CHAPTER - III

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Teacher education has suffered a great set-back during the last 50 years or so due to lack of experimental and innovative practices and sustained research work. Especially, "There is a scarcity of experimental class room studies in which variations in instructional procedures have been manipulated and effectiveness measured" (Rosenshine and Frust, 1971). This is chiefly true of the pattern of teacher education prevailing in different countries, duration of the teacher preparation, the practice teaching programme, which have attracted severe criticism from all concerned, mainly for their having no relevance with the expected achievement of the objectives and the desired change in the teacher behaviour. The studies conducted by Upasani (1966), Joseph (1967) Sharma (1968), Mallaya (1968), Marretal (1969), Khosla (1970), Srivastav (1970), Saikia (1971), Mehrotra (1974) and observation made by Buch and Yadav (1974) bear testimony to this fact.

The conditions abroad have not been very different either. The results of the studies conducted by Biddle and Ellena (1964), Popham and Baker (1968), Popham (1969), Davies (1969), Flanders (1967), Cope (1969), Peterson and other bring the same fact to therefore and one has to agree with Gage (1968) who observes grimly; "Instruction method constitutes one of the most important and

promising, but also the utmost frustraiting of the areas of Educational research and development" and that "Research on teaching has yeilded relatively few solid and usable result".

In our country too, "Teacher education is utmost without a sound research base and it would continue to be so if it does not think of alternatives (Passi, 1976)".

RESEARCH STUDIES IN TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMMS IN U.S.A.:

Despite the wide range of institutions within which teacher education programms were conducted, they were amazingly similar and relatively unchanged during the past fifty years (Drummond & Andrews, 1980). This similarity might be attributed to teacher certification requirements, common requirement for the baccalaureate degree, expanding governmental mandates for social reform, and the extensive communication network among teacher educators.

General Education:

The required general education courses of prospective teachers closely resembles that of their classmates with other vocational goals. General education, also referred to as academic foundations, core courses, or liberal arts, includes introductory courses from the humanities, social sciences, natural sciences, and mathematics with the common requirement that the student take representative courses from several field and several

courses from a selected field. General education usually is completed in the freshman and sophomore years and encompasses about half of the baccalaureate programme.

The purpose of the general studies component for teacher education students has been a subject of ongoing discussion. Proponents of the liberal arts argue that teachers need a more rigorous liberal education, whereas critics from the ranks of teacher education maintain that general studies, as currently taught, aim only to prepare students for advanced scholarship and fail to help them integrate knowledge and create personal meaning (Howsam et al, 1976). Introductory liberal arts courses have the potential for increasing prospective teachers' love of learning, revealing the connections between academic study and the reality of human endevours, and enriching their vision of and commitment to a better future through education. Raths (1980) argued that general education should focus on the ways information is generated and tested, the distinction between findings and explanations of findings, and ajudgements among alternative explanations.

Liberal arts professors, however, have little incentive to relate their courses to professional education (Clark & Marker, 1975; Epstein, 1973). The integration of general studies subjects with each other or with the concerns of teachers is not likely to occur when prospective teachers comprise a small minority of general studies classes.

Teaching Specialization:

The teaching specialization is the specific academic subject or subjects (majors and minors) that preservice teachers are preparing to teach and for which they will be certified. Secondary education students concentrate in one or two subjects, whereas elementary education students study the broader range of content included in the elementary curriculum, Approximately one-third of the typical programme is devoted to studying the content of teaching specialization. Friedman, Brinlee, and Hayes (1980) noted that in addition to specialization by elementary secondary and content areas, the types of learner or teaching setting are used increasingly as types of specialization. Hence, some specializations prepare teachers to work in individualized settings, teams, various geographic or socioeconomic settings, or bilingual or multicultural environments.

Problems concerning the place of specialization in teacher education programs stem from a failure to connect the depth of college-level knowledge to the relatively simple content to be taught in schools. Frequent disparities exist between the philosophical orientations of specialization professors and the school curriculum (Friedman, Brenlee, & Hayes, 1980)

Educational foundations - The educational foundations are considered as part of professional training and generally include several subjects: the history of education (the major movements,

persons, and ideas in Western education), philosophy (major schools of thought about the nature of humans, the purposes of education, and means of learning), sociology (the socialization of children and the function of schools in our society), anthropology (the elements of culture and the characteristics of subcultures), educational psychology, including human development (theories of children's physical, cognitive, social, and moral development), learning theory (behavioral, cognitive, Gestalt, and social perspectives), and measurement (test construction, scoring and interpretation).

