therefore less time with other instructional groups in a specific skill or content area? Should the teacher make tradeoffs among content areas, giving the lower group more time in one area and offering the other groups enrichment activities in another area? Should the teacher question the justice of a distributional scheme based on "assessed ability" and a small group instructional format? It is not clear what the activity of teaching would countenance as good reasons in this example. It seems we must enlarge the basis beyond the activity of teaching.

The active construction of knowledge, however, places significant demands on teachers. It rests on more uncertain and messy views of knowledge and places responsibility for instruction more squarely on students than traditional instruction. The teacher's role in orchestrating and fostering students' learning is uncertain and risky compared with traditional telling and showing. Inservice teacher educators and policy makers intent on helping teachers develop their practice along these adventurous lines must decide, given limited time and resources, and given what is known about teaching and teacher learning, what aspect
of teacher knowledge and practice will make the most fruitful targets.

Teachers' knowledge of the subject matter is often taken for granted (Shulman, 1986). Many assume that teachers know the "stuff" they are supposed to teach, that the issue is helping them learn different ways to teach it. Some recognizing that teachers' understanding may be weak or distorted, nevertheless believe that changing teachers' ideas about learning or giving them better ways to present material will affect the most significant changes. Still others accord little importance to the role of subject matter knowledge in teaching, giving greater centrality to pedagogical techniques such as cooperative grouping, effective instruction, and questioning and discussion strategies. Research (e.g., Ball, 1991; Fennema, Peterson & Carely, 1992; Grossman, 1997; Hashweh, 1987) suggests, however, that teaching in ways focused on inquiry and understanding depends on the teacher's understanding and ability to inquire within the subject matter.

From this perspective, good teaching depends on but is not guaranteed by the teacher's subject matter knowledge. A crucial issue for the reform agenda is to understand the role of subject matter knowledge in
equipping teachers to change what they do (Ball & McDiarmid, 1996).

1.2.0.0 THE TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMME: PRE-SERVICE AND IN-SERVICE

Having a look at the teacher education programme of today it is observed that it still follows the traditional pattern of instruction, which is more theoretical and less practical in nature. In this present process the teacher trainee rarely gets time to study the effective pattern of teaching. Teacher training, to be effective, has to undergo a sea-change to consider the present need and expectations of the modern instructional technology and innovations in teaching. The training design, among other things, must spell out the process matched to the development of different skills and abilities in teachers. What should be the effective training approach to meet the challenge is a poser. The spelling out of the design and its implementation process are essential components of the change (Janqira, 1992). Change may be difficult as well as painful. But the change must be, since the teacher is the key to the success of education.

What is needed today is to renovate the practice teaching programme as well as the teacher training
through some modern practices without which our quest for a better teacher will miss the mark (UNESCO, 1972). Teachers are trained so that they become educators rather than specialists in transmitting pre-established curricula. There is uniform pattern of teacher education that can be equally applicable for variety of situations. Most of the countries envisage improved preservice and inservice training programme for teachers required to cope with the curricular changes.

Pre service training only prepares an individual for the job in hand, and provides the background and technical ability to start his work, but for subsequent development inservice training is necessary. The need of inservice education, particularly the training to the existing school teachers for desirable behavioural patterns, has been felt for achieving two major objectives. One is to keep the teachers abreast of new knowledge, pedagogic reforms and other developments, and initiate them into new methods and techniques. The second one is to meet the inadequacies in the existing teachers' training programme in the context of practice teaching for the development of teaching competence. Desirable teacher behaviour and effective classroom interaction, Harris, et al. (1969) stated, "The
Inservice education programme is not only a tool of progress, it is also a symbol of faith in the improbability of the individual. In order to meet these objectives and considering the need of inservice programme various commissions have made recommendations for providing retraining and advanced training courses to the teaching personnel already at work. Along with the rapid growth of knowledge within the subject fields pedagogical theories and practices in using various instructional strategies, tactics and rapid changes towards the challenging needs of individual, societies and the state as a whole, a new perspective for the teachers to improve himself as arisen. The dynamic evaluation of science, technology, culture and pedagogy make it necessary for the basic preservice training of the existing teachers to be supplemented by further inservice training.

