Chapter I
INTRODUCTION

Teaching is a Jugglery of words, which needs to be practiced through the proper training, acquisition of various skills, competencies and relevant knowledge about the learner and the subject matter in the contemporary world.

Education in 21st century is a challenge to excellence in every endeavor. Newer and more vibrant areas of education have already come under the purview of teaching-learning. The uses of new media and technology have made education interesting and thrilling to the teachers as well as to the learners at all levels. The inclusion of health education, sex education, value and aesthetics education etc., have attained immense public attention in the professional training of teachers right from school level. Today we need well qualified and well prepared teachers who do not have only academic and professional competencies of high standard but also earnest responsibility and commitment to strive constantly to raise students’ learning, capacity and achievement so as to make them increasingly autonomous and self-actualizing persons. Teachers can craft or blight a nation.

The Education Commission (1964-66) stated that a sound programme of professional education of teachers is essential for the qualitative improvement of education. It emphasized that investment in teacher education can yield very rich dividends because the financial resources required are small when measured against the resulting improvements in the education of millions. The Commission was of the view that training and orientation of teacher is very important so that he understands and accomplishes his changing role effectively.

The National Policy on Education (1986) also stated that the status of teacher reflects the socio-cultural ethos of the society; it is said that no people can rise above the level of its teachers. The government and community should endeavour to create conditions, which will help motivate and inspire teachers on constructive and creative lines. The Policy has also suggested that the national strategy of education has to ensure the availability of highly educated, trained and motivated manpower for dealing with the challenges which are inherent in the modernization of the economy.

The concerns expressed by the Education Commission (1964-66) and National Policy on Education (1986) are still relevant today. National Knowledge Commission
(2007) and National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (2009) have suggested that a teacher needs to be prepared in relation to the needs and demands arising in the school context, to engage with questions of school knowledge, the learner and the learning process. Teaching is a profession and teacher education is a professional preparation of teachers. Preparing one for the profession is an arduous task and it involves action from multiple fronts and perspectives.

It has become necessary to raise the professional competency of teachers keeping in view the geographical, social, economic, gender and cultural diversities of the country in general and states in particular. The reforms in teacher education, which were initiated in the country from time to time, have a long history.

1.1 TEACHER EDUCATION: AN OVERVIEW

Education today is under myriad constraints and challenges and so is the teacher education. It calls forth setting and settling diverse issues of human assets and probes into some of the crucial problems of human enlightenment. Teacher education is perhaps more confronted with how to negotiate and significantly address the world of teaching-learning than merely dealing with duties, responsibilities and classroom assignments. It is now at the fork of fullness of vision in a fascinated world of immediate gain in every endeavor and worries and frustrations in fruitless teaching sans joy, sans freedom and creative adventure. As a consequence, the challenges of teacher education today for addressing tougher ones of tomorrow remains a far more thrilling adventure to be more worthily undertaken (Chakrabarti, 2008, p. 9).

As an integral component of the educational system, teacher education is intimately connected with society and is conditioned by the ethos, culture and character of a nation. The constitutional goals, the directive principles of the state policy, the socio-economic problems and the growth of the knowledge, the emerging expectations and changes operating in education etc. call for an appropriate response from a futuristic education system and provide the perspective within which teacher education programmes need to be viewed. Education of teachers needs to strengthen and stress upon the main attributes of a profession, such as the systematic theory, rigorous training over a specified duration, authority, community sanction, ethical code and culture, generating knowledge through research and specialization. It is already acknowledged that formal professional training on
continuous basis is necessary for becoming a good teacher as it caters to the development of one’s personality and sharpening of communication skills and commitment to a code of conduct (Verma, 2006, p. v).

1.2 MEANING AND CONCEPT OF TEACHER EDUCATION

Teacher education is the process of providing teachers and potential teachers with the skills and knowledge necessary to teach effectively in a classroom environment or outside the classroom environment. It is the professional preparation, in pedagogy, of those who want to enter the profession of teaching. This may be traditional and closed type with objectivist orientation which focuses on the product of learning or may be progressive and open type with an orientation of subjectivity of the pupils focusing on the process of learning (Mangla, 2001, p. 3).

Goods (1973) dictionary of education has defined teacher education as “all the formal and informal activities and experiences that help to qualify a person to assume the responsibilities as a member of the educational profession or to discharge his responsibilities most effectively”.

According to Good (1941), teacher education not only refers to the total educative experiences which contribute to the preparation of a person for a teaching position in schools, but the term is more commonly employed to designate the program of courses and other experiences offered by an educational institute for the announced purpose of preparing persons for teaching and other educational service and for contributing to their growth in competency for such services.

A programme of teacher education derives its theoretical support from a basic philosophy of education, the historical and sociological forces shaping education and psychological view points on how human beings learn. The different theoretical view points of psychology regarding the understanding of human behaviour and its modification, especially as they influence teacher education practices, are of greater relevance. For quite some time, now, the behaviorist model which analyses teaching and learning to a series of sequentially arranged specific tasks; skills and competencies, influenced teacher education leading to the adoption of innovative practices. The kind and amount of teacher education varies greatly with situation, time and need. Effective teacher education programme incorporates an integrated view of all its stages and relate it to two new dimensions. First
dimension consists of Vertical integration of teacher education from the pre-school to the university stage and the education of all kinds of teachers throughout life, whereas the second dimension consists of horizontal interaction of teacher education whereby all institutions, agencies and social groups concerned with the effectiveness of education, link together their efforts for the professional education and development of teachers. The character of teacher education is dynamic with regard to the dynamic process of working and prospective as well as regular experienced teachers, who are sensitive to the new challenging roles and in developing their knowledge and competencies. Therefore, the trainee centered professional preparation and emphasis on demonstration of expected teacher behaviours by teacher educators themselves are necessary in an effective teacher education programme where prospective teachers are taught: how to enjoy the freedom to exceed the parameters of the textbook in favour of truth and academic honesty; advancement of present knowledge and ability to communicate and interpret facts in the class without violating the norms; managing the classrooms; use of multimedia and multi-method approach while teaching; providing guidance; participation in extension and social services, undertaking and promoting research-experimentation-innovation; exhibiting their sense of accountability; commitment to the code of conduct and; developing their scholarship and skills (Mangla, 2001, pp. 4-7).

De Landsheere (1987) emphasized that for enjoying the same social status and prestige as all those who eminently serve society, today’s or tomorrows teachers must be professional, whose educational programme and level should be more and more comparable with the physician’s education.

Alvin Toffler in Future Shocks has outlined the role of teacher and said, “It is no longer sufficient for Johnny to understand the past. It is not even enough for him to understand the present, for the here-and-now environment will soon vanish. Johnny must learn to anticipate the directions and rate of change. He must, to put it technically, learn to make repeated, probabilistic, increasingly long-range assumptions about the future. And so must Johnny’s teachers” (Toffler, 1970, p. 364).

The dynamic concept of teacher education has tried to make it essentially task oriented. It is, in principle, governed by the philosophy that, “teacher should play the role of
leader inside and outside the classroom, initiate action for the transformation of the society as an agent of social change and thereby help achieve the goal of national development”.

The primary aim of all teacher education systems at all stages was/is to produce ‘good’ teachers. In older times a good teacher was one who had high scholarship and moral character. Later on it meant subject competence, while still later it meant a highly disciplined traditionalist.

The above discussion of the concept of teacher education and teacher’s role down the ages, particularly since independence, emphasizes that if any educational programme has to prove worthwhile and useful for the society, it must respond to the needs and aspirations of the society. An effective and useful system of teacher education produces teachers who have a sense of obligation, and a dynamic social conscience. It, therefore, affirms that in a democratic, secular and free society like India, there is need for teacher education which can offer opportunities and situations for prospective teachers for grasping principles and critical methods of teaching. It also requires that they develop a mental culture to appreciate fundamental concepts and alternatives and develop their own free judgment and a sense of intellectual independence. The greatest need in teacher education today is to develop a concept within the parameters of our experiences and social needs, and to develop sufficient grounds for rational justification to support this concept. This means strengthening theory and developing teacher education as a discipline. Its principles of epistemology, logic and philosophy will have to be strengthened through continuous research and contemplation. Such an effort would lead to better understanding and effective conceptual clarity. Teacher education with its curricula, aims and methodology will have to be conceived in terms of the wider society. It has to be, by its very nature and purpose, an aspect of education which encourages immersion in the changing phenomenon constituting the living environment. A meaningful concept of teacher education cannot sustain itself in a philosophy of withdrawal. It has to be set, within the living environment of the community for continuous widening of its own horizon and for enriching itself and the community it is committed to serve, through dynamic interaction. Hence, the idea of working with the community has to be integrated into the total teacher education programme. Such an approach is bound to enrich the concept of teacher’s role from a seeker to a thinker, and then to a doer. In fact, all these aspects need to get merged into one. In many developed societies, the concept of teacher education has
emerged as a sophisticated discipline and a rigorous professional training with its advanced and clear cut notions of the theory and practice. It has related itself to researches and innovations being carried out in the area of psychology, philosophy and other social sciences, leading to the emergence of new and meaningful concepts within the discipline itself. Highly structured techniques of teaching, increasing use of hardware in teaching-learning situations, broad concepts of educational planning, examination and evaluation of students are some of the features of a colorful drama that is being enacted in the modern educational world. It will be extremely interesting, inspiring and challenging even for the most lethargic, unmotivated and lifeless teacher. No programme of teacher education can ignore such happenings, as well as the feverish educational activities, going on all around. This would therefore, mean revamping much of the organization and structure of teacher education in India, and making it philosophically and sociologically meaningful for the larger society (Mangla, 2001, pp. 8-9).