These subjects are taught in various combinations under such course titles as introduction to Education, School in American society, and Foundations of Education and range from three to six semester credit in typical programs. They are usually taught by education faculty, although educational psychology courses are frequently taught in psychology departments.

The place of educational foundations in teacher education programs has been firmly established for many years. The fields of psychology and the social sciences have burgeoned, with a variety of theoretical perspectives within each discipline: for example, the humanist, cognitive, and behavioral theories in psychology. These have greatly illuminated the complexities of teaching individuals and groups in school settings, and scholars frequently argue for more attention in teacher education programs to their own fields (e.g. Warren, 1971). Yet the foundations are a subject of controversy, centering on questions reiterated by Clinefelter (1979). Do the

educational foundations belong in education departments or in their disciplines ? Are their faculty teacher educators or scholars ? Should courses focus on conveying the discipline or its application in teaching ? Foundations faculty members have found themselves out of the main stream of their discipline yet criticized by students and education faculty for courses with little direct relationship to the daily problems and constraints of teaching (Nash, Shiman, & Conrad, 1977).

There have been some moves within educational psychology towards relating it to other aspects of professional education. The National Survey of the Preservice preparation of Teachers (State of Teacher Education, 1977) revealed that in recent years the concepts taught in methods and foundations courses had been cordinated to a greater extent with skills required in field experiences had been increasingly fed back into the development of methods and foundations courses. Further, the educational psychology textbooks of the 1970 seemed to organize their content around classroom teaching needs (Clinefelter, 1979).

Models of Teacher Education Programs

Visions of what teacher education could and should be about. Some are based on a particular theoretical view about teaching and teacher education; others propose new and more effective means of accomplishing current goals.

Elementary Models Programme:

A major teacher education curriculum reform program, the Elementary Models Program, was supported by the Bureau of Research of the U.S. Office of Education. In 1969, nine institutions were funded to design innovative teacher education programs for prospective elementary teachers. The following year, eight institutions (including seven of the original ones) developed implementation strategies. Although the original intent was to design and then test in practice each of the ten models, the second phase was never implemented. Copies of the models were distributed widely, however, and the directors were commissioned to work with institutions interested in implementing parts of them. The models program was widely discussed, described, and analyzed (Burdin & Lanzillotti, 1969; Cruickshank, 1970a, 1970b; Fattu, 1968; LeBaron, 1970, Rosenshine, 1971; Silberman & Kooi, 1969; Boerrigter, 1970; Stauffer & Deal, 1969). Its basic ideas permeated teacher education programs, their content, and their approach.

The proposed models had several elements in common (Joyce, 1972). Teachers were viewed as clinicians (in the medical sense, applied behavioral scientists, and members of a cooperative team. The models assumed that teacher competencies and behaviors could be defined, and programs were proposed to teach mastery of the objectives largely through modularized instruction. All relied on the use of simulation laboratories and proposed long periods of training on preservice-in-service continuum.

Each emerged with a somewhat different focus, Joyce (1972) capsulated the character of each:

Florida State University	teacher as instructional manager
University of Georgia	teacher education based on objectives of elementary education.
University of Massachusetts	teacher education composed of human relations, teaching skills, and content
Michigan State University	teacher as behavioral scientist
North-West Regional Educational Laboratory	teacher as producer of learning
University of Pittsburgh	teacher as individualizer of instruction.
Syracuse University	teaching cycle as intent, action gaining feedback modification.
Teachers College, Columbia University	Teacher as innovator
University of Toledo	teacher as a team member

The University of Wisconsin model conceived of the teacher as part of a future-oriented, elementary instructional system.

Smith proposed a teacher training complex created jointly by schools, colleges, community, and public agencies. The complex would enjoy and pay young people to serve as pupils for the

prospective teacher's skill practice. Student teaching would be abolished in favour of a paid internship in which the trainee would receive close supervision of a school teacher while gradually assuming a full teaching load.