Learning skills for effective lifelong professional intelligence are to be developed in teachers. Independent reading skills, interpersonal and interactive skills, human relations skills, reflective thinking skills, the skills to experiment and innovate, documentation skills, skills to apply professional learning to actual teaching are to be developed. In
fact independent learning skills provide the key to effective professional development and practice (Jangira, 1986).

Knowledge is growing at a very fast rate. It is very difficult for professional researchers to keep pace with it, even within very narrow fields. It is, therefore, necessary for the teachers to avail themselves of the facilities for further inservice education to keep pace with the knowledge explosion, new pedagogic theory and practice having modern techniques, methods, materials and media, and the changes of society. In the UNESCO commissions report Kotasek (1976) states. "This constant training is more effective and more direct than the training provided before the entry into the teaching profession". Hence continuous training is necessary for updating the knowledge and skills of teachers to maximise efficiency in classroom teaching, developing and refining the behavioural patterns and to keep himself posted with the modern trends in the society. The importance of inservice education, particularly the training of teachers in classroom teaching, is apparent.

Programme of inservice teacher education must serve a number of specific needs and goals (Smith, 1991). For instance:
1) Remedy the teachers' deficiencies arising out of the flows in his or her initial teacher training preparations.
2) Advance the teachers' skill and pedagogical knowledge required for new teaching roles.
3) Advance and update the teachers' knowledge of subject matter.
4) Train the teacher for non-tutorial positions.

Thus, inservice teacher education should not be focussed on one goal only. It must provide for those teachers who wish to increase their proficiency, and who wish to prepare themselves for some new roles in the educational system and who are trying to equip themselves to deal more effectively with day to day problems. However, it is not desirable to develop inservice teacher education at the cost of preservice teacher education. Stanley and Hewett have remarked, "It is necessary to devise a developmental process for inservice teacher education without curtailing any of the voluntary enthusiasm".

1.3.0.0 COOPERATIVE LEARNING BASED TRAINING APPROACH (CLBTA)

In recent years, Cooperative learning methods have been effectively used in school learning. The
researches in the use of cooperative learning methods indicate better student achievement and the spin off in the form of the development of skills and attitude of working together. The improved student achievement as a result of the use of cooperative learning method in the classroom arise out of active involvement of each individual to achieve a common goal and sharing of experience (Slavin, 1983, 1988, Sneizek, 1990). Can this approach be adopted for the training of preservice and inservice teachers? If so, does it need adaptation? What kind of adaptation is needed? Will its use result in better motivation of trainees? Will it improve their learning skills, skills of working together, decision making skills, etc.? Will it also develop positive attitude towards learning and the content of training? Will it improve transfer of training effects to actual practice? Besides describing cooperative learning approach and its application on teacher training and its anticipated outcome, coming steps will explains cooperative learning and its essential components.

1.2.1.0 Cooperative Learning - Concept and Practice

Cooperative learning techniques use a task structure that requires students to work cooperatively in four-to-six member groups of heterogeneous ability (Slavin, 1991). Further more, cooperative learning .
provides a task structure in which the students are required to work together in groups to achieve a shared academic goal (Jangira, 1992). Students are accountable for not only their achievement but also the performance of other group members. It is useful for the heterogeneity of student population because it encourages writing and learning among students with different academic abilities and arise out of the interactive effects of factors within individual students and home, school and community environments (Schniedewind and Salend, 1987).

Cooperative learning in generally understood to be learning that takes place in an environment where students in small groups share ideas and work collaboratively to complete academic tasks (Neil Davidson, 1991).