1.3 NEED AND IMPORTANCE OF TEACHER EDUCATION

A teacher has been given great regards, since ancient times, not only in India, but also in the world.

Manu, the ancient law giver has said, “A teacher is the image of Brahma (the creator of the universe)”. An old Indian Prayer says, “Gurur Brahma, Gurur Vishnu, Gurur Devo Maheshwara, Guru Sakshat Par Brahma, Tasmai Shri Guruve Namah” i.e. “The teacher is God Brahma; he is God Maheshwara. He is the whole universe, obeisance to the teacher”. According to Indian Culture, a child receives his physical birth from the parents and second birth at the hands of the teacher. The teacher is given a higher position than parents, because he opens the pupil’s eyes of knowledge and moulds his character. As it is said that God created man after His own image, so also the teacher fashions his student after his own image.

In the Western world also, the teacher is given great regards, Adams said, “A teacher affects eternity, he can never tell where his influence stops”. In other words, his work does not confine to a particular state or a country; it transcends all the boundaries. His contributions do not confine to a particular period of time. His influence can cover the entire span of life. Henry van Dyke once said, “I sing the praise of the unknown teacher, king of himself and leader of mankind”. The American Commission on Teacher Education
observed, “The quality of a nation depends upon the quality of its citizens. The quality of its citizens depends not exclusively, but in critical measure upon the quality of their education, the quality of their education depends more than upon any single factor, upon the quality of their teacher” (Mohanty, 2003, p. 273).

The role of the teacher and his/her education is the foundations on which the superstructure of the education of a country is based. Besides the initial preparation of teachers, the teacher education also includes the programmes for further education of teachers already engaged in the teaching profession and with the assumption that the teaching activity can be definitely improved after undergoing such programmes. Professor Humanyun Kabir rightly stated, “Without good teachers even the best system is bound to fail. With good teachers even the defects of a system can be largely overcome”. To meet the national needs especially those of 21st century teachers have to decide on and construe the curriculum, aids to instruction and persuade boys and girls with their demeanor and deeds. Teachers have a great responsibility at a time when the society is undergoing transformation in re-orienting education. Their task will not be confined to preserve, interpret and transmit the culture to the coming generation, but also to bring about social change. They have to work as active agents in ushering forth-new social order based on equality, liberty and justice. Indeed, teachers have an astounding task to perform.

The contemporary teacher education though has grown manifold over the decades, but is overshadowed by severe criticism for being static and unresponsive to the emerging challenges of the present time. The knowledge, skills and methodologies propagated by the system remain alien and never get assimilated in the school system. Teacher education continues to be viewed in isolation, disconnected from other factors that shape the role and performance of a teacher such as recruitment, salary, working conditions and overall professional development. Over the years, few initiatives have been taken for betterment but results are not convincing. Quality improvement of our teacher education programme is one of the indispensable needs that call for immediate attention. Undoubtedly, the quality of school education is the direct consequence and outcome of the quality of teachers and the teacher education system. More so, in this era of globalization, teachers are exposed to increasingly challenging changes, uncertainties and expectations as they perform their professional duties. In addition to teaching, they are often required to take up expanded roles
Introduction

and responsibilities related to school management, curriculum planning, teacher mentoring, etc. In such a complex environment, effective career-long teacher development programmes that build teacher capacities and professional competencies are of crucial importance to quality education. All this implies the ‘Central position’ occupied by the teacher who is seen as essentially a means-ends broker and teaching is conceived as a technical exercise, an applied science, concerned with and according to the criteria of means-end efficiency. Hence, a strategic vision towards quality teacher education is essential to transform teacher education as a strategy in itself. Teacher education as a continuous process needs prioritization to implement an alternative paradigm for quality teacher education. The school community and the teacher training institutions have to move towards building a shared commitment for a paradigm shift in teacher education. Hence, an alternative paradigm towards quality teacher education does not call for more of the same—more time, more subjects, more courses—but for a transformation based on its utility for the school and the society. In the new millennium, teacher education should be built on the premise: ‘teacher education—of the people, by the people and for the people to attain Quality Education for All’.

1.4 TEACHER EDUCATION IN INDIA: HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

The development of formal system of teacher education in India can be attributed to two periods of history viz. pre-independence and post-independence. Some of the educationists are of the view that origin of teacher education can be traced back to ancient times. The teacher education in ancient times was traditional and religion based which underwent changes with the changing times.

The story of development of teacher education in India is quite impressive and noteworthy from the point of view of those, who are going to be future teachers. The teacher education today is the reflection of all the changes, whether religion based, traditional, social, cultural, economical, political etc. which occurred in India from time to time. It is pertinent to have an overview of how these developments have occurred during the past many centuries (http://www.ncte-india.org/pub/policy/policy_0.htm). A brief review of major events in the development of teacher education in India is presented below:
**Teacher Education during Vedic, Buddhist and Muslim Period:**

During Vedic period, there was no formal system of education, although education was provided by the teachers (Guru) in their residences popularly known as ‘Gurukuls’. In Gurukul centered education monitorial system, in the absence of teachers was quite prevalent. The monitorial system was sufficient enough to provide incentives and developing attitudes like that of teachers and offered opportunities to able and intelligent students to learn the art of teaching. This indirectly performed the same function as colleges of education perform today. This Gurukul centered tradition of Vedic period was improved and enriched by the ‘Vihara’ centered education of Buddhist period, in which whole education, including teacher education, was carried out in Viharas. In these Viharas monastic system was prevailed, in which a student (Monk) had to learn and teach under the supervision of two teachers (Bhikshus or Upajjhaya) to qualify for the status of ‘Acharya’. Teaching involved putting questions, discharging advices and guidelines, through instruction, exposition, debate, discussion, use of stories etc. and it was a bit more systematic than the one in past. This continued till the 11th century A.D. till the arrival of Muslims. The arrival of Muslims witnessed the rise of a parallel ‘Maktab’ based tradition along with the old one and the two traditions thrived side by side. In Muslim system, elementary education was provided in ‘Maktabs’ and higher education was imparted in ‘Madarsas’. The learned were respected and teachers were mostly Maulvis. Sometimes scholarly persons were also employed to teach. There existed no official record of training of teachers, but many other historical records have witnessed that the teacher preparation was done by initiation of the older teachers. Good students were appointed tutors to teach junior students. The, monitorial system was also prevalent during Muslim system of education. Pedagogy was developed by them but, not as the separate branch of knowledge, as is today. During these periods the teacher education was unorganized and traditional and prevailed till the coming of the British.

**Teacher Education during British Period:**

The whole credit of making a formal system of teacher education, like today, goes to British as they were the first in sowing the seeds of this system of teacher education in India. The formal teacher education found its roots soon after its inception and quickly diversified itself. The initial attempts formally made towards teacher education seem to have been by
some private agencies in the three Presidencies under the East India Company, during the early decades of the 19th century. These were the Calcutta School Society formed in 1819, the Native Education Society of Bombay (1820) and Madras School Society (1820). These societies received grants specifically for training of teachers in their schools. The annual reports of the three Presidencies mentioned the attempts made by these societies to educate their teachers. In Madras, the Madras School Societies’ efforts were noted with appreciation and an amount was sanctioned in support of its activities even before 1824. This suggests that the earlier efforts in teacher education for working teachers were in the nature of private initiatives. State initiatives ensued only as an aftermath of the government assuming the responsibility for education in India. Non-availability of an adequate number of schools, both vernacular and Anglo-vernacular, ineffective instruction provided in them and similar issues were continuously addressed by several officers. It is significant to note that the recognition of training needs existed simultaneously with the development of formal school system. Between 1815 and 1854, opinions in favour of teacher education accumulated and spread across different administrative levels. There was an increased perception of the need for more schools. As a result, training of school teachers gained attention as a possible mechanism for expanding the school system at a cheaper cost using ‘native’ teachers and maintaining a certain quality. In 1826, Lord Thomas Munro, Governor of Madras, along with providing financial support to private initiatives, also gave a detailed proposal for establishment of training schools in each Collectorate as principal schools, with a continuous supply of trained teachers. As a result of several such developments, the three private societies were granted some sums of money. The reported impact of training of teachers was quite positive, though not fully effective. Recognition of the inevitable slowness in accruing more positive result in any new practice was also there. Government’s initiatives in teacher education came only as a consequence of Wood’s Dispatch of 1854. The general opinion thus generated among the administrators received support after Wood’s Dispatch that recognized the great deficiency in the facilities for the teachers’ training and desired to see establishment, with as little delay as possible of training. As a sequel to this, normal schools for training primary school teachers were established in each Presidency, making the official acceptance of teacher training formal as an integral part of the Indian education system. The Presidency towns were the first to have normal training schools, with Madras in the lead
These schools were found to be quite effective in the sense that their products were found to be superior to untrained teachers in schools (http://www.ncte-india.org/pub/policy/policy_0.htm).