Competency-based Teacher Education:

A movement called "Competency-based teacher education" (CBTE) or "performance-based teacher education" (PBTE) emerged during the late 1960s that galvanized education to action and led to vigorous debate on its merits. PBRE-CBTE was based on the assumptions that the content of teacher education programs should be derived from the actual or conceptual role of teachers, that requirements should be stated as explicit objectives, that instruction and assessment in the teacher education programme would be linked linked directly to objectives, and that student progress would be determined by demonstration of objectives.

The movement was launched through the Elementary Models Program; however, its emphasis on pragmatism was embedded in the American social fabric. It drew part of its rationale from research on incidental-international learning in psychology (Duchastel & Merrill, 1973) and from mastery learning (Block & Burns, 1977). The movement was criticized as being behaviorally oriented and lacking humanistic principles (Nash, 1973); lacking intellectual power (Broudy, 1972); assuming that knowledge is divisible and can be taught in separate units, then integrated in practice; and encouraging the mechanistic assumption that knowledge is specific and

behaviorally measurably, not sometimes tentative and unformulated (McIntyre, 1974).

CBTE programs were studied at the University of Nebraska (Sybouts, 1976), San Diego State University (Smith & Nagel, 1979), the University of Houston (Houston & Jones, 1974), and the University of Toledo (Dickson, 1979). A study at Illinois State University found that although graduates of the program were able to outperform graduates of the conventional program, the extent of their enhanced peformance was not statistically significant (Wiseman, 1974). In a comparison of CBTE students at San Diego State University with students in the regular program, Enos (1976) found that the CBTE students had significantly greater knowledge about teaching and learning, significantly better verbal interaction with childredn, significantly greater use of individualized instruction, and significantly higher ratings of their performance by children they taught.

The CBTE-PBTE movement led to the development of written statements of explicit objectives in 60 percent of teacher education programs (Howey, Yarger, & Joyce, 1978). Five types of objectives were identified in PBTE-CBTE programs.

In cognitive based objectives, the participant is expected to demonstrate knowledge and intellectual abilities and skills. In performance based objectives, the participant is required to do something rather than simply to know something. While contingent on knowledge, peformance based objectives put the

emphasis on observable action. In consequence based objectives, the participant is required to bring about change in others a prospective teacher's ability to teach is assessed by examining the achievements of students he instructs. In CBE (Competency based education), greater emphasis is placed on performance based and consequence based objectives than on cognitive based objectives.. ..Objectives in the affective demain are embedded in all other classes of objectives... The fifth type, exploratory objectives, does not completely fit within the classification of objectives, since the ....outcome are not precisely defined; rather, activities that hold promise for significant learning are specified (Houston, 1974).

Personalized Education for Teachers:

Developed in the 1960s by Frances Fuller and others at the Research and Development Centre for Teacher Education at the University of Texas, personalized education for teachers can be regarded as a complement to CBTE. Defined as education tailored to fit the personal needs and feelings of students (Fuller,1970), this conceptualization of teacher education was based on preservice teachers' wants and needs for their own preparation programs. In studies of teacher education students' concerns through their programs. Fuller and her colleagues found that students' satisfaction was higher when they were taught material that concerned them at the time. The concerns emerged in a fairly consistent pattern. At the first stage, preteaching concerns, students viewed classroom life through the eyes of a pupil and were often critical of the

teachers they observed. In the second stage, survival concerns, students wondered whether they would be able to perform the acts of teaching successfully. Teaching situation concerns, the third stage, were frustrations with the conditions of teaching-numbers of students, time pressures, instructional materials. At the fourth stage were concerns with pupil outcomes. Finally, the emerging teachers turned their attention more fully to evaluating the needs and learning of pupils (Fuller, 1970; Fuller & Bown, 1975).