The cooperative tasks range from group activity focused on solving common problems to individual learning of specific skills or content (Sharan, 1980). Cooperative learning methods also involve incentives for cooperation, such as group rewards or recognition on the basis of group's academic performance. In most cases, cooperative learning also include structured instruction, often with teacher-led instruction.
preceding the cooperative learning activities and with evaluation and feedback following them. The format for cooperative learning can be:

1.3.2.0. Peer Teaching Group Project Format

In peer teaching one student tutors and assists another learning new skills. The caution in using this format is that academically skilled student should not always teach students who have lower academic skills. Situation should be so structured that if the former teaches the latter a particular academic area, the latter may also teach the former in some areas in which he is more skilled (Collection, making models, painting, music, dance, drama, etc.).

1.3.3.0. Group Project Format

In the group project format a task is selected and each group is required to complete an assignment which can be shared in the larger group.

1.3.4.0. Jigsaw Format

In 'jigsawing' a group activity is broken down into smaller components and each child or group of children is assigned set tasks towards the achievement of the overall activity aims. This enables the teacher to promote collaborative learning and cooperation.
amongst small groups whilst still attending to the needs and development of skills in individual children (Richard Rose, 1991).

Furthermore, in jigsaw format each group is assigned a task that must be completed when all group members complete their parts, the group is required to put it together for performance (Jangara, 1992). The teacher can select the format according to the nature of the work.

The following guidelines should be kept in view of using cooperative procedures:

- Each group is required to produce one product.
- Each group member should assist other group members to understand the material and the process.
- Each group member should unhesitatingly seek assistance from his or her peers in the group.
- No group member changes his or her ideas unless logically persuaded to do so.
- Each group member should indicate acceptance of the group's product.

The heterogeneous groups are formed taking into account such variables as sex, race, handicapping conditions and academic skill level. The groups can
also be formed through random assignments. If some students are known for their hostility, they may be placed in different groups till both develop working together skills. To keep the group dynamic the membership can be changed for each lesson.

Development of Cooperative skills among students is achieved by asking the students to reflect on their experience using such questions as:

- What did group members do to help your group achieving the desired goal(s)?
- What did group members do that hindered your group in achieving the desired goal(s)?
- What will your group do differently next time to work together to achieve the desired goal(s)?

The class may discuss their response to these questions. A teacher can also help the students to learn and work cooperatively to practice specific skills. It can be achieved through brain-storming and assigning of specific roles to group members. Teachers should also follow student reactions to cooperative learning using such questions as:

- Given the opportunity, would you like to work individually or cooperatively?
1.3.5.0. Management of Cooperative Learning

In cooperative learning grouping is required. So the tables, desks and chairs should be so designed that these can be moved easily from one place to another in the classroom for forming groups.

The chalkboards and screens should also be mobile. The class can be divided into different areas for group work. If screens to separate groups can be arranged, intergroup noise interference will be reduced.

1.3.6.0. Cooperative Learning Based Approach

Cooperative learning based approach is an extension of the cooperative learning used in school teaching. It uses cooperative learning procedures predominantly. It also uses other learning approaches emerging from the psychology of learning and training. The principles underlying the practice of cooperative learning based approach are presented here (Unesco, 1991).

1.3.6.1. Active Learning: Learning and achievement are better when learners are actively involved in the learning process, that is an established fact. In
active learning a number of activities can be organised. For example, brainstorming is quite useful in developing agenda for discussion. Here the participants suggest points for comments relating to the discussion. The contribution are pulled out and summarized on the blackboard or on overhead projector. In brainstorming the participants feel confident to make their suggestions without fear of criticism. An idea can be modified, adapted and expressed as another idea. The discussion of the idea should be avoided and no criticism of an idea is accepted at this stage. After the brainstorming session the list of points generated forms an agenda for discussion.

Group work: Group work also assumes active involvement of the participants. It ensures that all participants contribute and avoid dominance by a few. Pupils having strong views encourage flexible interpretation of the issues, ensure wide range of responses and allow systematic ordering of priorities. In this technique the task is clarified to the group, nominations of individual for different groups are made. The individuals are given fixed period to list their own responses and then asked to list their own range to establish priorities. Master list is prepared on the board without editing and evaluative comments. Ideas
then are classified according to common attributes and evaluated to assign relative importance.