The normal schools initially provided pedagogic training of some sort for teachers of primary schools. The duration and nature of training varied across the Presidencies. They were expanded to include prospective teachers who were ‘bright, young men’ willing to receive admission for training with stipends and not the headmasters of the schools. Significantly, separate training started for prospective teachers for each class/grade including females too. However, larger difficulty was observed in attracting females for training. Gradually, school education expanded to include ‘middle’ classes and a little later, ‘secondary’ classes. The establishment of universities after 1857 led to an increase in the number of colleges. This development had an impact on normal schools. While the main focus was on providing knowledge and pedagogy suited to particular grades, students were permitted, along with a special course on ‘Method’, to study subjects of matriculation which would facilitate their entry to the universities later. Normal schools gradually began to attract more students for being selected for stipends and certification, which came to be seen as surety for getting jobs. In fact, some annual reports from the Presidencies expressed concern about wrong youth getting selected which affected the quality of training. In 1859, Stanley’s Dispatch observed that ‘the institution of training schools does not seem to have been carried out to the extent contemplated by the Court of Directors’. Later on, due to continued, increased and diversified expansion of teacher education, the Indian Education Commission (1882) provided some definite directions for furthering teacher education in India. The commission not only approved teacher training programmes for both elementary and secondary school teachers but also recommended a separate programme for secondary school training, distinctly higher in level, form and method. It also recommended separate training programmes for graduates and undergraduates. The commission was of the view that such a programme should include ‘an examination in the principles and practice of teaching… success in which should hereafter be a condition of permanent employment as a teacher in any secondary school, government or aided’. As a sequel to the report of the commission, training colleges were established for the first time in India and six training colleges came into existence, one each in Allahabad and Jabalpur (1890); Kuruseong, Lahore
and Madras (1886) and; Rajamundary (1894). Thus, by the end of nineteenth century, teacher education got established as a substantial structural set-up. Though, it was predominantly a state-supported programme, there was an increase in private initiatives too, mostly with state financial support. The institutional structure of teacher education diversified into normal schools, secondary training schools and training colleges, run by the state and private enterprises, and with well-differentiated training inputs as well as procedural and certification details (http://www.ncte-india.org/pub/policy/policy_0.htm).

The onset of twentieth century ushered in a period of real transition in the field of teacher education as it did in political and social spheres in India. The seeds of transition were sown by the Viceroy Lord Curzon (1902-05). He took several significant steps to improve the quality of education. His emphasis was on improvement of quality and not quantity at all levels of education. He highlighted these concerns in his ‘Resolution on Education Policy’ (1904), which is more commonly known as ‘Government of India Resolution of 1904’. The Resolution emphasized the necessity of providing a large number of training institutions for primary teachers with the duration of training being a minimum of two years. The other recommendations relevant to teacher education were: 1) the equipment of a training college should be as important as that of an arts college; 2) the training courses for graduates should be one-year university courses leading to a university degree, while training courses for undergraduates should be of two years; 3) the theory and practice of teaching should be included in training courses; 4) a practicing school should be attached to each training college; 5) every possible care should be taken to maintain a connection between a training college and schools. But, before the resolution could be implemented, Curzon was recalled in 1905. The Resolution, however, provided direction to further action by subsequent Viceroys who decided to continue with these decisions (http://www.ncte-india.org/pub/policy/policy_0.htm).

Later, as a sequel to the Minto-Morley Reforms of 1909, the government passed another resolution on Educational Policy in 1913 which, among other things, declared that ‘...eventually under the modern system of education no teacher should be allowed to teach without a certificate that he is qualified to do so’. After this, within less than a decade the Calcutta University Commission (1917-19), though limited to Calcutta University made some recommendations which had implications for other educational institutions as well.
Introduction

(Garg, 2000, pp. 11-17). It pointed out that poor quality of training is imparted in existing training colleges, and recommended the establishment of a Department of Education at the University to be manned by a Professor, Readers and Lecturers with a demonstration school attached to it, for experimentation with new methods of teaching, curriculum planning, and school organization (Chauhan, 2004, p. 208).

Not many new developments occurred between 1920 and 1929. The various achievements in education of this period included a marginal increase in number of educational institutions despite the large-scale boycott of English schools and colleges by the Indians. The idea of a national education system received a fresh impetus and institutions with explicit nationalist learning mushroomed all over the country. The growing dissatisfaction with the educational system, its growing size and the revival of a parallel network of national education institutions alarmed the government about falling quality of education making it ‘largely ineffective and wasteful’. In order to look into the matter more carefully, the Auxiliary Committee of Indian Statutory Commission, more commonly known as the Hartog Committee, named after its Chairman, Sir Philip Hartog, was set up in 1929. It made important recommendations about the training of primary school teachers in terms of uplifting the standards, lengthening the duration, adequate staffing for training programmes of primary teachers and improving the service conditions of primary school teachers to attract and retain better quality of teachers. It was for the first time that explicit concern about the service conditions of school teachers was indicated as a recommendation by any committee. In accordance with the above recommendations efforts were made to streamline training and working conditions of teachers. These recommendations also led to the setting up of in-service education programmes for primary school teachers and training institutions were equipped with laboratories, libraries and practicing schools. Amidst the turmoil of World War II (1939-45) and the Quit India Movement (1942), a major event of educational significance was the setting up of the Sargent Committee in 1944. With regard to teacher training, the Sargent Committee stressed on the establishment of provisions for training different categories of teachers, picking up of suitable persons for teaching jobs, refresher courses for giving in-service training, teaching practice and research facilities. Meanwhile, in-service training in the form of short courses, evening classes, summer school courses, etc. were started in Madras, the United Provinces, the Northern Provinces, Bombay
and Jalandhar. These developments achieved at the instance of colonial Government of India during 1902-45, indicate the growing concern about teacher education in respect of not only making it a necessary equipment for a school teacher, but also prescribing adequate administrative and organizational specifications as to the content, components, duration and relevance of training mode available to school teachers. It is pertinent to remember that the first decade of this century was rife with political turmoil. A general attitude of suspicion and distrust towards the colonial Government became increasingly widespread among Indians and as a result, any effort by government to ‘regulate’ educational institution through quality control met with strong criticism from educated Indians. It is relevant to note that teacher education was not greatly affected during this period of turmoil (1902-45). Obviously, within a disturbed educational system, training of teachers could not be a major priority (Garg, 2000, pp. 20-27).

It is evident from Table – 1.1 that the progress of teacher training in India was very slow during pre-independence period. In 1881-82, the total number of training schools was 113 with 4080 trainees in them. This number increased to 152 in 1891-92, 179 in 1901-02, 575 in 1911-12, 1072 in 1921-22 and then decreased to 612 in 1941-42. In 1946-47, the total number of training schools was 650 with an enrolment of 38,770 trainees. However, the number of secondary teacher training colleges increased to 31 by 1941-42 and 42 by 1946-47. The total enrolment in these institutions was 3,100 in 1946-47 (Chauhan, 2004, pp. 208-09).

Table – 1.1

Teacher Education during British Period

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Training Schools</th>
<th>Training Colleges</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>Enrolment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1881-82</td>
<td>113</td>
<td>4,080</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1891-92</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>5,150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1901-02</td>
<td>179</td>
<td>5,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1911-12</td>
<td>575</td>
<td>12,880</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1921-22</td>
<td>1,072</td>
<td>26,930</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1931-32</td>
<td>*</td>
<td>*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1941-42</td>
<td>612</td>
<td>32,120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1946-47</td>
<td>650</td>
<td>38,770</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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* Not available
During this period the Mysore University was the first to have a Faculty of Education (1925). In 1932, 13 Universities had Departments of Education, and Bombay University was the first to launch M.Ed. programme in 1936. By 1947, the year of independence, the system of teacher education in England underwent considerable changes. All educational changes in England influenced educational changes in India for obvious reasons (Chauhan, 2004, pp. 208-10).

On the whole, by the time of Independence, teacher education had been established as one distinct component of educational system. It was recognized as necessary for school teachers, both elementary and secondary. The concept of the normal schools of the initial years, where teachers were employed and trained while working had undergone considerable change. In its place full-time, pre-service teacher training for updating the technical knowledge and skills of working teachers had begun to emerge. Training programmes got differentiated to suit the requirements of elementary and secondary school teachers. This differentiation affected the nature, duration and components of training for the two stages. In view of this, elementary teacher training was construed as a certificate course, whereas for the secondary school teachers it was to be a degree programme. Pedagogic inputs were at the core of the training programme. But still, the expansion of teacher education was rather slow and in-adequate (Garg, 2000, p. 29).

Teacher Education after Independence:

The independence of India on 15th August 1947 marks a defining moment in the History of our nation. Freedom brought many problems too, including the problems of teacher training. After independence, Indian educational system including the teacher education saw greater reflections of national aspirations and needs of the people. A very good thinking and trend developed since independence in the area of teacher training i.e. to improve the teachers’ training both qualitatively and quantitatively (Kakkad, 1988, p. 17). Major developments made in teacher education since Independence have altered it from being a mere training component recognized as ‘relevant’ for school teachers, to become a significant and essential aspect of the education system with the stature of an independent area of specialization (http://www.ncte-india.org/pub/policy/policy_0.htm).