Humanistic Teacher Education:

With a view that becoming a teacher is a process of learning to use one's self well, rather than acquiring a set of competencies, Combs and his colleagues (1974) implemented the University of Florida New Elementary Program. They viewed an effective teacher as one who is well informed; perceives other people as able to deal with their own problems; is friendly, worthy, internally motivated, dependable, and helpful has an adequate personality, is capable of sharing and self-disciplined, and is thoughtful about the purposes and methods of teaching. The teacher's self is the teaching "instrument", and the teacher education program develops that self by offering information and helping students discover the personal meaning of the information. "The effective professional worker is no longer regarded as a technician applying methods in a more or less mechanical fashion. We now see him as an intelligent human being using himself, his knowledge, and the resources at hand to solve the problems for which he is responsible. He is a person who has learned to use himself as an effective instrument".

Other humanistic programs from the past decade include Course B at Melbourne University in Australia (Dow, 1979), the Professional Year Program at Qweens College (Salz & Schwartzberg, 1980), and a proposal by Hunter (1980) for a "Collaborative, connected, completely organic, all natural teacher education Program". These programs all stressed the integration of campus with field experiences, with campus content usually growing out of the needs perceived by students in the field. The programs promote cohesiveness among students, faculty, and school personnel, on the assumption that the self-analysis and reflection that foster growth are nurtured in a supportive group.

Humanistic teacher education programs have been criticized for a failure to specify the behaviours of competent teachers. They have been accused of fuzzy thinking, lack of rigor, and failure to be systematic.

Extended Programs:

Driven by a wide range of motivations, teacher education programs requiring a fifth year have been tested for nearly fifty years. An early model, the Master of Arts in Teaching (MAT), was initiated in 1936 by President Conant at Harvard to prepare secondary teachers. Liberal arts graduates completed professional seminars, internships, and advanced study of their disciplines during the fifth year. Beginning in 1951, the Fund for the Advancement of Education supported the program so that the number of students at Harvard and elsewhere increased rapidly. Smith

(1969) criticized MAT programs for their lack of systematic training of teachers and their false assumption that first hand experience with pupils leads to more professional practice.

Michigan state University initiated that Elementary Intern Program (EIP) in 1959) for prospective elementary teachers. Liberal arts requirements were completed during the first two years of college and two summers. The third year was devoted to integrated professional studies and student teaching experiences. During the fourth year, the student was assigned as an intern responsible for an elementary classroom under the supervision of an intern consultant who worked full time with five interns. The intern was paid a stipend equivalent to two-thirds the beginning teacher salary and completed six semester hours of course work during the year. At the end of the fourth year, the student qualified for the bachelor's degree and teaching certificate. By 1969, there were eleven EIP centres in Michigan with resident professors from the University, EIP staffs, and about 500 students. A unique feature of the program was its financing of the internship. Whereas most other intership programs relied on external grant funds (and when they ceased, the program closed), EIP generated its funding within regularized sources. Each cooperating school district placed in a revolving account an amount equal to what would be paid to a beginning regularly certified teacher. The difference between what five interns were paid and what would have been paid to five regular first-year teachers was used to support the salary of an intern consultant.

Renewed call for extended programs emanated from the Bicentennial Commission on Education for the Profession of Teaching (Denemark & Nutter, 1980; Howsam et al, 1976), but the rationale was different. In the extended programs of the 1940s, 1950s, and 1960s, the purpose was to encourage liberal arts graduates to enter teaching-it was to seek out and attract qualified persons as teachers in a time of critical shortage. The movement in the late 1970s was bolstered by the need for a more extensive training program to accomodate adequate professional and liberal education study.

The extended program at the University of Kansas provides an example of a program based on the latter need (Scannell & Guenther, 1981). Students completed 105 hours of general education and teaching-field content and 55 hours of professional education in the five-year program. Students earned a baccalaureate degree after four years, but teaching certification was not granted until the end of the fifth year. Designers agreed the program should "facilitate a gradual, systematic, and guided induction into the profession of teaching, and that the relation of theory to practice in the program should be ovious and radily understandable by all". As with most extended programs, the model required careful articulation of university-based and school-based experiences. Kansas, in their program design, first focused on what the school experiences were to accomplish, then integrated university experiences into the program.

The investment in both fundamental and applied research in teacher education continues to be meager. Clark and Guba (1976) found in a national study that although 54 percent of SCDE faculty were interested in research, only 6 percent spent more than ten hours per week in research-related activities.