Active involvement can also be ensured through the use of 'structured problem solving'. Groups of three are set. One of the participants can assume the role of explainer and other two act as clarifiers. The explainer explains what they have done and problems they have encountered. It is the job of the clarifier to ensure that what is being said should be understood fully to all. Value judgement are not passed. The role of the explainer rotates so that all the three get a chance to discuss what they have been doing. Difficulties are then documented. These difficulties are put on card and passed on to another members of the groups who review the difficulty and then on the reverse try to complete the sentence. The process is repeated with other group members and then responses are reviewed by the whole group.

1.3.6.2. Negotiation of Objectives: Whenever the purpose of learning in clear the learning is always better. The purpose can be unilaterally decided by teacher or it can be mutually decided by both the learner and the facilitator of learning. Involvement of the learner in deciding the purpose of learning has
several advantages. It takes care of the individual needs of the learners which may escape the teachers' compass. It also clarifies the purpose of learning to the learners. It helps the learner in seeking personal meaning in what is to be learnt. That is why the term 'negotiation of objective' has been used. In training situation, it is essential that the participants are involved in a discussion of why a particular aim is significant. At this stage the participants may comment or even disagree with particular course objectives. It is, therefore, necessary to discuss whether an activity is relevant to the participant.

Learning journal also forms an important personal (diary) document in which trainees write about their own learning. They write about their own priorities in this course. It is helpful to encourage participants to take responsibility for their own learning. Another way in which individual objectives can be negotiated and accommodated within a course would be through 'negotiation of the whole programme' with the participants. For example, an activity regarding course expectation from the course can be helpful in negotiating the programme.
One of the difficulties in negotiating objectives and the programmes refers to the resistance in the participants to new ideas and practice. The resistance also arises from the obstacles within their professions. Towards the end of the course the participant can be involved in an obstacle naming activity to overcome this resistance through individual reflection group sharing and working together. The participants can draw mountain with rocks and boulders. If they would like to climb the peak, they will have to cross these rocks and boulders. Symbolically, the mountain can be labelled as the goal for implementing an idea or practice in actual situation. The participants are then required to label each boulder as an obstacle to achieve the goal. The obstacles are then discussed in small groups as to how these boulders can be negotiated so that they can reach their goal. The participants may be encourage to consider how far the obstacles are of their own making, what they can do to overcome these obstacles and to what extent they can reach the goal within the constraints.

The resistance to adopt and implement new ideas and practices learnt in the training can also be overcome through Role Reversal Technique (RRT) as used in Jangira (1995). Here the participants are randomly
divided into two groups. One group takes the stance that the practice cannot be introduced in their institution specifying the obstacles. The other group takes the stance that they can implement it in their institution and specify precisely how they will overcome the obstacle. After specified time, the roles of the two groups are reversed. Care is taken to ensure participation by all trainees.

1.3.6.3: Demonstration, Practice and Feedback: The course leaders involved in using these techniques is a key to facilitating learning of the trainees. Many of the activities require the course leader to demonstrate effective ways of learning to the group in a way that encourages involvement of individuals. As the course proceeds individual participants will have opportunities with the group to take the lead during the sessions report to the larger groups and, so on. Discussion of these sessions should be used as a means of participant positive feedback about their contributions. Through this process the trainees will learn the skills of organising teaching and training situations and transacting the task effectively (Jangira and Singh, 1982; Jangira, 1983).
1.3.6.4. **Continuous Evaluation:** Continuous evaluation enhances learning as research and experience indicates. It provides feedback to the learners to improve performance. Evaluation process involves the learners as well as facilitators of learning. It is using several formal and informal procedures.

The participants may be encouraged to reflect on their own learning silently. Some period of silence can be provided within the session at the end of a busy activity or at a place considered to be appropriate. The evaluation issues to think about specified for each unit may prove a useful focus for reflection of this type. It can be called evaluation through reflection. Another evaluation device refers to active listening.