The advent of democracy in India resulted in new hopes, aspirations and demands on education, and in highlighting the shortfalls and inadequacies in the existing educational
Introduction

system in relation to the seemingly insurmountable targets and ideals to be pursued. Being at best a semi-literate nation, the ravages of prolonged colonial rule, nearly a century of struggle for freedom and World War-II left India with a weak political structure and a shaky economy. In such a situation, education came to be seen as a potent force that could lend effective support to the process of social reconstruction. The expectation that all children of school-going age would be brought into schools and benefited through school experiences, the new value orientations, emerging concerns and changes needed for a better future for the individuals and the nation, was impossible to achieve without the 'teacher' taking on the responsibility. Soon after Independence, inadequacy in this regard was glaring (http://www.ncte-india.org/pub/policy/policy_0.htm). The available network for teacher education was far too inadequate both in number or size, and in the quality of its substance. At the same time, the actual number of trained teachers in primary and secondary schools was dismally low and there was ever growing bulk of untrained teachers. Immediately after Independence several efforts were simultaneously made to tackle these problems. These efforts were to make teacher education accessible to both pre-service and in-service teachers. In the context of the changing scenario, the main concerns of teacher education have pertained to: access, quality, generation of appropriate knowledge base, and enhancing responsiveness. Each of these has distinctness in respect of its nature as well as the kinds of efforts made (Garg, 2000, pp. 31-33).

The University Education Commission (1948-49) was the first national body to give some serious thought to teacher education and as a result a well organized system of teacher education got established. In the beginning, teacher education programmes were available only to primary school teachers. But, later on, such facilities were made available to upper-primary and secondary school teachers also (Chauhan, 2004, p. 210). Secondary Education Commission (1952-53) also gave various recommendations to improve the quality of teacher training. Establishment of National Council for Educational Research and Training (NCERT) in 1961 was a milestone in the history of school education, in particular and teacher education, in general. It established three regional colleges in 1963 at Ajmer, Bhubaneswar and Mysore and one at Bhopal in 1964. These colleges were specially designed to provide a model of teacher training at secondary level.
The incidence of backlog of ‘untrained’ teachers was a problem that persisted from pre-Independence period. It was due to inadequate teacher education facilities during the pre-Independence and the compulsion to employ a large number of teachers, with or without training, in order to make schools accessible across wider regions of the country. These teachers were deputed irrespective of the length of their service as teachers. It was more a concern about clearing the backlog that prompted such a practice than the perceived relevance of a course designed for new entrants. While this practice maintained the continuity of effort at clearing the backlog, its actual contribution was not very substantial as the backlog of untrained teachers has not been completely cleared. This pointed to the dire need for substantially expanding teacher education facilities. Another factor that added to the pressure on training institutions was the increasing demand for training being regarded as the qualification for entry into and promotion in teaching jobs. In addition, obtaining a training qualification was seen as an avenue for employment by certain categories of women, as many women thought that they may not take up employment soon after getting trained, but possessing an education degree would open the possibility of obtaining a teaching job whenever circumstances compelled them to do so. This motivation continued although it made considerable demand on training institutions. In view of such developments several commissions and committees have recommended opening up of other channels of support for this task (http://www.ncte-india.org/pub/policy/policy_0.htm).

Indian Education Commission (1964-66) suggested summer courses, part-time courses and correspondence courses as effective possibilities. It further observed that of all the different factors which influenced the quality of education and its contribution to national development, the quality, competence and character of teachers are undoubtedly the most significant. It thereof recommended better pay scale, stimulating conditions and a sound programme of professional education of teachers. On the whole, it was the first comprehensive and meaningful report on education in general and teacher education in particular. It is noteworthy that the various recommendations of the commission were implemented both by the center and state governments which resulted in the considerable improvement in the professional education of the teachers. It set a firm foundation for the qualitative changes in teacher education. The correspondence-cum-contact mode was considered suitable especially for teachers of the secondary school stage for clearing the
backlog of untrained teachers and was started in 1966 by Central Institute of Education, a constituent of NCERT.

Later, three delegations of experts sent by the University Grants Commission to the Union of the Soviet Socialist Republics (USSR) during 1967-69, to study the system of correspondence courses, gave more impetus to correspondence courses and suggested the suitability of this channel for India. These delegations made recommendations and included ‘teacher training’ as one of the areas in which course through the correspondence mode could be offered to begin with. As a result, the Regional Colleges of Education at Ajmer, Bhopal, Bhubaneswar and Mysore also started this programme in 1976. The programme was intended to train untrained teachers in schools, appointed prior to 1965. All teachers appointed after 1965 were to be trained through regular full time courses (NCTE, 1998c, pp. 25-28; http://www.ncte-india.org/pub/policy/policy_0.htm). During the seventies and later, such courses leading to a B.Ed. degree were instituted by many universities. The way correspondence courses expanded and implemented left much to be desired. They assumed the status of an ‘alternative’ channel, deviating from the original supplementary role of reaching out to those who could not be accommodated in regular training institutions. On the one hand, they were drawn in large numbers, and on the other hand, they came in a lot of criticism for vitiating the quality of teacher education and making it commercialized (NCTE, 1998c, pp. 28-29; http://www.ncte-india.org/pub/policy/policy_0.htm).

In 1974, the Government of India through a resolution set up a non-statutory body, the National Council for Teacher Education (NCTE), to provide guidelines in respect of content and methodology of teacher education and, to maintain quality standards in teacher education. The establishment of NCTE was a milestone in the history of teacher education in India. An urgent need was felt to recognize and revitalize the apex body, the National Council for Teacher Education concerned with teacher education in the country and to make it more functional, independent and goal oriented agency, in an All India Seminar on Teacher Education in 1981. In-service training for teachers in jobs and orientation programmes as well as refresher courses for newly appointed teachers, were stressed by both of the National Commissions on Teachers appointed by Government of India on 16th February, 1983.
National Policy on Education (1986) expressed its serious concerns over the diminishing status of teachers which adversely affected the quality of education and many of the ills of the education system were ascribed to it. The policy, therefore, strongly recommended the introduction of reforms in the selection of teachers in planning and management of education, improvement in the living and working/service conditions of the teachers. It also highlighted the need for the creation of opportunities and atmosphere to promote autonomy and innovations among teachers. For ensuring the quality of secondary teachers’ education in the institutions, the policy assigned the responsibility of academic aspects to the universities in co-operation with NCTE.

The Committee for Review of National Policy on Education 1986 (1990) suggested overhauling of teacher education system. It suggested that selection of trainees should be regulated through stringent aptitude and attainment tests and not merely on university or grade work. The training should be competence based and there should be an integration of theory and practice for situational applications. It, further suggested that first degree in teacher education should not be given through correspondence education. Not only the correspondence courses were violating the quality of teacher education, but the tremendous expansion in terms of number of programmes, institutions, personnel, clientele, knowledge base and its aspects, an increase in the number of institutions was also responsible for violating the quality of teacher education. With increase in number of institutions, a large clientele began to be drawn in, bringing in persons from various backgrounds, abilities and motivations. Similarly, the band of teacher educators enlarged, bringing in persons with varied backgrounds and inclinations. This heterogeneity brought in to sharp focus the need for effective mechanism for ensuring quality in the implementation of teacher education programmes. The changing demands on school teachers made existing curricula less relevant. Organizational complexities that emerged in the form of a variety of institutional structures and control mechanisms gave rise to problems of co-ordination, monitoring and maintaining parity among various teacher education programmes (Garg, 2000, pp. 35-42).

In 1993, NCTE was given a statutory status by an Act of Parliament and it came forth with its Curriculum Framework for Quality Teacher Education (1998) to provide guidelines in respect of the content and methodology of teacher education. As a result, many universities and state governments revised their syllabi of teacher education. The revision of
syllabi opened new vistas in teacher education programmes throughout India. Besides this, there were other suggestions too which were well received by the nation. Meanwhile, new developments in science and technology at national and international levels with far reaching educational and cultural consequences, challenges of post modernity, counter culture, consumerism, value crisis and post industrial society became evident. New pressures brought about by liberalization, privatization, globalization, information and communication technology and market forces and even maladies like HIV-AIDS led to the modification of the nature, objectives, contents and pedagogy of subjects at the school stage. Such a situation also demanded appropriate changes in teacher education as well. Teachers are expected to educate students about four pillars of learning i.e. ‘learning to learn’, ‘learning to do’, ‘learning to live together’, and ‘learning to be’ (UNESCO, 1996). In addition to these international experiments in education, particularly in the context of teacher education demanded a fresh look at teacher education in terms of its curriculum and methodology.