Further, more than half of this time was devoted either to developmental activities or to research outside teacher education.

McDonald (1977) charged that, for two reasons, research has rarely influenced teacher education programs. First, only occasionally has research been a part of program development. Internships, for example, were promoted as effective ways to intensify and extend classroom teaching, yet fifteen years after they were heralded as full of primise, few data on their effectiveness have been collected. Second, when studies have been conducted results have not been used to redesign programs. Popkewitz, Tabachnick, and Zeichner (1979) argued that the research that has been conducted is too narrow in focus or methodology, limiting the opportunity to consider the complex social inter-relationships in teacher preparation.

For assessing teacher effectiveness and determining teacher education content (Gage, 1978; Medley, 1977) and others have noted the massive number of variables influencing pupil learning but uncontrollable by the teacher. They press for judging teacher

effectiveness by the way teachers use theory and research in making decisions. Thus, one group of researchers seeks the answer in the consequences of the teaching act, while the second examines the act itself. Yet others assess teachers according to some conceptual model (e.g. Plato, systems theory, self-actualized persons, pragmatism). The work of Joyce and Weil (1972) in identifying sixteen models of teaching was useful in classifying one aspect of the more general problem.

Smith (1980) pointed out the absence of common beliefs as one of the most baffling and stubborn constraints to a valid knowledge base. "Professors typically agree to tolerate their differences so long as each can go his or her own way, in the belief that these cleavages constitute the conditions of creativity and change" (p.88). A major problem in developing a comprehensive knowledge base on the lack of sets of systematic research studies. Until the profession has common terminology and a structurally and theoretically sound research base, major progress in teacher preparation will not be made. Bush (1977), however, concluded that we know, how to prepare teachers, that the existing knowledge base should be employed, and that processes for refining and extending that knowledge should be utilized.

During the past twenty-five years, extensive efforts have been made to reform teacher education programs. These have been shaped by high federal expenditures for development and trainee stipends, imbalance of teacher supply and demand, increased public

social consciousness, improved technology (television, computers, audiovisual materials), changing teacher population, and a diverse group of teacher preparation institutions. Research and evaluation often were less central than development, with waves of innovative practices washing across the educational landscape, leaving little trace of their value or effectiveness. Hall (1979), in summarizing a national conference on research and development in teacher education, speculated on needed research directions: "The overriding direction issues include the need for pluralism in terms of membership in teacher education research activities; and multidimensional topics, methodologies, institutions, role groups, and conceptual models for research. In very few areas of teacher education are there solid empirical findings or coherent concepts and theories to guide future research efforts. There is definite need for description, analysis, exploration, mapping, and theory-building" (Hall,1979).

The challenge to the profession is to harness its tremendous strength in developing a national agenda for improving teacher education. A basis for this already has been formed. The need is to study, speculate on, form and reform conceptualizations of preparation programs, test them in practice, and revise them for further tests.

Teacher education programs must be dynamic rather than static, and research must contribute to improved practice. As News week summarized the situation, "In a culture that constantly

demands more sophisticated knowledge just to hold a job, an educational system that isn't getting better fast is by definition getting worse" (cited in Williams, 1981). The statement is as ture for teacher education as for education in general.

STUDIES CONDUCTED ON INTEGRATED METHOD OF TEACHER TRAINING IN INDIA

The studies conducted on integral method of teacher training are very few. Rajput and Garewal (1979) made an attempt to study the placement of four year integrated courses students of the Regional College of Education, Bhopal. The sample consisted of 362 old students who had completed the four year courses. Out of the replies received, an analysis of 180 was done. This study concluded that majority of the four-year trainees were working as teacher. Out of the eighteen unemployed trainees only one was male, others were females, who ofcourse, had limitations of working away from home town. These trainees had a flair for teaching. They were evaluating themselves as good workers. These trainees were keenly interested in maintaining contract with the college. Garewal (1982) made scientific attempt to compare the vocational attitudes of students of four year integrated course and Senior Secondary School Students. Under this study it was concluded that the Vocational Attitude Scores (VAS) of the four year course language students were found to be lowest among the three groups, meaning thereby that they take more time to develop proper