In pairs the participants can be asked to reflect upon a session or an activity for about two minutes. They were invited to think about what has happened, what they have enjoyed and what they might like to do as a result of this experience. Active listening involves looking at a person in talking, sitting quietly, doing nothing but listening, responding naturally with gestures and explanation, and making no comments, only asking a question, if there is a need to clarify a point.
It is useful to ask the group to discuss the course. They might be asked to list highs and lows of the session or the day as the case may be. Listing things that they find useful and enjoyable and things about which they are less happy. It provides useful 'group feedback'. Written reports are prepared by individual participants relating to their own learning. They should be positive in nature appraising what has been achieved so far. They might also include a list of priorities for further development.

1.3.6.5. Support: Support facilitates learning and putting learning to use in new situations. Some ground roles for support can be considered. For example, we listen to each other, we respect each other's ideas and values, it is okay to make mistakes, they are valuable learning points, avoid hurting each other. The important point is that group should seek to establish rules that are meaningful, relevant and supportive to individuals and groups.

One of the ways in which supportive atmosphere can be created within a course is by asking participants to carry out tasks that require collaborative work. It develops interdependence in the activities. The course leaders may like to pay attention to the set of tasks
that necessitated the collaboration, helping participants to suggest that their learning can be helped by other members of the group. Group size and membership is appropriate to the skills and experience of the participants, the nature of the task to be carried out, the development of participant skills in the context of group working including communication, sharing ideas, and decision making, etc.

Group work encouraging interdependence can take a variety of norms, for example, pairs may be read the materials together, discussing the content and prepare answers to given questions. Pairs may prepare joint statements about topic to be presented to a larger group. A group may be involved in a task that can be completed in separate material that are helped by individuals. Individual members may be assigned particular goals like chairperson, coordinators, summarizer, reporter, etc.

The principles of effective participation should be followed in the course design and transaction. The principles are:

1. 'Listen' to the views of others which is in itself a learning process that will develop individual's ideas.
2. 'Share' ideas and experiences with others since it helps in the development of the discussion in a course session.

3. 'Challenge' and speak of if you hear something with which you disagree or do not fully understand. In the same way you must accept your ideas to be challenged by others.

4. 'Relate' course discussion to your own classroom seeking to find ways of improving your own practice.

5. 'Have fun' since there is no evidence to suggest the learning has to be painful. By and large effective classrooms are places where students enjoy themselves.

The cooperative Learning Based Training Approach is based on the principles of learning and training outlined above.

1.3.7.0. Cooperative Learning Based Training Design

It is evident from the preceding discussion that Cooperative Learning Based Training assigns responsibility for the learning to the individuals and groups. The course faculty has the limited role of providing conducive climate for working, briefing and de-briefing, forming groups and providing learning
material. During discussion and transaction they do not commit this or that way to encourage fuller drawing out the experiences and ideas from each individual. They act as navigators only to bring back whenever proceedings cross the limit of relevance.

1.3.7.1. In-service Training: Two designs. Composite Training Transfer Design (CTTD) and Simultaneous Training Transfer Design (STTD) are described here. In the former, the transfer of training to actual practice is envisaged after the completion of training while, in the latter, the transfer of training is planned simultaneously as the training proceeds.

The design spells out components and activities for different stages of training. At least three stages namely, pretest/pretraining, training/experiment and post-test/post training are obvious for each training programme.