Earlier, attempts have been made at the national level to develop Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education by NCTE in 1978 and 1988. NCTE further developed a National Curriculum Framework for Teacher Education (2009) towards preparing professional and humane teacher. With a view to improve teacher education at all stages, efforts have been afoot to introduce area-specific, group specific and need specific courses. Computer education, language teaching, environmental education, population education, special education, educational technology, science education etc. are illustrative of such efforts. Traditional courses of the pre-service type are now offered with options for more differentiated courses catering to the specific needs of teachers and thereby improving their relevance. The developments in teacher education suggest that several attempts have been made in the recent past to enhance the responsiveness of the programmes in relation to expectations regarding them. The attempts made have not led to a significant impact on the field in general, and one may get the idea that different teacher education programmes still operate in a rather isolated manner. Concern for quality has been continuously expressed by every group involved with teacher education, directly or indirectly. At the same time, strong criticism of teacher education has persisted. Such a dichotomous situation points to the fact
that in spite of many efforts, teacher education has not been completely successful in keeping out some negative elements (Verma, 2006, pp. 28-32).

1.5 TEACHER EDUCATION IN INDIA: PRESENT SCENARIO

Since Independence, the system of teacher education in India has been criticized on one count or another. Reports of various commissions and committees on education after independence had shown a special concern for teacher preparation by identifying various shortcomings and recommending certain remedial measures. Consequently, teacher education focused its attention on defining new goals especially in the light of the national development programmes and changing role of the teacher in emerging social order (Anand, 1997, p. 17). Thus, teacher education not only has developed into a full-fledged professional programme, but also widened its scope to cover the entire spectrum of education.

![Figure 1.1 Agencies of Education](image)

As shown in Figure – 1.1, there are mainly three types of agencies in India that carry out programmes of teacher education namely: i) Universities, which impart pre-service and in-service training through their departments of teacher education and affiliated teacher training colleges; ii) state governments, which have created state level training facilities in the form of State Institutes of Teacher Education and State Councils of Educational Research and Training (SCERTs) and; iii) Autonomous and Government bodies like NCERT, NUEPA, CBSE, KVS, IASEs etc. which conduct in-service and pre-service training programmes at national level.
Figure – 1.2 shows that for primary level of elementary education, a comprehensive training, generally of two years’ duration, is organized, which leads to the award of a Diploma or Certificate in teacher education. The minimum qualification for admission to this course is Senior Secondary School or Ten plus Two (10+2).

For upper primary level of elementary education and the secondary school stage, training programmes are offered by the university departments of education or by colleges of education, which lead to the award of B.Ed. degree. The minimum qualifications for admission to this programme are graduation (B.A., B.Sc., or B.Com.) from a recognized Indian or foreign university.

The professional development of teachers in higher education is relatively a new phenomenon. In pursuance of the proposals of the NPE-1986, the Government of India has established Academic Staff Colleges (ASCs), which impart in-service training to teachers of higher education. At present 66 ASCs (Source: UGC’s official web site) are functioning in different universities in India. These institutions are fully financed by the UGC and are supposed to conduct orientation courses for newly recruited teachers and refresher courses for existing ones. It is evident that in India, teacher education programmes are being organized at all levels of educational ladder.

In spite of all the innovations and suggestions made by so many committees and commissions and also by NPE, qualitative improvements of teacher education as a whole
have not risen to a minimum expectation and as a result of which quality of education from Primary level to University level has been gradually falling (Chauhan, 2004, pp. 210-11).

At present, there is uncontrolled quantitative expansion and commercialization of teacher education in India. Till 31st March 2010, the total number of teacher training institutions in India was 11712 with 14792 recognized teacher training programmes having an intake of 1111680 would be/in-service teachers, details of which are given in Table 1.2.

**Table – 1.2**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Name of Teacher Education Course</th>
<th>Total Number of courses recognized as on 31-03-2009</th>
<th>Total Number of courses granted recognition during 2009-10</th>
<th>Number of courses withdrawn recognition during 2009-10</th>
<th>Total Number of courses recognized as on 31-03-2010</th>
<th>Total intake approved as on 31-03-2009</th>
<th>Total intake approved as on 31-03-2010</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Pre-Primary</td>
<td>255</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>12638</td>
<td>12538</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>6104</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>6165</td>
<td>344542</td>
<td>343052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>B. El. Ed.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>592</td>
<td>627</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Secondary (B.Ed.) Face to Face</td>
<td>6183</td>
<td>433</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>6363</td>
<td>640186</td>
<td>651608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Secondary (B.Ed.) Distance Education</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>20350</td>
<td>20850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>M.Ed. Face to Face</td>
<td>762</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>885</td>
<td>19038</td>
<td>22213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>M.Ed. Distance Education</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1455</td>
<td>1455</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>M.Ed. Part-Time</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>175</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>C. P. Ed.</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>7297</td>
<td>7347</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>B. P. Ed.</td>
<td>513</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>518</td>
<td>29639</td>
<td>29399</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>M. P. Ed.</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>134</td>
<td>3667</td>
<td>3877</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Others</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>258</td>
<td>16499</td>
<td>18539</td>
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<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14405</td>
<td>782</td>
<td>395</td>
<td>14792</td>
<td>1096053</td>
<td>1111680</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Many of these training institutions are run by private managements. The state governments and universities are running a very few teacher education colleges.

### 1.6 TEACHER EDUCATION IN HIMACHAL PRADESH

In Himachal Pradesh, teacher education is organized at two levels, for preparing teachers for primary schools and for secondary schools.
1.6.1 PRIMARY TEACHERS’ TRAINING IN HIMACHAL PRADESH

The teacher training programme was first started in the year 1951 when a government basic training school was started at Solan to meet the shortage of junior basic trained teachers to teach primary classes. The duration of the course was one year. Later, junior basic training classes, extending to over two years, were started in Government Training College of Women at Shimla, Government Higher Secondary Schools at Kandaghat and Sabathu. There was a Teacher Training Centre at St. Bede’s College for training of pre-primary school teachers. One Basic Training School was opened at Nahan in 1955 and another at Dharamshala in 1956. Since then many efforts have been made by the Center and State Governments for the upliftment of training programme for elementary level teachers (NCTE, 1998b, pp. 15-17).

In 1992, Government of India sponsored a scheme of opening District Institutes of Education and Training (DIET) at various places in the state and for this purpose the existing six Basic Training Schools were upgraded to DIETs and six new DIETs were established with the objective of improving the quality of teacher education by imparting in-service teacher education besides catering to the needs of new teachers by providing facilities of pre-service Junior Basic Training (NCTE, 1998b, pp. 15-17). Along with these DIETs, many other private colleges are also providing pre-service Junior Basic training (JBT) in Himachal Pradesh. At present there are 12 DIETs and 15 private colleges which provide Pre-service Junior Basic training for primary teachers in Himachal Pradesh (Source: Directorate of Elementary Education, Himachal Pradesh).

1.6.2 SECONDARY TEACHERS’ TRAINING (B.Ed.) IN HIMACHAL PRADESH

As part “C” State of Indian Union, Mahasu was the only district to have a teacher training college. This college was initially started in 1953 at Auhar as Government Post-graduate Basic Training College and was shifted to Solan in the year 1957. It was affiliated to Panjab University with 75% seats reserved for in-service trainers and 25% open seats. The trainees had to fill up a bond of 5 year’s service in Himachal Pradesh. B.Ed. training programme was started in Government College of Education, Dharamshala in 1956, which has been converted into College of Teacher Education (CTE) since 1993.

Shimla, which was once the summer capital of British India and later the capital of Punjab for a few years, had a B.Ed. college at the time of its merger with Himachal Pradesh
in November, 1966. This college was shifted to Ava Lodge in the same year and a Government Degree College was opened in its Sanjauli Complex. Later in 1971, the B.Ed. College was transferred to Himachal Pradesh University and converted into School of Education. In the year 1972-73, the state government discontinued B.Ed. and J.B.T. all over the state in order to provide employment to all those already trained in these courses. B.Ed. course through regular mode was restarted in the University and at two other centers viz. Government College of Education, Dharamshala and SCERT, Solan during 1984-85. SCERT, however, discontinued B.Ed. course after the completion of the session of 1985-86. Thus, B.Ed. course was run at two places i.e. College of Teacher Education, Dharamshala and Department of Education, Himachal Pradesh University, Shimla. The university, through its ICDEOL also started a two year B.Ed. course through distance mode in 1998 as per norms established by NCTE to clear the backlog of untrained teachers serving in the schools in the tribal belt (NCTE, 1998b, pp. 15-17).

At present there are many formal and non-formal agencies which are providing teacher training programmes in Himachal Pradesh for secondary school teachers as shown in Figure – 1.3.
A) B.Ed. through Distance Mode:

a) B.Ed. Course through Indira Gandhi National Open University (IGNOU)

The Bachelor of Education (B.Ed.) programme through distance mode by IGNOU was started in India in the year 1999. The programme was also started in the same year in Himachal Pradesh through its study centers. The minimum duration of the programme is two years. However, the maximum period allowed for completion of the programme is four years. The admissions are made on the basis of entrance test conducted by IGNOU consisting of 100 objective test items of one mark each. IGNOU has established B.Ed. study centers at different places in the colleges of education in the state with an intake of 100 students. (Source: IGNOU’s application form and guide for applicants for Bachelor of Education [B.Ed.], 2013).

b) B.Ed. Course through International Center for Distance Education and Open Learning (ICDEOL), Himachal Pradesh University, Shimla

To clear the backlog of untrained teachers serving in schools in the remote areas, Himachal Pradesh University through its International Center for Distance Education and Open Learning (ICDEOL), previously known as Directorate of Correspondence Courses, started a two year B.Ed. course through distance mode in 1998 as per the norms established by NCTE. The eligibility for the course is same as prescribed for regular mode candidates. The total number of seats for B.Ed. in the ICDEOL is 450 (375 Arts, 25 Non-Medical, 25 Medical and 25 Commerce). (Source: ICDEOL, HPU-Shimla, 2012).