vocational attitudes. Difference in VAS of four year science and language students were to be lowest among the three groups,meaning thereby that they take more time to develop proper vocational attitudes. Difference in VAS of four year science and language students was found to be significant (t= 14.96, dt = 67 p.01). The difference was in favour of the science student. Dowda (1964) made an attempt to compare the students of Kurukshetra Integrate Experimental Course with an equal number of trainees from Jullunder, Patiala, and Chandigarh training course. It was concluded that the trainees of integrated courses did better in theory and practical skill in teaching. Another study was conducted by the department of Education, Kurukshetra (1978), to compare the attainment both in professional and academic subjects of trainees of integrated courses with other graduates. This study revealed that the mean scores in the professional subjects of trainees of integrated courses with other graduates. This study revealed that the mean scores in the professional subjects of trainees of integrated course was a little higher than that of the ordinary trainees of one year B.Ed. courses. In the academic subjects also, the trainees of integrated course showed a little higher mean scores than ordinary trainee graduates in the University. Department of Education Kurukshetra (1978), compared the scores of concurrent groups (four year integrated course) of 1964 to 1968 with the successive groups (B.Ed. one year course) of 1968. This study revealed that the successive group scored higher than the concurrent group. Scores in Psychology and Health Education reveals that the successive groups scored higher than the concurrent groups. In general methods teaching, crafts and practical skill in teaching, the concurrent groups scored higher than the successive groups. On the

whole, the findings of the study are that performance of the students of the concurrent groups are better than that of the one year B.Ed. students of the successive course.

Colella (1974) has compared the attitudes and behaviour of recent graduates of the experimental teacher education model and traditional teacher education model of Seton Hall University in order to define the extent to which the common goals of these programmes had been accomplished. The six common goals involved development :

i. An attitude of affection and sympathetic understanding towards children,

ii. Positive attitude toward one's self and one's children,

iii. Effective classroom teaching-behaviours.

iv. Personal qualities,

v. Professional relationships and,

vi. Effective classroom verbal behaviours. The extent to which these goals were accomplished was determined through,

1. Teachers attitude towards children and the learning process,
2. Teachers self ratings of their behaviours concerning classroom, teaching; personal qualities and professional relationships and,

3. Trained observer's rating of teachers' class room verbal behaviours. The study also attempted to determine whether significant inter-relationships existed among the self-rating, principals' rating and trained observers' ratings.

The subjects of this study included 35 first year teachers graduated from the experimental model and 35 first year teachers graduated from the traditional model. From these 70 graduates, a 100 percent return was obtained. The instrument employed to measure the attitudes of the experimental and traditional graduates was the MTAI. The behaviours of the experimental and traditional graduates were measured by the appraisal of teacher service and the flanders system of interaction analysis. The appraisal of teacher service, a rating scale completed by the recent graduates and their principals, consisted of 36 items divided into three areas namely, classroom teaching, personal qualities and professional relationships. The FSIA consisted of ten categories and was used to record the verbal interaction of teachers and pupils within the classroom One way classification analysis of variance was employed to test for significant difference between the means of the responses of the experimental and traditional graduates, principals and trained observers with respect to select attitudes and behaviours. To determine the inter-relationships among the attitudes and behaviours of the experimental and traditional graudates, Pearson Product moment correlation coefficients were calculated.

It was found that the majority of experimental graduates reflected critical positive attitude towards teaching and the majority of traditional graduates reflected critical, authoritarian attitudes. Comparisions between the means scores of the experimental graduates were higher than those of traditional graduate.

Comparison between the means of the instances of indirect teacher talk, direct teachers talk, total teacher talk and student talk of experimental and traditional graduates revealed significant differences. The means of the indirect teacher talk and student talk were higher for experimental graduates and the means of direct teacher talk were higher for traditional graduates. No significant differences differences existed between the means of the instances of total talk.

Significant, positive and substantial relationships existed between experiemental graduates attitudes and self-rated classroom teaching behaviour.

Significant positive and substantial relationships existed between traditional graduates self-rated and principal rated behaviours. It was concluded that the experimental model attained a higher degree of success among its graduates than the traditional model in developing the common goals of the programmes.