Table 1.1: Simultaneous Training and Transfer Design

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Content</th>
<th>Activity</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Warming up</td>
<td>Course introduction</td>
<td>Initial briefing</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Course expectations</td>
<td>Individual reflection</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Learning preferences</td>
<td>Group interaction and</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Objectives and programmes</td>
<td>prioritisation</td>
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<td>Negotiation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Stage</td>
<td>Content</td>
<td>Activity</td>
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<tr>
<td>Substantive</td>
<td>Content Unit 1</td>
<td>Session briefing</td>
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<td>trans-</td>
<td>Individual reading and reflection/visit observation.</td>
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<tr>
<td>action</td>
<td>Peer help and sharing in pairs</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Small group work (discussion/role play etc.)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Intergroup sharing</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Evaluation of the process and outcomes (individual and group)</td>
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<td></td>
<td>sessional debriefing</td>
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<tr>
<td>Transfer</td>
<td>Planning for implementation of learning to anticipated practice obstacles</td>
<td>Individual planning</td>
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<td>of learning</td>
<td>Sharing in small groups for refinement</td>
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<tr>
<td>practice</td>
<td>Obstacle naming game</td>
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<td>in</td>
<td>Intergroup Sharing</td>
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<tr>
<td>Workplace</td>
<td>Verbalising support</td>
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<tr>
<td>Techniques</td>
<td>Interacting with the head</td>
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<tr>
<td>Material</td>
<td>Interacting with the peers</td>
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<tr>
<td>Programmes</td>
<td>Interacting with other relevant parties</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Seeking needed support</td>
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<tr>
<td>Follow up</td>
<td>Sharing experience of implementation of the practice in the next</td>
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<td></td>
<td>face-to-face session</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Monitoring</td>
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<td>Concluding</td>
<td>Final debriefing</td>
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<td>training</td>
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<td>Follow up</td>
<td>Monitoring</td>
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<td>Extending support</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Content Unit 2
Repeat activities for content Unit 1.

Content Unit N

Concluding training

Follow up

Monitoring
Extending support
In Simultaneous Training and Transfer Design, the training is spread over a period of time allowing time to put ideas and practices to use in actual situation in the workplace. One or more sessions transacting the skills to implement a practice are followed by the preparation of action plan for implementing in the institution. The participants use it and come back with experiences. This sequence of activities is followed with other learning units. For continuous staff development, this design is very much suitable. It requires a little more effort and response, but the results are very encouraging. It results in change in attitude of the participant to teaching and training.

1.3.7.2. Composite Training and Transfer Design (CTTD): In this design the transfer of learning during the training is envisaged after the completion of the inservice training programme. Most of the inservice training programmes can run for a specified period and towards the end action plan for implementation are drawn as post training exercise. Inservice courses during vacations are of this type.

1.4.0.0. THE PRESENT STUDY

This research study was undertaken with a view to studying effectiveness of cooperative learning based
training approach in respect of teacher attitude towards learning teaching over conventional training programmes and training effect transfer to actual classroom practice by these inservice teachers upon pupils to be measured through pupil perception inventory towards learning.

The problem was stated as "EFFECT OF COOPERATIVE LEARNING BASED TRAINING APPROACH ON TEACHER ATTITUDE TOWARDS LEARNING TEACHING AND TRANSFER TO PRACTICE". The type of training constituted independent variable. At the stage of training, teachers attitude forms an independent variable. In the second phase in the school, pupil perceptions of teachers formed independent variable.

1.5.0.0. DEFINITIONS USED

1.5.1.0. Cooperative Learning Based Training Approach (CLBTA)

Cooperative Learning Based Training Approach provides a task structure in which the teachers are required to work together in groups providing several varieties of solution to achieve their shared goal.

1.5.2.0. Conventional Training Programme

Conventional Training programme as common a traditional basal programme using lecture-cum-
demonstration approach in following the instructions and involved in using a basal reading series giving very brief explanation of skill followed by a few practice exercises (R. Stevens, 1991).

1.5.3.0. Training Effect Transfer to Practice

The positive affect arises out of relevance of the training to immediate professional needs of the teachers, negotiation of objectives and programme, and participatory transaction is called training effect transfer to practice.