B) B.Ed. through Formal Mode (Himachal Pradesh University, Government and Other Private Institutions):

The B.Ed. was started in Department of Education, Himachal Pradesh University, Shimla in the year 1983 after its closure in 1972 for the students of backward areas with an intake of 30 non-medical students. Further, 20 seats were allotted to the department for medical candidates. The distribution of seats was further changed and 50 seats were given to non-medical and 30 to medical candidates in the year 1998. The department started 120 seats under self-financing scheme in the year 1999, which were not allowed by NCTE and the same capacity was restored. It was in the year 2006 that 20 more seats to the arts candidates were added in the department. At present, for B.Ed. there are 100 seats in total.
Out of these 100 seats, 15 are for Arts stream, 5 for Commerce stream, 30 for Medical stream and 50 for Non-medical stream.

Other than Himachal Pradesh University, Shimla, there are three Government Colleges which provide B.Ed. training. Out of these three colleges, the Govt. College of Teacher Education, Dharamshala has got permanent recognition from NCTE and permanent affiliation from H. P. University, Shimla. The College has a total of 235 seats (Non-medical stream = 160, and Arts = 75). In addition to this, the college has 10 more seats reserved for in-service teachers’ candidates. The two Government Colleges at Mandi and Daulatpur (Una), also provide B.Ed. training under self-financing scheme with 100 seats (25 Non-Medical, 25 medical and 50 Arts/Commerce) and 60 seats (20 Non-medical, 20 Medical and 20 Arts/Commerce), respectively (Source: Department of Education, HPU-Shimla, 2013).

In addition to these institutions there are 72 privately managed Colleges of Education recognized by NCTE and affiliated to H.P. University, Shimla-5, the details of which are given in Appendix-I.

1.7 CURRICULUM

The word ‘curriculum’ is derived from Latin root ‘currere’ which means ‘racecourse’ or ‘runway’, which one takes to reach a goal. The word race course is suggestive of: i) the course, i.e., the path and; ii) the time (suggested by the prefix race) in which the path could/must be covered. The curriculum is seen as a prescribed course(s) of studies with a beginning and end and, to be covered in a prescribed time frame.

An older concept of curriculum considered it as merely a syllabus or an outline of courses of study.

According to new concept curriculum is total learning activities or educative experiences offered by an institute through its total institutional programme designed to achieve the prescribed goals. It consists of totality of the experiences that a pupil/student receives through the manifold activities which goes on in an institute, in the classroom, library, laboratory, work shop and playground and in the numerous contacts between the teachers and the pupils. It is neither dogmatic nor rigid in its form and structure. It is neither uniform nor standardized to conform to a prescribed pattern. It is characterized by variety and flexibility and is tailored to the needs of the students at different levels. It gives the students an increasing awareness of the environment around them so that they may fit in
more efficiently in the milieu of community life. Curriculum is the base on which the subjects, activities and experiences of the students are planned. It is more than the text book, more than the subject matter or course of studies (Jishtu, 2003, pp. 1-3).

The curriculum has been used in many ways. Some use curriculum in a very limited and specific context while some attach very broad and general meaning. According to Smith (1957), curriculum is a sequence of potential experiences set up in the school for the purpose of disciplining children and youth in ways of thinking and acting. Good (1959) puts it as a general overall plan of the content or specific materials of instruction that the school should offer the student by way of qualifying him for gradation or certification or for entrance in to a professional or vocational field. Tanner and Tanner (1975) have described curriculum as the planned and guided learning experiences and intended learning outcomes, formulated through the systematic reconstruction of knowledge and experience, under the auspices of the school, for the learner’s continuous and willful growth in personal-social competence. Taba (1962) defines curriculum as a plan for learning. According to Westbury and Steimer (1971) curriculum is a methodological inquiry exploring the range of ways in which elements of teacher, student, subject and milieu can be seen. Pratt (1980) describes curriculum as an organized set of formal educational and training intentions. Doll (1996), defined the curriculum of a school as the formal and informal content and process by which learners gain knowledge and understanding, develop skills, and alter attitudes, appreciations, and values under the auspices of that school.

Sanskrit equivalent of the term 'curriculum' is 'Pathyakram'. Dewal has explained the term to mean the sequence of course of study including the content and its processes. According to Dewal (2004), “pathyakram encompasses the content, its processes, a sequence of study pertinent to the stage of education”. The word 'path' in his opinion has a similar meaning to the words 'vidya' and 'shiksha'. The Sanskrit meaning of the term curriculum in Dewal's opinion implies the following:

a. A course of study
b. A sequence of the course depending on the stage of education.
c. The content and processes arranged in a definite hierarchy.
d. Beginning of the sequence of study with process of understanding, to acquire and to think or to reflect.
From the perusal of these definitions, it is evident that curriculum is sum total of all the learning activities or experiences, within or outside the classroom, that are to be provided to a pupil/student in order to achieve the goals of education and educational programme for his continuous and willful growth in every sphere of life whether personal, social, professional or vocational.

1.8 CURRICULUM MANAGEMENT

The purpose of curriculum management is to ensure that all students get the most out of their education. The more global goal of curriculum management is for students to use all the knowledge and skills they learn to contribute to society in a meaningful and beneficial way.

Curriculum management is not simply the preparation of syllabus or courses of study. There are different components of curriculum management, ranging from setting of goals and objectives to the actual transaction. These different components of curriculum are built into the curriculum planning process through various steps. Management of curriculum is always done in relation to: i) determination of the meaning and scope of curriculum, and goals and objectives; ii) identification of curriculum content, guided by considerations of relevance in a broad sense; iii) determination of the curricular inputs, including the basis of selection and its arrangement in a specific order reflecting the gradation of emphasis on the learning outcomes desired, as well as on the transaction process and; iv) planning the process of curriculum and the roles of the different agencies, including the teachers (Jishtu, 2003, pp. 3-4).

Curriculum management involves: i) curriculum planning; ii) curriculum development; iii) curriculum transaction and; iv) curriculum evaluation.

1.8.1 CURRICULUM PLANNING

Curriculum planning refers to creation of curriculum and is a complex activity involving the interplay of ideas from the curriculum field and other related disciplines. Therefore, curriculum planning is guided by several considerations such as: nature of discipline, growth and development of learner, socio-economic background of the country, society or institution, environment around institution and teacher related considerations. The ultimate purpose of curriculum planning is to describe the learning opportunities available to students. It is ultimately concerned with the experiences of learners. In any teaching-
learning situation, however the concern is not only with what students ought to learn, but also with how they are going to learn it. Curriculum plans, that define concepts or ideas without considering action, are incomplete since learning must eventually involve the application of what has been learned. In the same way plans, that merely describe action without considering purposes, are also incomplete since otherwise, learning activity runs the risk of being aimless. This relationship of content and process accentuates the need to consider curriculum and instruction not as distinct entities, but rather as interdependent concepts in the planning process. Therefore, curriculum planning involves decisions about both content and process. Further, within the areas of curriculum and instruction, there are many specific issues and topics that may be subjected to curriculum planning. Such areas might include identifying curriculum approaches that might be used, carrying out a programme, evaluating it or deciding about the need for new programmes, etc. Besides this, curriculum planning concerns itself with various teaching-learning situations. It should be noted that curriculum planning typically involves decisions about some combinations of areas and issues since it is difficult to consider any one of these in isolation. Therefore, curriculum planning involves decisions about a variety of issues/topics. Popular thinking in the early 1900's was that curriculum planning was the prerogative of a few scholars and the teacher’s role was to implement what has been planned. Because of advances in thinking, it is now considered that curriculum planning is not the sole responsibility or privilege of any one group. It is, in essence, a product of team-work. Curriculum planning, thus, involves any groups of people and levels of operation and is a continuous process in which participants contribute at various levels towards making decisions about:
  - the purposes of learning;
  - how those purpose might be carried out through teaching-learning situations and;
  - whether the purpose identified and the means selected are both appropriate and effective.

1.8.2 CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT

Curriculum development is a specialised area of work which expects a teacher to have a deep understanding of the underlying concept of curriculum and also the skill to systematically design learning experiences to achieve the socially desired goals set by the
society. Curriculum development involves various stages/steps to be followed by those engaged in designing and developing curriculum like setting the scope and contents of instruction, writing the content outline, assigning the weightage to the content keeping time allocation in view, the selection of teaching-learning strategies, development of instructional inputs and specification of the evaluation procedures (Jishtu, 2003, p. 5).

There are several approaches through which a curriculum can be developed and organised. These include: subject-centred approach, broad fields approach, social problems approach and learner-centred approach. The choice of a particular approach to the curriculum design indicates: i) the basis of decisions about the types of experiences to be included in the educational programme; ii) the role of teachers, students and other agencies in the process of curriculum planning; iii) the choice of method for determining the selection and organization of learning experiences provided by the school; iv) the factors influencing the selection of objectives and; v) the use of subject matter or content. Some issues related to these approaches can be categorised as instructional method, instructional approach and choice of curricular approach and models of curriculum development.