1.5.4.0. Teacher Attitude Towards Learning Teaching

Attitudes are characterized by cognitive, affective and action components. Further an attitude is often defined as a tendency to react favourably or unfavourably toward a designed class of stimuli, such as a national or racial group, a custom, or an institution. It is evident that, when so defined, 'attitudes' can not be directly observed, but must be inferred from overt behaviour, both verbal and non verbal and it cannot response consistency with regard to certain categories of stimuli. In actual practice, 'attitude' has been most frequency associated with social stimuli and with emotionally toned responses. Teacher attitude here referred to the attitude of
Attitude scales are designed to provide a quantitative measure of the individual's relative position along a unidimensional attitude continuum.

1.5.6.0. Pupil Perception Towards Learning

Pupil perception can be recognized as the significant relationships between the individual's attitudinal, motivational or emotional characteristics and his/her performance on perception or cognitive tasks towards learning process. Here it may be considered as the opinion of the pupils about their classroom learning through the technique the teachers taught them.

Pupil perception inventory was the scale having 30 questions to express their opinions towards classroom learning keeping in view the methods followed by the teachers.

1.5.6.0. Variables

The variables involved in the study are summarised in the table given below.
Table 1.2: Variables of the Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Independent Variable</th>
<th>Dependent Variables</th>
<th>Control Variables</th>
<th>Control Employed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Training Type:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cooperative Learning</td>
<td>1. Teachers' Years of</td>
<td>1. Administrative</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Based Training</td>
<td>Age</td>
<td>elementary</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Approach and Conven-</td>
<td>2. Pupil Perception</td>
<td>classes to be</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tional Approach</td>
<td></td>
<td>taught)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Sex of the teachers undergone training</td>
<td>2. Administrative (only males selected)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Subject matter</td>
<td>3. Administrative (English and Hindi structures to be taught)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Initial ability of teachers</td>
<td>4. Statistical</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Contamination</td>
<td>5. Administrative (Isolation between the two experimental groups) and control groups</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Inter-sessional history</td>
<td>6. Design</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Testing</td>
<td>7. Design</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8. Instrumentation</td>
<td>8. Reliability</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>10. Fidelity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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1.5.0.0. OBJECTIVES

The following objectives were formulated for the study:

1. To study the effect of CLBTA on attitude of inservice teacher's learning-teaching in the classroom.

2. To study the effect of CLBTA on pupil perception of teaching in the classroom.

3. To compare attitudes of teachers undergone training using CLBTA and conventional approach.

4. To compare pupil perception of teaching of the teachers who have undergone CLBTA and conventional training.

1.7.0.0. HYPOTHESES

The following null hypotheses have been formulated for testing in order to fulfill the objectives:

H1- There is no significant difference between the pretest and post test mean attitude scores of teachers undergone training using CLBTA.

H2- There is no significant difference between the pretest and posttest mean attitude scores of teachers undergone training using conventional approach.
H3- There is no significant difference among post test mean attitude scores of groups of teachers undergone CLBTA and conventional training programme.

H4- There is no significant difference between pre-test and post-test pupil perception mean scores of teaching of teachers undergone training using CLBTA.

H5- There is no significant difference between pre-test and post-test pupil perception mean scores of teaching of teachers undergone conventional training.

1.8.0.0. DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY

This study was confined to the primary schools inservice teachers drawn from schools of Municipal Corporation, Delhi of Northern Region. The sample in number was limited to (40) forty trained teachers from different primary schools. The pupils were limited to thirty primary schools and the size of the pupils was 400 selecting. 10 from each class randomly.

The study was further restricted to cooperative learning training approach and conventional approach of training programme and to four weeks experiment only.
Also to measure the attitude change, teacher attitude scale towards learning-teaching for teachers and pupil perception inventory for pupils, was used.

The study was again limited to follow four units of the study material.

The investigator acted simultaneously as the organizer in organizing and coordinating the programme including follow up activities in schools for the success of the study, as the observer in assessing the tools. Several resource personnel during modelling the cooperative learning approach participated and investigator as a supervisor in follow up activities for practice. Conventional training programme was not organized for control group teachers but restricted to the training what they received during their pre service teacher training programme.