The process of curriculum development requires thinking about the objectives to be achieved, learning experiences to be provided, and evaluation of changes brought out by the curricular activities and so on. To arrive at a thoughtfully planned and dynamically conceived curriculum, it is necessary to: i) assess educational needs of the students; ii) formulate broad and specific objectives; iii) select and organize the content; iv) select and organize learning experiences and; v) evaluate the curriculum.

1.8.3 CURRICULUM TRANSACTION

Curriculum transaction is the effective and desired implementation of the curriculum contents on the basis of aims and objectives specified in the curriculum. Curriculum transaction incorporates decisions about the contents and effective planning for providing learning experiences to its learners on the basis of content, organization of planning, administration/implementation of the organized planning and evaluation of the implementations by the implementer and the experts in the relevant field.

The process of curriculum transaction is the touchstone of success of any curriculum programme. A curriculum could fail to achieve its expectations if the process of transaction is faulty and ineffective. ‘Curriculum development’ leads to curriculum transaction while
curriculum transaction provides feedback for further development of curriculum in the light of experiences with its transaction. Transaction of curriculum is a broad concept in comparison to curriculum development (Jishtu, 2003, pp. 5-7).

Transaction of curriculum is a much difficult task because it is based on theoretical and practical aspects as well. Transaction of curriculum refers to conscious choice from a variety of alternatives plus proposals and furthermore streams that such choices involve purposeful commitment to recognized and derived objectives. The 'transaction of curriculum' depends upon the objectives of education. It is a commitment for realizing the desired objectives of education, translated into practical terms.

Two basic considerations need to be born in mind while planning transaction processes, one is the context in which transaction is carried out in terms of the physical and social characteristics of the setting, second relates to teachers who actually are to transact the curriculum, their capabilities and attitudinal dispositions. Thus, adaptations by teachers to the changing demands of the physical and social settings where the curriculum is transacted, as well as their own proficiency in various methods of transaction becomes a pre-requisite for making the process of curriculum transaction effective and meaningful. Curriculum Transaction is a complex phenomenon with several components and impinging factors, as is evident from the Figure – 1.4.

**Figure - 1.4 Curriculum Transaction with Several Components**

The curriculum Transaction has been conceptionalized on two scenes: i) within classroom and; ii) outside classroom.

Within classroom, transaction means media and material comprising curriculum guide, textual material and a variety of instructional aids. The second component serving as means of curriculum transaction refers to teacher behavior, the vital ingredient of teaching-
learning. It may be verbal and may be non-verbal, sometimes, depending upon the classroom environment. Whereas, outside classroom, transaction means various activities, so called co-curricular activities (which may be cultural, recreational, educational, community based and, games and sports) in harmony with the educational objectives specified in the curriculum.

1.8.4 CURRICULUM EVALUATION

Curriculum evaluation is the process of delineating, obtaining and providing information useful for making decisions about curriculum development and implementation. Curriculum evaluation is undertaken in order to determine the strengths and weaknesses of an existing or an under-construction curriculum, so that improvements can be made in the curriculum design. Curriculum evaluation assesses the effectiveness of a curriculum and enables us to compare what we have achieved with what we had set out to achieve. It also helps in the reorganization of the curriculum course contents and curriculum transaction procedures in a more effective manner. The overall validation of a curriculum and the collection of evidences by self-evaluation, are other ways to focus on the evaluation of a curriculum. Certain sources like the students, the evaluator, the peer group, the teacher, the subject experts, curriculum experts and the professional evaluators also help in the evaluation of a curriculum. The components identified for the curriculum evaluation are goals and objectives, prerequisites like entry level knowledge, contents, processes, outputs, assessment procedures, references etc. The information can be used in the best way for changing course content, improving teaching-learning strategies and for ensuring the need for introducing new courses, etc.

1.9 CURRICULUM TRANSACTION PROCEDURES

Curriculum transaction is a systematic process, consisting of a number of procedures, in which every component i.e. teacher, students, materials and the learning environment, is crucial to successful learning. This perspective is usually referred to as the systems point of view and the advocates of this perspective, typically, use the systems approach to design instruction.

Before a teacher starts teaching a course he/she must think of: the subject matter to be taught; the matter to be included in a particular course; the contents for each session of the course; arrangement of topics and sub-topics; allotment of sufficient and definite time
for each of these topics and sub-topics; following a definite rule, procedure while transacting these topics; type of methods and media using for and adoption of instructional methods; evaluation for all the contents and; alternative strategies for presenting these topics. All these involve:

1.9.1 ANALYSIS OF CURRICULUM CONTENTS

In the analysis of curriculum contents in a meaningful and logical way the three important components involved are facts, concepts and generalizations.

1) Facts

‘Facts’ are the types of content which are singular in occurrence, which have occurred in the past or exist in the present, which have no predictive value, and which are acquired solely through the process of observation. Facts are possible to be gathered through the direct observation of events, such as an experiment in a laboratory, or through retrieval of information from reliable sources such as from dictionaries, encyclopedias, etc.

2) Concepts

‘Concepts’ are the names given to the categories formed as a result of classifying factual data. Learners, irrespective of their age, form concepts and give them names in order to make sense to various stimuli in the world. Concept attainment involves the process of defining concepts by attending to those attributes that are absolutely essential to the meaning, and by disregarding those attributes, which are absolutely not essential to the meaning. It also involves learning to discriminate between what is and what is not. Learners pay attention to likenesses, ignore differences, and place similar objects in the same category.

3) Generalizations

Statements, that generally link two or more concepts, are known as generalizations. Generalizations are always predictive in their nature and contain more than one element. They heavily depend on proof by providing different dimensions to a simple fact. Hence, one has to collect additional data to prove the accuracy of a generalization.

When facts are linked with the direct observation of event, it is concept which emerges due to the classification of factual data, and when these are expressed in terms of statements, they become generalizations.

Facts, concepts and generalizations make up a large part of an instructional content.
The teacher must select the most effective combination of these in design process. While selecting and organizing contents of instruction, a teacher must see: the important facts that seem most accurate and relevant; the concepts which are familiar to the students and which need to be explained before the students begin to understand the content and; the generalizations by the students to infer, predict and test the reliability of the data they acquire.

For this purpose, there is a need to analyze the curricular contents with special reference to its three important components i.e., facts, concepts and generalizations.

1.9.2 ASPECTS OF DESIGNING UNITS

After the decision about contents, these are designed in the form of manageable units by taking into consideration: a) Scope: which refers to the range and breadth of contents to be covered, b) Focus: which lay emphasis on the contents, and c) Sequence: which refers to the order of arranging the content input.

1.9.3 PRESENTATION MODES

Certain suitable modes of presentation are identified and tried after the designing of the content structure. The teacher selects the best ways, teaching methods, possible and suitable teaching strategies, the plans for instruction and then jots down a number of points to use in order to make the teaching-learning process an effective and interesting one.

1.9.4 CRITERIA FOR THE SELECTION OF INSTRUCTIONAL STRATEGIES/INPUTS

Certain important criteria for developing or making selection of instructional strategies are identified as:

1. Instructional Objectives

Before entering the classroom certain instructional objectives are identified by the teacher which he/she intends to achieve in the teaching-learning process and select suitable instructional strategies/inputs for the learning process.

2. Subject Matter

The nature and structure of subject-matter, the teacher intends to handle in the classroom also decides the type of inputs to be selected.

3. Students

An important consideration for selecting instructional inputs is their appropriateness
to the characteristics of the students. Teachers who underestimate the ability of their students and look down on them, or others who overestimate their aptitudes and talk over their heads, follow approaches that do not recognize the students as a source of strategy (Oliva, 1988). Therefore, the teacher must be careful that the conflicting situations do not arise while selecting inputs for the teaching strategies.

4. Community

The desires of the parents, the community, tradition and convention, all play a part in determining classroom inputs. Learning about community needs, beliefs, values and more, may be necessary before the teachers can gain adequate support for using the techniques effectively.

5. Teacher

Any instructional strategy that teacher adopts in the classroom, must conform to i) personal style of teaching, and ii) the model or models of teaching to be followed by the teacher. A teacher should analyze the particular style of teaching and the model that he/she finds most suitable for his/her particular style. A teacher should be much more open-minded and expand his/her efficiency by developing more than a single model of teaching. Oliva (1988) has suggested some guidelines for evolving the teaching-learning strategies which include: i) a strategy must be right for the learners and meet their needs and interests; ii) a strategy must be right for the teacher, and suited to the capacity of the teacher; iii) a strategy must be right for the subject-matter; iv) a strategy must be right for the time available; v) a strategy must be right for the resources available; vi) reference material must be available; vii) a strategy must be right for the facilities available and; viii) a strategy must be right for the objectives. It should be chosen in such a way that it fulfills the instructional objectives.

6. Models of Teaching

A model of teaching is a generalized set of behaviour that emphasizes a particular instructional input or set of inputs. According to Joyce and Weil (1985) “A model of teaching is a plan or pattern that can be used to shape curriculum (long-term courses of studies), to design instructional materials, and to guide instruction to the classroom and other settings”. Each model consists of a rationale, a series of steps (actions; behaviors) to be taken by the teacher and the learner, a description of necessary support systems, and a method for evaluating the learner’s progress. Some models are designed to help students
grow self awareness or creativity, some foster the development of self-discipline or responsible participation in a group; some models stimulate inductive reasoning or theory building, and other provide for mastery of subject matter.

A number of teaching models in day to day teaching experiences include: exposition teaching, group discussion, role playing, demonstration, simulation, discovery, learning laboratories, programmed instruction, tutoring, problem solving, and mediated instruction. Joyce and Weil (1985) identified twenty two models of teaching and have grouped these under four broad categories: i) Information-Processing Models; ii) Personal Models; iii) Social Interaction Models and; iv) Behavioural Models. All models may not be equally effective for all types of instructional situations and purposes, hence it is important to know the potential and attributes of several models for selection and use so that the most effective one can be chosen, as per need of the context.

7. Selecting Media

The most important and challenging task which teachers generally face is the selection of the media or medium that is to use in the classroom. At the outset, this decision is highly dependent upon a thorough knowledge of: i) what is being taught; ii) how it is to be taught; iii) how it can be tested and; iv) who our learners are? The decision regarding the selection of media, sometimes, is done at the beginning of the design process. The reason may be that one has to think in terms of availability of resources and personnel at the development stage itself. If this is accepted, then the prior decisions should be made on what type of media is to be used and for which type of learning activities.

Varieties of teaching media, which are available, not only motivate the learner, but also make the process of teaching easier and more effective. These media are, portable equipment (easy for mobility), training devices, computers, programmed texts, interactive TV, motion pictures, slides/tapes, TV cassettes, filmstrips, printed texts, training aids, audio, charts, over head projection slides, VCDs, DVDs, etc.

8. Interactions (Input – Process – Output)

Every teaching-learning activity has its own objectives, to be achieved through the curricular inputs. It is always necessary to transact input through certain defined processes, the end product of which is to achieve the desirable outcome. The interactions of the input-process-output, on which the whole transaction process heavily depends, are discussed
Introduction

briefly as below:

i. Input

Effective teaching-learning situations focus on a particular topic, theme, problem or issue. Once the central ideas of these are clarified, the components of curriculum planning can be developed in relation to them. Instructional objectives are always linked with the specific and immediate outcome of a particular teaching-learning situation. Therefore, selection of inputs in a programme is entirely based on the understanding and requirements of the instructional objectives along with the subject matter. These instructional objectives basically serve three major processes. Firstly, they clarify to the teacher and the students, what is to be accomplished. Secondly, they serve as a guide for the design or selection of meaningful contents, activities, and resources. Thirdly, they provide the guidance for measuring learner progress.

ii. Process

The dynamics of the various instructional inputs, involved in the transaction of contents, include students’ participation in the activities, their interests, satisfaction, and the pattern of communication between them and the teachers. The overall nature of the process is directly linked to the teaching-learning strategies as simply as the techniques of teaching adopted by the teacher. It has rather been defined as a means to bring about changes in the learners behavior through the use of certain structured processes of instruction. Therefore, the teaching-learning (processes) include the principles for structuring teacher activities and the corresponding pupil activities. The teaching-learning process does not take place in vacuum. The behavioral changes which are to bring about in the students have always been determined by the inputs. The content inputs play a dominant role in deciding the process variables. Process always follows inputs. However, certain issues need to be remembered before deciding on the processes: i) the economy of the strategy, in terms of time taken to carry out the learning process and the resources needed to back up this; ii) the feasibility of the strategies in real classroom situations which is always linked to the constraints that exist in the institution in terms of time availability, physical facilities in the classroom, laboratories, workshops, equipments etc. and; iii) the teacher-competencies to carry out the strategies for success.
iii. Output

Output, generally, is linked to the outcome of an event. In other words, one has to find out whether learning has really taken place or not. This is a complex task. While identifying measuring devices for specific teaching-learning situation, two things are needed to be kept in mind: i) the measuring devices must be appropriate for the objectives that they are intended for and; ii) a wide variety of measuring devices can be used in the process.

Various devices of evaluation are employed to assess the learning outcomes of the students in the form of outputs. These may be subjective, objective, or projective, depending upon responses to be elicited. Tests are important tools used for classification, gradation, promotion, guidance and research. Self-report is an acceptable method of studying the individuals’ choices and preferences. Participatory and non-participatory observation and peer ratings provide good measures of the characteristics of individuals as noted and experienced by others. Sever maladjustments and behavior disorders need to be studied through projective techniques which clinically examine the deep rooted motives, emotions and feelings as the causes of expressed behavior using the semi or unstructured stimuli. The projective techniques are good tools to examine the secret of one’s personality and provide clinical guidance.

Various tools of evaluation are employed to assess the performance, behavior, expression, quality, personality and ability of a person. These include rating scales, intelligence and aptitude tests, inventories, anecdotal record, teacher made tools and standardized tests of achievement. Each, tools and tests has their own special role, their own uses and limitations.

Rating scale is useful to classify opinions and judgments regarding situations, objects etc. Intelligence and aptitude tests on the other hand are used as tools to measure in numerical terms the potential performance and special ability of a person. Inventories are used to assess the expression of the inner feelings of individuals through questionnaires and personality inventories. Anecdotal records are used to assess the behavior in the past of a person in a particular situation. The important events are recorded by the teacher. It helps to know the specific quality of person. Teacher made and standardized tools are used to measure in numerical terms the attainment of students in various subjects.

In conclusion, a curriculum is not merely a syllabus or a scheme of courses. It
Introduction

includes a variety of all learning experiences provided by means of various activities in the educational institutions, within or outside the classrooms through curricular and co-curricular activities. Planning, development, transaction and evaluation are the four major components of a curriculum. The transaction of the curriculum through various strategies and processes is the backbone of any curriculum programme. A best curriculum programme may not give good results if its transaction processes are not effective and meaningful. The transaction processes include the analysis of curriculum content, formulation of specific instructional objectives, selection of appropriate instructional methods and techniques, selection and effective use of various media and evaluation of learning outcomes comes through relevant techniques and devices.

1.10 CURRICULUM OF SECONDARY TEACHERS’ PRE-SERVICE TRAINING PROGRAMME AND ITS TRANSACTION IN HIMACHAL PRADESH

As, it has been explained earlier, that Secondary Teachers’ Pre-service training programme is run by the Department of Education, Himachal Pradesh University, Shimla, Government College of Teacher Education, Dharmshala, Vallabh Government P.G. College, Mandi (H.P.), Government College Daulatpur Chowk, Una (H.P.), and 72 privately managed Colleges of Education in Himachal Pradesh. Curriculum of this programme includes theory and practice teaching in schools and practical work in the light of context, concerns, profile of teachers and general and specific objectives. The curriculum includes both curricular and co-curricular activities.

Curricular activities are both content and pedagogy based, whereas the co-curricular activities are concerned with the other roles to be played by the prospective teachers when they are to be appointed in secondary schools. Under content and pedagogy the prospective teachers are exposed to nine theory papers. Out of which, seven papers (courses) are common to all, six papers are related to foundations of education and one paper is related to work education and work experience. The other two are related to teaching subjects, studied by the trainees at their graduation level, out of the following subjects – Teaching of Physical Sciences, Life Sciences, Mathematics, Social Sciences, English, Hindi, Sanskrit, Home Science and Commerce. All the theory papers are included for the purpose of evaluation of the ability gained by the prospective teachers during the training programme through assignments, unit tests, house exams and annual examinations. The total marks allotted to
theory are 900.

Under practical component, the student teachers are first exposed to micro-teaching through demonstration lessons given by methodology experts usually the teacher educators followed by a practice session in different houses, formed and headed by teacher educators. Each prospective teacher is required to practice 10 micro-lessons per teaching subject on the selected skills of the micro-teaching by the concerned institute or College of Education. After this, the prospective teachers are exposed to macro-lessons under simulation through demonstration by teacher educators. In simulation, the macro-lessons are practiced by prospective teachers in which the co-trainees play the role of teacher, students and supervisor. Each of the prospective teachers is required to practice 5 macro-lessons per teaching subject under simulation. The macro-lessons practiced in simulation are based upon the lessons to be delivered or practiced during real teaching or teaching practice in secondary schools. After these two events and final theory examinations, the prospective teachers are to go to different schools for practice teaching or real teaching in schools. They have to deliver or practice 20 lessons per teaching subject during real teaching. During this period they are observed by the co-trainees as well as the teacher educator in-charge. The evaluation of the practical work done by the prospective teachers is done for a total of 200 marks (100 marks per teaching subject) on the basis of their records of micro-teaching, simulation, practice teaching, lesson plan writing, observation records, preparation of teaching aids, etc. Thus, the total marks for the purpose of deciding the grade or class obtained by the prospective teacher are 1100.

Apart from the above curricular activities the prospective teachers are given training in the activities related to physical education, health education, community participation, work experience, etc., through the conduct of both theory and practical classes under the paper of Work Education and Work Experience. The prospective teachers are required to maintain a record of all these activities and they are provided with grades for all their practical work in this area.

Thus, the curriculum for secondary teachers’ pre-service training programme consists of the entire package of activities which are supposed to develop both general and specific skills required to be an effective teacher.